Brown's Legacy Then and Now: Race and Law School Admissions Debates Continue after Nearly 70 Years

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This December 1938 photo shows Lloyd Gaines, a young African-American, who applied to the University of Missouri's law school and was denied admission. He carried his case to the Supreme Court, and in its decision the High Court ruled that Gaines was to be admitted into the MU institution.

Next month marks the 50th anniversary of the landmark desegregation case, Brown v. Board of Education. Although this case represents a major victory in the battle for civil rights, the struggle against racism in education began some 20 years prior to Brown.

During the 1930s and 1940s, at least seven African-American law school candidates aggressively challenged the unequal treatment of minority applicants in state courts, some eventually reaching the U.S. Supreme Court. Early successes in these cases led to the more sweeping Brown decision, which then contributed to further law school admission policy reform.

Discussion about the role of race in higher education admission policies persists today, with cases challenging affirmative action and racial quotas continuing the nearly 70-year debate.

Law School Pre-Brown
Long before Brown, a number of minorities sought court intervention to challenge law school admission practices. In what became Justice Thurgood Marshall's first major civil rights victory, the NAACP Legal Defense Fund tested a strategy to open the doors of mainstream law schools to African-Americans in a state court case brought against the University of Maryland Law School. In Murray v. Maryland (169 Md. 478, 182 A. 590 (1936)), the Maryland Court of Appeals upheld a writ of mandamus issued by a lower court compelling the University of Maryland to admit Donald Murray, a qualified law school applicant who was denied admission solely on the basis of his race. The court found that no other law school of equal measure existed in Maryland for blacks to attend and determined that it could not mandate the creation of a new school. Thus, the court found that Murray's admission into the University of Maryland law school was properly mandated.

In 1935, Lloyd Gaines, an African-American, was refused admission to the School of Law at the State University of Missouri. When Gaines applied for admission, Missouri, which did not have a law school that admitted African-Americans, had a policy of providing tuition and fees for attendance at out-of-state schools to qualified African-American applicants. The Supreme Court found that this practice violated the Plessy v. Ferguson (163 U.S. 537 (1896)) standard of "separate but equal." Gaines was entitled to attend law school in Missouri; forcing him to leave the state to pursue a law degree violated his rights under the Equal Protection Clause of the U.S. Constitution. Incidentally, Gaines never enrolled in the law school at Missouri; after the favorable decision, he disappeared and was never heard from again.

As a result of the decision in Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada (305 U.S. 337 (1938)), the Lincoln University School of Law was created. Lincoln admitted 34 black students per year for four years until it closed due to lack of students during World War II. Before the advent of war, schools like Lincoln graduated thousands of minority students.

Many of the schools created to provide separate facilities were not nearly as successful as Lincoln. Ten years after Gaines, Ada Lois Sipuel, also represented by Thurgood Marshall, was granted a seat at the Langston University School of Law, a new Oklahoma school created under the Gaines standard solely for Sipuel. However, in Sipuel v. Oklahoma State Regents (322 U.S. 631 (1948)), the equality requirement of the "separate but equal" standard was found lacking. In 1949, after remand by the Supreme Court and further litigation, Sipuel became the first African-American woman to attend and graduate from a white majority law school in the South.

Two years after the Sipuel decision, the Supreme Court determined that the treatment received by Sipuel should be the law of the land. In Sweatt v. Painter (339 U.S. 629 (1950)), a Texas case, it was found that the provision of equal educational opportunities was not likely to result from attendance at law schools created solely in
response to admission denials to minority applicants in mainstream schools.

The law school created in Texas as a consequence of the Sweatt controversy, the Texas Southern University Thurgood Marshall School of Law, had an inadequate faculty, insufficient library volumes, and no other students. (Today, however, it is a reputable school with a 35 percent increase in applications, according to its latest annual report.) Thus, the Supreme Court found admission into the newly developed school did not adequately protect Sweatt’s constitutional rights.

At the same time the Sweatt and Sipuel controversies were brewing, similar lawsuits were filed in North Carolina (Fisher v. Hurst, 333 U.S. 147 (1948)), Tennessee (Gary v. University of Tennessee, 97 F. Supp. 463 (D. Tenn. 1951)), and Florida (Hawkins v. Board of Control of Florida et al., 350 U.S. 413 (1956)). Nowhere is the effect of Brown on law school admissions cases more evident than in the Florida case.

**Virgil Hawkins’ Story**

In 1949, Virgil Hawkins and four others submitted applications to attend the University of Florida’s law school but were denied. Though his co-applicants either chose to seek legal education outside the state or not at all, Hawkins decided to fight, using the precedent set by Gaines. In blatant disregard of the Gaines decision, the Florida courts denied Hawkins admission into the University of Florida in State ex rel. Hawkins v Board of Control of Florida et al. (47 So. 2d 608, 1950 Fla). The court said Hawkins could either attend law school outside the state at the state’s expense or he could attend a law school created solely for his attendance at Florida A&M University, a predominantly black college.

