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and Employment Discrimination.pdf

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Comparing Remedies for School Desegregation and Employment Discrimination: Can Employers Now Help Schools?

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I. INTRODUCTION

Ten years after the Supreme Court decided Brown v. Board of Education,¹ now a symbol of the beginning of the end of racial discrimination, Congress passed Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.² Title VII opened the workplace to all races and women in ways that had not previously existed. While discrimination in the workplace has not disappeared in the forty years since Title VII's enactment, one sees minorities and women in a greater variety of jobs, and at higher levels,³ than one would have seen a generation ago.⁴

The promise of Brown, however, has not been achieved.⁵ When one looks at public schools fifty years after Brown, a great number are still racially segregated, and those whose populations are made up primarily of minorities are often impoverished.⁶ Both Brown and Title VII identified the right to be free from discrimination, but that right was not self implementing. Eliminating discrimination required, and requires, effective remedies.

This Article compares and contrasts the lack of success in desegregating the schools with the greater success in eliminating discrimination from the workplace and suggests that the workplace and schoolhouse can act together for the benefit of both. Part II theorizes that Brown might, in

₄. See Derrick Bell, Silent Covenants: Brown v. Board of Education and the Unfulfilled Hopes for Racial Reform 139 (2004) (noting that even six years after passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 most institutions were predominantly composed of white males).
₆. See Bell, supra note 4, at 114, 127–29 (stating that schools and neighborhoods, particularly inner urban and rural, tend to be more segregated and worse off than before Brown).
hindsight, have been more successfully implemented and demonstrates why what might have been done earlier probably would not work today. Part III compares the plight of students who have not been helped by Brown with the plight of working parents whose family demands have kept them from sharing fully in the promise of Title VII. It suggests, given the greater success of racial integration in the workplace than in the schoolhouse, that the workplace and schoolhouse might work together to benefit both.

II. DESEGREGATION DILEMMA

A. History

In 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court held that governments violated the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution when they required schools to be segregated by race, even if the schools had equal resources, which in reality they rarely, if ever, had. To overrule Plessy v. Ferguson, the Court relied on findings by trial courts, whose cases were consolidated in Brown, that the schools were separate but being equalized. Plessy had held, in the context of seating on railway carriages, that separate but equal facilities for blacks and whites satisfied the demands of equal protection. A year after the Court in Brown overruled Plessy, it reviewed the remedial portion of the cases and ordered desegregation with "all deliberate speed."

Desegregation orders by district courts implementing Brown were resisted and defied. In the new era of television, people around the nation and the world saw the ugly resistance and defiance, and the often
violent mistreatment of blacks by whites.14 Against this background of
discrimination, and following the command of equality articulated by
Brown, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964.15 Title VII of that
Act prohibited employers and unions from discriminating against
employees because of “race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.”16

Even after the passage of Title VII, courts were still struggling with
how to desegregate the schools despite the fact that the Act had included
Title VI, which prohibited institutions, including schools, that received
federal funds from discriminating on the basis of race.17 Title VI did not
provide a structure for desegregating schools; rather, it provided that
federal funds would be withdrawn from institutions that discriminated.18
Title VII provided a detailed approach for ending discrimination in the
workplace.

The major affirmative remedy under Title VII was “reinstatement or
hiring” of employees discriminated against.19 Although school districts
differed in substantial ways from employers, courts attempted a type of
“instatement” remedy, inclusion of black students into white schools.
Although faced with delaying tactics by states and school districts,20
some trial courts ordered administrators of previously all white public
schools to admit a few black students.21 Those courts, however, did not

