Transgender Persons Have A Fundamental Right To Use Public Bathrooms Matching Their Gender Identity

Marisa Pogofsky

Follow this and additional works at: https://via.library.depaul.edu/law-review

Part of the Law Commons

Recommended Citation

Marisa Pogofsky, Transgender Persons Have A Fundamental Right To Use Public Bathrooms Matching Their Gender Identity, 67 DePaul L. Rev. (2018)

Available at: https://via.library.depaul.edu/law-review/vol67/iss4/8
TRANSGENDER PERSONS HAVE A FUNDAMENTAL RIGHT TO USE PUBLIC BATHROOMS MATCHING THEIR GENDER IDENTITY

A prime part of the history of our Constitution . . . is the story of the extension of constitutional rights and protections to people once ignored or excluded.¹

INTRODUCTION

Recent contention surrounding bathroom access² for transgender persons³ suggests the extension of constitutional rights appears to be moving into its next chapter.⁴ At the start of 2016, two events amplified conversations surrounding sex-segregated facilities.⁵ First, North Carolina passed the Public Facilities Privacy & Security Act ("HB2").⁶

² This Comment uses the shortened term “bathroom access” to refer to transgender people’s access to a public bathroom facility corresponding to their gender identity.
⁴ Kevin M. Barry et al., A Bare Desire to Harm: Transgender People and the Equal Protection Clause, 57 B.C. L. Rev. 507, 508 (2016).
⁵ “Sex” relates to an individual’s biological status that is typically categorized as female, male, or intersex; categorization can be based on various indicators including “sex chromosomes, gonads, internal reproductive organs, and external genitalia.” Definitions Related to Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity in APA Documents, American Psychological Association, https://www.apa.org/pi/lgbt/resources/sexuality-definitions.pdf (last visited Mar. 4, 2017).
⁶ Public Facilities Privacy & Security Act ("House Bill 2"), Sess. L. No. 2016-3, 2016 N.C. Sess. Laws 2d Extra Sess. 12 (repealed 2017). On March 23, 2016, the Public Facilities Privacy & Security Act, commonly referred to as “House Bill 2” or “HB2”, was passed by both houses on the same day it was introduced. Tal Kopan & Eugene Scott, North Carolina governor signs
HB2 requires transgender individuals to use public bathrooms and changing facilities corresponding to the sex listed on their birth certificate.\textsuperscript{7} The U.S. Supreme Court agreed to determine whether public schools are required to let transgender students use the bathroom matching their gender identity\textsuperscript{8} in 2017.\textsuperscript{9} However, the Court decided not to hear the case due to the Trump administration’s move to revoke federal guidance under the Obama administration that instructed public schools to let transgender students use the bathroom of their choice.\textsuperscript{10} This would have been the first time the court would hear a case specifically on the issue of transgender rights.\textsuperscript{11}

Supporters believe HB2 and similarly proposed legislation\textsuperscript{12} are necessary to protect religious freedom and the privacy and safety of controversial transgender bill, CNN (Mar. 24, 2016), http://www.cnn.com/2016/03/23/politics/north-carolina-gender-bathrooms-bill/.

7. HB2 mandates, \textit{inter alia}, that all “[p]ublic agencies . . . require multiple occupancy bathrooms or changing facilities be designated for and only used by individuals based on their biological sex”; “Biological sex” is defined as the “physical condition of being male or female, which is stated on a person’s birth certificate.” \textit{Id.} “Public agencies” includes, among other entities, state executive, judicial, and legislative branches, and schools. \textit{Id.}

8. “Gender identity” refers to someone’s internal knowledge related to gender of being male, female, or something else. One’s gender identity is not always readily apparent because it relates to a person’s internal state. \textit{Frequently Asked Questions about Transgender People, Nat’l Center for Transgender Equality} (Jan. 15, 2014), http://www.transequality.org/issues/resources/frequently-asked-questions-about-transgender-people.


2018] BATHROOMS MATCHING GENDER IDENTITY 735

others, especially women and children.13 Conversely, opponents argue these laws codify discrimination without justification.14 From a legal standpoint, questions remain: can transgender persons be forced to use the restroom facility of the gender they were assigned at birth?15 Are constitutional rights violated when cisgender persons, but not transgender persons, are granted access to public facilities matching their gender identity? While the Constitution does not expressly grant transgender people the right to access public bathrooms matching their gender identity, the legal and social context surrounding the transgender bathroom debate reveals certain fundamental rights may be extended to encompass this particular right.

To begin, the public bathroom is a well-known site for civil rights struggles in America,17 and throughout American history has been considered a symbol of inequality.18 One of the most notable struggles concerned racially-segregated public bathrooms during the Jim Crow era.19 Eventually, the landmark decision of Brown v. Board of

13. Id.; see also Kopan & Scott, supra note 6.
15. Many transgender people feel they were assigned the wrong gender at birth and have identified with their gender identity their entire lives. Transgender Terminology, supra note 3.
16. Recognizing the need to be sensitive among transgender communities, this Comment uses the phrase “gender as assigned at birth” rather than “birth gender” or “a person who was born male” to be considerate to those who feel it less offensive. Id.
17. Cisgender (commonly abbreviated as “cis”) refers to a person whose gender identity is the same as the one they were assigned at birth. For example, a cisgender woman is a person who was assigned female at birth and currently identifies as female. Id.
18. “For generations, Americans have imparted bathrooms with their deepest anxieties about changing social norms and practices. From the Industrial Revolution to Jim Crow to women’s lib to today, restrooms have been a proxy for political fights on almost every major issue in American life – race, class, gender, crime, sexuality...” Neil J. Young, How the Bathroom Wars Shaped America, POLITICO (May 18, 2016), http://www.politico.com/magazine/story/2016/05/2016-bathroom-bills-politics-north-carolina-lgbt-transgender-history-restrooms-era-civil-rights-213902.
The transgender bathroom debate is also taking place in the aftermath of the marriage equality decision in Obergefell v. Hodges. Obergefell removed a key constitutional barrier for lesbian, gay, and bisexual people (LGB) in their struggle for equality. Until 2015, same-sex marriage could be invalidated by state laws; thus, same-sex couples could be denied crucial legal benefits and rights depending on which state they were residing. The Supreme Court’s emphasis on individual autonomy lends support to transgender people who seek legal recognition of their gender identity.

This Comment analyzes how fundamental rights of equality, privacy, and personal autonomy set forth in Brown and Obergefell encompass the right of transgender persons’ access to bathrooms matching their gender identity. Part II discusses the meaning of “transgender” and provides statistics to show that transgender people are a marginalized group in society. Part III argues Brown and Obergefell provide the basis for the rights asserted by transgender people in the bathroom debate and concludes HB2 is unconstitutional. Part IV reviews potential legal and policy implications associated with granting transgender persons’ access to public restrooms consistent with their gender identity. Part V concludes that a trans-

20. 347 U.S. 483, 495 (1954) (“We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of ‘separate but equal’ has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.”).
24. Barry et al., supra note 4, at 508 (“[m]arriage equality marks the summit of an incremental march toward equality under the Constitution—one that gained steam decades earlier with successful challenges to facially discriminatory laws that stripped LGB people of civil rights protections”); see, e.g., Baehr v. Lewin, 852 P.2d 44, 57 (Haw. 1993) (Hawaii Supreme Court held that excluding same-sex couples from marriage was a form of discrimination subject to strict scrutiny under the state’s Constitution.); see also infra notes 146–51.
26. “The fundamental liberties protected by the Fourteenth Amendment’s Due Process Clause extend to certain personal choices central to individual dignity and autonomy, including intimate choices defining personal identity and beliefs.” Obergefell v. Hodges, 135 S. Ct. 2584, 2589 (2015) (citing Griswold v. Connecticut, 381 U.S. 479, 484–86 (1965)). Later, the Court found that personal autonomy was one of four principles that demonstrates the reason that marriage is “fundamental under the Constitution and applies with equal force to same-sex couples.” Id.
gender person’s right to use the bathroom matching their gender identity is protected by the constitutional rights of equality, privacy, and personal autonomy.