Hawkins’ claim eventually reached the U.S. Supreme Court, where a decision in the case was put on hold to allow for the more pressing decision in Brown, which the court anticipated would provide some direction in the Hawkins case. One week after the Brown decision, the court directed that the Florida courts review Hawkins in light of the Brown decision.

The Florida courts, however, used the opinion in the implementation phase of Brown, referred to as Brown II (349 U.S. 295 (1955)), to prevent Hawkins enrollment at the University of Florida. The Florida Supreme Court circumvented the U.S. Supreme Court’s clear implication that Hawkins should be admitted under the Brown standard by arguing that implementation under Brown II could not be successful until there had been a change in the racial climate in Florida.

In 1956 the U.S. Supreme Court expressly directed that Hawkins, as a qualified applicant, was entitled to be admitted to the University of Florida. The court, relying on the decisions in Sweatt and Sipuel, wrote:

> "I don’t think it was [merely] fortuitous that the law school at UNC was ready for me in 1972. These were people who had read, studied, and understood Brown."

—Charles Daye, the first African-American tenure-track professor at the University of North Carolina

As this case involves the admission of a Negro to a graduate professional school, there is no reason for delay. He is entitled to prompt admission under the rules and regulations applicable to other qualified candidates (Florida ex rel. Hawkins v. Board of Control of Florida et al., 350 U.S. 413). In response, the university changed the admissions standards at the law school so that Hawkins, on his original application, was no longer qualified for admission. Hawkins ended his battle upon the agreement that other minorities with the newly determined qualifications would be granted admission into the law school. The University of

**Further Reading**

For additional historical information and discussion of the cases examined in this article, consult the following titles.


Florida College of Law graduated its first African-American student, George Allen, in 1962.

The Practical Effects of Brown
It took many years for southern African-Americans to feel the full effect of Brown. In 1972, Charles Edward Daye became the first African-American tenure-track professor at the University of North Carolina (UNC). Daye recalls that the impact of the Brown decision, made when he was just 10 years old, was not immediately apparent. In fact, 12 years later, he graduated from what was still an "all-black county school," he said, in Durham, North Carolina.

The Brown mandate, that integration happen with "all deliberate speed," seemed to creep along in Durham, leading Daye and his contemporaries to wonder whether their lives had been impacted by Brown at all. Nevertheless, Daye later realized that he is indeed a direct beneficiary of Brown. In fact, Daye was inspired to become a lawyer during a speech about the implementation of Brown given by North Carolina attorney and civil rights leader Floyd McKissick.

Daye also credits Brown for his acceptance at UNC, though almost 20 years after the decision. "I don't think it was [merely] fortuitous that the law school at UNC was ready for me in 1972," Daye said. "These were people who had read, studied, and understood Brown," and in that climate of awareness, Daye made a professional home that he still enjoys today.

Like Daye, Professor Mildred W. Robinson of the University of Virginia School of Law never experienced a desegregated education as a child growing up in South Carolina. However, she is keenly aware of Brown's centrality in her life. "Simply put, Brown set in motion the events that have permitted me to enjoy personal and professional experiences and opportunities that would otherwise have certainly been unavailable because of segregation," she said.

The Legacy of Brown in Law School Education

As descendents of Brown, affirmative action and racial quota cases have replaced desegregation lawsuits in recent years. Affirmative action in higher education was addressed in a 1977 case, University of California Regents v. Bakke (438 U.S. 265 (1978)), brought by a rejected white applicant to the medical school at the University of California at Davis. Bakke argued that the school's practice of setting aside 16 of 100 slots for minority students was unconstitutional. In six opinions, the U.S. Supreme Court clearly decided that racial quotas, such as that used at Davis, were unconstitutional. But the court not so clearly determined that race could be a factor considered in graduate school admissions. The decision left little direction for the creation of diversity-promoting policies that would not violate the Constitution.

Though the percentage of minority applicants who were admitted to law schools across the nation began to increase after the Bakke decision, peaking in the mid-1980s, those numbers leveled off between 1992 and 2000. In 2000 underrepresented minorities made up less than 2 percent of law school admissions, according to statistics compiled by William C. Kidder in the Harvard BlackLetter Journal.

In 2003, the U.S. Supreme Court determined that the University of Michigan School of Law could continue to consider race as a factor in its individual evaluation of law school applicants. The case, Grutter v. Bollinger, was likely granted certiorari for two reasons. First, federal appellate courts sitting in two states, Washington and Texas, had issued diametrically opposed opinions on the issue raised in Grutter.

In Hopwood v. Texas (78 F.3d 932 (CA5 1996)), the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals determined that diversity was not a compelling governmental interest. The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals in Smith v. University of Washington Law School (233 F.3d 1188 (CA9 2000)), however, determined that it was.

