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FISHER’S FOREWARNING: USING DATA TO NORMALIZE COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

Shakira D. Pleasant

ABSTRACT

This Article presents a nuanced view of Fisher v. University of Texas that has largely been ignored in mainstream discourse in the case. In Fisher, Justice Anthony Kennedy cast the deciding vote to uphold the University of Texas (“UT”) race-conscious admissions policy. This was the first time that Justice Kennedy voted to uphold a race-conscious policy, and many commentators have focused on this aspect of his Fisher majority opinion. However, Justice Kennedy also gave a stern forewarning to UT and other universities: in the future, they better have strong data to show that they need to use race-conscious admissions. Kennedy did not hold UT to a strenuous evidentiary burden because the University did not have incentive to collect certain data up to 2008—the year that Plaintiff Abigail Fisher was denied admission. However, he also made it clear that UT and other universities are now on notice and will need meticulous data for future defense of their policies.

Using UT as a model, this Article shows how universities can use data to defend their race-conscious policies and to ensure that they are attaining student body diversity along racial, socioeconomic, and other lines. First, this Article reviews jurisprudence on race-conscious university admissions, all the way up to Justice Kennedy’s forewarning. Second, it evaluates data that UT has gathered since 2008. It considers admission and enrollment rates for UT’s race-neutral Top Ten Percent Law (“TTPL”) and for its race-conscious holistic admissions policy, and it also examines which secondary schools are the top feeders for minority students at UT. This Article argues that UT needs its race-conscious holistic policy because (1) White American students admitted under TTPL enroll at greater rates than Black and Latina/o TTPL admittees; and (2) Those minority students who are admitted via TTPL come from racially homogeneous schools. Part III of the Article then concludes with proposals for UT to defend its race-conscious policies and to improve enrollment and retention rates for minority students. These proposals also provide models for other universities who may face lawsuits against their affirmative action policies.

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INTRODUCTION

One vote underscored the importance of racial diversity in higher education.¹ When Justice Anthony Kennedy wrote the United States Supreme Court (“U.S. Supreme Court” or “Court”) decision in Fisher v. University of Texas (“Fisher II”), he found that a compelling interest exists in achieving student body diversity and by applying race as one of several admissions factors, the University of Texas at Austin’s (“UT” or “University”) means for satisfying that interest were narrowly tailored.² Yet, despite its holding, Fisher II did not foreclose future challenges to UT’s race-conscious admissions; in fact, litigation and other undermining acts currently underway are likely attributed to the narrow scope in which the case was decided.³

Justice Kennedy’s words were eerily foretelling, but also instructive.⁴ Writing for the majority, he opined:

[UT’s] examination of the data it has acquired in the years since petitioner’s [Fisher’s] application . . . must proceed with full respect for the constraints imposed by the Equal Protection Clause. The type of data collected, and the manner in which it is considered, will have a significant bearing on how

¹ See Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin (Fisher II), 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2205 (2016).
² See id. at 2214 (“In short, none of petitioner’s suggested alternatives—nor other proposals considered or discussed in the course of this litigation—have been shown to be ‘available’ and ‘workable’ means through which the University could have met its educational goals, as it understood and defined them in 2008. . . . The University has thus met its burden of showing that the admissions policy it used at the time it rejected petitioner’s application was narrowly tailored.”).
³ The decision in Fisher II exemplifies how evidentiary doctrine intersects with substantive constitutional law and civil procedure. It is also the first time that Justice Kennedy wrote the majority opinion affirming a race-conscious admissions policy. Substantively, the Court determined that UT complied with constitutional requirements by satisfying strict scrutiny. Id. But, procedurally, it disposed of the case by finding that Fisher had not satisfied the evidentiary burden necessary to overcome summary judgment. Id. at 2209–10. It is the evidentiary burden that is most important to this case and future cases. The timing of the case did not require UT to assess its holistic admissions beyond the work it had done until 2008, but moving forward, data will be a key component to determining if a race-conscious admissions policy meets strict scrutiny. Id. at 2210 (“[T]he Court is necessarily limited to the narrow question before it: whether, drawing all reasonable inferences in her favor, petitioner has shown by a preponderance of the evidence that she was denied equal treatment at the time her application was rejected.”); see also Vinay Harpalani, The Fishing Expedition Is Over: Victory for Affirmative Action in Fisher v. Texas!, AM. CONSTITUTION SOCY BLOG [June 24, 2016], https://www.acslaw.org/?post_type=acsblog&p=11544.
⁴ UT’s “combined percentage-plan/holistic-review approach” had existed for only three years when Fisher filed suit. Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2209. Thus, even if Fisher II had been remanded again, there was insufficient evidence to answer the question of whether Fisher received equal treatment under the law when her admissions application was rejected in 2008. Id. at 2209–10. Further, the record was devoid of information for the Court to determine “how students admitted solely based on their class rank differ in their contribution to diversity from students admitted through holistic review.” Id. at 2209.
the University must shape its admissions policy to satisfy strict scrutiny in the years to come. . . .

. . . .

The Court’s affirmation of [UT’s] admissions policy today does not necessarily mean the University may rely on that same policy without refinement. It is the University’s ongoing obligation to engage in constant deliberation and continued reflection regarding its admissions policies.3

The Court’s opinion was lauded as “built to last,”6 but that did not deter UT’s race-conscious admissions from being attacked less than one year after the Fisher II decision.7

In March 2017, reports surfaced that a new lawsuit against UT was afoot.8 Focused squarely on the U.S. Supreme Court’s directive that UT must “engage in constant deliberation and continued reflection regarding its admissions policies,”9 the litigants claimed that “UT has not met its constitutional obligations and is vulnerable to a new legal challenge.”10

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3 Id. at 2210, 2215.
8 The pending state lawsuit is not the focus of this Article, but it is worth noting that the state litigation appears to be a long-term orchestrated strategy against the University. The statute at issue, Texas Education Code § 51.803(k), was amended in June 2009—approximately one year after Fisher sued UT in federal district court and about three years before the U.S. Supreme Court granted certiorari in Fisher I. See Plaintiff’s Original Petition & Application for Permanent Injunction at 9–10, Students for Fair Admissions, Inc. v. Univ. of Tex., No. D-1-GN-17-002930 (Tex. Dist. Ct. June 26, 2017); see also TEX. EDUC. CODE § 51.803(k) (“A general academic teaching institution [UT is defined as such under TEX. EDUC. CODE § 61.003] may not offer admission under Subsection [a–1] for an academic year after the 2017–2018 academic year if . . . [1] a final court order applicable to the institution prohibits the institution from considering an applicant’s race or ethnicity as a factor in the . . . decisions relating to first-time undergraduate admissions . . . .”); An Act, S.B. No. 175, 81st Leg., ch. 1342, § 1, eff. June 19, 2009 (amending TEX. EDUC. CODE § 51.803); Motion for Preliminary Injunction, Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 645 F. Supp. 2d 587 (W.D. Tex. 2009) (No. 1:08-cv-00263-SS).
9 Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2215 (emphasis added).
One month later, in April 2017, the Texas Legislature once again sought to restrict how many students could be automatically admitted to UT via Texas’ Top Ten Percent law ("TTPL"). TTPL opponents led the charge to amend the statute again, but the effort was unsuccessful. Even though their efforts ultimately failed, they alleged two bases to support another statutory amendment. First, they claimed that UT could not be as selective with its holistic admissions because TTPL admittees comprise about seventy-five percent of the incoming class. Second, they claimed that TTPL admittees were not more diverse despite the law’s enactment; therefore, amending the law again would not be detrimental to its purpose.

11 In 1997, when TTPL was enacted, students graduating in the top ten percent of their class were eligible for automatic admissions. In 2009, the statute was amended, thereby restricting students’ class rank and access. In a progressive scheme, UT limited its acceptance of TTPL admitted students—only those required to fill seventy-five percent of UT’s freshman enrollment capacity would be automatically admitted. This meant, beginning with the 2011–2012 admissions cycle, students graduating in the top nine to six percent of their class would be eligible for automatic admission. Compare An Act, H.B. No. 588, 75th Leg., ch. 155, § 1, eff. Sept. 1, 1997, with An Act, S.B. No. 175, 81st Leg., ch. 1342, § 1, eff. June 19, 2009, and S.B. No. 2119, 85th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Tex. 2017). Now, the amended legislation caps automatic admissions to seventy-five percent of the incoming class, and, instead of the top ten percent being automatically admitted, it is now the top six percent. Id.; see also Matthew Watkins, Author of Effort to Peel Back Top 10 Percent Rule says His Bill is Dead, Tex. Trib. (May 19, 2017, 1:00 PM), https://www.texastribune.org/2017/05/19/author-effort-peel-back-top-10-percent-rule-says-bill-dead/.

12 See Watkins, supra note 11 (noting that a bill author did not have enough support to get the bill to the floor); see also Matthew Watkins, Texas Senators Mull Eliminating the Top 10 Percent Rule, TEX. TRIB. (Apr. 5, 2017, 6:00 PM), https://www.texastribune.org/2017/04/05/texas-senators-mull-eliminating-top-10-percent-rule/ (discussing lawmakers’ proposal to eliminate the TTPL).

13 See generally Watkins, supra note 11; Watkins, supra note 12.

14 See generally Watkins, supra note 11; Watkins, supra note 12.

15 Proponents claim:

CSHB 588 would establish a fair, race-neutral admissions structure providing students from all backgrounds and parts of the state an opportunity to continue their educations. . . . Many regions of the state, school districts, and high schools in Texas are still predominantly composed of people from a single racial or ethnic group. Because of the persistence of this segregation, admitting the top 10 percent of all high schools would provide a diverse population and ensure that a large, well-qualified pool of minority students was admitted to Texas universities.

HOUSE RESEARCH ORGANIZATION, BILL ANALYSIS HB 588 4–5 (1997), available at https://hro.house.texas.gov/pdf/hb75r/hb588r.pdf#navpanes=0; see also Matthew Watkins, Abbott: “I Would Like to See” Top 10 Percent Rule Change, TEX. TRIB. (May 19, 2016, 5:00 PM), https://www.texastribune.org/2016/05/19/abbott-top-10-percent-rule-needs-be-changed/ ("If you look back to the university that they had before the automatic admissions compared to what they have now . . . it’s my understanding it was fairly much the same.").
In addition to the state lawsuit and failed legislative reform, the United States Department of Justice (“Justice Department”) announced in August 2017, that it would direct resources toward “investigating and suing universities over affirmative action policies deemed to discriminate against white applicants.” For now, the Justice Department’s focus is on Harvard University. However, UT, as well as other colleges and universities should take heed because they could be next.

The holding in Fisher II unquestionably outlined the Court’s expectation that UT collect, scrutinize, and utilize data to evaluate and refine its race-conscious admissions process. And, it would be myopic to view this expectation as only being applicable to UT—other colleges and universities

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19 Harvard is being targeted by both the Justice Department and Students for Fair Admissions (“SFA”). SFA is an organization led by Edward Blum—the same individual who financed the Fisher litigation. Watkins, supra note 16. SFA also sued the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill (“UNC”), but unlike Fisher, the plaintiffs’ race in the Harvard and UNC lawsuits is Asian American, not White. See Project on Fair Representation Announces Lawsuit Challenging Admissions Policies at Harvard Univ. and Univ. of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, STUDENTS FOR FAIR ADMISSIONS, https://studentsforfairadmissions.org/project-on-fair-representation-announces-lawsuits-challenging-admissions-policies-at-harvard-univ-and-univ-of-north-carolina-chapel-hill/ (last visited Jan. 5, 2019) (detailing how the suit against Harvard claims the university unequally admits White, African-American, and Hispanic students over Asian-American students who have better SAT scores); see also Students for Fair Admissions, Inc. v. President & Fellows of Harvard Coll., 308 F.R.D. 39, 43, 50–51 (D. Mass 2015) (same systematic effort to dismantle race-conscious admissions, but strategically different tactic as private party action receives backing from government).

20 Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2210 (2016) (“As the University examines this data, it should remain mindful that diversity takes many forms. Formalistic racial classifications may sometimes fail to capture diversity in all of its dimensions and, when used in a divisive manner, could undermine the educational benefits the University values.”).
can also benefit from using data to normalize their admissions.21

Before Fisher II, the U.S. Supreme Court had not explicitly held that a
data-driven race-conscious admissions process was required to meet strict
scrutiny, but now it is imperative.22 Justice Kennedy’s retirement in July
2018 and the procedural posture in Harvard University’s lawsuit foreshadow
the Court’s instruction, as well as the likelihood of more legal challenges,
regarding race-conscious admissions.23

In UT’s case, future data collection and assessment must keep TTPL and
its feeder schools as a focal point.24 Similarly, other colleges and universities
should undertake collecting, analyzing, and utilizing feeder school data,25

21 See Mikhail Zinshteyn, University of California President Wants to Offer Guaranteed Admission to Qualified
admission to academically eligible students); see also Randall Kennedy, Persuasion and Distrust: A
should generally be retained as a tool of public policy because, on balance, it is useful in overcoming
entrenched racial hierarchy.”).

22 Colleges and universities, such as UT, can also look to Justice Kennedy’s concurrence in Parents
Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1, for guidance:

While [the school district] acknowledges that racial classifications are used to make certain
assignment decisions, it fails to make clear, for example, who makes the decisions; what if
any oversight is employed; the precise circumstances in which an assignment decision will
or will not be made on the basis of race; or how it is determined which of two similarly
situated children will be subjected to a given race-based decision.


23 The three more conservative justices on the Court—Chief Justice Roberts, Justice Thomas, and
Justice Alito—alleged that the affirmative action practices the Court upheld in Fisher II were
inherently discriminatory. See Joseph Milford, Kennedy’s Retirement Affects Affirmative Action Cases in
Significant Ways, Elite Daily (June 28, 2018), https://www.elitedaily.com/p/kennedys-retirement-affects-affirmative-action-cases-in-significant-ways-9621157 (“The dissenting opinion [in Fisher II] becomes all the more important, considering one major affirmative action case that
appears headed from the Supreme Court in the near future. That case argues that Harvard
University’s affirmative action practices discriminate against Asian-Americans.”); see also Michael
D. Shear, Supreme Court Justice Anthony Kennedy Will Retire, N.Y. Times (Jun. 27, 2018),
(emphasizing Justice Kennedy’s role as a swing vote and how a conservative justice could “imperil”
precedent Justice Kennedy sided with).

24 Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2208–09 (“The University’s program is sui generis. Unlike other approaches
to college admissions considered by this Court, it combines holistic review with a percentage plan.

This approach gave rise to an unusual consequence in this case: The component of the University’s
admissions policy that had the largest impact on petitioner’s chances of admission was not the
school’s consideration of race under its holistic-review process but rather the Top Ten Percent
Plan.”).

(Kennedy, J. concurring in part and concurring in the judgment) (“School boards may pursue the
goal of bringing together students of diverse backgrounds and races through other means, including
strategic site selection of new schools; drawing attendance zones with general recognition of the
whether or not they have a state sanctioned race-neutral percentage plan.\textsuperscript{26}

This Article adds to the existing discourse that has been written about Fisher and affirmative action in higher education over the years.\textsuperscript{27} It applies Lean Six Sigma (i.e., a business concept focused on process improvement) to assess the data that Justice Kennedy referenced in the Fisher II decision.\textsuperscript{28}


In addition to Texas, California and Florida have race-neutral admissions percentage plans. This is in contrast to Massachusetts and North Carolina, where no race-neutral admissions percentage plan exists, but higher education institutions in these states are being sued for their race-conscious admissions processes. \textit{Compare California Master Plan for Higher Education} (2002), available at https://ahed.assembly.ca.gov/sites/ahed.assembly.ca.gov/files/hearings/master\%20plan.pdf (stating that the top one-third and one-eighth of high school graduates will be offered admission to California State University and University of California campuses, respectively), and \textit{CAL. CONST. art. I, § 31} (eliminating the use of race in college admissions in California), and Fla. Exec. Order No. 99-281 (Nov. 9, 1999), available at https://www.dms.myflorida.com/content/download/705/3389/file/ExecutiveOrder99-281.pdf (eliminating the use of race in college admissions), and Florida Board of Governors Regulation 6.002(2)(c) (2017), available at https://www.flbog.edu/documents_regulations/regulations/6\%20002\%20FTIC\%20Admissions\%20_Final.pdf (stating that high school seniors graduating in the top twenty percent of their class may be eligible but not guaranteed admission to the State University System), with 50 State Comparison, \textit{EDUC. COMMISSION} STS. (Feb. 2017), http://ecs.force.com/mlbdata/MBquest3RTA/Rep=SA1704 (listing whether each state has a guaranteed college admissions policy for high school students who meet a certain criteria).


\textsuperscript{28} This Article uses UT as a proxy because its admission process—not other public colleges and universities in Texas—was adjudicated in Fisher I and II. The innovations prescribed herein are
Taking into account UT’s role in Fisher, its unique pipeline of students and the process flow of the admissions cycle, Lean Six Sigma is an interdisciplinary tool that can be used to demonstrate whether using race in higher education admissions is narrowly tailored to achieve the college or university’s compelling interest of achieving student body diversity. 29

As background, Part I reviews the jurisprudence on race-conscious admissions. The precedent cases relied upon are Sweatt v. Painter, Regents of University of California v. Bakke, Grutter v. Bollinger, Hopwood v. Texas, and Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin I and II. 30

In Part II, the Article evaluates data that UT has gathered since Abigail Fisher applied for admission in 2008—data referenced by Justice Kennedy in the Fisher II opinion. 31 Further, this section reviews historical data and findings by social scientists, Professors Marta Tienda and David Montejano. 32 These scholars evaluated data regarding UT’s admissions

guided by legal precedent and empirical data, as well as principles of Lean Six Sigma, which is a methodology traditionally used to improve businesses processes. This interdisciplinary approach is used to create solutions that UT and other colleges or universities can use to overcome challenges to their race-conscious admissions. See generally BARBARA WHEAT, CHARLES MILLS & MICHAEL CARNELL, LEANING INTO SIX SIGMA: THE PATH TO INTEGRATION OF LEAN ENTERPRISE AND SIX SIGMA (2001).

29See generally BARBARA WHEAT CHARLES MILLS & MICHAEL CARNELL, LEANING INTO SIX SIGMA: A PARABLE OF THE JOURNEY OF SIX SIGMA AND A LEAN ENTERPRISE (2003) (stating that Lean Six Sigma has been used in manufacturing).

30Texas v. Lesage is also a race-conscious admissions case specific to the University of Texas; however, it will not be discussed in this Article. See, e.g., Texas v. Lesage, 528 U.S. 18, 22 (1999).

31Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2209–10 (2016) (“[UT] had no reason to keep extensive data on the Plan or the students admitted under it—particularly in the years before Fisher I clarified the stringency of the strict-scrutiny burden for a school that employs race-conscious review… . Going forward, that assessment [of the constitutionality, and efficacy, of its admissions program] must be undertaken in light of the experience the school has accumulated and the data it has gathered… . The University’s examination of the data it has acquired in the years since petitioner’s application… . must proceed with full respect for the constraints imposed by the Equal Protection Clause.”).