14. See Bell, supra note 4, at 134 (listing the types of abuse covered by television
journalists).
15. See id. at 135–36 (describing differing views as to whether the Civil Rights
Act was enacted because of Brown or would have been enacted in any event at that
time).
18. Id. § 2000d-1(1). In the years following passage of the Civil Rights Act of
1964, regulations giving guidance for desegregation were promulgated pursuant both to
Title VI, 29 U.S.C., and congressional acts that provided school funding. The guidance
was not explicitly provided in the congressional statutes. See Neal Devins & James B.
Stedman, New Federalism in Education: The Meaning of the Chicago School Desegregation
Title VI and various education funding statutes).
20. See Robert J. Cottrol et al., Brown v. Board of Education: Caste,
by school boards to delay implementation of desegregation); Bell, supra note 4, at 96,
212–13 & n.4 (describing delays from procedural issues raised in courts).
(ordering school district to admit six black children to white school); Cooper v. Aaron,
358 U.S. 1, 5, 14 (1958) (affirming court order to require white high school in Little
Rock, Arkansas to admit a few black students); see also Bell, supra note 4, at 95
(describing resistance to admission of black students into white high school in Little
Rock, Arkansas by governor of Arkansas); cf. Steiner v. Simmons, 111 A.2d 574, 579
(Del. 1955) (holding, in a case prior to the decision of Brown II, that school board
exceeded its authority in ordering black students be admitted to white schools because
the U.S. Supreme Court in Brown I had not yet ordered desegregation).
deal first with the reality that the segregated schools were separate and unequal.\textsuperscript{22}

Although Title VII and \textit{Brown} both had the goal of ending discrimination, employers and schools have different functions. Employers can choose among applicants and hire those needed for the work. Public schools, on the other hand, educate everyone. Thus, unlike school systems, most employers did not need to maintain separate but equal establishments to discriminate. Employers could just exclude those whom they did not want. At the time of \textit{Brown}, in areas that permitted or required segregation, there were slots for blacks in black schools and whites in white schools. If those schools really had been separate but equal, as the Supreme Court had assumed, courts might have been able to desegregate schools by having a number of students trade places, sending some black students to white schools and some white students to black schools, especially in areas where the white and black schools were close together. In many places, while public schools were segregated, neighborhoods were somewhat integrated.\textsuperscript{23}

Schools did not exchange students, however.\textsuperscript{24} Whether such an exchange would have worked will never be known, as the schools were not equal. While there were many talented and dedicated black teachers, the schools were seriously underfunded and lacked facilities and supplies.\textsuperscript{25} Because schools were unequal, large numbers of students could not immediately be integrated. With only a few black students initially transferred to white schools, whites had safety in numbers while

\textsuperscript{22} The trial courts in three of the four cases consolidated in \textit{Brown} had issued "equalization" orders to improve the black schools. \textit{See Brown I}, 347 U.S. 483, 486 n.1 (1954).

\textsuperscript{23} \textit{See}, e.g., \textit{Adams}, 232 F. Supp. at 698 (ordering school district to enroll black students in "the white schools to which they would be entitled as a white child living in the same school zone"); \textit{see also Bell, supra} note 4, at 90–91 (describing courts' approval, prior to \textit{Brown}, of sending black students to black schools further from their homes than white schools).

\textsuperscript{24} \textit{See}, for example, \textit{Norwalk Core v. Norwalk Board of Education}, 423 F.2d 121 (2d Cir. 1970), in which the court affirmed denial of a temporary restraining order to close all black school pending outcome of plaintiff's motion to have black and white children exchanged between black and white schools. The court further refused to overturn the school board's decision in a voluntary desegregation plan to close the minority school in an underprivileged area despite plaintiffs' claim that closing the school and not busing children into it as well as out of it denied them equal protection because the school board was doing the best it could with existing resources. \textit{Id.} at 122, 124.

\textsuperscript{25} \textit{See Bell, supra} note 4, at 124–25 (describing talent of teachers but disparities in school budgets).
a few black students had to bear the brunt of taunts and threats. Thus, courts ignored the racially separated schools' inequality at the peril of integration, illustrating that assumptions in a liability phase should not necessarily be carried into the remedial phase.