II. BACKGROUND

To understand how the Constitution can be extended to encompass a right to bathroom access for transgender people, it is important to understand the challenges facing the transgender population. Part A apprises the reader of the meaning of “transgender,” highlights the various struggles transgender people face, and provides an overview of the transgender bathroom debate. Part B provides a historic overview of the LGBT battle for marital equality prior to Obergefell, and reviews the history of the transgender rights movement. Part C briefly discusses the challenges experienced by African-American transgender people introducing the intersection of race and transgender rights, and concludes with a historic overview of racially-segregated bathrooms.

I. Transgender Persons: A Marginalized Group in American Society

“Transgender” is an umbrella term for someone whose gender identity is different from the gender assigned to them at birth. For example, a transgender woman is someone who lives as a woman today, but was assigned the gender of male at birth. According to most sexuality experts, “gender identity” is the private experience or internal sense of being male, female, or something else, and has little to do with a

27. Transgender Terminology, supra note 3. Determining who is male or female at birth involves more than checking the baby’s external anatomy. Id.

Every year, an estimated one in 2,000 babies are born with a set of characteristics that can’t easily be classified as ‘male’ or ‘female.’ People whose bodies fall in the vast continuum between ‘male’ and ‘female’ are often known as intersex people. There are many different types of intersex conditions. For example, some people are born with XY chromosomes but have female genitals and secondary sex characteristics . . . while it’s possible to be both transgender and intersex, most transgender people aren’t intersex, and most intersex people aren’t transgender. For example, many intersex people with XY (typically male) chromosomes but typically female anatomy are declared female at birth, are raised as girls, and identify as girls . . . [h]owever, some intersex people come to realize that the gender that they were raised as doesn’t fit their internal sense of who they are, and may make changes to their appearance or social role similar to what many transgender people undergo to start living as the gender that better matches who they are.

Id.

28. “Gender role” is the public experience of gender identity. Gender role refers to what a “person says and does to indicate to others, or to the self, the degree that one is either male, female, or ambivalent.” Diana Elkind, The Constitutional Implications of Bathroom Access
person’s sex organs or genitalia. Although being transgender can overlap with sexual orientation, the two classifications are unrelated. Sexual orientation deals with sexual attraction, not gender identification.

Approximately 1.4 million adults in the U.S. classify as transgender. The U.S. was introduced to transgender issues in 1952, when Christine Jorgensen became the first widely known transgender woman. Jorgensen was a World War II veteran who travelled to Denmark to undergo a series of gender reassignment surgeries. Jorgensen became an instant celebrity after her male-to-female transformation made the front page of the New York Daily News. More recently, male-to-female celebrities like Laverne Cox and Caitlyn Jenner have contributed to the growing awareness of transgender persons in the American public. In light of media coverage some transgender advocates believe the transgender community is experiencing


31. Kohler, supra note 30.


33. Michael Walsh, It’s been 60 years since the first he turned she: Bronx-born Christine Jorgensen’s historical sexual reassignment in Denmark, DAILY NEWS (Nov. 30, 2012), http://www.nydailynews.com/news/world/60-years-christine-jorgensen-born-article-1.1211068; After the procedure, Christine wrote to her parents back in New York: “Nature made a mistake which I have had corrected, and now I am your daughter.” Chloe Hadjimatheou, Christine Jorgensen: 60 years of sex change ops, BBC WORLD SERVICE (Nov. 30, 2012), http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-20544095.

34. Hadjimatheou, supra note 33.


a Dickensian-like period of the “best of times, and the worst of times.” Celebrities who have undergone gender reassignment have informed American mainstream culture of varying gender roles; however, statistics reveal transgender people face alarmingly high rates of mistreatment and violence in society.

In 2015, the National Center for Transgender Equality (NCTE) conducted a survey of 27,715 transgender adults, and found that forty-seven percent of respondents had been sexually assaulted. Eight percent reported being physically attacked. Additionally, the majority of transgender students in primary and secondary school experienced some form of violence: fifty-four percent reported verbal harassment, twenty-four percent suffered physical attack, and thirteen percent experienced sexual assault. This data is consistent with stories covered nationwide regarding violence against transgender persons.

The transgender population also experiences economic disadvantages. It is estimated that one-in-three transgender persons have experienced homelessness. Furthermore, as of 2015, the unemployment rate for transgender persons was fifteen percent—three times higher than the national rate. Additionally, many experienced mis-

37. Masen Davis, who formerly ran the Transgender Law Center, stated, “We’re seeing a marked increase in the public awareness about transgender people and really incredible progress for trans rights, especially from a legal perspective. At the same time, we still represent and are part of a community that experiences incredibly high rates of unemployment, poverty and violence.” Katy Steinmetz, Why Transgender People are being Murdered at a Historic Rate, TIME (Aug. 17, 2015), http://time.com/3999348/transgender-murders-2015/.


39. Id.

40. S.E. James et al., The Report of the 2015 U.S. Transgender Survey, NAT’L CENTER FOR TRANSGENDER EQUALITY (2016), http://www.transequality.org/sites/default/files/docs/USTS-Full-Report-FINAL.pdf. This is the largest survey ever conducted for the transgender population, and includes the experiences of transgender people from all fifty states including the District of Columbia, American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, and U.S. military bases overseas. Id.

41. Eight percent (8%) of the transgender respondents reported being kicked out of their home. Id.

42. Id.


44. S.E. James et al., supra note 40.

45. Id.
treatment at work, which included being told to present as their assigned gender to keep their jobs.\textsuperscript{46} Additionally, transgender people deal with a variety of legal issues predicated upon their status as male or female. This includes, but is not limited to, identification documents, housing, military service and veteran’s benefits, health care, personal safety, employment, immigration, criminal justice and corrections, and use of public facilities.\textsuperscript{47}

3. \textit{Transgender Issues Related to Bathroom Access}

Many claims of transgender mistreatment involve the right to access public bathrooms.\textsuperscript{48} According to the NCTE survey, twenty-four percent of respondents stated someone told them they were using the wrong bathroom or questioned their presence.\textsuperscript{49} Fifty-nine percent avoided bathrooms because they feared confrontation and one-third reported they stopped drinking or eating to avoid using the bathroom.\textsuperscript{50} Twelve percent were harassed, attacked, or sexually assaulted in a bathroom.\textsuperscript{51} Additionally, some transgender persons have been completely barred from using the bathroom of their choice. One student reported, “[t]he staff told me I could not use the men’s bathroom because I’d make other students uncomfortable even though I was out to everyone and none of the students were bothered by my gender.”\textsuperscript{52}

This survey illustrates how the transgender community is often unable to enjoy their fundamental rights to equality, privacy, and personal autonomy. Access to the bathroom of their choice is central to these issues and HB2 exacerbates the struggle by abridging the constitutional rights that many individuals take for granted.