32The historical social science data analysis (i.e., pre-2008) is included in Part II of this Article. See Marta Tienda et al., Affirmative Action and the Texas Top 10% Percent Plan: the Truth Behind the Numbers, 50 CHRON. HIGHER EDUC., Jan. 23, 2004, at B10, available at http://www.texastop10.princeton.edu/publicity/theop/Chronicle0104.pdf (providing an empirical study that evaluates “whether students from highly competitive high schools have been truly crowded out of the public flagships” because of the TTPL); David Montejano, Access to the University of Texas at Austin and the Ten-Percent Plan: A Three-Year Assessment (2000) (on file with author) (providing a pre-Grutter data analysis evaluating the racial composition of students admitted to UT via TTPL and the impact of (new) high school sending or “feeding” patterns).
from the inception of TTPL until approximately 2010.\textsuperscript{33} On balance, the
data gathered since Abigail Fisher applied for admission in 2008 shows that
not much has changed since Professors Tienda and Montejano completed
their reviews.\textsuperscript{34} This post-2008 data analysis reveals:

1. White Americans are the dominate racial group of admitted and enrolled
students under TTPL and UT’s holistic admissions;\textsuperscript{35}

2. Minority students\textsuperscript{36} still enroll at UT at lesser rates than White
Americans, therefore, UT’s need to consider race in its admissions
process has not been undermined by Texas’ changing demographics;\textsuperscript{37}

3. UT cannot attain a diverse student population solely through TTPL,
because minority students that are automatically admitted to UT are
graduating from homogenous, in-state high schools.\textsuperscript{38}

\textsuperscript{33} Tienda et al., supra note 32; Montejano, supra note 32.

\textsuperscript{34} Over the course of twenty years, the data results are the same. When Professors Tienda and
Montejano conducted their research, White Americans were the dominate racial group being
admitted to UT under TTPL and its holistic admissions. This Author’s analysis corroborated
Professor Tienda and Montejano’s findings as the results have not changed from 2010–2017/2018.
Likewise, the Texas Tribune came to the same conclusion when it analyzed results over a five-year
span. See Neena Satija, Race and UT-Austin Admissions: A Snapshot of the Past Five Years, TEX. TRIB.
[Jun. 23, 2016, 12:00 PM], https://www.texastribune.org/2016/06/23/race-and-admissions-ut-austin-last-five-years/ (finding that thirty-four percent of TTPL admitted students were White Americans, and forty-nine percent of students admitted via the race-conscious, holistic, admissions
were White Americans); see also infra Parts II & III.

\textsuperscript{35} See infra Figures 1–4.

\textsuperscript{36} For purposes of this Article, “minority students” are students from racial or ethnic groups
comprising less than fifty percent of Texas’ statewide population.

\textsuperscript{37} See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2214–15; Tienda et al., supra note 32, at 5, Table 2; infra Figures 2 & 4.

\textsuperscript{38} Although TTPL’s original legislative intent was to utilize the homogenous high school
demographics to increase racial diversity, this approach viewed “diversity” too narrowly. See
generally Marta Tienda & Sunny Xinchun Niu, Capitalizing on Segregation, Pretending Neutrality: College Admissions and the Texas Top 10% Law, 8 AM. L. & ECON. REV. 312 (2006) (noting that any racial
diversity achieved at UT from TTPL is largely the result of high levels of racial diversity among
Texas’ high schools). This revelation shows minimal change in pre-2008 and post-2008 data,
thereby also implicating a potential lack of diversity with racial groups. See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at
2214 (Kennedy, J.); (“[A]lthough it may be true that the Top-Ten Percent Plan in some instances
may provide a path out of poverty for those who excel at schools lacking in resources, the Plan
cannot serve as the admissions solution that petitioner suggests.”); see, e.g., Vinay Harpalani, Diversity Within Racial Groups and the Constitutionality of Race Conscious Admissions, 15 U. PA. J. CONST. L. 463, 477 (2012) (claiming that when diversity within racial groups is present, “racial stereotypes lose their
force because nonminority students learn there is no ‘minority viewpoint’ but rather a variety of
viewpoints among minority students” (citing Grutter v. Bollinger, 539 U.S. 306, 330 (2003))); Devon
W. Carbodo, Interracial Diversity, 60 UCLA L. REV. 1130, 1163 (2013) (asserting the same); Elise
within, as well as among, racial groups, shows that its commitment is genuine and not driven simply
Part III of this Article recommends data driven solutions to improve and defend UT’s race-conscious admissions process.39 The solutions apply the data from Part II to recommend the following:40

1. Because the data shows that TTPL feeder school graduates are homogenous with respect to race and socio-economics, UT must improve the data collected from TTPL feeder schools to increase the enrollment rates of minority students who are automatically admitted under TTPL, and therefore validate how race impacts its holistic admissions;41

2. During the Fisher litigation, UT collected data about racial isolation in the classroom and its effect on achieving student body diversity.42 Accordingly, UT must promote safe spaces on campus because inclusion and socio-cultural interaction is anecdotally related to the lack of enrollment of minority students.

Now more than ever, UT (and other colleges and universities such as Harvard and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill) must use data to support and ‘refine’ its admissions practices to remain in compliance with Fisher II’s holding. 43 The book Art of War teaches that one should not rely
“on the likelihood of the enemy’s not coming, but on our own readiness to receive him; not on the chance of his not attacking, but rather on the facts that have made our position unassailable.”

Employing the prescriptive solutions in this Article, can create an unassailable position and adhere to Justice Kennedy’s forewarning.

I. HISTORY, RACE, AND ADMISSIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

UT’s present cannot be viewed in isolation from its past if the University wants to overcome challenges to its race-conscious, holistic, admissions. In an academic setting, the U.S. Supreme Court has posited, “[r]ace may not be considered [by a university] unless the admissions process can withstand strict scrutiny.”

“Strict scrutiny requires [a] university to demonstrate with clarity that its ‘purpose or interest is both constitutionally permissible and substantial, and that its use of the classification is necessary . . . to the accomplishment of its purpose.” Because stare decisis dictates that present and future cases look to the past to determine the best resolution, colleges and universities facing challenges to race-conscious admissions have a guide to withstand strict scrutiny, if they use it.

This section focuses on six pivotal cases decided between 1950 and 2016 which provide contextual, historical, information pertaining to race and higher education admissions in the United States.


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47 See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2198; Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 297; Hopwood, 78 F.3d at 932; Sweatt, 339 U.S. at 629.
48 "The word 'diversity,' it suggests something . . . other. As if it is something special. Or rare . . . . Women, people of color, LGBTQ people equal WAY more than 50% of the population. Which means it ain’t out of the ordinary.”
admissions, generally.50

A. History Teaches Us that Racial Diversity Promotes the Promise of Equal Protection, but Higher Education Admissions Cannot Rely on Quotas

In 1950, Heman Marion Sweatt ("Sweatt"), an African American applicant sued UT’s School of Law.51 He filed suit to compel the law school to admit him because his application had been denied solely due to his race.52

Racial segregation was still legal in the United States; however, the U.S. Supreme Court found in favor of Sweatt, holding “the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment requires that [he] be admitted to the University of Texas Law School.”53 Writing the majority opinion for the Court, Chief Justice Fred M. Vinson stated:

The law school . . . cannot be effective in isolation from the individuals and institutions with which the law interacts. . . . The law school to which Texas is willing to admit petitioner excludes from its student body members of the racial groups which number 85% of the population of the State and include most of the lawyers, witnesses, jurors, judges and other officials with whom petitioner will inevitably be dealing when he becomes a member of the Texas Bar. . . .

It may be argued that excluding petitioner from [UT] is no different from excluding white students from the new law school. [But] [t]his contention overlooks realities.54

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50 See generally Grutter, 539 U.S. 306 (reviewing law school admissions); Bakke, 438 U.S. 265 (reviewing medical school admissions).
51 When Sweatt applied for admission to UT’s Law School in 1946, there was no law school for “Negros.” Sweatt, 339 U.S. at 631; see also TEX. CONST. art. 7, § 7, (repealed 1969) (stating “[s]eparate schools shall be provided for the white and colored children, and impartial provision shall be made for both.”).
52 See Sweatt, 339 U.S. at 631.
53 Id. at 636.
54 Id. at 633–34; see also id. (“[W]e cannot find substantial equality in the educational opportunities offered white and Negro law students by the State. In terms of number of the faculty, variety of courses and opportunity for specialization, size of the student body, scope of the library, availability of law review and similar activities, the University of Texas Law School is superior. What is more important, the University of Texas Law School possesses to a far greater degree those qualities which are incapable of objective measurement but which make for greatness in a law school. Such qualities, to name but a few, include reputation of the faculty, experience of the administration, position and influence of the alumni, standing in the community, traditions and prestige. It is difficult to believe that one who had a free choice between these law schools would consider the question close.” (emphasis added)); id. at 635 (stating in conclusion that “[e]qual protection of the laws is not achieved through indiscriminate imposition of inequalities” (citing Shelley v. Kramer, 334 U.S. 1, 22 (1948))).
Four years before racial segregation was outlawed in the United States, and nineteen years before it was outlawed in the state of Texas, the U.S. Supreme Court found that UT would be ineffective and isolating as a higher education institution if its student body was not racially diverse. This decision, albeit fifty-eight years ago, is just as important in the present day. The realities of preserving racial equality in education is tantamount to upholding the promise of the Equal Protection Clause, which endorses people of all races and ethnicities being educated together. The U.S. Supreme Court upheld this promise when Sweatt was decided in 1950, and the Court has remained steadfast with its subsequent decisions.

When Allan Bakke ("Bakke"), a White applicant, sued the University of California at Davis Medical School, the U.S. Supreme Court reinforced its Equal Protection Clause higher education jurisprudence. Bakke was denied admission to the medical school in 1973 and 1974 because it used a constitutionally impermissible racial quota (i.e., a set aside number of admissions seats for a specific racial or ethnic group) instead of evaluating all applicants, from all racial backgrounds, in a collective pool.
The U.S. Supreme Court’s plurality opinion upheld (in part) the California Supreme Court’s holding that Bakke’s Equal Protection rights were violated; the admissions process undertaken by the University needed improvement but they could not provide evidence showing how that occurred.\footnote{Bakke, 438 U.S. at 280–81 (plurality opinion). The issue in Bakke was the school’s decision to set aside sixteen out of one-hundred seats for the incoming medical class and to reserve those seats for members of certain minority groups. \textit{Id.} at 279. The candidates for those sixteen seats were competing against one another (i.e., only other racial minorities), instead of being judged against the other eighty-two applicants from all racial and ethnic backgrounds. \textit{Id.} Although, the Supreme Court of California afforded the University an opportunity to demonstrate that Bakke would not have been admitted “but for” its special admissions program, the University could not meet its evidentiary burden. \textit{Id.} at 270.} Notwithstanding the Court’s decision, Justice Powell wrote in a separate opinion that “the attainment of a diverse student body . . . clearly is a constitutionally permissible goal for an institution of higher education.”\footnote{\textit{Id.} at 311–312. In dicta, Justice Powell quoted Princeton University’s President as he described some of the benefits derived from a diverse student body: \textit{[A] great deal of learning occurs informally. It occurs through interactions among students of both sexes; of different races, religions, and backgrounds; who come from cities and rural areas, from various states and countries; who have a wide variety of interests, talents, and perspectives; and who are able, directly or indirectly, to learn from their differences and to stimulate one another to reexamine even their most deeply held assumptions about themselves and their world. As a wise graduate of ours observed in commenting on this aspect of the educational process, ‘People do not learn very much when they are surrounded only by the likes of themselves.’} \textit{Id.} at 312–13 n.48.} Justice Powell’s declaration was unequivocal—race could be used in higher education admissions to attain a “diverse” student body, so long as the means for achieving that goal satisfied strict scrutiny.\footnote{\textit{Id.} at 312–314 (“Academic freedom, though not a specifically enumerated constitutional right, long has been viewed as a special concern of the First Amendment. The freedom of a university to make its own judgments as to education includes the selection of its student body. . . . Although a university must have wide discretion in making sensitive judgments as to who should be admitted, constitutional limitations protecting individual rights may not be disregarded.”).} However, because the U.S. Supreme Court did not issue a majority opinion in \textit{Bakke}, federal appellate courts were not bound by it.\footnote{\textit{See}, e.g., Hopwood v. Texas, 78 F.3d 932, 934 (5th Cir. 1996) (rejecting University of Texas School of Law’s admissions program that gave “substantial racial preferences” to certain minority applicants).}

\section*{B. Stare Decisis and Higher Education Jurisprudence}

Almost twenty years after the U.S. Supreme Court issued a plurality decision in \textit{Bakke}, four White applicants, Cheryl Hopwood and three other litigants (collectively “Hopwood”), sued the University of Texas School of
Law. The litigants alleged that *Hispanic and African American candidates* were given ‘preferential treatment’ and admitted solely based on their race. In its holding, the United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit (“Fifth Circuit”) not only upheld Hopwood’s contention, the court explicitly rejected Justice Powell’s opinion in *Bakke* that diversity was a compelling interest for colleges and universities. Since *Bakke* was not binding precedent, stare decisis did not apply. Accordingly, the Fifth Circuit’s decision in *Hopwood* ended affirmative action in Texas—it’s impact was swift and lasted seven years. It was not until the U.S. Supreme Court abrogated *Hopwood* with its holding in *Grutter v. Bollinger* that Justice Powell’s opinion became binding precedent.

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66 Id. at 938.
67 The Fifth Circuit found “[t]he law school has presented no compelling justification, under the Fourteenth Amendment or Supreme Court precedent, that allows it to continue to elevate some races over others, even for the wholesome purpose of correcting perceived racial imbalance in the student body.” Id. at 934, abrogated by *Grutter* v. *Bollinger*, 539 U.S. 306, 322, 325 (2003); see also Osamudia R. James, *White Like Me: The Negative Impact of the Diversity Rationale on White Identity Formation*, 89 N.Y.U. L. REV. 425, 471 (2014) (citing Peggy McIntosh, *White Privilege and Male Privilege: A Personal Account of Coming to See Correspondences Through Work in Women’s Studies*, in *CRITICAL WHITE STUDIES: LOOKING BEHIND THE MIRROR* 291 (Richard Delgado & Jean Stefancic eds., 1997) (noting that many white students believe that racism does not affect them)); id. at 475 (“[M]any Whites discount their race-based privilege . . . . This uncritical perception of whiteness and racial inequality only perpetuates culturally sanctioned assumptions, myths, and beliefs that justify the social and economic advantages white people have as a result of subordinating others.” (quoting Joyce E. King, *Dysconscious Racism: Ideology, Identity, and the Miseducation of Teachers*, 60 J. NEGRO EDUC. 133, 135 (1991))).
68 *Hopwood*, 78 F.3d at 944 (5th Cir. 1996) (“We agree with plaintiffs that any consideration of race or ethnicity by the law school for the purpose of achieving a diverse student body is not a compelling interest under the Fourteenth Amendment. Justice Powell’s argument in *Bakke* garnered only his own vote and . . . [his] view in *Bakke* is not binding precedent on this issue.”).
70 Although *Hopwood* is an outlier in higher education jurisprudence, its historical impact should not be forgotten. See Gerald Torres, *Grutter v. Bollinger*/Gratz v. Bollinger: *View from a Limestone Ledge*, 103 COLUM. L. REV. 1596, 1599 (2003) (“*Elite public higher education might be at one end, but it is intimately connected with how the state provides education more generally. The permission to use race that the *Grutter* decision admits should not lead us to forget the lessons *Hopwood* forced us to learn. Perhaps the most important lesson is that racial, economic, and geographic diversity cannot be achieved without a frank and determined commitment to that goal.”); see also Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2205 (2016) (“In upholding this nuanced use of race, *Grutter* implicitly overruled *Hopwood’s* categorical prohibition.”); *Grutter* v. *Bollinger*, 539 U.S. 306, 343 (2003) (“In summary, the Equal Protection Clause does not prohibit the Law School’s narrowly tailored use of race in
In 2003, Barbara Grutter (“Grutter”), a White applicant, alleged that the University of Michigan Law School discriminated against her on the basis of race, thereby violating the Equal Protection Clause. She contended that her application was denied because race was used as a “predominate’ factor, giving applicants who belong to certain minority groups ‘a significantly greater chance of admission than students with similar credentials from disfavored racial groups.”

In Grutter’s case, Justice Powell’s words became the benchmark for using race as a factor in higher education admissions. The U.S. Supreme Court held “the Equal Protection Clause does not prohibit the . . . narrowly tailored use of race in admissions decisions to further a compelling interest in obtaining educational benefits that flow from a diverse student body.” In fact, the Court’s holding affirmed: (1) student body diversity is a compelling state interest that can justify the use of race in university admissions; and (2) “narrow tailoring does not require exhaustion of every conceivable race-neutral alternative . . . [n]or does it require a university to choose between maintaining a reputation for excellence or fulfilling a commitment to provide educational opportunities to members of all racial groups.” By affirming the University of Michigan School of Law’s race-conscious admission in Grutter, the U.S. Supreme Court established a constitutionally permissible framework for UT (and other colleges and universities) to follow.

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71. Grutter, 539 U.S. at 316-17.
72. Id. at 317 (emphasis added).
73. Id. at 322 (“We granted certiorari . . . to resolve the disagreement among the Courts of Appeal on a question of national importance: Whether diversity is a compelling interest that can justify the narrowly tailored use of race in selecting applicants for admission to public universities. Compare Hopwood v. Texas, 78 F.3d 932 (5th Cir. 1996) . . . (holding that diversity is not a compelling interest), with Smith v. University of Washington Law School, 233 F.3d 1188 (9th Cir. 2000) (holding that it is)).”
74. Id. at 343.
75. Id. at 330; see also Stacy Hawkins, Diversity, Democracy, & Pluralism: Confronting the Reality of our Inequality, 66 MERCER L. REV. 577, 642 (2015) (“Racial and ethnic minorities comprise an ever-increasing share of our citizenry, and their political salience continues to be reinforced through the ongoing legitimation of race and the perpetuation of identity politics. . . . When our democratic leaders, selected ‘by the people,’ fail to be representative of the racial and ethnic diversity ‘of the people,’ it undermines the legitimacy of our claim that government is ‘for the people.’”).
76. Grutter, 539 U.S. at 339 (emphasis added) (citing Wygant v. Jackson Bd. of Educ., 476 U.S. 267, 280 n.6 (1986)).
77. See Grutter, 539 U.S. at 343 (“We expect that 25 years from now, the use of racial preferences will no longer be necessary to further the interest approved today.”). The Grutter decision preceded Fisher II by thirteen years; however, the need to consider race in college admissions did not dissipate. Justice Kennedy said it best in his concurring opinion in Parents Involved:
C. History is Contextual, but Innovation Is Necessary to Sustain the Use of Race as a Constitutionally Permissible Factor in Higher Education Admissions

The U.S. Supreme Court’s decisions in Fisher I and Fisher II (the “Fisher cases”) provide context for the remainder of this Article, as well as the innovative solutions in Part III. 78

Fisher I began in 2008 when two White applicants, Abigail Noel Fisher 79 and Rachel Multer Michalewicz 80 (collectively “Fisher”), sued the state of Texas, UT, and other state officials (collectively “UT”). 81 Fisher alleged that “UT Austin employed an admissions plan relying on race-based affirmative action in order to increase the number of African American and Hispanic students admitted to UT Austin.” 82

78 See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198 (2016); Fisher I, 570 U.S. 297 (2013); see also supra note 45 and accompanying text (The opinion in Fisher II, specifically, frames the scope of the analysis in Part II and the solutions in Part III. The other cases noted in Part I are contextual); supra note 39 and accompanying text (application of Lean Six Sigma to defend and improve UT’s race-conscious admissions process).