In hindsight, the courts might have tried a two-step remedy: courts might have first chosen to enforce the equality in "separate but equal," and second ordered elimination of the "separate." How long the time between the two orders should have been, one year or a generation, is only a subject of debate, as this, too, did not occur. The justices who decided Brown, however, did not have the benefit of hindsight. Because an order to equalize the black and white schools would most likely have been viewed as a decision to delay or even obstruct desegregation, it was probably unavailable. If resources had been used to improve previously neglected black schools before desegregation, exchanging students between black and white schools might have been easier than sending a few black students to white schools. Of course, hostility toward the idea of putting black and white children in the same school would have still been an enormous impediment. For example, county officials in Prince Edward County, Virginia, ordered the schools closed rather than have black and white children educated together.

In the employment field, the timing of Congressional legislation provides a picture of a brief "separate but equal" period. One year before Congress passed Title VII, it passed the Equal Pay Act. That Act requires employers to pay women and men alike if both do the same work. Thus, the pay inequities between the sexes were addressed before the barriers to jobs were eliminated by Title VII. One can roughly analogize correcting unequal pay disparities with correcting school disparities before eliminating barriers to entry. Of course, the pay inequities were not corrected in a year, nor are they yet corrected,

26. See generally COTTROL ET AL., supra note 20, at 195 (describing marshals escorting four black girls to elementary school amidst taunts and threats).
27. See generally BELL, supra note 4, at 27 (writing an alternative opinion to Brown directing resources to black schools to enforce Plessy, but acknowledging that such an opinion at the time would have been "condemned").
28. See Gewirtz, supra note 13, at 652–53 (suggesting, before Jenkins was decided, that improving schools might decrease white resistance to desegregation).
31. During World War II, a temporary Labor Board prohibited wage differentials based on race. See BELL, supra note 4, at 132–33.
but men knew (and know) that they would not be penalized by the improvement of women’s salaries because the Act prohibited employers from reducing any salaries to equalize pay.\(^{32}\) Similarly, *Brown* might have ordered disparities between schools to be remedied, and then ordered that segregation be eliminated, with the idea that no student transferred would be disadvantaged by the transfer. Ironically, years after *Brown* was decided, courts did order that disparities among schools be remedied, but times and neighborhoods had changed, and that remedy was too late.

In recent years, some school districts that were under court orders for having unconstitutionally segregated schools have been permitted to terminate judicial supervision. It is not necessary for those school districts to prove that desegregation has been eliminated, but to show a good faith effort to do what they could to eliminate segregation.\(^{33}\) The effects of “white flight” were held to be beyond the control of the courts.\(^{34}\)

**B. Separate But Equal Too Late**

1. *White Flight*

In *Missouri v. Jenkins*, the trial judge ordered, over the course of a number of years, that the Kansas City school system make major improvements.\(^{35}\) These remedies were necessary, the court held, to eliminate the vestiges of unconstitutional segregation and to attract back nonminority students whose parents had fled to the suburbs or enrolled them in private schools.\(^{36}\) The judge noted the difficulty of desegregating a district that was 68.3% black,\(^{37}\) but was unable to order that students in the suburbs be exchanged with those who remained in Kansas City.


\(^{34}\) *Dowell*, 498 U.S. at 250 n.2 (noting that the district court had found residential segregation not to be a vestige of prior school desegregation).


\(^{36}\) Id. at 74, 76–77.

\(^{37}\) Id. at 76.
because of the Supreme Court’s decision in *Milliken v. Bradley.* In *Milliken,* the Court invalidated a city-suburban student exchange remedy in Detroit, holding that the remedy for segregation could not go beyond the city’s political boundaries unless the outlying political subdivisions had also been responsible for the unconstitutional desegregation.

Because the suburbs around Detroit had not discriminated, the Court reasoned that they could not be included in the remedy. The judge in *Missouri v. Jenkins* had similarly found that the suburbs of Kansas City were not guilty of intentional discrimination.