4. \textit{The Transgender Bathroom Debate}

The bathroom debate has been circuitous and contentious, and understanding the ebbs and flows of this debate is necessary to resolve

\textsuperscript{46} Id.
\textsuperscript{47} \textsc{Ally Windsor Howell}, Transgender Persons and the Law 11 (2013).
\textsuperscript{48} Id.
\textsuperscript{49} S.E. James et al., supra note 40.
\textsuperscript{50} Id. “Eight percent reported having a urinary tract infection, kidney infection, or another kidney related problem in the past year as a result of avoiding restrooms.”
\textsuperscript{51} Id.
\textsuperscript{52} Id.; Using data from the NCTE’s 2011 USTS survey, a recently published study from the \textit{Journal of Homosexuality} found transgender students who were denied access to school bathrooms (for being transgender) are more likely to commit suicide. Kristie L. Seelman, Transgender Adults’ Access to College Bathrooms and Housing and the Relationship to Suicidality, 63 \textit{J. Homosexuality}, 1378 (2016) (stating the results suggested there may be a distinct relationship between the stress of not being able to use bathrooms, or gender-appropriate campus housing on the mental health of transgender students).

In 2016, Charlotte adopted a local ordinance, which added protections against discrimination for gender expression and identity.\footnote{Charlotte, N.C., Ordinance 7056 (2016), http://charlottenc.gov/NonDiscrimination/Documents/NDO%20Ordinance%207056.pdf.} On March 23, 2016, North Carolina called a special meeting in response to the ordinance and introduced HB2.\footnote{HB2, \textit{supra} note 6.} On the same day, HB2 was passed by both houses and signed into law by the governor.\footnote{Id.} The website of the Senate President of North Carolina reads, “[t]he North Carolina Senate voted unanimously. . .to stop a radical and illegal Charlotte City Council ordinance allowing men into public bathrooms and locker rooms with young girls and women.”\footnote{Senate Unanimously Votes to Stop Radical Ordinance Allowing Men into Public Bathrooms With Women and Young Girls, PHIL BERGER: NORTH CAROLINA SENATE (Mar. 23, 2016), http://www.philberger.org/senate_unanimously_votes_to_stop_radical_ordinance_allowing_men_into_public_bathrooms_with_women_and_young_girls; see also Pl.’s Compl. at ¶18, United State v. North Carolina et al., No. 1:16-cv-425 (M.D.N.C. May 10, 2016).} Lieutenant Governor Dan Forest stated, “[the Charlotte Ordinance] would have given pedophiles, sex offenders, and perverts free rein to watch women, boys, and girls undress and use the bathroom.”\footnote{Pl’s Compl., \textit{supra} note 59, at ¶19.} Some states have either attempted or are attempting to follow North Carolina.\footnote{Kralik, \textit{supra} note 12.}

The U.S. Department of Justice filed a complaint against HB2 arguing it requires public entities to follow a facially discriminatory policy of treating transgender individuals differently from similarly situated individuals.\footnote{Pl’s Compl., \textit{supra} note 59, at ¶ 43. Private litigation also ensued when the North Carolina American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), Lambda Legal, and Equality North Carolina filed a complaint challenging the HB2. Pl’s Compl. at ¶ 1, Joaquin Carcano et al. v. Patrick McGregor et al., No. 1:16-cv-236 (M.D.N.C. Mar. 28, 2016).} In response, North Carolina countersued alleging, “[t]he Act created common sense bodily privacy protections for, among others, state employees, by requiring public agencies to require multiple occupancy bathroom . . . facilities to be designated for and
only used by persons based on their biological sex.” In August 2016, a district court judge granted a preliminary injunction preventing the University of North Carolina from enforcing HB2’s restroom provision.

Title IX of the U.S. Education Amendments of 1972 is a federal civil rights law that prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in federally funded education programs and activities. While Title IX fails to include the terms “transgender,” “gender identity,” or “gender expression,” the U.S. Department of Education (DOE) has clarified that sex discrimination includes claims “based on gender identity or failure to conform to stereotypical notions of masculinity or femininity.” Litigation arose after the DOE, under the Obama Administration, issued a directive to schools stating transgender students must be allowed to access restrooms consistent with their gender identity and may not be required to use facilities inconsistent with their gender identity. In response, at least twenty-one states filed suit against the


66. Id. § 1681.


68. Dep’t of Educ., Questions and Answers on Title IX and Sexual Violence (April 23, 2014), http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/qa-2014-04-title-ix.pdf (see B-2 “How should a school handle sexual violence complainant and alleged partner are the same sex?”); Russlynn Ali, Assistant Sec’y for Civ. Rights, U.S. Dep’t of Educ., Dear Colleague Letter: Harassment and Bullying, Office for Civ. Rights (Oct. 26, 2010), http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/letters/colleague-201010.pdf (“[a]lthough Title IX does not prohibit discrimination based solely on sexual orientation, Title IX does protect all students, including . . . transgender . . . students, from sex discrimination”).

BATHROOMS MATCHING GENDER IDENTITY

DOE. A suit filed by Texas, and joined by ten other states, challenged the interpretation of Title IX found in the letter. Twelve states and the District of Columbia filed amicus briefs in support of the United States. Nebraska and eight other states filed a similar lawsuit shortly thereafter.

Prior to this litigation, there seemed to be growing support for the transgender community on the issue. In 2013, the Colorado Civil Rights Division (CCRD), the agency charged with enforcing that state’s anti-discrimination laws, became the first state government agency to comment on transgender access to bathrooms. An agency adjudication held that a six-year-old transgender girl must be allowed to use the school bathroom matching her gender identity. The CCRD held the school violated Colorado’s unlawful discrimination statute by restricting the transgender girl’s bathroom use. The school argued the claim failed to establish she was deprived of equal and full enjoyment of services because she was granted access to other


71. Catherine Jean Archibald, Transgender Bathroom Rights, 24 DUKE J. GENDER L. & POL’Y 1, 6 (citing Texas v. United States, No. 7:16-cv-00054-O (N.D. Tex. May 25, 2016)).

72. Id. (“The other states that have joined Texas in suing the United States are: Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Utah, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. . . . The Arizona Department of Education and the Governor of Maine are also listed as plaintiffs.”).

73. Id.


76. Archibald, supra note 71 (citing COLORADO CIVIL RIGHTS DIVISION, http://www.transgenderlegal.org/media/uploads/doc_529.pdf (last visited Nov. 4, 2016)).