79 Abigail Fisher graduated in the top twelve percent of her class at Stephen F. Austin High School, thus she was not eligible for automatic admission to UT under TTPL. Plaintiff’s Memorandum in Support of Preliminary Injunction at 6, Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 645 F. Supp. 2d 587 (W.D. Tex. 2009) (No. 1:08-cv-00263-SS); see also JOAN BISKUPIC, BREAKING IN: THE RISE OF SONIA SOTOMAYOR AND THE POLITICS OF JUSTICE 196 (2014) (stating that Abigail Fisher’s father and older sister were UT-Austin alumni and that once Abigail was denied admission, her father called his “old friend” Edward Blum, who assured the Fisher family that their legal fees would be covered if she sued).

80 Michalewicz graduated in the top 10.1% of her graduating class from Jack C. Hayes High School. Plaintiff’s Memorandum in Support of Motion for Preliminary Injunction, supra note 79, at 7; Supplement to Amended Complaint for Declaratory, Injunctive, & Other Relief, Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 645 F. Supp. 2d 587 (W.D. Tex. 2009) (No. 1:08-cv-00263-SS).

81 Amended Complaint for Declaratory, Injunctive, & Other Relief at 1, Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 645 F. Supp. 2d 587 (W.D. Tex. 2009) (No. 1:08-cv-00263-SS).

82 Complaint for Declaratory, Injunctive, & Other Relief at 7, 13, Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 645 F. Supp. 2d 587 (W.D. Tex. 2009) (No. 1:08-cv-00263-SS) [emphasis added]; see also Amended Complaint for Declaratory, Injunctive, & Other Relief, supra note 81, at 1 [filing suit against defendants for “employing racially discriminatory policies”]. Fisher challenged the admissions of African American and Hispanic students, even though UT sought to increase diversity of several racial groups. See Enrollment of First-time Freshman Minority Students Now Higher Than Before Hopwood Court Decision, UT News (Jan. 29, 2003), https://utnews.utexas.edu/2003/01/29/enrollment-of-
After extensive discovery at the trial court level, Fisher and UT filed summary judgment motions focusing on two points: (1) the U.S. Supreme Court’s interpretation of Grutter v. Bollinger and (2) whether UT’s use of race in its holistic admissions process was narrowly tailored to achieve its compelling interest of having a diverse student body. Fisher’s summary judgment motion was denied so she appealed her case—first to the Fifth Circuit and then to the U.S. Supreme Court.

In 2013, Justice Anthony Kennedy authored the majority opinion in Fisher I. The U.S. Supreme Court reversed and remanded the case to the Fifth Circuit because the appellate court did not properly apply strict scrutiny. At the time Fisher I was decided:

first-time-freshman-minority-students-now-higher-than-before-hopwood-court-decision/

,"Diversity efforts at The University of Texas at Austin have brought a higher number of freshman minority students—African Americans, Hispanics and Asian Americans—to the campus than were enrolled in 1996, the year a court ruling ended the use of affirmative action in the university’s enrollment process."/)


84 The holistic admissions process has two-steps. First, it considers an applicant’s academic profile (i.e., class rank, completion of UT required high school curriculum, and ACT/SAT score). Second, it considers an applicant’s personal achievements (i.e., two admissions essay scores, leadership, extracurricular activities, awards/honors, and work experience), as well as special circumstances. Special circumstances include familial socio-economic status, household status (i.e., single-parent), language (i.e., bilingual), family responsibilities, socio-economic status of the school(s) attended, average ACT/SAT of the school attended in relation to the student’s ACT/SAT, and race are all considered. See generally THE OFFICE OF ADMISSIONS, THE UNIV. OF TEXAS, IMPLEMENTATION AND RESULTS OF THE TEXAS AUTOMATIC ADMISSIONS LAW (HB 388) (Dec. 23, 2010) (on file with Office of Admissions at Univ. of Tex.) (explaining that although the cited statistics were not applicable in 2008 when Abigail Fisher applied to UT, she and other non-TTPL applicants were evaluated using the same process).

85 See Memorandum in Support of Defendant’s Cross-Motion for Summary Judgment & in Opposition to Plaintiff’s Motion for Partial Summary Judgment at 10, Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 643 F. Supp. 2d 387 (W.D. Tex. 2009) (No. 1:08-cv-00263-SJ) (arguing that UT’s policy was narrowly tailored); see also Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2190, 2210 (2016) (describing the plaintiff’s argument regarding narrow tailoring).

86 Fisher I, 570 U.S. 297 (2013); Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 631 F.3d 213 (5th Cir. 2011).

87 Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 298.

88 Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 305 (relying on Bakke, Gratz, and Grutter, as precedent cases addressing the same issue concerning racial classifications in education and whether minority status is a positive or favorable factor in university’s admissions processes).

89 Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 313–14 (citing Grutter v. Bollinger, 539 U.S. 306, 339 (2003)). The Court noted that the admissions plan in Grutter was upheld because “it was not a quota, was sufficiently flexible, was limited in time, and followed ‘serious, good faith consideration of workable race-neutral alternatives.’” Id. (citing Grutter, 539 U.S. at 339). The Fifth Circuit’s deference to UT’s plan did not satisfy strict scrutiny as that standard of review “does not permit a court to accept a school’s assertion that its admissions process uses race in a permissible way without a court giving
Opponents of affirmative action, including lawyer Rein and activist Blum, believed that the [Fisher I] ruling required for the first time that administrators provide extensive data on why options that did not involve race had fallen short. They and others predicted that the decision would eventually spell the demise of affirmative action because, as the ruling played out in the lower courts, schools would have the difficult burden of proving that before they turned to racial classifications, all other alternatives had failed.90

On June 23, 2016, Fisher II was decided—three years after Fisher I.91 Again, Justice Anthony Kennedy authored the majority opinion for the Court.92 Three guiding principles, articulated in Fisher I, applied to the subsequent decision in Fisher II: (1) strict scrutiny must be satisfied if a university is going to consider race in its admissions process;93 (2) some judicial deference is proper if a higher education institution decides to pursue the educational benefits that flow from diversity, but such decision cannot impose a fixed quota or specified percentage of a particular group based on race or ethnic origin;94 and (3) no deference is owed as the Court determines whether the use of race is narrowly tailored to achieve the university’s permissible goals.95

With its decision, the U.S. Supreme Court disposed of both the Fisher cases on procedural grounds.96 Principle-by-principle, Justice Kennedy outlined (1) how UT defined its compelling interest by “articulating concrete and precise goals;”97 (2) that UT had not achieved a diverse student body by

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90 BISKUPIC, supra note 79, at 209–10.
92 Id. at 2204.
93 Id. at 2205–06. UT conducted a year-long study post-Gruetter to determine whether its admissions process was “allowing it to provide ‘the educational benefits of a diverse student body.’” Id. at 2205. The University concluded its policy was not providing these benefits. Id. at 2206.
94 Id. at 2208 (citing Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 310–11).
95 Id. at 2208 (“A university, Fisher I explained, bears the burden of proving a ‘nonracial approach’ would not promote its interest in the educational benefits of diversity ‘about as well and at tolerable administrative expense.’” (citing Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 311)).
96 The procedural posture of Fisher I is important because the summary judgment motions in that case served as the basis for disposing of the matter in Fisher II. See id. at 2210 (“The Court is necessarily limited to the narrow question before it: whether, drawing all reasonable inferences in her favor, petitioner has shown by a preponderance of the evidence that she was denied equal treatment at the time her application was rejected.”); Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 314 (“The District Court and Court of Appeals confined the strict scrutiny inquiry in too narrow a way by deferring to the University’s good faith in its use of racial classifications and affirming the grant of summary judgment on that basis. The Court vacates that judgment, but fairness to the litigants and the courts that heard the case requires that it be remanded so that the admissions process can be considered and judged under a correct analysis.”).
97 Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2210–11 (rejecting petitioner’s claim that UT did not sufficiently and clearly
2003 despite TTPL admissions and its race-neutral holistic review; and (3) that considering race in the admissions process had a meaningful impact, and it was necessary to achieve the university’s goal since no race-neutral alternative was workable.

Ultimately, the Fisher II decision also solidified Justice Powell’s foresight that having a racially diverse student body is a constitutionally permissible goal that can satisfy strict scrutiny. However, to sustain this permissible goal, it requires a continuous deliberation of data and thoughtful approach for protecting individual rights under the Equal Protection Clause.

II. DATA DRIVEN ADMISSIONS

Data was key to creating Texas’ automatic admissions process—TTPL—and its race-conscious admissions process. Moving forward, data will be equally vital to meeting the U.S. Supreme Court’s mandate in Fisher II.

articulate its compelling interest, the Court found that “[o]n the first page of its 2004 ‘Proposal to Consider Race and Ethnicity in Admissions,’ the University identifies the educational values it seeks to realize through its admissions process: the destruction of stereotypes, the ‘promotion of cross-racial understanding,’ ‘the preparation of a student body for an increasingly diverse workforce and society,’ and the ‘cultivation of a set of leaders with legitimacy in the eyes of the citizenry.’”

Id. at 2211–12 (finding that “[b]efore changing its policy the University conducted ‘months of study and deliberation, including retreats, interviews, [and] review of data,’ and concluded that ‘the use of race-neutral policies and programs had not been successful in achieving’ sufficient racial diversity at the University,” for example, “demographic data” showed “consistent stagnation with minority enrollment.”).

Id. at 2212–13. Despite Plaintiff’s claim that using race as a factor in the admissions process had “minimal” impact, the Court found that the percentages of enrolled Latino and African American students “rose by 54 and 94 percent, respectively,” in four years. Id. at 2212. Thus, this use of race had a meaningful, even if limited, impact on the diversity of the university’s student body.

Id. at 2214 (“In short, none of petitioner’s suggested alternatives—nor other proposals considered or discussed in the course of this litigation—have been shown to be ‘available’ and ‘workable’ means through which the University could have met its educational goals, as it understood and defined them in 2008.”).

Id. at 2209–10; see also Parents Involved in Cmty. Schs. v. Seattle Sch. Dist. No. 1, 551 U.S. 701, 787 (2007) (Kennedy, J. concurring in part and concurring in the judgment) (“[O]ur tradition is to go beyond present achievements, however significant, and to recognize and confront the flaws and injustices that remain. This is especially true when we seek assurance that opportunity is not denied on account of race. The enduring hope is that race should not matter; the reality is that too often it does.”).

Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2210 (“As the University examines this data, it should remain mindful that diversity takes many forms. Formalistic racial classifications may sometimes fail to capture diversity in all of its dimensions and, when used in a divisive manner, could undermine the educational benefits the University values.”).
The Court’s scrutiny will focus significantly on the term “diversity” and the process used to meet that goal. In higher education admissions, it has meant different things to different institutions; nevertheless, it is a data point the Court now seeks to measure. Since no deference is owed to the institution when assessing whether the narrow tailoring prong of strict scrutiny is met, this Part will measure several sources of data because it is now required to determine the constitutionality of race-conscious admissions.

103 Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 758 F.3d 633, 645 [5th Cir. 2014] (“Diversity is a composite of the backgrounds, experiences, achievements, and hardships to which race only contributes.”).

104 See e.g., About, HARV. C. OFFICE OF DIVERSITY EDUC. & SUPPORT, https://diversity.college.harvard.edu/about (“Through our programs and initiatives, we aim to enhance students’ awareness and understanding of the diverse identities and experiences of their peers, and foster greater connection and engagement with each other across differences.”); Admissions Process, HARV. ADMISSIONS LAWSUIT, https://admissionscase.harvard.edu/admissions-process (detailing considerations that Harvard accounts for when choosing which students to offer admission to); Data & Demographics, U. N.C. CHAPEl HILL, WORKFORCE STRATEGY, EQUITY & ENGAGEMENT: DIVERSITY & INCLUSION, https://diversity.unc.edu/data/ (highlighting the varying accomplishments of the university’s incoming class).

105 The measure phase of DMAIC has a two-part approach. First, it is important to map the process by creating a flow chart. This provides a visual display of the “steps, events, and operations” to complete the process. See THE LAWYER’S GUIDE TO LEGAL PROCESS IMPROVEMENT 42–43 (Laura Slater ed., 2014). Second, it is important to identify data that “establishes a baseline...against which to measure progress” and defects within the process. There is a hierarchy upon which data is deemed useful and valid. These data sources include: (1) reliable data that can be extracted from a system in electronic format; (2) data that exists but not in a convenient format (i.e., paper files), that can be put into a useful format such as a spreadsheet; (3) data that does not yet exist but can be created using observation worksheets, surveys, or log sheets; (4) externally available data [which in UT’s case is TEA data and data from other publicly accessible sources]; (5) estimations and opinions from subject matter experts and then collating the responses; and (6) anecdotes, which might be useful as a last resort, but require context to understand the frequency of an occurrence rather than one person’s perception or experience. Id. at 43.

106 Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2208 (2016) (“No deference is owed when determining whether the use of race is narrowly tailored to achieve a university’s permissible goals. A university, as Fisher I explained, bears the burden of proving a ‘nonracial approach’ would not promote its interest in the educational benefits of diversity ‘about as well and at tolerable administrative expense.’” (internal citation omitted) (citing Fisher I, 570 U.S. 297, 311 (2013))).

107 Id. (“Though ‘[n]arrow tailoring does not require exhaustion of every conceivable race-neutral alternative’ or ‘require a university to choose between maintaining a reputation for excellence [and] fulfilling a commitment to provide educational opportunities to members of all racial groups, it does impose on the university the ultimate burden of demonstrating that race-neutral alternatives that are both ‘available’ and ‘workable’ do not suffice.” (emphasis added) (internal citation omitted) (quoting Grutter v. Bollinger, 539 U.S. 306, 339 (2003); then quoting Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 311)).

108 Id. at 2221 (“[I]t is not a failure of narrow tailoring for the impact of racial consideration to be minor. The fact that race consciousness played a role in only a small portion of admissions decisions should be a hallmark of narrow tailoring, not evidence of unconstitutionality.”).
This Part likewise introduces a new conceptual framework to analyze the data in this Article. The framework itself—Lean Six Sigma—originated in the business field as a tool to improve manufacturing processes; it has also been used in the healthcare and legal service (i.e., law firms) industries.\textsuperscript{109} With data becoming more relevant to the analysis of legal issues, and more specifically, the evidentiary burden needed to show the legality or illegality of such issues (e.g., whether race-conscious college admissions processes are narrowly tailored to satisfy strict scrutiny), Lean Six Sigma is a helpful tool for legal analysis too because it is data driven.

To provide context, Section II.A below will briefly discuss TTPL’s enactment and the holistic process. These processes are necessary background information because as Justice Kennedy said “[t]he University’s program is \textit{sui generis} . . . [I]t combines holistic review with a percentage plan.”\textsuperscript{110}

Section II.B takes an in-depth look at three specific data points that UT must consider as it reviews the efficacy of its race-conscious holistic admissions process.\textsuperscript{111} The first data point is an overview of interdisciplinary historical data regarding TTPL, UT’s holistic process, and the effect on UT’s admissions and enrollment. This data, which is from two social scientists, frames the context for analyzing data from UT’s percentage plan and holistic processes for 2008 and beyond.\textsuperscript{112} The second data point is Texas’ demographics.\textsuperscript{113} This information is analyzed by looking at (a) statewide

\textsuperscript{109} The Lawyer’s Guide to Legal Process Improvement advocates for using Lean Six Sigma in law firms.

\textsuperscript{110} Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2208.


\textsuperscript{112} Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2209 (“When petitioner’s application was rejected . . . the University’s combined percentage-plan/holistic review approach to admission had been in effect for just three years. While studies undertaken over the eight years since then [i.e., 2008–2016] may be of significant value in determining the constitutionality of the University’s current admissions policy, that evidence has little bearing on whether petitioner received equal treatment when her application was rejected in 2008.”).

\textsuperscript{113} Id. at 2212 (“To start, the demographic data the University has submitted show consistent stagnation in terms of the \textit{percentage} of minority students enrolling at the University from 1996 to 2002. . . . In addition to this broad demographic data, the University put forward evidence that minority students admitted under the \textit{Hopwood} regime experienced feelings of loneliness and isolation.” (citation omitted)).
demographics on race and (b) statewide demographics on race and high school enrollment because both Justice Kennedy and Justice Alito noted their relevance to UT’s ongoing evaluation of its race-conscious admissions process. The third data point is UT’s admission and enrollment statistics under TTPL and its holistic admissions process. This data is analyzed because it is vital to refining the current admissions process.

A. DEFINE: Automatic and Race-Conscious Holistic Admissions Process at UT

The TTPL was enacted to create opportunities for under-represented groups (based on race, ethnic, or socio-economic status) to attend higher education institutions within the state of Texas. The facially neutral law requires that (1) an eligible student graduate from a public or private state high school at least one to two years prior to seeking admission to the state

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114 Id.; id. at 2224–25 (Alito, J., dissenting) ("UT's extensive reliance on state demographics is also revealed by its substantial focus on increasing the representation of Hispanics, but not Asian-Americans because Hispanics, but not Asian-Americans, are underrepresented at UT when compared to the demographics of the State...To the extent that UT is pursuing parity with Texas demographics, that is nothing more than 'outright racial balancing,' which this Court has time and again held 'patently unconstitutional.' (internal citations omitted) (citing Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 645 F. Supp. 2d 587, 606 [W.D. Tex. 2009]; then quoting Fisher I, 570 U.S. at 311)).

115 See infra note 153.

116 The “define” stage of DMAIC requires an understanding on the process that requires improvement. At this stage, it would be helpful for a college or university, such as UT, to create a process flow chart for every step in the admissions process. See, e.g., Li et al., supra note 39, at 135.

117 Nicolas Webster, Analysis of the Texas Top Ten Percent Plan, KIRWAN INSTITUTE FOR THE STUDY OF RACE AND ETHNICITY—THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY DEMOCRATIC MERIT PROJECT 10 (2007), available at http://kirwaninstitute.osu.edu/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/Texas-Ten-Percent_style.pdf ("[N]ot all areas of the country are as racially segregated as Texas. Since the diversity achieved through the Top Ten Percent Plan relies to some degree on segregation, racial outcomes would be difficult, if not impossible, to achieve via such plans elsewhere. Moreover, with school integration needing to pre-Civil rights era levels, we risk cutting off the educational pipeline for many minorities before they even reach high school."