*Missouri v. Jenkins* made three trips to the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court, in its third opinion, held that the ambitious remedy was beyond the scope of the constitutional violation. The existing segregation was no longer the result of state action, but rather was the result of housing patterns. Whites who could afford to move had fled to the suburbs or private schools to avoid the results of segregation. Presumably they fled not solely because of racial prejudice, but also because of concern about the quality of the public schools. Thus, the trial court in *Missouri v. Jenkins* had sought to alleviate that concern by trying to correct the effects of segregation and to recapture the whites who had fled. Had some of the previously black schools not been inferior to the white ones, perhaps some of the white flight to the suburbs would not have occurred. Once it had occurred, however, it was hard to reverse. Presumably it is easier to entice a family to stay put, than to entice one to return. Once a family has gone to the effort and expense of relocating, the family probably is not inclined to relocate again. And the family who did not move physically, but enrolled its children in private schools, probably does not want its children to change schools again. Had there been less white flight to the suburbs, desegregation might have been easier to achieve. Ironically, then, the remedy in *Missouri v. Jenkins* came too late.

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40. *Id.* at 752.
41. *Jenkins III,* 515 U.S. at 95.
43. *Jenkins III,* 515 U.S. at 94.
44. *Id.* at 94–95.
46. Cf. *Gewirtz,* *supra* note 13, at 652–53 (suggesting, before *Jenkins* was decided, that improving schools might decrease whites’ resistance to desegregation).
The Equal Pay Act required a number of private employers to increase women's wages.\textsuperscript{47} Thus, a type of private antidiscrimination "tax" was imposed. That tax was either passed on to consumers or taken out of employers' profits to compensate for past economic discrimination of women. If courts had ordered school districts to allocate resources to equalize black and white schools as a first step, the costs imposed also would have been an antidiscrimination tax. Public schools, however, do not have profits to trim or customers to absorb costs. Public schools rely on the levy of "real" taxes.

A generation before the judge in \textit{Missouri v. Jenkins} ordered the Kansas City public schools to be improved, courts enforcing \textit{Brown} ordered desegregation rather than improvements to neglected black schools.\textsuperscript{48} Had they ordered improvements, given the long period of neglect, the amount of money needed would probably have been enormous,\textsuperscript{49} as it was in \textit{Jenkins}.\textsuperscript{50} In hindsight, again, that amount might have been less than the costs caused by active opposition that followed desegregation orders\textsuperscript{51} and the costs of busing and other later orders.\textsuperscript{52} Of course the courts might have had to use their contempt powers had school boards refused to raise and allocate money to the neglected black schools.\textsuperscript{53} Failure to allocate resources in the past was.
one of the reasons the schools were inadequate in the first place. On the other hand, localities might have felt that they were buying time from desegregation orders and allocated the funds as the lesser of two evils. Perhaps, during the period of time that schools were improved, some attitudes about desegregation might have changed or opposition to integration might have lessened.

While transferring students between equally good schools might have been more palatable than sending a few black children to white schools, a case that reached the Supreme Court a decade after Brown illustrates how far school officials would go to avoid desegregation. In Griffin v. County School Board, school officials closed public schools rather than integrate them. The Supreme Court upheld the trial judge’s order to the officials to open the schools and levy taxes. A generation later, in Jenkins, the Supreme Court invalidated the trial judge’s order imposing taxes to pay for the ordered school improvement. Citing Griffin, the Court held that while federal courts have the power to order officials to levy taxes, the trial court in Jenkins abused its discretion by imposing a tax itself. Query whether the taxing order, like the improvement remedy, came too late.

3. Courts or Legislatures

Whether the local governments order a tax increase or whether a court imposes one relates to a more general question of the relationship between courts and legislatures. In comparing remedies for employment and educational discrimination, one notes that the employment remedies were enacted by Congress, while the desegregation remedies were ordered by courts. Although one would expect a constitutional right to education consistent with the equal protection clause to be enforced more vigorously than a statutory right to freedom from discrimination in both private and public workplaces, it may at times be the reverse.

54. See generally BELL, supra note 4, at 15 (describing disparities between funding for black and white schools).
57. Id. at 51-52, 55–56 (citing Griffin, 377 U.S. at 233 (upholding court order to county officials, who had closed the public schools rather than desegregate them and had contributed to the support of white private schools, to open public schools and raise taxes to support them)).
While there may not be universal support for a particular law, statutes are enacted pursuant to a democratic concept of elected officials following the will of the majority. In addition, statutes can be enacted after hearings, detailed study, and consideration of broad ramifications. Statutes can delineate a complex remedial scheme, phase in relief, and design specific penalties to deter disobedience.