77. COLO. REV. STAT. §24-34-601(2); see also Rebuttal Statement in Resp. to Fountain Fort Carlson School District’s Position Statement, Mathis v. Fountain-Fort Carson School District #8, http://www.transgenderlegal.org/media/uploads/doc_531.pdf (arguing “[i]t is unlawful for an educational institution ‘directly or indirectly, to refuse, withhold from, or deny to an individual or a group, because of . . . [transgender status] . . . , the full and equal enjoyment of goods, services, facilities, privileges, advantages or accommodations’ of an educational institution. By restricting her bathroom access, the District is prohibiting [her] from full and equal enjoyment of the School on the same terms that other girls who are not transgender enjoy.”) (quoting COLO. REV. STAT. §24-34-601(2)).
restrooms. The CCRD disagreed and analogized the school’s rationale to the Jim Crow Era stating, “This perception is reminiscent of the ‘separate but equal’ philosophy, which revealed, at least in terms of protected classes, that separate is very rarely, if ever, equal.”

On January 1, 2014, California’s School Success and Opportunity Act became law. This Act permits primary and secondary school transgender students to “participate in sex-segregated school programs, including . . . [the] use [of] facilities consistent with his or her gender identity, irrespective of the gender listed on the pupil’s records.” The Act also protects against discrimination by prohibiting “public schools from discriminating on the basis of specified characteristics, including gender, gender identity, and gender expression.” Echoing the Act’s sentiment, the California Department of Education (CDE) acknowledged “both state and federal law have prohibited gender-based discrimination for some time.”

In 2014, the Supreme Judicial Court of Maine became the nation’s first state court to hold that it is sexual orientation discrimination to deny a transgender student access to the bathroom consistent with her gender identity. The dissenting opinion delved deeper into the transgender access to bathroom issue:

Considering the issue presented here, transgendered persons who live their lives as a member of the sex with which they identify face unique challenges with regard to public multiple-user bathrooms. It is simply unreasonable to expect a transgendered person to enter a bathroom designated for use by the sex with which they do not identify. Doing so is likely to provoke confrontation, or even violence. If transgendered people are prohibited from using bathrooms designated for the sex with which they identify, they are left with no practical recourse in most public settings.

In June 2016, the Fourth Circuit, which includes North Carolina, reversed the lower court’s decision to dismiss a preliminary injunction.
proceeding brought by a transgender boy seeking to use the boy’s restroom at his high school.86 Shortly after a transgender boy, G.G., began using the boy’s restroom, his local high school board passed a policy banning him from using the restroom matching his gender identity.87 As a rationale for the policy, one board commenter argued, “non-transgender boys would come to school wearing dresses in order to gain access to the girls’ restrooms.”88 The court held G.G. had a plausible claim under Title IX and that the lower court applied the wrong evidentiary standard to G.G.’s motion for preliminary injunction.89 Regarding the former, Title IX permitted separate restroom facilities on the basis of sex.90 However, the court found the regulation was ambiguous regarding how schools should apply sex-segregated facilities within the context of transgender students. While the regulation’s use of the word “sex” unambiguously referred to the distinction between males and females, how a school chose to arrive at this distinction was open to interpretation.91 On the one hand, maleness or femaleness could be determined through genitalia; on the other hand, it could be determined through gender identity.92 In light of this ambiguity the court reasoned the district court should have accorded deference to the Department of Education’s opinion letter, which offered direction on how the regulation should be applied to transgender persons.93 The letter wrote: “When a school elects to separate or treat students differently on the basis of sex . . . a school generally must treat transgender students consistent with their gender identity.”94 The Supreme Court recently decided it would not hear the case, which was petitioned upon a writ of certiorari by the school board.95

87. Id. In reference to the policy, the school board wrote, “[W]hereas the [high school] seeks to . . . protect the privacy of all students . . . [i]t shall be the practice of the [high school] to provide male and female restroom . . . facilities . . . and students with gender identity issues shall be provided an alternative appropriate private facility.” Id. at 732.
88. Id. at 716.
89. Id. at 718 (citing 34 C.F.R. § 106.33) (“separate toilet, locker room, and shower facilities on the basis of sex, but such facilities provided for students of one sex shall be comparable to such facilities provided for students of the other sex”).
90. Id. at 720.
91. Id. at 721.
92. Id. at 718.
94. Id. (citing U.S. Top Court Throws Out Ruling Favoring Transgender Student, REUTERS (Mar. 6, 2017), https://
interpreting Title IX’s protections for transgender students. Moreover, the Supreme Court has not yet ruled on whether the Constitution provides express rights for transgender persons. The Supreme Court’s decision not to hear the case means the transgender community will have to wait for a determination of basic transgender rights from the nation’s highest court.

B. The Growing Expansion of Rights within the LGBT Community

Until recently, transgender rights were largely subsumed within the LGBT movement. Therefore, tracing the events that led to Obergefell may foreshadow the fact that rights specific to the transgender community are on the horizon.

1. LGBT Rights

The LGBT community’s primary focus has not always been marital equality. Prior to Obergefell, the LGBT community generally focused on combating state laws that criminalized homosexual conduct.

In 1996, the Supreme Court in Romer v. Evans held a state initiative encouraging discrimination based on sexual orientation violated the Equal Protection Clause. In Romer, Colorado voters adopted a statewide referendum that repealed all laws that protected gays, lesbians, and bisexuals from discrimination, and further prohibited all future government action to protect this class of individuals. The Court found that “laws of the kind now before us raise the inevitable


99. Id.; see People v. Gillespi, 202 N.E.2d 565 (N.Y. 1964) (upholding the conviction of a man dressed as a woman under the New York vagrancy statute, which defined a vagrant as “a person, who having his face painted, discolored, covered or concealed, or being otherwise disguised, in a manner calculated to prevent his being identified, appears in a road or public highway.”); People v. Archibald, 260 N.E.2d 871 (N.Y. 1970) (upholding conviction under same statute of man who dressed as a woman and stood on subway platform).

100. 517 U.S. 620 (1996).

101. Id. at 623–24.
inference that the disadvantage imposed is born of animosity toward the class of persons affected.”

Romer marks the Court’s first invalidation of a state law where the constitutional protection was rooted in the sexual orientation of the individuals.

In Lawrence v. Texas, the Court held states may not prohibit private consensual sexual activity between homosexual adults. Lawrence invoked the constitutional protection of privacy to safeguard consensual homosexual activity. In the following year, the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held that a ban on same sex marriage violated the Massachusetts Constitution.

In United States v. Windsor, the court held federal definitions of “marriage” and “spouse” restricted to opposite-sex couples violated the Fifth Amendment’s Due Process Clause.

Riding this momentum same-sex marriage was legalized in 2015. In Obergefell, the Supreme Court consider whether Michigan, Kentucky, Ohio, and Tennessee violated the Fourteenth Amendment by defining marriage as a union between man and woman. The Court held the marriage laws were unconstitutional. The opinion began by noting the historical importance of the institution of marriage and acknowledged the traditional definition of marriage. The Court

102. Id. at 634.
103. CHEMERINSKY, supra note 22.
104. 539 U.S. 558, 578 (2003) (stating the statute “furthers no legitimate state interest which can justify its intrusion into the personal and private life of the individual”). Lawrence involved a Texas statute making it a crime for persons of the same-sex to engage in sexual activity. Id. at 581. In response to a reported disturbance, police found two men engaging in consensual sexual activity. Id. at 558. The same-sex adults were arrested and convicted of “deviat[ing] sexual intercourse” under the statute’s proscription. Id.
105. Id. at 578. The Court powerfully affirmed privacy as applied to same-sex persons was protected under the Constitution:

Had those who drew and ratified the Due Process Clauses of the Fifth Amendment or the Fourteenth Amendment known the components of liberty in its manifold possibilities, they might have been more specific. They did not presume to have this insight. They knew times can blind us to certain truths and later generations can see that laws once thought necessary and proper in fact serve only to oppress. As the Constitution endures, persons in every generation can invoke its principles in their own search for greater freedom.