118 Representative Irma Rangel and her colleagues in the Texas Legislature drafted House Bill 588 (H.B. 588), which is now widely known as TTPL. See TEX. EDUC. CODE § 51.803(a); An Act, H.B. 588, 75th Leg., ch. 941, §1, eff. Sept. 1, 1997. Representative Rangel sponsored H.B. 588, but Professor David Montejano is credited with proposing TTPL, which was a revisited admissions method circa 1980 that was previously abandoned to curb inflated enrollments. See David Montejano, U.C. BERKELEY RES., https://vcresearch.berkeley.edu/faculty/david-montejano ("Dr. Montejano spearheaded several initiatives in higher education, including the design of the Texas Top Ten Percent admissions plan, which became state law in 1997."); last visited Jan. 9, 2019); see also S.B. 177, 73rd Leg., Reg. Sess. (Tex. 1993) (sponsored by Senator Gonzalo Barrientos and related to tuition charged to in-state residents at higher education institutions). See generally JOHN F. KAIN ET AL., HOPWOOD AND THE TOP 10 PERCENT LAW: HOW THEY HAVE AFFECTED THE COLLEGE ENROLLMENT DECISIONS OF TEXAS HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES 18 (2005), available at https://wwwpub.utdallas.edu/research/tup-erc/pdf/wp_kain_2005_hopwood_top_10_percent.pdf.
college or university, and (2) have a grade point average in the top ten percent of their class. The law also dictates how and when students receive information about TTPL, and when they will be notified about meeting the two mandated requirements to obtain automatic admission.

Notwithstanding TTPL’s facially neutral language, its drafters were aware that “[t]en percent rank in class . . . [would] . . . be particularly efficacious in the state of Texas, ironically, as a result of the extreme racial isolation of its high schools. “Because of . . . racial isolation, many rural and urban minority schools [would likely] have a number of minority students in the top ten percent of their class who [would] have an opportunity to be considered at flagship institutions where they [were] not [as of 1997] able to do so . . . .” Consequently, by meeting these merit-based, race-neutral requirements, the student is granted automatic admission to state-funded colleges or universities, including UT, and thus given the opportunity to “show what [s/he] c[ould] do.”

119 Although TTPL automatically admits students from public and private high schools in Texas, this Article focuses on public schools. A subsequent Article will explore automatic admissions of private school students in Texas.

120 See supra note 11; see also TEX. EDUC. CODE § 51.803; HOUSE RESEARCH ORGANIZATION, supra note 13, at 3–4.

121 TEX. EDUC. CODE § 28.026 (a)(2–4). Every school district in Texas must “post appropriate signs” in each school counselor and principal's office, and in each administrative building about automatic college admission. Id. Upon registering for classes required for high school graduation, each district or school student must receive written notification explaining the substance of automatic college admission. Id. Each school counselor and senior class advisor at a high school must explain to eligible students the substance of automatic college admission. Id. During the junior year of high school if the student GPA is in the top ten percent), but not later than the first fourteen days of the senior year of high school, an eligible student and his/her parent or guardian, must receive written notice of eligibility for automatic college admission. Id.; see also 19 Tex. ADMIN. CODE § 61.1201 (providing requirements for financial aid).

122 “Because of the persistence of . . . segregation [in Texas high schools], admitting the top 10 percent of all high schools would provide a diverse population and ensure that a large, well-qualified pool of minority students was admitted to Texas universities.” HOUSE RESEARCH ORGANIZATION, supra note 13, at 4–5; see also TEX. EDUC. CODE § 51.803; Webster, supra at note 117, at 10 (citing Tienda & Niu, supra note 38 (arguing that any racial diversity achieved at UT from TTPL is largely the result of high levels of racial segregation among Texas' high schools)).


124 HOUSE RESEARCH ORGANIZATION, supra note 13, at 4. “Studies have shown that innate intellectual ability is distributed evenly throughout the population, occurring with equal regularity among all racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic groups. The under-representation, therefore, of certain groups in Texas colleges and universities does not indicate these students are unable to succeed in a university setting. Rather, it shows these individuals have not been given an
Unlike TTPL which is based on a single metric, UT’s race-conscious admissions process has two-steps. First, UT reviews a student’s academic information which includes class rank, completion of UT required high school curriculum, and ACT/SAT score. Second, UT reviews a student’s personal achievements. This layer of review includes a multi-faceted approach to evaluate the student/applicant in a holistic, individualized, manner. It includes reviewing a student’s admissions essays, leadership, extracurricular activities, awards/honors, work experience, school or community service, and special circumstances. Once this process is complete, UT uses the combined AI and PAI score to admit the remaining twenty-five percent of its annual incoming freshman class.

opportunity to show what they can do.” Id. at 3–4; see also TEX. EDUC. CODE § 51.803.

125 Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2213 (2016) (“Class rank is a single metric, and like any single metric, it will capture certain types of people and miss others.”).

126 Id. at 2205 (“[T]he University made its admissions decisions primarily based on a measure called ‘Academic Index’ (or AI), which is calculated by combining an applicant’s SAT score and academic performance in high school.”).

127 Id. In 1997, one year after Hopwood, UT began “making admission decisions based on an applicant’s AI and his or her ‘Personal Achievement Index’ (PAI).” Id. The PAI is a numerical score based on a holistic review of an application. “Included in the number [are] the applicant’s essays, leadership and work experience, extracurricular activities, community service, and other ‘special characteristics’ that might give the admissions committee insight into a student’s background.” Id.

128 Id. at 2206 (“The PAI is a number from 1 to 6 (6 being the best) . . . based on two primary components. The first component is the average score a reader gives the applicant on two required essays.”).

129 Id. at 2206 (“The second component [of PAI] is a full-file review that results in another 1–to–6 score, [known as] the ‘Personal Achievement Score’ or PAS. The PAS is determined by a separate reader, who (1) rereads the applicant’s required essays, (2) reviews any supplemental information the applicant submits (letters of recommendation, resumes, an additional optional essay, writing samples, artwork, etc.), and (3) evaluates the applicant’s potential contributions to the University’s student body based on the applicant’s leadership experience, extracurricular activities, awards/honors, community service, and other ‘special circumstances.’ ‘Special circumstances’ include the socioeconomic status of the applicant’s family, the socioeconomic status of the applicant’s school, the applicant’s family responsibilities, whether the applicant lives in a single-parent home, the applicant’s SAT score in relation to the average score at the applicant’s school, the language spoken at the applicant’s home, and finally, the applicant’s race.”).
B. MEASURE: Professors Tienda and Montejano’s Prior Data Analysis Provides Context

Shortly after enacting TTPL, Professors Marta Tienda and David Montejano—two social scientists—began collecting data about the students that were automatically admitted to UT. Professors Tienda and Montejano’s research determined, among other things:

• Students graduating from inner city minority high schools and rural white high schools that serve as feeder schools for the Top Ten Percent Plan had the most impact on admissions at UT;¹³³

• Empirical data disproved anecdotal accounts that Texas’ Top Ten Percent Plan squeezed out the “best and brightest” from being admitted to elite public institutions such as UT;¹³⁴ and

• Empirical data also showed that “top ranked students from resource poor schools” were admitted to elite out-of-state institutions, such as New York University and University of Chicago, thereby refuting allegations about the merit of Texas’ Top Ten Percent Plan admitted students.¹³⁵

The studies by Professors Tienda and Montejano also revealed that Texas’ population growth increased the number of Hispanic, African American, and

¹³⁰ MICHAEL L. GEORGE, LEAN SIX SIGMA FOR SERVICE: HOW TO USE LEAN SPEED & SIX SIGMA QUALITY TO IMPROVE SERVICES AND TRANSACTIONS 281 (2003) (“Combining data with knowledge and experience is what separates true [process] improvement from mere process tinkering.”).


¹³² See Montejano, supra note 32; see also David Montejano, Maintaining Diversity of the University of Texas, in RACE AND REPRESENTATION: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION 360 (Robert Post & Michael Rogin eds., 1998) (“Affirmative action was never a question of individual qualifications or abilities; rather, it was a question of rectifying the institutional practices that continually reproduced virtually all-white work forces and all-white student bodies.”).


¹³⁴ This empirically based determination explicitly refutes the ‘merit based’ anecdotal arguments that opponents of TTPL have alleged. Montejano, supra note 32; Tienda & Niu, supra note 32 (finding that the “best and brightest” are not being squeezed out of Texas public universities); see generally Sunny Niu & Marta Tienda, The Impact of the Texas Top 10% Law on College Enrollment: A Regression Discontinuity Approach, 29 J. POLY ANALYSIS & MGMT. 84 (2010) (concluding that the TTPL has increased admissions of certain groups of students to achieve its goal).

Asian American high school graduates. White American high school graduates also increased, but with the overall “shifts in the composition of Texas high school graduates,” Professor Tienda projected that only one in three high school graduates would be White by 2014. Although Professors Tienda and Montejano’s work is foundational to the data discussed later in this Part, this Article does not replicate their efforts but instead builds upon it.

C. MEASURE: Recent Demographic Data Addresses Justice Kennedy’s Inquiry

Due to the U.S. Supreme Court’s mandate in Fisher II, this Section evaluates (1) statewide population demographics, generally, and for school-aged students; and (2) TTPL feeder high schools that serve as the pipeline for students who are automatically admitted to and enroll at UT. This who contend that it does not benefit African-Americans to . . . get them into the University of Texas where they do not do well, as opposed to having them go to a less—advanced school, a . . . slower-track school where they do well.”).

See supra note 32; see also Tienda et al., supra note 32, at 9 (“[T]he percent plan can not guarantee increased diversity of selective colleges and universities because enrollment of rank-eligible minority graduates presumes both that they will apply for admission and have the financial means to enroll.”).

Tienda et al., supra note 32, at 8.


Id.; see also TEX. HIGHER EDUC. OPPORTUNITY PROJECT, ADMINISTRATIVE COLLEGE APPLICATION DATA 1–2 (Dec. 18. 2009), available at http://theop.princeton.edu/admin_doc.html (“Additionally, for Texas high schools, the data included a variable indicating the percentage of economically disadvantaged students.”).

See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2196, 2214–15 (2016) (“The University now has at its disposal valuable data about the manner in which different approaches to admissions may foster diversity or instead dilute it. The University must continue to use this data to scrutinize the fairness of its admissions program; to assess whether changing demographics have undermined the need for a race-conscious policy; and to identify the effects, both positive and negative, of the affirmative action measures it deems necessary.”).

Id. at 2212 (“Although demographics alone are by no means dispositive, they do have some value as a gauge of the University’s ability to enroll students who can offer underrepresented perspectives.”).

Id. at 2208–09 (“The component of the University’s admissions policy that had the largest impact on petitioner’s chances of admission was not the school’s consideration of race under its holistic-review process but rather the Top Ten Percent Plan. Because petitioner did not graduate in the top 10 percent of her high school class, she was categorically ineligible for more than three-fourths of the slots in the incoming freshman class. . . . Despite the Top Ten Percent Plan’s out-sized effect
data is described in detail to determine whether changing demographics have undermined the need for a race-conscious policy. 142

1. A Macro Approach to Texas’ Data—Looking at General Statewide and School-aged Population Demographics and TTPL/Holistic Admissions 143

To adequately perform an assessment of Texas’ changing demographics, UT must consider statewide data from both the United States Census Bureau (“U.S. Census Bureau”) and the Texas Education Agency (“TEA”). 144

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the population in the State of Texas increased more than twenty percent 145 over twelve to thirteen years. 146 White Americans were the largest racial group in the state, comprising about seventy-nine percent of the population during this time. 147 Similarly, the TEA determined that public school enrollment increased between 2005 and 2016, which alludes to UT’s ongoing process of assessing its holistic admissions.

142 Id. at 2214–15 (inquiring about “the fairness of [UT’s holistic] admissions program, and “the effects, both positive and negative, of the affirmative action measures [UT] deems necessary.”). The “effects” inquiry is beyond the scope of this Article and will not be addressed. The “fairness” inquiry will be addressed should the data allude to it.

143 This data focuses on the years 2005 to 2018 because UT began collecting data on its revised holistic program around 2005. In addition, by using data from 2005 onward, this Article captures three years of data that UT had when the Fisher litigation began in 2008, as well as the eight years of data obtained while the litigation was ongoing until 2016. Year(s) of data post-2016 is provided to guide UT’s ongoing process of assessing its holistic admissions.

144 “[N]either UT, nor the majority is clear about the relationship between Texas demographics and UT’s interest.” See id. at 2224 (Alito, J., dissenting) (referring to United States Census Bureau data as a reference point for demographic diversity).

145 The noted percentage is an estimation for 2005 to 2018. The figure was calculated by dividing the increased population percentage between 2000 and 2010 by two, and then adding the increased population percentage between 2010 and 2018. [20 divided by 2 equals 10 plus 14.1 equals 24.1].


Hispanics were the largest ethnic group in Texas’ public high schools, comprising about fifty-two percent of school-aged population. Both the U.S. Census Bureau and TEA use similar racial group classifications, but there is one exception. Under the U.S. Census Bureau, Hispanic individuals are categorized as an ethnic origin group. Conversely, the TEA uses a combined racial/ethnic category. Both organizations note that Hispanic/Latino includes having Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race.

Although statewide racial demographic data from the U.S. Census Bureau and TEA offer a broad view of how Texas’ demographics have changed over time, this information alone does not illustrate whether UT “needs” its race-conscious holistic admissions process. Therefore, below, there is detailed admissions and enrollment data for both TTPL and UT’s race-conscious holistic admissions because these combined data sets can address the Court’s inquiry.

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149 Id. at 18, Table 12; see also Watkins, supra note 12 (“UT-Austin leaders, senators and higher education officials all acknowledge the rule [TTPL] has helped rural students. The number of high schools that send students to Austin has gone up dramatically. But [legislators] said they were less sure of its impact on minorities. Hispanic enrollment at UT-Austin has increased significantly since the policy was put in place, but so has the number of Hispanic people in Texas.”).

150 The racial group classifications are: White (“[a] person having origins . . . of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa”); Black or African American (“[a] person having origins in . . . Africa); American Indian or Alaskan Native (“[a] person having origins . . . of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America) and who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment); Asian (“[a] person having origins . . . of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including . . . Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam’’); and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (“[a] person having origins . . . of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands”). About Race, supra note 146; see also ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 148, at 2 (identifying similar groups and definitions).

151 Race and Ethnicity, supra note 146, at n.124.


153 The data in this Article focuses on three races and one ethnicity—White American, Black or African American, Asian American, and Hispanic—because they were alleged as the basis of Fisher’s lawsuit against UT or addressed by the Fisher II dissent. Accordingly, other races such as American Indian, Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian, or Other Pacific Islander, have been excluded from the data herein.
a. Data from UT’s TTPL and Holistic Admissions

From 2005 to 2018, UT reported\(^{154}\) that about 131,000 African American,\(^{155}\) Asian American,\(^{156}\) White,\(^{157}\) and


\(^{155}\) Annual data for African Americans automatically admitted under TTPL and enrolled at UT (“admit/enroll”) is: 2005 (441/252); 2006 (463/268); 2007 (485/284); 2008 (582/305); 2009 (571/307); 2010 (597/304); 2011 (562/279); 2012 (614/298); 2013 (520/247); 2014 (492/192); 2015 (669/287); 2016 (692/292); 2017 (667/268); 2018 (732/310). Annually, African Americans comprised about six percent of TTPL admissions. Annually, about six percent of African Americans enrolled at UT if they were initially admitted through TTPL.

\(^{156}\) Annual data for Asian Americans automatically admitted under TTPL and enrolled at UT (“admit/enroll”) is: 2005 (1302/782); 2006 (1572/929); 2007 (1571/1005); 2008 (1744/1025); 2009 (1891/1135); 2010 (1757/1027); 2011 (1785/972); 2012 (1914/1114); 2013 (1993/1105); 2014 (1996/1093); 2015 (2081/1129); 2016 (2414/1262); 2017 (2342/1198); 2018 (2667/1423). Annually, Asian Americans comprised about twenty percent of TTPL admissions. Annually, about twenty-two percent of Asian Americans enrolled at UT if they were initially admitted through TTPL.

\(^{157}\) Annual data for White Americans automatically admitted under TTPL and enrolled at UT (“admit/enroll”) is: 2005 (3887/2288); 2006 (4297/2524); 2007 (4244/2359); 2008 (4440/2480); 2009 (4816/2659); 2010 (4534/2361); 2011 (3802/1944); 2012 (4117/2128); 2013 (3747/1947); 2014 (3193/1615); 2015 (3386/1699); 2016 (3815/1911); 2017 (3671/1770); 2018 (3542/1734). Annually, White Americans comprised about forty-three percent of TTPL admissions. Annually,
Hispanic\textsuperscript{158} students were automatically admitted to the university from Texas’ public high schools according to Figure 1.\textsuperscript{159} However, the enrollment rates for these same students hovered around fifty percent according to Figure 2.\textsuperscript{160}

During the same timeframe (2005 to 2018) UT reported\textsuperscript{161} that about 47,000 African American,\textsuperscript{162} Asian American,\textsuperscript{163} White,\textsuperscript{164} and Hispanic\textsuperscript{165} students were admitted through its individualized, race-conscious, holistic

\textsuperscript{158} Annual data for Hispanics automatically admitted under TTPL and enrolled at UT ("admit/enroll") is: 2005 (1656/966); 2006 (1790/1049); 2007 (1974/1109); 2008 (2218/1164); 2009 (2617/1353); 2010 (2857/1518); 2011 (2984/1518); 2012 (3337/1568); 2013 (3103/1391); 2014 (2722/1132); 2015 (3332/1359); 2016 (4002/1630); 2017 (3843/1529); 2018 (4140/1585). Annually, Hispanics comprised about thirty-one percent of TTPL admissions. Annually, about twenty-seven percent of Hispanics enrolled at UT if they were initially admitted through TTPL.

\textsuperscript{159} This data represents the total number of students automatically admitted under TTPL who also enrolled at UT ("admit/enroll"): 2005 (7286/4391); 2006 (8122/4902); 2007 (8476/4870); 2008 (9253/5114); 2009 (10205/5634); 2010 (10364/5546); 2011 (9383/4712); 2012 (10625/5425); 2013 (9963/4957); 2014 (8597/4310); 2015 (10092/4769); 2016 (11714/5429); 2017 (11739/3533).

\textsuperscript{160} See supra note 159; see also supra notes 155–58.

\textsuperscript{161} See supra note 154; see also supra notes 162–65.

\textsuperscript{162} Annual data for African Americans admitted and enrolled at UT thorough its holistic admissions ("admit/enroll") is: 2005 (592/87); 2006 (661/110); 2007 (707/138); 2008 (700/58); 2009 (630/34); 2010 (75/49); 2011 (137/77); 2012 (168/109); 2013 (132/78); 2014 (153/83); 2015 (143/83); 2016 (201/125); 2017 (247/151); 2018 (253/147). Annually, African Americans comprised about seven percent of holistic admissions. Annually, about five percent of African Americans enrolled at UT after they were admitted through the race-conscious holistic admissions process.

\textsuperscript{163} Annual data for Asian Americans admitted and enrolled at UT though its holistic admissions ("admit/enroll") is: 2005 (1865/350); 2006 (2060/327); 2007 (2163/378); 2008 (2079/173); 2009 (2186/181); 2010 (265/165); 2011 (468/265); 2012 (463/295); 2013 (404/250); 2014 (675/432); 2015 (843/495); 2016 (828/500); 2017 (794/473); 2018 (925/606). Annually, Asian Americans comprised about twenty-three percent of holistic admissions. Annually, about twenty percent of Asian Americans enrolled at UT after they were admitted through the race-conscious holistic admissions process.