Second, university admissions officers had repeatedly, since Bakke, complained that the standards set out in that case were too ambiguous to apply. Legal scholars continue to question whether the court provided any guidance on the issue of university admissions at all in Bakke.

In Grutter, Justice Sandra Day O'Connor determined that exposure to a diverse student body benefited not only minority law students, but all law students. O'Connor recognized education, under the decision in Brown, as the "cornerstone of good citizenship." And as the "training ground for a large number of our Nation's leaders," law schools must embrace diversity if they are to reflect society, she wrote.

The Michigan law school admissions policy was created after the Bakke decision to help enroll a "critical mass of underrepresented minority students," according to Grutter testimony. By considering the whole applicant as an individual—not to the exclusion of his or her race—the Michigan plan sought to make allowances for factors that minority students continue to face, such as attendance at inferior high schools and other deficient educational opportunities. The law school, which had long been a proponent of legal education for minorities, enrolling up to 10 times the national average of students from underrepresented minority groups, was permitted to continue its plan to successfully provide minority students with a highly distinguished legal education.

When it passed legislation to permit the establishment of two new law schools in 2002, Florida demonstrated that it was no longer the same state that had fought to deny Virgil Hawkins a legal education. Despite resistance from the Florida Bar and an initial rejection by the State Board of Regents, Florida International University opened the doors of its law school in 2003. Also, Florida A&M University, the law school created for Virgil Hawkins, was reopened more than 50 years after it abruptly closed in favor of
creating a new Florida State University law school.

Though both Florida schools admit applicants regardless of race, it was well understood that providing legal education to African-Americans and Latin Americans, both underrepresented groups in the Florida Bar, is the primary goal. Between 1981 and 1991, only 4 percent of the graduates of Florida's public law schools were Hispanic and 4 percent were African-American, according to the Florida Senate Committee on Education.

Professor Taunya Banks now teaches at the University of Maryland where the law school admissions cases began. Banks recalls the excitement expressed by her aunt when she accepted a position in 1989. “I remember when we couldn't go there, and now you teach there,” Banks quoted her aunt. The comment emphasized for Banks the immense amount of progress that was made during her parents' and her own lifetimes.

Though not a product of the Brown generation, I too am reminded every day of the case's effects. My educational and professional careers have been and continue to be full of possibilities that would never have presented themselves without the battles won by Donald Murray, Lloyd Gaines, Ada Lois Sipuel, Virgil Hawkins, the primary and secondary school litigants from Brown, and all those who followed the paths paved by those brave people.

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**announcements**

**Committee Awards AALL/Aspen Publishers Research Grants**

The AALL Research Committee has awarded two AALL/Aspen Publishers Research Grants worth $3,650, one to a project that highlights the emotional intelligence of law librarians and another that examines Washington State constitutional history.

Kelly Browne, head of reference at the University of Connecticut Law Library, received a $3,000 grant for her project, “The Emotional Intelligence of Law Librarians.” Studies have shown that emotional intelligence is not only the most important factor in being successful in life, but also that certain patterns of the 13 qualities that make up your “EQ” contribute to success in specific career areas. Browne will survey a sample of law librarians in order to gauge their EQ. The data will then be analyzed and used as successful position profiles for various law librarian positions in different types of law libraries. This project is a follow-up to Browne's well-received “Maximize Career Success by Evaluating ‘Emotional Intelligence’” program at the AALL Annual Meeting in Seattle in July 2003.

Kelly Kunsch, reference librarian at the University of Washington, will use his $650 grant to conduct research on constitutional history at the Washington State Archives in Pullman. His initial research has indicated that there may be certain documents related to Washington State's legal history that merit further research and explication. Kunsch will also investigate a related unpublished manuscript and notes for a book by Arthur Beardsley, law librarian at the University of Washington (prior to Marian Gallagher) and AALL President, 1939-1940.

The AALL/Aspen Publishers Research Grant Program is intended to promote research and remove obstacles to project completion caused by tight operating budgets. The grants may be used for expenses such as research assistants, photocopying, data entry, and research-related travel.

The AALL/Aspen Publishers Research Grant Program was made possible with a generous $50,000 contribution in 1996 from Aspen Publishers, a New York-based legal publisher. The company views its contribution as an investment in research that will provide a prospective look at the role of librarians, researchers, and legal information providers and will yield results to which publishers can respond. Aspen's goal is to sponsor research that will have a practical impact on the law library profession and inspire products and changes in the marketplace.

The AALL Research Committee, AALL, and its corporate partner Aspen Publishers congratulate this year's grant recipients.

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**professional development calendar**

**PDC Desktop Learning Opportunity Series (AALL Spectrum)**

- “Blogs for the Law Library” by Roy Balleste, May 2004

For more information about Professional Development Program activities, please visit www.aallnet.org/prodev.

AALL recognizes major support from BNA, Inc. for the Professional Development Program.