Id. at 578–79.
106. Goodridge v. Department of Public Health, 798 N.E.2d 941, 968 (2003) (“Limiting the protections, benefits, and obligations of civil marriage to opposite-sex couples violates the basic premises of individual liberty and equality under law protected by the Massachusetts Constitution”).
109. Id. at 2593.
110. Id. at 2607.
111. Id. at 2593–94.
then discussed how the institution of marriage has evolved over time.\footnote{Id. at 2595.} The Court extrapolated four basic principles that demonstrate the reasons marriage is fundamental under the Constitution: personal choice, self-definition, childrearing, and societal order.\footnote{Id.} The Court reviewed each principle separately and reasoned these four principles applied with “equal force to same-sex couples.”\footnote{Obergefell v. Hodges, 135 S. Ct. 2584, 2599 (2015).} The Court applied rationale from prior case law concerning the right to marry and extended the institution of marriage to same-sex couples.

2. Transgender Rights

“\textit{Obergefell} . . . marks the passing of the torch from ‘LGB’ to ‘T’; the next civil rights frontier belongs to transgender people, for whom key barriers still remain.”\footnote{Kevin M. Barry et. al., \textit{A Bare Desire to Harm: Transgender People and the Equal Protection Clause}, 57 B.C. L. REV. 507, 508 (2016); see infra notes 44–74.} Courts have shown a lack of understanding and a disregard for the rights of transgender people, especially in the familial context.\footnote{Courts have denied transgender people the right to inherit from deceased spouses. See, e.g., \textit{In re Estate of Gardine}, 42 P.3d 120 (Kan. 2002); Courts have revoked parental rights. See, e.g., Kantaras v. Kantaras, 884 So.2d 155 (Fla. App. 2004) (reversing lower court’s granting custody to transgender man because he was born female).}

Transgender awareness began in nineteenth century Europe.\footnote{SUSAN STRYKER, \textit{TRANSGENDER HISTORY} (2008).} German sexologist Magnus Hirschfield introduced the concept of gender as a spectrum, rather than a rigid dichotomy, which “helped undergird early transgender political sensibilities.”\footnote{Id.} In 1930, Hirschfield carried out the first modern gender reassignment surgeries.\footnote{Id.}

However, formations of transgender social networks and contention surrounding gender-reassignment surgeries caused transgender rights to gain momentum in the mid-twentieth century.\footnote{Id.} Louise Lawrence, a cross-dressing transgender woman, played an integral role in forming a transgender social network by contacting people who were arrested for cross-dressing.\footnote{Stryker, supra note 153.} Eventually, Lawrence became a mentor for Virginia Prince, who published the first overtly political transgender publication, \textit{Tranvestia: The Journal of American Society for Equality in Dress},\footnote{The Clinic researched homosexuality and variances on sexuality and gender. \textit{Id.}} The periodical pled for social tolerance of transvestism, which it defined as a practice of heterosexual men.\footnote{Stryker, supra note 157.} Argument...
bly, this publication marked the beginning of the transgender rights movement.\footnote{122. PAISLEY CURRAH ET AL., TRANSGENDER RIGHTS 24 (2006).}

During this time mayhem statutes presented the “single greatest obstacle faced by every transsexual person in America unable to travel overseas for [gender reassignment] surgery or locate one of the few surgeons willing to flout the law by performing [the] surgery.”\footnote{123. Liza Kahn, Transgender Health at Crossroads: Legal Norms, Insurance Markets, and the Threat of Healthcare Reform, 11 YALE J. HEALTH POL’Y L. & ETHICS 375, 385–86 (2013) (citing DEBORAH RUDACILLE, THE RIDDLE OF GENDER: SCIENCE, ACTIVISM, AND TRANSGENDER RIGHTS 116 (2005)).} Mayhem statutes were imported from English common law, which “forbade the amputation of any body part . . . that might prevent a male-bodied individual from being able to serve as soldier.”\footnote{124. RUDACILLE, supra note 123, at 116; see e.g. CAL. PEN. CODE § 203, 205 (2013).} In 1949, California’s governor offered “the opinion that transsexual genital modification would constitute ‘mayhem’ . . . and would expose any surgeon who performed such operation to possible criminal prosecution.”\footnote{125. Stryker, supra note 153 at 45.}

Christine Jorgensen, discussed above, circumvented mayhem statutes by traveling to Denmark.\footnote{126. See supra note 22.} Jorgensen was a patient of Harry Benjamin, who authored The Transsexual Phenomenon in 1966.\footnote{127. HARRY BENJAMIN, THE TRANSSEXUAL PHENOMENON (1966).} Benjamin worked with more transsexual individuals than any other physician in America and found a distinction between biological sex and psychological sex, or gender identity.\footnote{128. Genny Beemyn, Transgender History in the United States, in TRANS BODIES, TRANS SELVES (Laura Erickson-Schroth ed., 2014).} Shortly after his publication, Johns Hopkins University opened the first gender identity clinic.\footnote{129. Id. (“Similar programs were soon established at the University of Minnesota, Stanford University, the University of Oregon, and Case Western University.”).} The establishment of gender identity clinics brought attention to the health care needs of transsexual people and helped legitimize gender-reassignment surgery.\footnote{130. Id. During this time, transsexualism was considered a psychological disorder, and gender-reassignment was considered a treatment. Kahn, supra note 123, at 385–86.}

Currently, the protections for transgender people are jurisdiction-dependent.\footnote{131. Elkind, supra note 28, at 912. Know Your Rights: Transgender People and the Law, ACLU, https://www.aclu.org/know-your-rights/transgender-people-and-law (last visited November 27, 2017). See also Kahn, supra note 123, at 385–86: While federal legislation banning discrimination based on gender identity and expression has been stalled in Congress, activists and allies have made significant progress on state and local levels. Prior to 2000, only Minnesota had passed a nondiscrimination law}
outlaw discrimination against transgender people.\textsuperscript{132} Seventeen states, including the District of Columbia, prohibit transgender discrimination in areas including employment, housing, and public accommodations.\textsuperscript{133} Neither federal legislation nor the Supreme Court have addressed what rights the Constitution affords to transgender people. However, a few federal courts have held the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment bars the government from discriminating against people on the basis of gender identity and gender transition.\textsuperscript{134} The American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) argues the First Amendment and the Fourteenth Amendment Due Process Clause concerning rights to liberty, privacy, and autonomy protect gender identity and expression.\textsuperscript{135}

3. The Intersection of Race and Transgender

In 2008, the National Black Justice Coalition (NBJC) in partnership with the NCTE and the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force, reported the combination of anti-transgender bias with racism causes transgender people of color to experience particularly devastating levels of discrimination.\textsuperscript{136} The study found:

Black transgender and gender non-conforming people often live in extreme poverty, with 34% reporting a household income of less than $10,000/year. This is over twice the rate for transgender people of all races (15%) and four times the general Black population rate (9%).\textsuperscript{137}

that included gender identity/expression; by 2013, seventeen states and the District of Columbia had done so. Similarly, the number of cities and counties with transgender rights ordinances has grown from three in the 1980s to more than 150 in 2012, so that more than forty-five percent of the US population is now covered by a transgender-inclusive nondiscrimination law [citation omitted]. More than 720 college and university campuses have added “gender identity/expression” to their nondiscrimination policies in the last seventeen years, and many have begun to implement other transgender-supportive policies, such as providing gender-inclusive housing, bathrooms, and locker rooms; covering transgender-related counseling, hormone therapy, and gender-affirming surgeries under student health insurance; and enabling transitioning students to change their name and gender on campus records and documents without having legally done so.