\textsuperscript{164} Annual data for White Americans admitted and enrolled at UT thorough its holistic admissions ("admit/enroll") is: 2005 (5906/1230); 2006 (6268/1163); 2007 (6196/1112); 2008 (5854/790); 2009 (5297/614); 2010 (997/615); 2011 (1607/956); 2012 (1737/1081); 2013 (1447/888); 2014 (1873/1150); 2015 (1616/968); 2016 (1700/1007); 2017 (1649/1029); 2018 (1736/1045). Annually, White Americans comprised about forty-nine percent of holistic admissions. Annually, about fifty-nine percent of White Americans enrolled at UT after they were admitted through the race-conscious holistic admissions process.

\textsuperscript{165} Annual data for Hispanics admitted and enrolled at UT though its holistic admissions ("admit/enroll") is: 2005 (2119/264); 2006 (2318/314); 2007 (2550/343); 2008 (2218/158); 2009 (2787/93); 2010 (190/117); 2011 (375/221); 2012 (483/287); 2013 (325/207); 2014 (479/278); 2015 (477/272); 2016 (611/380); 2017 (727/453); 2018 (778/475). Annually, Hispanics comprised about twenty-one percent of holistic admissions. Annually, about sixteen percent of Hispanics enrolled at UT after they were admitted through the race-conscious holistic admissions process.
admissions process. Similar to the TTPL data, Figures 3 and 4 show that about fifty percent of students admitted under the holistic admissions enrolled at UT.

b. Analysis of UT’s TTPL and Holistic Admissions

A few trends emerge from the data regarding UT’s TTPL admissions/enrollment and holistic admissions/enrollment.

- About ninety percent of the students admitted to UT, from 2005 to 2018, through TTPL or its holistic admissions, were White American, African American, Asian American, and Hispanic.\(^{166}\)
- Over the course of thirteen years (2005–2018), about seventy-six percent of African American and Hispanics admitted to UT were through TTPL. Although these students were automatically admitted to UT, their enrollment rates averaged about forty percent.\(^{167}\)
- About seventy-one percent of Asian Americans and White Americans admitted at UT over the course of twelve years (2005–2018) were through TTPL. Their enrollment rates were about sixty-two percent.\(^{168}\)
- About twenty-four percent of African Americans and Hispanics admitted to UT from 2005 to 2018 were admitted through its holistic admissions. Their enrollment rates were about thirty-nine percent.\(^{169}\)
- Likewise, from 2005 to 2018, about twenty-nine percent of Asian Americans and White Americans were admitted to UT through its holistic admissions. Their enrollment rates were about fifty-two percent.\(^{170}\)
- From 2005 to 2018, White Americans were the most admitted and enrolled racial group under UT’s holistic admissions. About 21,000 White Americans were admitted under UT’s holistic admissions and about 13,000 of those students enrolled at UT, making their

\(^{166}\) See infra Figures 1–4 and supra note 154.

\(^{167}\) See supra notes 155, 158 and accompanying text; see also Tienda et al., supra note 32, at 9 (“Percent plans . . . may dampen the propensity of talented minority students to apply for admission if they do not realize that they qualify for the guarantee or if they perceive campus climate as unwelcoming.”).

\(^{168}\) See supra notes 156, 157, 159 and accompanying text.

\(^{169}\) See supra notes 154, 162, 165 and accompanying text.

\(^{170}\) See supra notes 154, 163–64 and accompanying text.
admissions-enrollment ratio about sixty percent.\footnote{171} Similarly, White Americans were the most admitted and enrolled racial group under TTPL during a ten-year period which spanned from 2005 to 2015.\footnote{172} About 52,000 White Americans were automatically admitted under TTPL and about 28,000 of those students enrolled at UT, making their admissions-enrollment ratio around fifty-three percent.

- Finally, the data reveals one definite and one potential defect in the admissions process. First, there is a defect in how UT defines race; specifically, UT does not capture the complexities of race and ethnicity in its current data sets.\footnote{173} This will be discussed further in Part III.\footnote{174}

- Second, there is a potential defect regarding the diversity of staff reviewing admissions files,\footnote{175} or underrepresented students being supported by UT once they enroll.\footnote{176}

\footnote{171}{See supra notes 154, 162–65 and accompanying text.}
\footnote{172}{See supra notes 155–59 and accompanying text. In 2013 and 2016–2018, Latino/a students were automatically admitted under TTPL at slightly higher rates than White Americans. However, Latino/a student enrollment rates during those years remained below White Americans. See UT REPORT 2014, supra note 154; UT REPORT 2017, supra note 154; UT REPORT 2018, supra note 154.}
\footnote{173}{The dissent in Fisher II made a valid point about how UT classifies race/ethnicity. \textit{See Fisher II}, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2229–30 (2016) (Alito, J., dissenting) (“UT[] use[s] . . . overly simplistic racial and ethnic categories.”). One of the solutions in Part III suggests that UT track race and ethnicity data in its feeder school reports, so UT could benefit from using broader classification since its focus on diversity includes “diversity within diversity.” \textit{See generally Carbode, supra note 38; Harpalani, supra note 38; supra notes 154–38, 162–65.}}
\footnote{174}{The U.S. Census acknowledges the different subsets of race; however, Hispanic persons are not defined as a “race,” but instead are considered an “ethnicity.” \textit{See supra notes 154–59, 162–65 and accompanying text; see also U.S. CENSUS BUREAU, 2013 NATIONAL CONTENT TEST RACE AND ETHNICITY ANALYSIS REPORT: A NEW DESIGN FOR THE 21ST CENTURY 3, Figure 1 (Feb. 20, 2017), available at https://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/decennial/2020/program-management/final-analysis-reports/2015rct-ethnicity-analysis.pdf (listing and defining categories).}}
\footnote{175}{Interview by Martha E. Mangelsdorf with Evan Apfelbaum, \textit{The Trouble with Homogenous Teams}, MIT Sloan MGMT. REV. (Dec. 11, 2017), https://sloanreview.mit.edu/article/the-trouble-with-homogeneous-teams/ (noting that the demographic makeup of people at the table affects people’s propensity to conform to others’ decisions and people are less likely to conform in diverse groups); see also Heather Doshay, \textit{Three Reasons Why Your Diversity and Inclusion Programs Are Not Working}, FORBES (July 17, 2018, 8:00 AM), https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbeshumanresourcescouncil/2018/07/17/three-reasons-why-your-diversity-and-inclusion-programs-are-not-working/#7c50c573494b (discussing “bad” diversity strategies companies have employed in the workplace).}
\footnote{176}{Barbara Mae Gayle et al., \textit{Safe Spaces, Difficult Dialogues, and Critical Thinking}, 7 INT’L J. FOR SCHOLARSHIP TEACHING & LEARNING, 2013, at 2 (“The goal of an academic safe space place is to create an ‘inclusive and effective learning environment in which opportunities for complex
Based on the above, there is data to answer the *Fisher II* inquiry as to how statewide demographics impact UT’s admissions process. Consistent with Texas’ statewide demographics, White Americans are the dominant racial group. Likewise, White Americans are the dominant racial group who are admitted to and enroll at UT via TTPL and its holistic admissions process. When Texas’ school-aged demographics are assessed, there is a dissimilar result. While Hispanics are the dominant racial group among school aged students, they are the second most admitted (ethnic) group to UT under TTPL and its holistic admissions. In terms of enrollment, as of 2010, Hispanics fell behind White Americans and Asian Americans, respectively. Due to this inconsistency, it is important to look to the data on a micro level because it may provide more insight.

2. A Micro Approach to the Data—Looking at the TTPL Pipeline of Texas Feeder Schools

Changing demographics of Texas’ students and those eligible for TTPL are reflected in its public high school enrollment data. Although regional TEA data (i.e., enrollment by educational service center regions) dates back to 2008, UT did not begin reporting regional data detailing TTPL admissions and enrollment until 2010.

The TEA reports public school data in three tiers. First, data is sorted by educational service center regions (‘‘ESCs’’). Second, data is sorted by cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal development exists for all students.” (internal citation omitted).}


178 UT REPORT 2011, supra note 154, at 11, Table 1.5 (noting Non Public or Not Reported figures for 2010 (fifteen percent or 1463) and 2011 (fourteen percent or 1329).

179 See TEX. EDUC. CODE § 8.002 (noting the purpose of ESCs to assist school district in improving student performance, enable school districts to operate efficiently and effectively, and implement initiatives assigned by the legislature or commissioner); see also Education Service Centers, TEX. EDUC. AGENCY, http://tea.texas.gov/About_TEA/Other_Services/Education_Service_Centers/Education_Service_Centers/ (listing the 20 ESCs). The ESCs are Region 1 (Edinburgh), Region 2 (Corpus Christi); Region 3 (Victoria), Region 4 (Houston), Region 5 (Beaumont), Region 6 (Huntsville), Region 7 (Kilgore), Region 8 (Mt. Pleasant), Region 9 (Wichita Falls), Region 10 (Richardson), Region 11 (Fort Worth), Region 12 (Waco), Region 13 (Austin), Region 14 (Auburn), Region 15 (San Angelo), Region 16 (Amarillo), Region 17 (Lubbock), Region 18 (Midland), Region 19 (El Paso), and Region 20 (San Antonio). *Id.*
Of those
approximately
designations,
such as college preparedness.

During an eight year span, 2010 to 2018, UT documented that
approximately 94,000 students were admitted to the University via TTPL. Of those 94,000 students, about 68,000 graduated high school from
five of the 20 ESC regions. Of those approximate 68,000 students, about

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180 See generally About Us, REGION10ESC, https://www.region10.org/about-us/.
https://tea.texas.gov/perfreport/src_2015-16/ (follow “School Report Card Definitions (English)” hyperlink). TEA offers a list of school report card (“SRC”) definitions each academic year. Id. The
SRC definitions most relevant here are: “race/ethnicity,” “economically disadvantaged,” and
“distinction designations.” The definitions used in this Article were published 2015–16.
182 The school report cards became more user friendly (i.e., easy to discern different categories)
HS; TEX. EDUC. AGENCY, 2010–11 SCHOOL REPORT CARD: ALDINE HS; TEX. EDUC. AGENCY,
2012–13 SCHOOL REPORT CARD: ALDINE HS.
183 TEX. EDUC. AGENCY, 2015–16 SCHOOL REPORT CARD (SRC) DEFINITIONS. TEA school report
cards designate race/ethnicity as: African American, Hispanic, White, American Indian, Asian,
and Two or More Races (or Multiracial).
184 Id. The term “economically disadvantaged” may be used interchangeably in this Article with socio-
economic status. Economically disadvantaged means “[t]he percentage of economically
disadvantaged students is the count of students that are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch or
other public assistance divided by the total number of students.” Id.
185 Id. “Distinction designations are awarded in recognition of outstanding achievement in specific
areas.” Id. The distinction relevant here is Postsecondary Readiness. The other distinctions
include: Academic Achievement in English Language Arts/Reading, Academic Achievement in
Mathematics, Academic Achievement in Science, Academic Achievement in Social Studies, Top
25 Percent: Student Progress, and Top 25 Percent: Closing Performance Gaps. Id.
186 See generally UT REPORT 2014, supra note 154, at 16, Table 1.5 (noting Non Public/Not Reported
figures for 2012 (less than one percent or forty-three), 2013 (one percent or fifty-six), 2014 (less than
one percent or thirty-eight); UT REPORT 2017, supra note 154, at 15, Table 1.5 (noting Non
Public/Not Reported figures for 2015 (less than one percent or eight); UT REPORT 2018, supra note
154, at 16, Table 1.5 (noting Non Public/Not Reported figures for 2016 (less than one percent or
eight), 2017 (less than one percent or six), 2018 (less than one percent or eleven)).
187 See generally UT REPORT 2011, supra note 154, at 12, Table 1.5; UT REPORT 2014, supra note 154,
at 15, Table 1.5; UT REPORT 2017, supra note 154, at 15, Table 1.5; UT REPORT 2018, supra note
154, at 16–17, Table 1.5. About seventy percent of the students that are automatically admitted to
UT graduated high school from one of five ESC regions; there are twenty ESC regions total in the
state. The comparison below shows TTPL admitted students from all twenty ESCs and the top
five regions from 2010 to 2018: 
- In 2010, all Regions (10,364) versus Top 5 Regions (6564) [Region 4 (2485), Region 10
(1362), Region 11 (885), Region 13 (1100), Region 20 (732)];
33,000 enrolled at UT. These ESCs — Region 4 (Houston), Region 10

- In 2011, all Regions (9383) versus Top 5 Regions (5938) [Region 4 (2203), Region 10 (1204), Region 11 (861), Region 13 (1034), Region 20 (636)];
- In 2012, all Regions (10,625) versus Top 5 Regions (7723) [Region 4 (2989), Region 10 (1619), Region 11 (955), Region 13 (1226), Region 20 (934)];
- In 2013, all Regions (9963) versus Top 5 Regions (7530) [Region 4 (2777), Region 10 (1558), Region 11 (942), Region 13 (1123), Region 20 (950)];
- In 2014, all Regions (8979) versus Top 5 Regions (6763) [Region 4 (2565), Region 10 (1438), Region 11 (827), Region 13 (1029), Region 20 (904)];
- In 2015, all Regions (10,092) versus Top 5 Regions (7544) [Region 4 (2865), Region 10 (1674), Region 11 (945), Region 13 (1119), Region 20 (941)];
- In 2016, all Regions (11,714) versus Top 5 Regions (8745) [Region 4 (3385), Region 10 (1812), Region 11 (1110), Region 13 (1331), Region 20 (1107)];
- In 2017, all Regions (11,739) versus Top 5 Regions (8747) [Region 4 (3277), Region 10 (1902), Region 11 (1218), Region 13 (1250), Region 20 (1100)].

188 UT REPORT 2011, supra note 154, at 12, Table 1.5; UT REPORT 2014, supra note 154, at 16, Table 1.5; UT REPORT 2017, supra note 154, at 16, Table 1.5; UT REPORT 2018, supra note 154, at 16–17, Table 1.5. About forty-nine percent of students that are automatically admitted to UT from all 20 ESCs enroll at the University. The comparison below shows TTPL admitted students who enrolled at UT, from all twenty ESCs and the top five regions from 2010 to 2018:

- In 2010, all Regions (5546) versus Top 5 Regions (3571) [Region 4 (1373), Region 10 (710), Region 11 (466), Region 13 (647), Region 20 (375)];
- In 2011, all Regions (4712) versus Top 5 Regions (3033) [Region 4 (1089), Region 10 (603), Region 11 (419), Region 13 (638), Region 20 (284)];
- In 2012, all Regions (3425) versus Top 5 Regions (2987) [Region 4 (1520), Region 10 (805), Region 11 (455), Region 13 (744), Region 20 (463)];
- In 2013, all Regions (4957) versus Top 5 Regions (3693) [Region 4 (1395), Region 10 (697), Region 11 (476), Region 13 (678), Region 20 (447)];
- In 2014, all Regions (4310) versus Top 5 Regions (3294) [Region 4 (1175), Region 10 (691), Region 11 (402), Region 13 (567), Region 20 (459)];
- In 2015, all Regions (4769) versus Top 5 Regions (3645) [Region 4 (1262), Region 10 (788), Region 11 (470), Region 13 (670), Region 20 (453)];
- In 2016, all Regions (5,429) versus Top 5 Regions (4,122) [Region 4 (1,908), Region 10 (832), Region 11 (508), Region 13 (754), Region 20 (530)];
- In 2017, all Regions (5056) versus Top 5 Regions (3806) [Region 4 (1339), Region 10 (802), Region 11 (480), Region 13 (711), Region 20 (474)]; and
- In 2018, all Regions (5333) versus Top 5 Regions (4108) [Region 4 (1501), Region 10 (815), Region 11 (529), Region 13 (734), Region 20 (529)].
(Richardson), Region 11 (Fort Worth), Region 13 (Austin), and Region 20 (San Antonio) (collectively, “Top 5 Regions”) — will be explored below.\textsuperscript{189}

The data in Figures 5 and 6 are critical to UT’s assessment and compliance with Fisher II because they detail regional figures which show another tier of demographic information that factor into UT’s holistic admissions.\textsuperscript{190} The Top 5 ESC Regions, which will be explored below, are likewise vital to UT’s assessment and compliance with Fisher II because they provide racial and ethnic data which may impact how race may factor into UT’s holistic admissions.\textsuperscript{191}

\textit{a. Region 4 – Houston}

The annual enrollment of high school students in Region 4,\textsuperscript{192} between 2011 and 2018, averaged 1.1 million students.\textsuperscript{193} During this time, the data

\textsuperscript{189} In 2001, Professor Montejano similarly found that UT was more “accessible” to students graduating from inner-city minority high schools in Dallas-Fort Worth, Houston, and San Antonio. See Montejano, supra note 32.

\textsuperscript{190} There is a period of time during the admissions cycle where UT should have data about (a) students that are automatically admitted to UT via TTPL and which of those students enroll at UT; (b) the number of remaining seats post-TTPL enrollment; and (c) the number of students who have sought admission via UT’s holistic process.

\textsuperscript{191} The data in footnotes 187 and 188 highlights three points. First, on balance, UT enrolls about forty-nine percent of all students from all twenty ESCs via TTPL [calculated by adding ‘All Regions’ admissions figures divided by ‘All Regions’ enrollment figures]. Second, seventy percent of students that are automatically admitted to UT via TTPL graduate from the five top ESCs [calculated by dividing ‘All Regions’ admissions by ‘Top 5 Regions’ admissions]. Third, of all of the students that were admitted to UT via TTPL and enroll at the University, about seventy-one percent graduated from the top five ESCs [calculated by adding ‘All Regions’ enrollment figures divided by ‘Top 5 Regions’ enrollment].


\textsuperscript{193} Region 4 has the largest enrollment of students in public schools in Texas, and thus potentially the greatest impact on students eligible for TTPL. See ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 148, at 37, Table 19; see also Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2016–17, OFFICE OF ACADEMICS, TEX. EDUC. AGENCY (June 2017) [hereinafter ENROLLMENT 2017], http://tea.texas.gov/accdre/enroll_index.html (for all enrollment reports follow “Enrollment in Texas Public Schools” hyperlink for the year desired); Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2015–16, OFFICE OF ACADEMICS, TEX. EDUC. AGENCY [Dec. 2016] [hereinafter ENROLLMENT 2016]; Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2014–15, OFFICE OF ACADEMICS, TEX. EDUC. AGENCY [Apr. 2016] [hereinafter ENROLLMENT 2015]; Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2013–14, OFFICE OF ACADEMICS, TEX. EDUC. AGENCY [Nov. 2014].
also shows that approximately 684,000 of those 1.1 million students were considered economically disadvantaged.194

In 2011, racial and ethnic enrollment data for grades nine through twelve provide that almost 292,000 African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and White American students were enrolled in Region 4 high schools.195 By

194 The average percentage of economically disadvantaged students in Region 4 Individual School Districts (“ISDs”) exceeds the statewide average. Compare REGION 4, PROFILE OF REGION 4 DISTRICTS AND CHARTERS: ENROLL, supra note 192 (noting that 58.2% of the student body is economically disadvantaged), with ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193, at 45, Table 21 (illustrating enrollment of economically disadvantaged students within ESCs). For more information, see also ENROLLMENT 2018, Table 8 (Enrollment of Economically Disadvantaged Students Within Racial/Ethnic Groups, Texas Public Schools), Table 13 (Enrollment of Economically Disadvantaged Students Within Grades, Texas Public Schools), and Table 21 (Enrollment of Economically Disadvantaged Students Within Education Service Center, Texas Public Schools).