Federal judicial decisions, however, are indirectly democratic. Federal judges are appointed by those who are elected, but then the judges and justices serve for life and their salaries cannot be reduced. Because judges are protected from reprisal, federal judges theoretically are able to reach conclusions that do not have majority support. Almost by definition, one area that might not have majority support is protection of minority rights. It becomes ironic that while one of the roles of the federal judiciary is to protect the rights of minorities, enforcement of those rights may depend on the support of the majority.

Had Congress had the support to pass a statute to implement Brown shortly after it had been decided, schools might be more integrated today. While Congress did pass Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, it did not provide statutory guidance for desegregation the way Title VII of the same act provided a remedy for employment discrimination.


59. See id. at 322–25 (stating that the Congress can consider the broad implications of a matter, hold hearings, commission studies, and appropriate funds to enforce the remedy).

60. U.S. CONST. art. III, § 1.

61. See Bandes, supra note 58, at 303–04 (noting that courts protect civil liberties); id. at 323 (noting that the "politically insulated federal judiciary" can make unpopular decisions); Judith Resnik, Trial as Error, Jurisdiction As Injury: Transforming the Meaning of Article III, 113 HARV. L. REV. 924, 1014–15 (2000) (stating that the guaranteed life tenure for judges enables them to be independent of political pressure, but that the independence is limited by the judiciary's reliance on Congress for funding the courts' administrative staff).

62. See generally BELL, supra note 4, at 21 (writing an alternative Brown opinion saying that the "outraged resistance [of whites] could undermine and eventually negate even the most committed judicial enforcement efforts" to desegregate the schools).

63. See supra text accompanying notes 17–18.
III. EXCHANGE THE NEIGHBORHOOD SCHOOL FOR THE WORKPLACE SCHOOL

A. A Suggestion

While the idea of desegregating neighborhood schools may be unrealistic after more than a generation of white flight and the limits set by the Supreme Court in *Milliken* and *Jenkins*, perhaps it is time for the schools to leave the neighborhood and move to the workplace. Schools would "move" to the workplace if children could attend schools, either existing or newly built, where a parent works. If so, then the demographic composition of schools might change. This suggestion would require, at a minimum, a re-examination of the neighborhood school concept, the cooperation of a number of jurisdictions, whether they be different school districts or different states, and money. Of course, having a school near a workplace would not be a particularly useful option if the school were poor. In the case of urban settings, local schools may be those from which whites fled years ago. If employers saw the availability of nearby schools as a family friendly employment option, then they should have an incentive to see that the schools improved. Employers might be able to provide money, time, or expertise to the schools or be able to interest local, state, or federal governments to do the same. Whether schools working with employers could improve would be a serious matter of debate, as school districts with poor schools are struggling with how to improve them. A full "school-work" plan cannot be created in an essay, but a few benefits can be suggested.

B. Desegregation Benefit

Workplaces have become better integrated than neighborhoods and

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64. See Candace Saari Kovacic-Fleischer, United States v. Virginia's New Gender Equal Protection Analysis with Ramifications for Pregnancy, Parenting, and Title VII, 50 VAND. L. REV. 845, 907 (1997) (suggesting that students be permitted to attend school near a parent's workplace); see also John C. Goodman, School Choice vs. School Choice, 45 HOW. L.J. 375, 387 (2002) (arguing that students should have a choice of schools not dependent upon the family income and noting that, in Barbados, parents can send their children to school where they live or work).

65. See, e.g., BELL, supra note 4, at 172-73 (describing the corporate support that the Frederick Douglass Academy in Harlem receives).