\textsuperscript{Id. (citations omitted).}

\textsuperscript{132. Minneapolis, Minn., Ordinance 99-68 (1974); see Beemyn, supra note 128.}
\textsuperscript{133. Know Your Rights, supra note 131.}
\textsuperscript{134. Id.}
\textsuperscript{135. Id.}
\textsuperscript{137. Id. (citing U.S. CENSUS BUREAU, Current Population Survey, Washington DC: GPO, 2008); This is over eight times the general U.S. population rate (4%). See U.S. CENSUS BUREAU,
These statistics show the Black transgender population is extremely marginalized. The 1960s civil rights movement explored in the next Section shows that despite legal and social changes, transgender Blacks are still living at the intersection of racism and transphobia.

C. Desegregation of Race-Separated Facilities

Race-segregated bathrooms were an important issue during the civil rights movement. During the Reconstruction era, from 1865 to 1877, the post-Civil War South was under military rule and Congress enacted many laws to protect civil rights. Following the Reconstruction era, every Southern state enacted discriminatory statutes known as Jim Crow laws. The statutes created an apartheid by separating blacks and whites in most aspects of life, including schools and public restroom facilities. In Plessy v. Ferguson, the Supreme Court upheld Jim Crow laws mandating blacks and whites use “separate, but equal facilities.” The Court disagreed the Jim Crow laws stamped black people with a badge of inferiority, stating “[i]f this be so, it is not by reason of anything found in the act, but solely because the colored race chooses to put that construction upon it.” Justice Harlan was the sole dissenter, concluding:

[In my opinion, the judgement this day rendered will, in time, prove to be quite as pernicious as the decision made by this tribunal in the Dred Scott case. . . . The destinies of the two races, in this country, are indissolubly linked together, and the interests of both require that the common government of all shall not permit seeds of race hate to be planted under the sanction of law.]

On May 17, 1954, the Supreme Court decided Brown v. Board of Education, invalidating the “separate but equal” doctrine in the context of elementary and high schools. The Court relied on the Equal Pro-
tection Clause and unanimously held the doctrine was impermissible in the context of public education.\textsuperscript{145} Chief Justice Warren effectively declared separate is never equal and explained, “To separate [Black children] from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone.”\textsuperscript{146} The Court concluded, “[s]eparate educational facilities are inherently unequal.”\textsuperscript{147} One scholar accurately stated:

Every colored American knew that Brown did not mean that he would be invited to lunch with the Rotary the following week. It meant something more basic and more important. It meant that black rights had suddenly been redefined; black bodies had suddenly been reborn under a new law. Blacks’ value as human beings had been changed overnight by the declaration of the highest court. At a stroke, the Justices had severed the remaining cords of \textit{de facto} slavery. The Negro could no longer be fastened with the status of official pariah. No longer could the white man look right through him as if he were, in the title words of Ralph Ellison’s stunning 1952 novel, \textit{Invisible Man}.\textsuperscript{148}

\textit{Brown} used the Equal Protection Clause to combat invidious discrimination and to extend fundamental rights to a historically marginalized group. In a meeting with his former Senate colleague, then Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson recounted his cook and her husband’s experience when they drove through Mississippi: “[w]hen they had to go to the bathroom, they would . . . pull off on a side road, and . . . the cook of the Vice President of the United States, would squat in the road to pee. That’s wrong. And there ought to be something to change that.”\textsuperscript{149} In line with \textit{Brown}’s ruling that separate was inherently unequal, Congress outlawed discrimination on basis of race in places of public accommodation and the workplace with the Civil Rights Act of 1964.\textsuperscript{150} The combination of federal case law and federal statutory law ultimately led to the desegregation of several public accommodations, including bathrooms.\textsuperscript{151}

\begin{footnotes}
145. \textit{Id.} at 495.
146. \textit{Id.} at 494.
147. \textit{Id.} at 495.
\end{footnotes}
2018] BATHROOMS MATCHING GENDER IDENTITY 753

As discussed below, race-segregated bathroom facilities from the Jim Crow Era are analogous to sex-segregated bathroom facilities today.\footnote{152. See infra 153–60.} Therefore, legal landmarks such as Brown v. Board of Education and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 help frame discussions concerning the constitutionality of state-sponsored bathroom bills that seek to prevent transgender people from accessing bathrooms that conform with their gender identity.

III. ARGUMENT

Section A analogizes the fears motivating race-segregated bathrooms with the fears motivating sex-segregated bathrooms and shows that racial desegregation can inform the way we think about the transgender bathroom debate. Section B discusses how Obergefell and its recognition of individual autonomy can be expanded to the context of transgender rights. Section C argues the right to privacy and the right to self-definition under the Fourteenth Amendment both lend support for granting transgender persons access to the bathroom of their choice.

A. Similar Fears

It was not so very long ago that states, including North Carolina, had other signs above restrooms, water fountains, and on public accommodations, excluding people based on distinctions without a difference. We’ve moved beyond those dark days.\footnote{153. Joe Sterling, North Carolina, U.S., Square Off Over Transgender Rights, CNN (May 10, 2016), http://www.cnn.com/2016/05/09/politics/north-carolina-hb2-justice-department-deadline/index.html.}

Those arguing for protection under HB2 are making the same arguments made by defenders of race-segregated facilities during the Jim Crow Era.\footnote{154. Amara S. Chaudhry, Lessons from Jim Crow: What Those Seeking Self-Determination for Transgender Individuals Can Learn from America’s History with Racial Classification Categories, 18 TEMP. POL. & CIV. RTS. L. REV. 505, 506 (2009).} The underlying purpose of the Jim Crow statutes was to protect white women and children from a group of persons perceived to corrupt “public morals, health, and order.”\footnote{155. Id. Conservative ideas that civil rights protections would endanger women and children began in the 1940’s. Gillian Frank, The Anti-Trans Bathroom Scare Has Its Roots in Segregation, SLATE-BLOGS (Nov. 10, 2015, 4:55 PM), http://www.slate.com/blogs/outward/2015/11/10/anti_trans_bathroom_propaganda_has_roots_in_racial_segregation.html.} “While segregationists frequently claimed racial integration would grant black men sexual access to white women, white women also emphasized that contact
with black women in bathrooms would infect them with venereal diseases.”\textsuperscript{156}

Similar, if not identical fears, have been echoed by proponents of HB2 and similar laws. State Senator Phil Berger stated that granting transgender persons access to bathrooms “[a]llows grown men to share bathrooms and locker facilities with girls and women.”\textsuperscript{157} Some proponents of HB2 and similar laws have characterized transgender demands for civil rights protections as an attempt by sex offenders to gain sexual access to children.\textsuperscript{158} Despite there being no reported incidents of transgender violence against women or children in public restrooms, these arguments persist.\textsuperscript{159} Similar to the Jim Crow laws, the bathroom bills are supported by members of dominant social groups portraying themselves as physically vulnerable in public spaces and asserting that marginalized groups are powerful and threatening.\textsuperscript{160} The lack of reported incidents reflects transphobic sentiments and demonstrates that excluding transgender people from bathrooms has more to do with power relationships and social dynamics in society.