195 There are 177 high schools in Region 4 that are feeder schools for UT, See AskTED, TEX. EDUC. AGENCY, http://tea4avholy.tea.state.tx.us/tea.askted.web/Forms/Home.aspx (select “Search By” and “Region,” then select the region type, check “Include School(s),” then check “Advanced Search,” for “District Type(s)” only select “Independent/Common,” for “School Type(s)” only select “Public (Does Not Include Charters),” for “Instruction Type(s)” only select “Regular,” for “Grade Levels” only select “High School”) (last visited Mar. 23, 2019). Two sources provide the high school enrollment data by race or ethnicity. They are: Source 1: ENROLLMENTS 2011–18, supra note 193; Source 2: PEIMS Standard Reports, TEX. EDUC. AGENCY, https://tea.texas.gov/Reports_and_Data/Student_Data/Standard_Reports/PEIMS_Standard_Reports/ (last visited Jan. 5, 2019). Once you are on the PEIM Standards Reports page locate the “Student Enrollment Reports” hyperlink, then follow this three-step process: (1) Click on the “School Year” and select the year sought (e.g., 2011–2012); (2) Click on “Report,” and use the drop down menu to select “Statewide Region Totals;” (3) Click on “Grade, Ethnicity or Gender” and use the drop down menu to select “Grade and Ethnicity.”

- 2011–2012: African Americans (60,681); Asian American (19,893); Hispanic (131,730); and White Americans (80,555).
- 2012–2013: African Americans (61,026); Asian American (20,566); Hispanic (137,294); and White Americans (79,622).
- 2013–2014: African Americans (61,700); Asian American (21,173); Hispanic (142,468); and White Americans (79,529).
- 2014–2015: African Americans (62,879); Asian American (22,263); Hispanic (150,586); and White Americans (80,145).
- 2015–2016: African Americans (63,817); Asian American (23,374); Hispanic (158,126); and White Americans (80,034).
2018, this number increased to over 333,000 students.\footnote{See supra note 195 and accompanying text.}

In Region 4, African American and Hispanic students’ graduate from racially homogenous high schools at higher rates than their White American or Asian American counterparts.\footnote{For purposes of this Article, a “racially homogenous school” exists when one racial or ethnic group is eighty percent or more of the school population. See Dylan Conger, \textit{New Directions in Measuring Racial Isolation in School} 1 (N.Y.U. Inst. Educ. & Soc. Pol’y Working Paper Series, Working Paper No. 08-02, 2008), https://steinhardt.nyu.edu/scmsAdmin/uploads/001/113/wp08-02webversion.pdf. The term “racial isolation” measured the exposure of each race to one another.} African American and Hispanic students also attend schools with higher rates of poverty or low socio-economic status than their White American (or Asian American) counterparts.\footnote{The combined population of African American and Latino students exceeded eighty percent of their respective districts in at least five ISDs located within Harris County. See \textit{School Report Cards, supra note 177} [follow hyperlink; select “2017–2018 School Report Card;” select “All School Report Cards by District;” select “District Name (full or partial name);” then type the applicable ISD; click “Search,” then “Choose a District” will identify the applicable ISD; finally, select “View Report”). The five ISDs are Aldine ISD, Galena Park ISD, Houston ISD, Pasadena ISD, and Sheldon ISD. See \textit{REGION 4, 49 SCHOOLS DISTRICTS COVERING 7 COUNTIES, supra note 192 and accompanying text.}} Below, the chart highlights some of the homogenous high schools that are TTPL feeder schools in Region 4.\footnote{Here, eleven of the twelve schools listed in Figure 7 are located in the same county (Harris County). \textit{School Report Cards, supra note 177.}}

The data in Figure 7 shows racial or ethnic segregation within Region 4 schools, specifically, but it is indicative of other schools located in other Top 5 ESC Regions.\footnote{See generally \textit{Fisher II}, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2231 (2016) (Alito, J., dissenting) (“UT complained that the Top Ten Percent Law hinders its efforts to assemble a broadly diverse class because the minorities admitted under that law are drawn largely from certain areas of Texas where there are majority-minority schools.”).} As UT assesses this data, the existence of segregated schools within the state must be considered.\footnote{See Shakira D. Pleasant, \textit{More than Just the Numbers: Fisher v. Texas and the Practical Impact of Texas’ Top Ten Percent Law}, 24 \textit{U. MIAMI BUS. L. REV.} 111, 121–27 (2016) (detailing Region 4 school-specific data and arguing that UT needs TTPL and its holistic process to achieve diversity).} The pipeline of students in Region 4 that are currently eligible for TTPL are graduating from homogenous, in-state schools, thereby undermining diversity.\footnote{See \textit{Fisher II}, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2231 (2016) (Alito, J., dissenting) (“UT complained that the Top Ten Percent Law hinders its efforts to assemble a broadly diverse class because the minorities admitted under that law are drawn largely from certain areas of Texas where there are majority-minority schools.”).}
b. Region 10 – Richardson

Consistent with the upward enrollment trends due to population growth, Region 10 high schools also saw increased enrollment of African American, Asian American, Hispanic, or White American students. An average of 805,000 students annually enrolled in Region 10 public high schools between 2011 and 2018. During this same time, approximately 456,000 of the 805,000 students in this region were considered economically disadvantaged. Similar to Region 4, Region 10 schools are also segregated, as noted by Figure 8.

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204 See ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193 and accompanying text (stating and describing the two sources that provide the high school enrollment data by race or ethnicity); PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195.

205 According to Region 10 demographics, Region 10 boasts the second largest enrollment of students in Texas public schools and admits the second largest number of students to UT through TTPL. See, e.g., UT REPORT 2018, supra note 154, at 15. There are 170 high schools in Region 10 that are feeder schools for UT. See AskTED, supra note 195; see also ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195.

• 2011–2012: African Americans (40,974); Asian American (11,354); Hispanic (78,296); and White Americans (71,959).
• 2012–2013: African Americans (41,217); Asian American (11,891); Hispanic (81,794); and White Americans (71,362).
• 2013–2014: African Americans (41,825); Asian American (12,566); Hispanic (86,428); and White Americans (71,378).
• 2014–2015: African Americans (42,760); Asian American (13,575); Hispanic (90,303); and White Americans (73,588).
• 2015–2016: African Americans (43,953); Asian American (14,562); Hispanic (95,243); and White Americans (71,956).
• 2016–2017: African Americans (44,884); Asian American (15,887); Hispanic (100,177); and White Americans (72,560).
• 2017–2018: African Americans (45,784); Asian American (17,345); Hispanic (103,714); and White Americans (73,573).

206 These figures equate to approximately fifty-seven percent of the students in Region 10. See generally ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193, at 45, Table 21 illustrating Enrollment of Economically Disadvantaged Students Within Education Service Centers, Texas Public Schools, 2005–06 and 2017–18. For other annual statistics, see also ENROLLMENT 2017, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2016, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2015, supra note 209, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2014, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2013, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2012, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20.
Based on Figure 8, there is one difference between Region 10 and Region 4 TTPL feeder schools. Unlike Region 4 where African Americans and Hispanics are the predominately segregated racial and ethnic groups, the segregated schools in Region 10 are representative of two races and one ethnicity—White Americans, African American, and Hispanic.207

c. Region 13—Austin

Like Regions 4 and 10, student enrollment at Region 13 high schools208 increased between 2011 and 2018.209 During these years, a little over 390,000 students enrolled in Region 13 public schools annually.210 Also

207 Between 2011 and 2018, over 350 students from several high schools among fourteen ISDs were automatically admitted to UT from Region 10; White Americans dominated the student populations of these fourteen schools, as they accounted for eighty percent or more of the total student body at each high school. School Report Cards, supra note 177. During the same time, more than 900 students from thirty plus high schools were automatically admitted to UT, but these students graduated from schools that were predominately African American or Latino. Id. At least twenty of the thirty plus schools are located in the same county, Dallas County, and the same ISD—Dallas ISD. Id.


209 See supra note 195 and accompanying text (stating and describing the two sources from the TEA that provide the high school enrollment data by race or ethnicity).

210 See supra note 193 and accompanying text. According to Region 13 demographics, Region 13 enrollment rates at UT are last among the Top 5 ESC regions. See, e.g., UT REPORT 2018, supra note 154, at 15. There are 77 high schools in Region 13 that are feeder schools for UT. See AskTED, supra note 195; see also ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEDIS Standard Reports, supra note 195.

- 2011–2012: African Americans (8455); Asian American (3752); Hispanic (41,199); and White Americans (44,276).
- 2012–2013: African Americans (8514); Asian American (3962); Hispanic (43,256); and White Americans (44,670).
- 2013–2014: African Americans (8518); Asian American (4199); Hispanic (44,819); and White Americans (45,207).
- 2014–2015: African Americans (8629); Asian American (4405); Hispanic (47,710); and White Americans (45,731).
- 2015–2016: African Americans (8398); Asian American (4754); Hispanic (50,244); and White Americans (46,637).
- 2016–2017: African Americans (8326); Asian American (5070); Hispanic (49,731); and White Americans (43,262).
- 2017–2018: African Americans (8239); Asian American (5584); Hispanic (51,327); and White Americans (43,906).
during this time, approximately 185,000 of the 390,000 students in this region were considered economically disadvantaged.\textsuperscript{211} Figure 9 shows that Region 13, similar to other Top 5 Regions, also has segregated high schools.

A difference between Region 13 high schools and others in the Top 5 Regions is the rate at which African Americans and Hispanics are “economically disadvantaged” in comparison to their White American (or Asian American) peers. African Americans and Hispanics are economically disadvantaged twenty percent more at schools where they comprise the majority student population.\textsuperscript{212} Conversely, where White Americans are the majority student population, they are “economically disadvantaged” at percentages less than the state average.\textsuperscript{213}

d. Region 11 – Fort Worth

Region 11 has the third largest public-school enrollment in the state of Texas,\textsuperscript{214} behind Regions 4 and 10, respectively.\textsuperscript{215} However, it is the fourth largest pipeline for TTPL students admitted to UT.\textsuperscript{216} It also has the third

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item These figures equate to fifty-five percent of the students in Region 13. See ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195.
\item See ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195.
\item See ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195. While socioeconomic disparities also exist in Regions 4 and 10, the contrast in Region 13 is more glaring. From 2011 and 2018, more than 3300 students from approximately fourteen high schools among fourteen ISDs were automatically admitted to UT from Region 13. School Report Cards, supra note 177. White American students exceeded eighty percent of the student population at various individual school campuses within a couple of ISDs. Id. Conversely, African American and Latino students, combined, exceed eighty percent of the student body population in approximately thirteen ISDs and a multitude of individual school campuses. Id.
\item Region 11 has seventy-seven public school districts spanning approximately ten counties. See About Us, REGION 11 EDUC. SERV. CTR., http://www.esc11.net/Domain/3 (last visited Jan. 5, 2019); see also Schools Information, REGION 11 EDUC. SERV. CTR., http://www.esc11.net/Page/5390 (last visited Feb. 18, 2017).
\item From 2011 to 2018, about 567,000 students (on average) were enrolled in Region 11 public schools versus the 1.1 million and 794,000 students in Regions 4 and 10. See ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195.
\item There are 170 high schools in Region 11 that are feeder schools for UT. See AskTED, supra note 195; see also UT REPORT 2018, supra note 154, at 15; ENROLLMENTS 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195.
\begin{itemize}
\item 2011–2012: African Americans (21,279); Asian American (7007); Hispanic (46,879); and White Americans (73,951).
\item 2012–2013: African Americans (22,021); Asian American (7398); Hispanic (51,528); and White Americans (73,766).
\item 2013–2014: African Americans (22,594); Asian American (7398); Hispanic (51,528); and White Americans (73,523).
\end{itemize}
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
largest amount of economically disadvantaged students, behind Regions 4 and 10, respectively.217 Region 11 high schools and Region 10 high schools are similar because White Americans are the dominate racial group in the region; both regions also encompass cities within the Dallas-Fort Worth-Arlington metropolitan area.

Even though Region 11 has fewer segregated schools than the other regions, the data in Figure 10 shows that African American and Hispanic students are still segregated in schools within one ISD—Fort Worth ISD.218

- 2014–2015: African Americans (23,128); Asian American (7791); Hispanic (53,727); and White Americans (73,747).
- 2015–2016: African Americans (24,248); Asian American (8270); Hispanic (57,026); and White Americans (75,595).
- 2016–2017: African Americans (25,246); Asian American (8697); Hispanic (59,863); and White Americans (75,147).
- 2017–2018: African Americans (26,058); Asian American (9191); Hispanic (61,466); and White Americans (74,884).

217 From 2011 to 2018, about 281,000 of the approximate 570,000 students annually enrolled in Region 11 schools were economically disadvantaged. See ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193, at 45, Table 21; ENROLLMENT 2017, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2016, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2015, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2014, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2013, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2012, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2011, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20.

218 According to UTs feeder school report, about twelve of the schools are predominately White or predominately African American and Latino. From 2011 and 2018, approximately 3400 students from high schools among fourteen ISDs were automatically admitted to UT from Region 11. Here, the term “predominately” means the identified racial group is eighty percent or more of the student population. Some of the predominately White schools are: Callisburg High School (Callisburg ISD), Muenster High School (Muenster ISD), Paradise High School (Paradise ISD), Peaster High School (Peaster ISD), Poolville High School (Poolville ISD), and Rio Vista High School (Rio Vista ISD). Some of the predominately African American and Hispanic schools are South Hills High School (Fort Worth ISD) and Amon-Carter Riverside High School (Fort Worth ISD). See School Report Cards, supra note 177.
e. Region 20 – San Antonio

Region 20 automatically admits the least number of students to UT, but has the fourth highest public school student enrollment of the Top 5 ESCs. Between 2011 and 2018, approximately 446,000 students enrolled annually in Region 20 public schools. These same years, about 280,000 of the 446,000 students enrolled in schools within this region were considered economically disadvantaged.

As Figure 11 shows, Region 20 is not unlike its counterparts (i.e., Regions 4, 10, 13, and 11). This region also saw an increase in the number of African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and White Americans that were enrolled in high school between 2011 and 2018. Likewise, in this region, White Americans exceeded seventy percent of the student population in two

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219 See, e.g., UT REPORT 2018, supra note 154, at 15, Table 1.5. Region 20 (San Antonio) has about fifty-two public school districts spanning approximately eighteen counties. See ESC-20 School Districts, ESC 20, https://www.esc20.net/page/esc.R20.public.isds (last visited Jan. 5, 2019) (mapping Region 20 coverage). There are 89 high schools in Region 20 that are feeder schools for UT. See AskTED, supra note 195.

220 See ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193, at 38, Table 19; ENROLLMENT 2017, supra note 193, at 38, Table 19; see also ENROLLMENT 2016, supra note 193, at 35, Table 18; ENROLLMENT 2015, supra note 193, at 35, Table 18; ENROLLMENT 2014, supra note 193, at 35, Table 18; ENROLLMENT 2013, supra note 193, at 35, Table 18; ENROLLMENT 2012, supra note 193, at 35, Table 18; ENROLLMENT 2011, supra note 193, at 35, Table 18.

221 This is about sixty-three percent of the students. See ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193, at 45, Table 21; ENROLLMENT 2017, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; see also ENROLLMENT 2016, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2015, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2014, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2013, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2012, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2011, supra note 193, at 42, Table 20.

222 See ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193, at 43, Table 20; ENROLLMENT 2011–2018, supra note 193; PEIMS Standard Reports, supra note 195.

- 2011–2012: African Americans (7891); Asian American (2038); Hispanic (77,553); and White American (25,840).
- 2012–2013: African Americans (7834); Asian Americans (2143); Hispanic (79,607); and White Americans (25,740).
- 2013–2014: African Americans (7853), Asian Americans (2205); Hispanics (81,376); and White Americans (25,417).
- 2014–2015, African Americans (8058); Asian Americans (2245); Hispanic (83,906); and White Americans (26,383).
- 2015–2016: African Americans (8624); Asian Americans (2373); Hispanic (88,876); and White Americans (26,383).
- 2016–2017: African Americans (8998); Asian Americans (2541); Hispanic (93,251); and White Americans (30,135).
- 2017–2018: African Americans (8941); Asian Americans (2703); Hispanic (92,962); and White Americans (30,017).
ISDs and two individual school campuses while African American or Hispanic students, combined, exceeded eighty percent of the student body population in thirteen ISDs and a multitude of individual school campuses.

What is evident from the data for the Top 5 ESC Regions is that Texas’ demographics have not changed in a significant way to undermine UT’s need to consider race in its holistic admissions process. Because the majority of TTPL admitted students’ graduate high school from one of these regions, there is now proof that TTPL is insufficient to produce a diverse student body at UT. This is particularly true if UT seeks to admit diverse students within racial groups.

C. ANALYZE: Recent Demographic Data Contradicts the Dissent

In Fisher II, Justice Samuel Alito made several allegations in his dissenting opinion. Two of those allegations—that affirmative action opponents may argue support ending UT’s race-conscious admissions—will be discussed below.

First, Justice Alito alleged that UT seeks to engage in “racial balancing.” However, the data in Section II.B provides insight as to why UT needs to continue using race as a factor in its holistic admissions—racial balancing is not the reason. As the data shows, UT admitted White Americans under its race-conscious holistic admissions policy at greater rates than Hispanic and Asian Americans and more than nine times the rate of

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224 See infra Figure 11.

225 See Harpalani, supra note 38 (identifying how the legislative approach of TTPL viewed “diversity” too narrowly); Boddie, supra note 38 (same).

226 See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2190, 2225 (2016) (Alito, J., dissenting) (“To the extent that UT is pursuing parity with Texas demographics, that is nothing more than ‘outright racial balancing,’ which this Court has time and again held ‘patently unconstitutional’” (citing Fisher I, 570 U.S. 297, 311 (2013) and Regents of Univ. of Cal. v. Bakke, 438 U.S. 265, 307 (1978) (“If petitioner’s purpose is to assure within its student body some specified percentage of a particular group merely because of its race or ethnic origin, such a preferential purpose must be rejected . . . as facially invalid.”))).