66. This Article does not solve problems with the "school-work" suggestion. Whether schools could be improved with resources from without the school system is a large question. Other problems suggest themselves: Who would fund the school? How can children be attracted from neighborhood or private schools to a school near an employment center? What would happen if an employee is terminated or resigns? What happens when workplaces and neighborhoods are in different jurisdictions? Who would elect the school board and make final decisions? Who might be potentially liable and for what? What type of transportation, if any would be provided? And so on.
thus neighborhood schools. If schools were to follow employment patterns rather than housing patterns, more racial diversity should appear in the schools. More economic diversity should also appear because people who work in the same place do not have the same salaries. Children who have not been helped by Brown might benefit by having an alternative to a neighborhood school or a substitute, such as a charter school or vouchers. Locating schoolrooms near workplaces could have advantages for employees and employers, too.

C. Employees’ Benefits

Employees who are parents have been less well served than others by Title VII. With more employment opportunities for women and minorities, more families with children have begun to have both parents in the workplace. This has created a demand for childcare and other family accommodations, the lack of which has kept some parents, especially mothers, out of the workforce or underemployed.

There are very few statutes that help parents balance family and work responsibilities. Title VII provides that employers not discriminate against pregnant women. The Family and Medical Leave Act provides job protection for employees of large companies who take twelve weeks of unpaid leave for the birth, adoption or serious illness of a child. Neither of these statutes helps parents with the many demands they face. While a bill was introduced in Congress to protect parents from employment discrimination, it did not pass.

67. See supra note 3.
68. Studies indicate that the same student will do better in a school in an affluent area than in a poor area. See Peter Zamora, Note, In Recognition of the Special Educational Needs of Low-Income Families?: Ideological Discord and Its Effects upon Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Acts of 1965 and 2001, 10 GEO. J. ON POVERTY L. & POL’Y 413, 413–14 (2003) (reviewing studies of achievement levels of students depending upon income levels).
69. See generally Kovacic-Fleischer, supra note 64 (arguing that more family friendly arrangements in the workplace should be required by Title VII).
One of the major demands a parent faces is making sure a child is in a safe environment. For the middle class, that demand was often met by a mother at home. With more parents no longer at home all, the need for daycare has expanded. A school near a parent's workplace could fulfill two functions: education for the child and daycare for the parent. This would be particularly helpful if the school had hours coordinated with the workplace and educated children younger than those now considered "school aged." Besides providing peace of mind, it might enable a parent to spend more time with children by commuting together or being close enough to spend some time at the school. Since parental involvement is frequently cited as an important factor in the success of a child, children and schools would benefit as well as parents.

D. Employer Benefits

Employers could also benefit. They lose productivity when their workers worry about whether they have enough time with their children or where they are. Nearby schools might give parents peace of mind and employers a boost in productivity. Many employers see that family friendly benefits help attract and retain good employees.

Some employers are concerned about a shrinking pool of educated workers, making it particularly important for them to be able to attract and retain employees. With schools available as family friendly benefits, both parents and employers would be invested in the success of the schools. Better schools and better student success would contribute to better future workers. Well-educated children would become another generation of employees.

IV. CONCLUSION

The era of desegregation has created many ironies: the remedy of improving minority schools was ordered too late, the remedy of court ordered taxes was too late, congressional action was too little, and courts now have terminated judicial supervision of school districts without

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74. See Kovacic-Fleischer, supra note 64, at 905–07 (discussing need for nonparental childcare because many women who traditionally had raised children at home are now in the workforce).

75. See Nancy Buchanan, The Effects of Parental Involvement on 12th Grade Achievement, 4 GEO. PUB. POL’Y REV. 75 (1998) (reviewing studies and conducting a study showing correlations between differing types of parental involvement and student success).

76. See Kovacic-Fleischer, supra note 64, at 905 n.337 (discussing employers who find family friendly policies cost effective).

having achieved desegregation of the schools. The era of desegregation also created Title VII and much desegregation of the workplace. Perhaps it would be possible to place schools in a location less segregated than the neighborhood. Employers and school districts might want to consider a school-near-work because the interests of employers, employees, and children intersect with each other, and with the goal of improved and desegregated education.