B. Recognizing the Right of Transgender Bathroom Access under the Fourteenth Amendment

Transgender bathroom access is an important part of the transgender community’s fight for equality. Legislation restricting bathroom access may be challenged under the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment, which provides, in relevant part: “No state shall . . . deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.”\textsuperscript{161} The Supreme Court has established various tests to determine whether a law’s discrimination of distinct

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item[156.] Id.
\item[158.] Frank, supra note 155.
\item[160.] Frank, supra note 155. See also Howell, supra note 47.
\item[161.] U.S. CONST. amend. XIV.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
BATHROOMS MATCHING GENDER IDENTITY 755
groups is unconstitutional. Accordingly, laws discriminating on the
basis of race or alienage are subject to strict scrutiny, and laws
discriminating on the basis of gender are subject to “intermediate
scrutiny.” The Supreme Court has identified many reasons for applying
strict scrutiny to racial classifications including: (1) race is an immu-
 table trait, (2) the relative political powerlessness of racial minority
groups, and (3) the primary purpose of the Fourteenth Amendment
was to protect Blacks.

Here, the first two elements may lend support to transgender per-
sons seeking access to bathrooms conforming to their gender identity.
First, in light of historical and ongoing discrimination, transgender
persons can argue they are a suspect class. In Brown, the petitioners
argued racial discrimination was immutable because it related to an-
cestry. The petitioners cited Hirabayashi v. United States, which
stated, “Distinctions between citizens solely because of their ancestry
are by their very nature odious to a free people whose institutions are
founded upon the doctrine of equality. For that reason, legislative
classification or discrimination based on race alone has often been
held to be a denial of equal protection . . . .” Here, with new re-
search on the horizon, a transgender person may be able to assert
that gender identity represents an immutable trait. While there is
much debate on this topic, more definitive research would provide
considerable perspective.

Brown also lends support to the argument that transgender bath-
room access should be allowed in secondary and primary schools. The
Court found that segregated school facilities deprived minority chil-

162. Elkind, supra note 28, at 900.
Virginia Military Institute’s exclusion of women).
165. CHEMERINSKY, supra note 22, at 712–13.; see, e.g., United States v. Carolene Products,
Co., 304 U.S. 144, 144 n.4 (1938) (“prejudice against discrete and insular minorities may be a
special condition, which tends seriously to curtail the operation of those political processes ordi-
narily to be relied upon to protect minorities,” and thus “may call for a correspondingly more
searching judicial inquiry”).
www.mygenes.co.nz/transsexuality.html.
169. See Daniel Trotta, Born this Way? Researchers Explore the Science of Gender Identity,
Trotta reports that “[a] consortium of five research institutions in Europe and the United States,
including Vanderbilt University Medical Center, George Washington University and Boston
Children’s Hospital, is looking to the genome, a person’s complete set of DNA, for clues about
whether transgender people are born that way.” Id
dren of equal education opportunities in contravention of the Equal Protection Clause.  

The Court reasoned that the “separate but equal” doctrine generated feelings of inferiority in children of minority groups. Similar arguments can be made for transgender students. Transgender students may feel their gender identity is invalid as compared to cisgender students. Denying equal access to public school restrooms effectively singles transgender students out “with a stigmatizing message that a transgender boy is not a normal or real boy, or a transgender girl is not a normal or real girl.” Such treatment “is precisely the kind of ‘badge of inferiority’ that antidiscrimination laws . . . forbid.”

Additionally, transgender persons constitute a class of persons with relative political powerlessness. History shows transgender rights have been largely intertwined with gay rights. But transgender persons still face hardship with regard to sex-segregated facilities, despite gay rights victories. Transgender persons are powerless as a group because their presence challenges society’s “gender binary” system, which refers to the rigid classification of individuals’ sex and gender as being male or female. This system is generally overlooked “until the norms of gender presentation, interaction, or organization are inadvertently violated or deliberately challenged.” This “[t]raditional conception of gender as either male or female fosters and perpetuates discrimination against the gender minority who do not fit the stereotypical mold.”

Considering all of the above, transgender persons may be able to assert that they are a suspect class and entitled to the Equal Protection rights. Similar to racial classifications, transgender persons might be able to argue that gender identity is an immutable trait. The results of ongoing research could provide considerable support for this argument. In addition, transgender persons could argue they are a class of

171. Id. at 494.
173. Id. “For transgender youth . . . placement in a gender-specific facility can mean being forced to share sleeping quarters and bathrooms with members of their biological gender, which can have consequences ranging from humiliation to sexual assault.” Elkind, supra note 28, at 900.
177. Elkind, supra note 28, at 928.
individuals will political powerlessness as they challenge the binary system of male versus female. This is especially true given the lack of uniform legal jurisprudence concerning the basic rights of transgender persons. For these reasons, the Equal Protection Clause may lend support for transgender persons arguing to remove state-sponsored bans on transgender persons using the bathroom that conforms to their gender identity.

B. Transgender Rights after Obergefell

Obergefell’s reasoning can be used to bolster the argument for transgender bathroom access. The Court began the opinion by stating, “The Constitution promises liberty to all within its reach, a liberty that includes specific rights that allow persons, within a lawful realm, to define and express their identity.” For transgender people, the fight for equal bathroom access is heavily rooted in a desire to express their gender identity, which is integral to achieving individual autonomy. Therefore, the Court’s reasoning, albeit in the context of marital equality, allows one to argue that the fundamental rights related to privacy and personal autonomy encompass bathroom access.

Since the historic protection of the right to marry alone, could not resolve the issue, in Obergefell the Court outlined four principles that helped rationalize same-sex marriage: personal choice, self-definition, childrearing, and societal order. The first two principals lend considerable support to the transgender bathroom debate. Under the first principal, the Court found “the right to personal choice regarding marriage is inherent in the concept of individual autonomy.” This is in line with the shifting public opinion toward a desire for the government to withdraw from intimate decisions in people’s personal lives. Therefore, the first principal supports the notion that individ-

---


179. Transgender people also face difficulties when it comes to changing documents necessary to live according their gender identity: such as birth certificates, social security cards, driver’s licenses, and medical records. “Unfortunately, these changes are often expensive, burdensome, and complicated, putting them out of reach for many people. For example, some states still require proof of surgery or a court order to change a gender marker.” Frequently Asked Questions about Transgender People, supra note 8. See also Lark Mulligan, Dismantling Collateral Consequences: The Case for Abolishing Illinois’ Criminal Name-Change Restrictions, 66 DEPAUL L. REV. 647 (2017) (providing an overview of criminal name-change restrictions that present barriers for transgender persons and arguing for the abolishment of such restrictions).