227 See id. at 2213 (majority opinion) (arguing that TTPL may increase minority enrollment but does so at risk of losing social and skill diversity). While TTPL is one tool to increase diversity at UT, the data shows it is insufficient by itself. In fact, the Court noted that class rank—as a single metric—does not lead to student body diversity because it will capture certain types of people and miss others. See id.; see also William C. Kiddere, How Workable Are Class-Based and Race-Neutral Alternatives at Leading American Universities?, 64 UCLA L. REV. DISC. 100 (2016) (arguing that percentage plans admission based on socio-economic status are not effective alternatives).
African Americans.\textsuperscript{228} If the “laws of mathematics” apply as Justice Alito contends, then clearly UT’s holistic policy has boosted the admissions of White Americans, in comparison to Asian Americans, African Americans, and Hispanics.\textsuperscript{229} Since no arguments have been made about racial balancing among White Americans, the same should hold true for other races or ethnicities.\textsuperscript{230}

Second, Justice Alito alleged that UT’s holistic admissions do not comply with the Equal Protection Clause because as a state-sanctioned institution, UT does not treat applicants under its holistic review as individuals.\textsuperscript{231} This allegation is wrong even though Justice Alito appropriately stated that “[a]t the heart of the Constitution’s guarantee of equal protection lies the simple command that the Government must treat citizens as individuals, not as simply components of a racial, religious, sexual, or national class.”\textsuperscript{232} Race or ethnicity is not a mutually exclusive characteristic that can be divorced from the individual; therefore, it also cannot be divorced from the Constitution’s guarantee.\textsuperscript{233} Furthermore, the avoidance of racial isolation\textsuperscript{234} and the achievement of a diverse student body are likewise at the heart of the Constitution’s guarantee of equal protection, and that is reason enough to consider race as a factor in an individualized, holistic admissions process.\textsuperscript{235}

\textsuperscript{228} See infra Figures 3 & 4; see also supra notes 153, 162–65.
\textsuperscript{229} See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2227 n.4 [Alito, J., dissenting] (“UT’s program is clearly designed to increase the number of African-American and Hispanic students by giving them an admissions boost vis-à-vis other applicants.”); see also id. [making the same argument that Students for Fair Admissions alleged in their lawsuit against Harvard that considering race to the benefit of African Americans and Hispanics is injurious to Asians]; Students for Fair Admissions, Inc. v. President & Fellows of Harvard Coll., No. 14-cv-14176-ADB, 2018 WL 4688308, at *17 (D. Mass. Sept. 28, 2018) [outlining Students for Fair Admissions’ argument].
\textsuperscript{230} KROLL, UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN—INVESTIGATION OF ADMISSION PRACTICES AND ALLEGATIONS OF UNDUE INFLUENCE 29, 37–38 (Feb. 6, 2015), available at https://www.utsystem.edu/sites/default/files/news/assets/kroll-investigation-admissions-practices.pdf (conveying that a relationship with university officials has on occasion provided some applicants a “competitive boost” because “the admissions process has become much more political,” and “money and influence are always significant factors”).
\textsuperscript{231} Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. at 2221 [Alito, J., dissenting].
\textsuperscript{232} Id. [internal quotation marks omitted] (quoting Miller v. Johnson, 515 U.S. 900, 911 (1995)).
\textsuperscript{233} See, e.g., Maya Sen & Omar Wasow, Race as a Bundle of Sticks: Designs that Estimate Effects of Seemingly Immutable Characteristics, 19 ANN. REV. POL. SCI. 499, 500 (2016) (conceptualizing race and ethnicity in constructivist terms in order to disaggregate unique elements).
\textsuperscript{235} See Eboni Nelson, Reading Between the Blurred Lines of Fisher v. University of Texas, 48 VAL. U. L.
While the Equal Protection Clause requires that people be treated “equally,” the narrative that race must be excluded from consideration in college admissions mirrors a tale of classism. Classism and race, historically, appear intertwined, so to remain compliant with the Fisher II decision and the “Constitution’s guarantee of equal protection,” UT cannot be complicit in a classism battle.

Accordingly, to ensure that UT meets the mandate of the Court, it will need to implement new strategies.

### III. Strategies to Create an Unassailable Position Using Focus, Forethought, and Organizational Process Improvement

With proper focus and forethought, UT can create an unassailable position and remain in compliance with the Fisher II holding. As the

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236 The term “equality” is defined by Cambridge Dictionary as “the right of different groups of people to receive the same treatment,” or “a situation in which men and women, people of different races, religions, etc. are all treated fairly and have the same opportunities.” See Equality, CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY ONLINE, https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/english/equality (last visited Jan. 10, 2019); see also Equal, MERRIAM-WEBSTER DICTIONARY ONLINE, https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/equal (last visited Jan. 10, 2019) (defining “equal” as “like for each member of a group, class, or society.”).

237 Historically, Ivy League colleges and universities interests were “to admit the . . . sons of major donors and to exclude the brilliant but unpolished children of immigrants, whose very presence prompted privileged young Anglo-Saxon men—the probable leaders and donors of the future—to seek their education elsewhere.” Jonathan R. Zell, It’s Not About Race: The True Purpose of the University of Texas’ Holistic-Admissions System Is to Give Preferences to Well-Connected White Applicants, Not to Disadvantaged Minorities, 24 U. MIAMI BUS. L. REV. 35, 43 (2016) (quoting JEROME KARABEL, THE CHOSEN: THE HIDDEN HISTORY OF ADMISSION AND EXCLUSION AT HARVARD, YALE, AND PRINCETON 2 (2005)); see also Oral Argument at 67:10–15, Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198 (2016) (No. 14-981), https://www.oyez.org/cases/2015/14-981 (“[T]here are those who contend that it does not benefit African-Americans to . . . get them into the University of Texas where they do not do well, as opposed to having them go to a less-advanced school, a . . . slower-track school where they do well.”) (emphasis added)).


239 See Tzu, supra note 44, at 40 (“He who exercises no forethought but makes light of his opponents is
A. IMPROVE: Data Collection for TTPL Feeder Schools

UT’s commitment to individual opportunity and selectivity does not have to be impacted by the number of annually admitted TTPL students. However, such commitment cannot ignore the fact that data in Part II shows a lack of diversity created by the TTPL pipeline. UT cannot control which students are automatically admitted under TTPL, but the university can affect whether those students matriculate.

The Part II analysis of TTPL data helps clarify the U.S. Supreme Court’s inquiry about how “students . . . differ in their contribution to diversity.” But there are still immediate changes that UT can undertake to improve its data collection and evaluation so it can assess the fairness of its holistic admissions. The solutions detailed below are: (1) organize the feeder school report by ESC and then alphabetically by ISD, and individual campus; (2) include the race(s) and socioeconomic percentage of the students at each feeder school as well as the race or ethnicity of students that are automatically admitted to UT and enroll at UT from TTPL feeder schools; and (3) include which feeder schools have a high percentage of economically disadvantaged students, college prepared students, or both.
The data in Part II, coupled with Professors Tienda and Montejano’s prior analysis, show why race is still a necessary factor in UT’s holistic admissions. The discussion below continues its focus on the numbers—TTPL admissions and enrollment data and UT’s holistic admissions and enrollment data—but recommends changes to address defects. By implementing these changes, UT can attain more diversity under TTPL and optimize its race-conscious holistic admissions such that it remains constitutionally permissible.

1. Organize and Report Feeder School Data By ESC, ISD, and Individual School Campus.

The solution recommended here would improve UT’s reporting for the SB175 Report, which is also known as the Feeder School Report. Presently, UT reports data to the Texas Legislature that identifies several statistical data points. These data points include: (1) the school code; (2) the individual school campus; (3) the city where the individual school campus is located; and (4) the raw numbers of TTPL admitted/enrolled students by year.

These data points, by themselves, are ineffective to meet the mandate of may pursue the goal of bringing together students of diverse backgrounds and races through other means, including strategic site selection of new schools; drawing attendance zones with general recognition of the demographics of neighborhoods; allocating resources for special programs; recruiting students and faculty in a targeted fashion; and tracking enrollments, performance, and other statistics by race. These mechanisms are race conscious but do not lead to different treatment based on a classification that tells each student he or she is to be defined by race, so it is unlikely any of them would demand strict scrutiny to be found permissible.” (emphasis added)).

This section incorporates data from Section II.B.2 as well as data spanning the same timeline (i.e., 2005 to 2018) as the statewide demographic data in Section II.B.1. This approach was taken to be inclusive of the majority and dissenting opinions in Fisher II.

To view SB175-AdmER-TxSchools (also known as “SB175 Reports” or “Feeder School” Reports), see Automatic Admission Reports, UNIV. TEX. AUSTIN OFFICE EXEC. VICE PRESIDENT & PROVOST, https://provost.utexas.edu/enrollment-management/admissions-research/admission-reports (follow the “SB 175 Report Archive” hyperlink for past years). See generally UT REPORT 2011, supra note 154.

Although Table 1.2 in UT REPORT 2011 captures TTPL admissions and enrollments by ESC, that data set is limited because it doesn’t go a step further by also capturing the race/ethnicity or economic status. The solution proposed here incorporates aspects of Table 1.2 from the SB 175 report and incorporates it into the SB175-AdmER-TxSchools report.
If UT isolates certain data points in its pipeline and that pipeline consists of graduates of Texas high schools (i.e., feeder schools), then UT can exercise “more control” over its holistic admissions. For example, UT does not currently collect data about which ESCs and ISDs serve as feeder schools for TTPL students. However, by collecting ESC and ISD data as part of the SB175 Report, UT can ascertain (1) whether students from certain ESCs or ISDs are fulfilling the automatic admission process by completing the admission application; and (2) if students are or are not completing the admission application, what are the trends among racial or ethnic groups, and ESC or ISD. Therefore, this solution recommends that UT improve its SB175 Report to include these additional data points: (1) the ESC region and ISD where a feeder school is located; (2) the race or ethnicity of students that are automatically admitted or enroll at UT from TTPL feeder schools; and (3) feeder schools that have a high percentage of economically disadvantaged students, college prepared students, or both.

The effects of this could include proactively identifying scholars for UT’s TIP Scholars Program or potential participants in its University Leadership Network (“ULN”). See About TIP Scholars, UNIV. TEX. AUSTIN COLL. NAT. SCI., https://cns.utexas.edu/tip-scholars/future-scholars/about-tip-scholars#what-is-tip-scholars (last visited Jan. 5, 2019) (“The TIP Scholars program is an academic community for students admitted to the College of Natural Sciences at the University of Texas at Austin.”); see also University Leadership Network, UNIV. TEX. AUSTIN STUDENT SUCCESS INITIATIVES, http://studentsuccess.utexas.edu/uln (last visited Jan. 5, 2019) (“The University Leadership Network (ULN) is a nationally recognized incentive-based scholarship program for students with demonstrated financial need.”).

For colleges or universities that are not located in Texas, the same concept can apply. Most states have a state education agency, and most states have geographically designated school districts. See State Education Agencies, STATE COUNCIL HIGHER EDUC. FOR VA., http://www.schev.edu/index/state-education-agencies-nationwide (last visited Mar. 13, 2019). By tracking the admissions and enrollment data of students from individual school districts, there will be a true sense of the numbers versus an anecdotal assertion of who is or is not gaining access to higher education institutions. See also Parents Involved, 551 U.S. at 782 [Kennedy, J. concurring in part and concurring in the judgment] (“The Nation’s schools strive to teach that our strength comes from people of different races, creeds, and cultures uniting in commitment to the freedom of all.”).

This solution would eliminate duplication or misidentification of feeder school results because some Texas high schools have the same name but are located in different regions or ISDs.

This solution would enhance UT’s assessment of students who may apply via its holistic admissions because no race or ethnic data is provided about TTPL students who are automatically admitted or enroll from particular feeder schools. See generally Automatic Admission Reports, supra note 248.

This solution would enhance UT’s assessment of students who may apply via its holistic admissions, as well as TTPL students who matriculate. By including socio-economic and college preparedness data in the SB175 Report, UT can determine what (if any) additional resources TTPL admittees may need upon enrollment.
The narrative of three students—Ms. Grayson Rutherford, Ms. Genesis Morales, and Ms. Stephanie Quintero—from the Texas Tribune’s three-part series titled “The Price of Admission,” further illustrates why it is imperative that UT begin tracking ESC and ISD data on the SB175 Report. A brief summary of their experiences seeking admission to UT are noted below.

Ms. Grayson Rutherford did not graduate in the top 10 percent of her class at Highland Park High School located in the Highland Park ISD of ESC Region 10 (Richardson). Although her class rank did not grant her automatic admission to UT, she still believes it is fair “that minorities . . . have programs set up and ways of including them into schools that typically just take white, privileged kids.” She learned about TTPL in her government class, and students at her school have been groomed to attend Ivy League Universities since middle school.

Ms. Rutherford and her peers receive summer SAT and ACT prep courses, they are legacy applicants because a parent or grandparent graduated from UT, and UT routinely admits and enrolls students from her specific high school. Ultimately, she was admitted to UT via its holistic admissions but she chose not to enroll at the University because she received a full scholarship to Vanderbilt, which was one of many prestigious universities where she applied.

256 Ms. Rutherford is a White American and graduated from a Region 10 high school. Ms. Morales and Ms. Quintero are Latina and graduated from high schools in Regions 11 and 4, respectively. See Satija & Watkins, supra note 193; Satija & Watkins, infra note 285.


258 As of 2018, over eighty-six percent of Highland Park High School’s student body is White, zero percent of its student body is economically disadvantaged, and the high school is located in one of the top-five ESC regions addressed in Part II of this Article. See 2017–18 School Report Card: Highland Park H S (057911001), TEX. EDUC. AGENCY 2018, https://rptsvr1.tea.texas.gov/perfreport/src/2018/campus.srch.html (select “Campus Name” and search “Highland Park H S” then selected “Highland Park H S in Highland Park ISD, Dallas County” under “Choose a campus”); ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193.

259 She applied to UT via its holistic program, touting a “4.15 [grade point average], and . . . [an] ACT [score] . . . in the 98th percentile.” Satija & Watkins, infra note 257.

260 Id.

261 More than 150 Highland Park High School graduates apply to UT annually, and approximately seventy-three percent of those students are admitted to and enroll at UT. Id.

262 She applied to: University of California, Berkeley; the University of California, Los Angeles; the University of Southern California; UT-Austin; Tulane University; Purdue University; the University of Michigan; Emory University; Boston College; the University of Arizona; Northeastern University; Vanderbilt; the University of Pennsylvania; and her dad’s alma mater, Harvard College. Id.
Ms. Morales graduated number eight in her class at Bryan Adams High School located in the Dallas ISD of ESC Region 11 (Fort Worth).\textsuperscript{263} “I even though Morales would be automatically admitted to UT-Austin, she didn’t apply.”\textsuperscript{264} Her parents didn’t even graduate from high school and her impression of the types of students who attended UT-Austin were “people who have money, people who are, like, prodigies and stuff, . . . [she] . . . was never surrounded by those people—people who went to college.”\textsuperscript{265} Ultimately Ms. Morales chose to attend a smaller, less prestigious university.\textsuperscript{266}

Ms. Quintero graduated from Carver High School located in the Aldine ISD of ESC Region 4 (Houston).\textsuperscript{267} She was automatically admitted to UT via TTPL and she enrolled at the university.\textsuperscript{268} However, when she failed two quizzes in her freshman chemistry course, she began to “wonder whether she was ready for college” and believed that her classmates were “better-prepared.”\textsuperscript{269} Luckily for Ms. Quintero, UT professor David Laude had the

\begin{footnotes}
\footnotetext[263]{Id. As of 2018, over ninety-percent of Bryan Adams High School’s student body is African American and Hispanic, almost eighty-nine percent of its student body is economically disadvantaged, and the high school is located in one of the top-five ESC regions addressed in Part II of this Article. See 2017–18 School Report Card: Bryan Adams H S (057905001), TEX. EDUC. AGENCY (2018), https://rptsvr1.tea.texas.gov/perfreport/src/2018/campus.srch.html (select “Campus Name” and search “Bryan Adams H S” then selected view report); ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193.}

\footnotetext[264]{Satija & Watkins, supra note 257 (emphasis added). According to Krystal Morrow, “[m]any seniors [at Bryan Adams High School] . . . had no idea the rule existed until they received a slip a paper, toward the end of their junior year, stating that they were in the top 10 percent. Some of them didn’t even know what a grade-point average was until that moment.” Id. (emphasis added).}

\footnotetext[265]{Id. (emphasis added). Although Morales acknowledged that prestige matters, her rationale for not applying to a prestigious school [like UT] was because she didn’t “feel [she was] . . . going to be as smart. . . . [because she didn’t] have the same teachers, and all of [the] extra books that you get” at high schools with lower percentages of economically disadvantaged students or that weren’t racially segregated amongst African American and Hispanic students. Id.}

\footnotetext[266]{Id. Although some familial issues were a factor in her decision, in the end, Ms. Morales still believed she “wasn’t smart enough” to enroll at UT-Austin or Texas A&M. Had Ms. Morales received similar support, access, or even targeted recruitment efforts like Ms. Grayson Rutherford, how much could that have increased the odds that Ms. Morales would have applied and enrolled at UT-Austin?}

\footnotetext[267]{Id. As of 2018, African-American and Hispanic students, combined, comprise over ninety-six percent of Carver High School’s student body. Further, about seventy-seven percent of its student body is economically disadvantaged, and the campus is located in ESC Region 4 (Houston), Aldine ISD. See 2017–18 School Report Card: Carver H S For Applied Tech/Engine (101902002), TEX. EDUC. AGENCY (2018), https://rptsvr1.tea.texas.gov/perfreport/src/2018/campus.srch.html (select “Campus Name” and search “Carver H S” then selected view report); ENROLLMENT 2018, supra note 193.}

\footnotetext[268]{Satija & Watkins, supra note 257. Ms. Quintero graduated in the top seven percent of her class. Id.}

\footnotetext[269]{Id. The article does not indicate whether Ms. Quintero’s parents graduated high school or college and this author makes no presumptions either. The article did note, however, that Ms. Quintero’s father was a maintenance worker and her mother cleaned houses. Id.}
foresight to spearhead the Texas Interdisciplinary Plan (or TIP program) and University Leadership Network (“ULN”), and she was a beneficiary of both programs. The support and mentorship offered through TIP and ULN enabled Quintero’s success at UT.

Should UT adopt this recommendation and capture data related to ESCs and ISDs, there are other intangible data points that the university can glean about the diversity of students from TTPL feeder schools. This intangible information could be helpful to UT’s continuing obligation to meet strict scrutiny, particularly because it could prove or disprove how weighted the factor of race is in the holistic admissions process.

2. Capture Racial and Economic Data from Feeder Schools.

It makes sense to improve reporting by tracking and analyzing racial and socio-economic data from UT’s feeder school because the University uses its holistic admissions to round out its entering class once TTPL students have been admitted and enrolled. Texas’ schools are still segregated and students from those schools are part of the TTPL pipeline.

The current report does not track this information; thus, UT could use the improved data set to determine how race and socio-economic status impact TTPL admissions/enrollment. Again, the narratives of Ms. Grayson Rutherford, Ms. Genesis Morales, and Ms. Stephanie Quintero are insightful with respect to this improvement.

270 Id. With guidance from her TIP mentor, Ms. Quintero talked frequently with her professor and ultimately earned a B in chemistry. Id.

271 Id.

272 See Sunny X. Niu & Marta Tienda, High School Economic Composition and College Persistence, 54 Res. High. Educ. 30, 51 (2013) (“Empirical results . . . show that high school curriculum, and in particular the availability of AP courses, accounts for the lower persistence and completion rates of graduates from poor high schools, but this estimate is likely conservative.”); see also Jason M. Fletcher & Marta Tienda, Race and Ethnic Differences in College Achievement: Does High School Attended Matter?, 627 Annals Am. Acad. Pol. & Soc. Sci. 144, 161 (2010) (“Our main hypothesis—that differences in the quality of high schools attended by minority versus majority students contribute to the collegiate achievement gaps—finds considerable support.”).