181. Id.

182. Abrams, supra note 25.
uals cannot be forced to use a restroom that conflicts with their gender identity. “Choices about whether to live an authentic life consistent with one’s gender identity can powerfully shape one’s destiny, and may implicate ultimate control over one’s body.” Therefore, transgender people may argue that laws like HB2 seek to make them “social prisoners by the sex assigned to them,” contrary to ideas of personal autonomy and the right to define one’s identity discussed in Obergefell.184 The Court also held that the nature of a person’s commitment to another commands equal dignity from the State.185 This principal was illustrated in Lawrence v. Texas, which held that state laws may not demean the nature of people’s intimate relationships by criminalizing their association.186 The concept of dignity has deep roots in the Constitution and promotes the sentiment that “all individuals are deserving in equal measure of personal autonomy and freedom to ‘define [their] own concept of existence.’”187 Because choosing a bathroom is such a personal and intimate choice, transgender people can argue it is their right as a matter of dignity, to be able to so choose.

Obergefell is strong precedent for the argument that gender identity should fall within the ambit of constitutional rights deserving protection.188 Though the fundamental right to privacy and to self-definition may seem to conflict, they are consistent with one another. As one author noted, one’s gender is “among the most personal and private matters, and state interference in gender self-determination perpetuates the most egregious discrimination.”189 Attorney General Loretta Lynch’s response to the North Carolina bathroom bill seemed to reflect a similar sentiment when she called the bill “state-sponsored discrimination against transgender individuals who simply seek to engage in the most private functions in a place of safety and security.”190 However, some proponents of bathroom bills argue that forcing an

183. David B. Cruz, Transgender Rights After Obergefell, 84 UMKC L. REV. 693, 700 (2016).
188. Cruz, supra note 183, at 693; see also Skinner-Thompson, supra note 184.
individual to share a bathroom with a transgender person violates their fundamental right of privacy. For instance, Governor McCrory argued there was an expectation of privacy and security for girls and boys using sex-segregated public facilities. Thus, as scholars have correctly pointed out, the issue is “whose privacy should govern when it comes to the use of multi-occupied bathroom[s]?"

One scholar persuasively reasoned that the cisgender person’s privacy argument is misplaced, stating:

On the surface, this argument would make it appear that there are private actions on both sides—the transgender person’s side and the non-transgender person’s side—and that allowing transgender people into a bathroom/Changing room privileges their private actions over those who do not wish to expose themselves to anyone not possessing the same biological build. But this ignores that the basis of the transgender person’s claim is grounded in a private act of expressing one’s personal identity, which is constitutive of her choice of facility, while the claim of the uncomfortable biological user is based strictly on a social convention of what should aid intimacy in other contexts or simply be information she did not want revealed.

This is an important distinction. This is really about the transgender person’s private act related to a very personal, individualized choice weighed against cisgender persons’ private information. Notably, Justice Kennedy’s opening opinion in Obergefell asserted that the Constitution protects certain fundamental liberties, which encompasses “personal choices central to individual dignity and autonomy, including intimate choices that define personal identity and beliefs.” Thus, it appears the right to privacy protects the right of private acts as they relate to choices that define a person’s identity, but not necessarily private information. The desire for cisgender persons to avoid exposing their bodies to someone who is transgender appears to be more of a social construct then a basic fundamental liberty.

Under this line of reasoning, the right to use the bathroom that

---

193. Id. at 52.
194. Samar, supra note 192, at 54.
195. Id. at 52.
197. Samar, supra note 192, at 55.
matches a person’s gender identity is a basic liberty that finds support in the Constitution.

IV. IMPACT

It is important to recognize the distinction between “sex,” which refers to physical and biological traits, and “gender,” which refers to social or cultural traits.198 Society’s rigid gender binary system operates upon the presumption that “gender will correlate with the sex assigned at birth.”199 Accordingly, even if granted access to bathrooms matching their gender identity, transgender individuals may still face other obstacles.

Changing facilities warrant a closer examination of the reasons laws segregate facilities on the basis of sex in the first place. One court has noted, “The desire to shield one's unclothed figured [sic] from view of strangers, and particularly strangers of the opposite sex, is impelled by elementary self-respect and personal dignity.”200 Therefore, it has been proposed that equal access consistent with gender identity is appropriate for restrooms, but schools should be given more leeway to restrict access to facilities such as locker or changing rooms.201 But, one article argues, “Just as students with other physical differences, such as different stages of sexual development, visible disabilities or medical devices, or unusual scars or skin conditions, must be treated equally, so must transgender students.”202

In Students and Parents for Privacy v. United States Department of Education, the court took an interesting counter approach holding that high school students do not have a constitutionally protected right against sharing locker rooms with transgender students.203 The school district allowed transgender students to use the bathroom that conformed to their gender identity.204 The plaintiffs sought a preliminary injunction requiring the school to have biologically sex-segregated locker rooms.205 The court found allowing transgender students to use changing facilities consistent with their gender identity “does not create a severe, pervasive, or objectively offensive hostile environ-

199. Gagné & Tewksbury, supra note 176.
200. York v. Story, 324 F.2d 450, 455 (9th Cir. 1963).
202. Id. at 325.
204. Id.
205. Id.
ment under Title IX given the privacy protections [the school district] has put in place.”

These privacy protections included providing students who did not want to share a locker room with a transgender student with access to alternative facilities.

This decision provides hope that transgender persons will also be allowed to use the locker rooms matching their gender identity in the future. But this hope is tempered by anticipated legislation under the Trump administration. Prior to his inauguration, Donald Trump stated transgender persons should be allowed to use the bathroom of their choice. President Trump’s stance was in line with the Obama administration’s letter, which stated transgender students fell within the class of persons protected by sex discrimination under Title IX. However, in February 2017 the Trump administration rescinded the letter, allowing states flexibility in interpreting Title IX. The presidential election has created uncertainty in how states will address the transgender bathroom issue. In March 2017, the Supreme Court announced it would not hear the transgender bathroom case. This means the issue will continue to be litigated in the lower courts and will perhaps be swayed by shifting public opinion. Accordingly, it is appropriate to recall the public shift that occurred leading up to Obergefell. In just twenty years public opinion of same-sex marriage shifted dramatically. The American public is divided over which public bathrooms transgender people should be able to use. Perhaps the public opinion concerning transgender bathroom access will undergo this same shift prior to a future decision by the Supreme Court.

206. Id.

207. Id.


210. Dear Colleague Letter on Transgender Students, supra note 69.

211. Kamenetz & Turner, supra note 208.

212. Liptak, supra note 10.

213. Id.


V. CONCLUSION

The transgender bathroom debate challenges society to rethink and reshape the traditional gender binary system. This Comment aimed to assess how certain fundamental rights may be expanded to encompass transgender persons’ right to access bathrooms consistent with their gender identity. Brown and Obergefell demonstrate this vision is possible. But a review of American history reveals change can be unpredictable. “June 26, 2015 [the date on which Obergefell was decided] thus will be remembered, like dates such as May 17, 1954 when the Court decided Brown v. Board of Education, as the Court’s taking an historic step forward in advancing liberty and equality.”216 Perhaps the transgender bathroom debate will lead to another date of equal importance.

Marisa Pogofsky*

---

216. Chemerinsky, supra note 23.
* J.D. Candidate, DePaul University College of Law, 2018.