273 By following this recommendation, UT will have direct evidence. See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2216–17 (2018) (citing Fisher v. Univ. of Tex. at Austin, 758 F.3d 633, 669–70 (5th Cir. 2014) (Garza, J., dissenting)) (noting that the Fifth Circuit opinion reached the conclusion that Top Ten Percent admittees are “more homogeneous” with little direct evidence regarding the characteristics of Top Ten Percent and holistic admittees).

274 See Bowen, supra note 238, at 766 (“[W]ith the property tax funding of schools based on housing values, parental advantage, ability tracking, classroom climate, and college campus environment, we must acknowledge that poverty and racism play a role in a student of color’s college education.” (footnote omitted)).
Ms. Grayson Rutherford graduated from Highland Park High School. Its student body is over eighty-six percent White, and none (i.e., zero percent) of its student body is economically disadvantaged.\(^{275}\)

Ms. Morales graduated from Bryan Adams High School. Its student body is over ninety percent African American and Hispanic and almost eighty-nine percent of its student body is economically disadvantaged.\(^{276}\)

Ms. Quintero graduated from Carver High School. Over ninety-six percent of its student body is African American and Hispanic, and about seventy-seven percent of its student body is economically disadvantaged.\(^{277}\)

An obvious benefit of using racial and socio-economic data for TTPL feeder schools is that UT can identify this demographic information for seventy-five percent of its incoming freshman class.\(^{278}\) That can then translate into a better assessment of how much race is or is not used as a factor when determining which students to admit under the holistic admissions process.\(^{279}\)

Similar to tracking ESC and ISD data, this innovation could help UT determine intangible information.\(^{280}\) This could include, but not be limited to, whether there are effective recruitment strategies at schools where African

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278 Matthew Watkins, UT System Chancellor McRaven Blasts Top Ten Percent Rule, TEX. TRIB. (Jan. 21, 2016, 1:00 PM), https://www.texastribune.org/2016/01/21/ut-system-chancellor-mcraven-blasts-top-ten-percent/ (noting that Former Chancellor McRaven’s primary concern is that TTPL is not working to increase racial (and socioeconomic and geographic) diversity at UT and it is keeping UT down in the national rankings).

279 See Fletcher & Tienda, supra note 272, at 148 (“[M]inority students attending poor or highly segregated Texas public high schools are less likely than similarly situated whites to enroll at a selective postsecondary institution, even if they are guaranteed admission under the top 10% law.”); see also id. (“[H]igh school attended dictates whether selective postsecondary institutions are even envisioned as possible options.”) (citing PATRICIA M. MCDONOUGH, CHOOSING COLLEGES: HOW SOCIAL CLASS AND SCHOOLS STRUCTURE OPPORTUNITY (1997)).

280 See Bowen, supra note 258, at 767–68 (“[C]laims that race barriers can be resolved far more effectively and fairly through universal [socioeconomic status] affirmative action programs rather than race-based admissions, he ignores some significant social scientific findings. . . . ‘There is no good proxy, no more narrowly tailored criterion, no statistical treatment that can replace race.’ The story of being poor and the story of being Hispanic and/or black may have a cumulative effect, but they also have independent effects.”) (footnotes omitted) (quoting Michael A. Olivas, Constitutional Criteria: The Social Science and Common Law of Admissions Decisions in Higher Education, 68 U. COLO. L. REV. 1065, 1096, 1117 (1997)). See generally WILLIAM G. BOWEN & DEREK BOK, THE SHAPE OF THE RIVER: LONG-TERM CONSEQUENCES OF CONSIDERING RACE IN COLLEGE ADMISSIONS (1998) (pointing out that low income White Americans are still the majority among low income college students); Deborah C. Malamud, Class-Based Affirmative Action: Lessons and Caveats, 74 TEX. L. REV. 1847, 1850 (1996) (arguing that economic measures are ineffective replacements for racial-based admissions programs).
American or Hispanic students comprise eighty percent or more of the student population and where the student body is fifty percent or more economically disadvantaged. The data in Part II shows there is a disparity regarding the matriculation rates of African American and Hispanic students, so the collection of this data could identify trends contributing to UT’s admission/enrollment ratios.281

3. Capture Which Schools Have the Postsecondary Readiness Distinction Designation from the Texas Education Agency ("TEA")

By knowing which students are sanctioned by the TEA as “postsecondary ready,” UT can apply a consistent dataset that will enable the University to overcome criticism regarding TTPL admittees. Former Chancellor Bill McRaven has noted that students who are automatically admitted to UT are devaluing the university’s ranking due to their entering credentials.282 As he put it, UT wants to “make sure the right students are coming to the university,” and to “put us in the position to be a more competitive university.”283

Ms. Moreno’s story, particularly, provides another basis for why UT should track which TTPL feeder schools are deemed “postsecondary ready.” For three consecutive school years, Bryan Adams received several TEA designations, including one for postsecondary readiness.284 Likewise, Ms.

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281 While there may be a variety of reasons why students of certain racial or ethnic backgrounds do not matriculate to UT, even though they would be automatically admitted under TTPL, these reasons might include student exposure to UT, resource allocation, etc. See Satija & Watkins, supra note 257 (“Many seniors . . . [at Bryan Adams High School] had no idea the rule existed until they received a slip a paper, toward the end of their junior year, stating that they were in the top 10 percent. . . . At Highland Park, school counselors don’t spend much time persuading students to attend a four-year university. Instead, they try to find each student’s perfect higher education match. That conversation starts before the student even gets into high school. In the last semester of eighth grade, students meet with counselors to start mapping out goals. The school also offers an SAT and ACT prep course during the summer, while some parents also pay thousands of dollars to hire private college admissions consultants.”).

282 See Watkins, supra note 278.


Quintero’s story is instructive because although her high school did not have a postsecondary readiness designation, she was successful at UT (like many others) with additional assistance.285 This strategy provides UT with an efficient innovation that accomplishes three objectives. First, adding this data point to the feeder school report provides UT another tool to identify which TTPL students attended high schools with resources to prepare them for post-secondary education and those high schools that did not have resources or meet that standard. If the data shows students graduated from a resource poor school, it is a proactive way to identify which students may need additional support upon enrolling at the University.286 Second, it could help UT target specific feeder schools that the University can potentially partner with to ensure students are taking college preparedness courses.287 Third, it can enable UT to identify to the

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285 As a result of programming such as Texas’ Interdisciplinary Program (“TIP”), seventy-one percent of students who were admitted via TTPL and participate in TIP obtained a 3.0 grade point average or higher. Matthew Watkins & Neena Satija, The Price of Admission: Part III: As UT Officials Fight the Top 10 Percent Rule, UT Also Fights to Make it a Success, TEX. TRIB. (Mar. 29, 2016), https://apps.texastribune.org/price-of-admission/getting-to-graduation/. Further, in TIP’s second year of programming, fifty-eight percent of students admitted via TTPL graduated in four-years even though their entrance predictors showed they could not achieve that goal. Id. While the recommendation in this Part proposes a proactive versus reactive remedy, the efforts that UT has undertaken (even if from a reactive state) have been successful and should be maintained. See About TIP Scholars, supra note 250 (introducing program); see also University Leadership Network, supra note 250 (introducing program).

286 See supra Section III.B; supra note 182 and accompanying text (explaining that data presentation has improved); see also University Leadership Network (ULN) FAQs, UNIV. TEX. AUSTIN STUDENT SUCCESS INITIATIVES, http://studentsuccess.utexas.edu/uln/faq (last visited Mar. 11, 2018) (explaining program requirements and benefits). The University Leadership Network (“ULN”) works collaboratively with the Office of Admissions, Office of Financial Aid, and the Enrollment Management team to select students for the program. University Leadership Network (ULN) FAQ, supra. ULN includes a four-year plan to keep students on track to graduate timely. Id. Touted as an incentive-based scholarship program that provides resources for students who may not otherwise have them, ULN also supports students by giving them leadership training, experiential opportunities, etc. Id.

287 By tracking which feeder schools have the postsecondary readiness designation, UT can strengthen its applicant pool. See, e.g., UT Austin Launches the TEXAS MicroMajor for High School Students, UT NEWS (Oct. 26, 2016), [https://web.archive.org/web/20170407071914/https://news.utexas.edu/2016/10/26/ut-austin-and-aid-partner-to-boost-college-readiness-0] (“The University of Texas at Austin is launching the TEXAS MicroMajor, a new initiative to help high school students become better prepared for success at leading universities.”); see also Texas MicroMajor, UNIV. TEX. AUSTIN: ONRamps, http://onramps.utexas.edu/initiatives/txmm/ (“Completing a Texas MicroMajor will help students become more competitive for success at UT Austin or other colleges and universities. In addition to standing out in college applications, students may be able to earn up to 12 hours of transferable credit, save in college tuition costs, and develop the skills necessary to excel in the workplace.”) (last visited Mar. 13, 2019). UT could also explore the possibility of ISDs teaming up with the community colleges currently partnered with UT to extend dual credit coursework to high school juniors and seniors.
Texas Legislature which feeder schools may need additional resources. Thus, if UT implements this strategy, the University fulfills its core values while undermining the correlation between high rates of economic disadvantage and under-preparedness.

C. IMPROVE: Safe Spaces at UT to Promote Retention

The data in Part II shows that UT admits and enrolls White Americans at a higher rate than any other racial or ethnic group, yet it is unclear whether the University has evaluated the data so as to reveal the reasons why. One reason that UT should assess data while considering the fairness of its race-conscious admissions is to determine whether a lack of “safe spaces” exist on campus, and if so, identify whether it is impacting diversity goals in a positive or negative way.

See supra note 287 and accompanying text (noting that UT could also explore the possibility of ISDs teaming up with the community colleges currently partnered with UT to extend dual credit coursework to high school juniors and seniors; see also Texas MicroMajor, supra note 287; Watkins & Satija, supra note 285 (“But because UT-Austin has no power to change the rule, it has been forced to grapple with how to make those students more successful. And that has created another unintended consequence: In recent years, the university has spent tens of millions of dollars trying to help students like Quintero catch up and stay on track to graduate in four years.”)). They are “[1]Learning—A caring community, all of us students, helping one another grow[,] [2] Discovery—Expanding knowledge and human understanding[,] [3] Freedom—To seek the truth and express it[,] [4] Leadership—The will to excel with integrity and the spirit that nothing is impossible[,] [5] Individual Opportunity—Many options, diverse people and ideas, one university[,] [6] Responsibility—to serve as a catalyst for positive change in Texas and beyond.” See Mission and Values, U. TEX. AUSTIN, https://www.utexas.edu/about/mission-and-values (last visited Jan. 5, 2019).

The debate as to how and to what degree race or ethnicity is used in UT’s holistic admissions has focused on minority races or ethnic groups (i.e., Asian Americans, African Americans, or Hispanics), but that focus disregards the question of how being of a majority racial group (i.e., White) factors into UT’s holistic admissions decisions. See Fisher II, 136 S. Ct. 2198, 2227 (2016) (Alito, J., dissenting) (“[UT has] not demonstrated that its race-conscious policy would promote classroom diversity any better than race-neutral options, such as expanding the Top Ten Percent Plan or using race-neutral holistic admissions.”); see also David Kow, The (Un)compelling Interest for Underrepresented Minority Students: Enhancing the Education of White Students Underexposed to Racial Diversity, 20 BERKELEY LA RAZA L.J. 157, 168 n.55 (2010) (“The way to stop discrimination on the basis of race is to stop discriminating on the basis of race.”).

See Vinay Harpalani, “Safe Spaces” and the Educational Benefits of Diversity, 13 DUKE J. CONST. L. & PUB. POL’LY 117, 127 (2017) (“[S]afe spaces function to ‘address difficult or tension-filled learning encounters[,]’ by creating ‘learning environment[s] that allow students to engage each other with honesty, sensitivity, and respect.’” (footnote omitted)); see also Parents Involved, 551 U.S. at 788 (Kennedy, J., concurring in part and concurring in the judgment) (“Today we enjoy a society that is remarkable in its openness and opportunity. Yet our tradition is to go beyond present achievements, however significant, and to recognize and confront the flaws and injustices that remain.”).
mechanisms for minority [and other underrepresented] students, by mitigating feelings of isolation . . . and [to] help[ ] them adjust to life on predominantly White campuses.292 This purpose applies to racial or ethnic minority students attending UT, as well as students from low socioeconomic backgrounds because safe spaces promote students feeling included in the broader student body, at ease to express themselves and share their experiences, and engage in difficult discourse without fear of reprisal or disregard.293

Presently, UT has two cohesive programs that embody the primary purpose of a “safe space;” these programs are the Texas Interdisciplinary Program (“TIP”) and the University Leadership Network (“ULN”).294 Professor David Laude295 created TIP and ULN based on his own college experience and the perspective he obtained from getting to know his students.296 Professor Laude’s history is relatable to some UT students297 because he struggled academically during college, earning a C in his introductory chemistry course; the same course he has taught at UT.298 After struggling in most of his introductory freshman courses, Professor Laude was ready to drop out of the university and attend a junior college, but fortunately he was urged by his father to stay the course.299 He created TIP and ULN after researching common attributes among students who appeared less prepared to handle the rigors of the courses at UT.300 He found that many of the students were the first in their families to attend college, most had poor parents, and most had not been exposed to college-level courses during high

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292 Harpalani, supra note 291, at 127; see also id. at 129 (noting that of over 4800 students queried in a 2015 survey published by the University of Illinois, fifty-one percent of respondents reported that they had been stereotyped in class and thirty-nine percent felt uncomfortable on campus because of their race).

293 Id.; see also Harpalani, supra note 38, at 475 (“It is very important for universities to acknowledge and address feelings of isolation and tokenism among minority students.”).

294 See Texas Advance Commitment, U. TEX. AUSTIN, https://admissions.utexas.edu/afford/scholarships/texas-advance (last visited Jan. 5, 2019) (illustrating that ULN is part of UT’s “Texas Advance” program which provides scholarship assistance to economically disadvantaged Texas high school students who were “historically limited in their access to higher education.”).


296 See Watkins & Satija, supra note 285 (noting that David Laude created TIP to help minority and underprivileged students succeed in college).

297 See id. (explaining that Professor Laude went to college “without a clue of how to succeed”).

298 See id. (quoting Professor Laude as saying “[m]ost people who’ve become faculty at public research universities don’t start off by doing really badly on the SAT and then getting a C in the course they now teach”).

299 See id. (noting that, while the article does not reveal the education level of Professor Laude’s father, it makes it clear that he had his father’s support pushing him to reach his potential).

300 Id.
school.\textsuperscript{301}

Similar to Professor Laude, Ms. Quintero also questioned her readiness for college.\textsuperscript{302} Ms. Quintero, like Professor Laude had support—from family, peers, or the university—to enable their success.\textsuperscript{303} Imagine what could be possible if a student knew that his or her college or university would support him or her by providing scholarships, peer support via a student mentor, and other resources to enable him or her to become “as smart” as the students he or she believed “belonged.”\textsuperscript{304} Ms. Quintero discovered that sense of “belonging” upon utilizing the support of TIP, her peer mentor, and realizing that her professor(s) were confident in her ability to be successful.\textsuperscript{305}

The “safe space” provided by TIP and ULN appear to promote a social (and possibly) cultural immersion to life at UT.\textsuperscript{306} However, these programs cannot bear the burden alone. UT should use the data improvements outlined in this Article to determine if safe spaces (or the lack thereof) are indicative of the root cause that will impact diversity among UT students.

**CONCLUSION**

As the U.S. Supreme Court has noted time and again in its precedent cases such as *Sweatt, Bakke, Grutter,* and *Fisher,* the value of student body diversity at institutions of higher education extends beyond test scores and grade point averages. Yet, when race or ethnicity are interjected into the conversation about higher education admissions and the value of diversity—

\textsuperscript{301} Id.

\textsuperscript{302} See id. (explaining that Ms. Quintero noted that she believed her colleagues were “better-prepared” for college).

\textsuperscript{303} For Ms. Quintero, the “small-group components of both [TIP and ULN]... helped her make friends and adjust to college life.” Id. Initially, TIP was less helpful academically, but once Ms. Quintero was assigned an upper-class mentor, she received and acted upon advice that helped her improve her grades, especially in Chemistry. Id.

\textsuperscript{304} According to *Merriam-Webster’s Dictionary,* the term “belong” means “be[ing] a member of a club, organization, or set.” *Belong, MERRIAM-WEBSTER DICTIONARY ONLINE,* https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/belong (last visited Jan 5, 2019); see also CLARENCE THOMAS, MY GRANDFATHER’S SON, A MEMOIR 43 (2007) (“I applied to the University of Missouri (and got accepted) but the more I thought about going there, the clearer it became that I wasn’t prepared to put myself through the emotional strain of attending yet another predominately white school.”); BISKUPIC, supra note 79, at 9 (“Opposition to Sotomayor at the time of her nomination came not in the form of outright racism... but in the subtle bias of commentators... Such criticism portrayed her as an intellectually inferior jurist and offered a narrative that competed with her personal story of success.”)

\textsuperscript{305} Ms. Quintero improved her Chemistry grade from a D to a B. That achievement affirmed that she could achieve anything she set her mind to and that she “belonged” at UT with her peers.

\textsuperscript{306} See Harpalani, supra note 291, at 153–54 (discussing the important role that safe spaces play in “promot[ing] cross-racial understanding and... break[ing] down racial stereotypes”).
the narrative becomes a dichotomy that envelops student merit and belonging. African Americans, Asian Americans, and Hispanics (and other non-majority, minority individuals) belong at elite universities, such as UT, just like their White American (majority) colleagues.

Justice Kennedy’s forewarning was unequivocal—data must be evaluated to justify the use of race-conscious admissions in the future. Therefore, by using the data and strategies noted above, UT can illustrate why population growth and changing racial and ethnic demographics in Texas have not undermined the need for its race-conscious admissions post-
Fisher II. Moreover, the data and anecdotal accounts of students admitted to UT via TTPL and its holistic admissions show there is no disadvantage (or perceived power given to) one racial group over another. Finally, minority students admitted to UT via TTPL or its holistic admissions can succeed at the University, but they may need additional support or safe spaces.

Armed with this data, UT can deal—head on—with achieving diversity among its student body in a manner that is consistent with the Constitution. Similarly, other colleges and universities can use data and the strategies herein to successfully defend their race-conscious admissions policies, thereby creating an unassailable position to normalize college admissions.
APPENDIX

Figure 1: TTPL Admissions from 2005–2018

Figure 2: TTPL Enrollment from 2005–2018

Figure 3: Holistic Admissions from 2005–2018
Figure 4: Holistic Enrollment from 2005–2018

Figure 5: TTPL Admissions from All 20 ESC Regions v. Top 5 ESC Regions
Figure 6: TTPL Enrollment from All 20 ESC Regions v. Top 5 ESC Regions

Figure 7: Sample Region 4 High Schools where One Race/Ethnic Group is 80% or more of Individual Campuses
Figure 8: Sample of Region 10 High Schools where One Race/Ethnic Group is 80% or more of Individual Campuses

Figure 9: Sample of Region 13 High Schools where One Race/Ethnic Group is 80% or more of Individual Campuses
Figure 10: Sample of Region 11 High Schools where One Race/Ethnic Group is 80% or more of Individual Campuses
Figure 11: Sample of Region 20 High Schools where One Race/Ethnic Group is 80% or more of Individual Campuses
Figure 12: Example of an Improved Feeder School Report