

SUMMARY OF RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN
JUDICIAL REVIEW IN AMERICAN ADMINISTRATIVE LAW

ARTICLE/WISCONSIN LAW REVIEW

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III. JUDICIAL REVIEW

Our discussion of *Vermont Yankee* shows that courts are willing to impose additional procedural requirements upon rule-making.⁷⁴ But this has not affected their traditional role in controlling the legality of administrative action. If anything, indeed, in recent years renewed emphasis has been placed upon judicial review as the ultimate safeguard against improper administrative action. In 1971 Judge Bazelon asserted, "We stand at the threshold of a new era in the history of the long and fruitful collaboration of administrative agencies and reviewing courts."⁷⁵ We appear to be in the midst of another crucial swing of the administrative law pendulum. The trend is likely to continue as the judges, like the citizenry generally, become increasingly disenchanted with claims of administrative expertise. The result may be a drastic alteration in traditional restrictions on judicial review. If agencies prove increasingly unable to meet social needs, we can expect the courts to play a more activist role. This should be true of the judicial role in both of the principal areas of judicial review: 1) availability, and 2) scope of review.

A. Availability

The overriding trend in recent years has been to broaden the availability of judicial review. In today's administrative law, there is a strong presumption in favor of judicial review. The Supreme Court asserted a decade ago that "[t]here is no presumption against judicial review and in favor of administrative finalism."⁷⁶ On the contrary, review is the rule and non-reviewability an exception that must be demonstrated. The preclusion of judicial review of administrative action adjudi-

74. *Loc. cit. supra* note 63. See Cal. Gov't Code § 11349.1.

75. See text accompanying notes 32-37 *supra*.

76. *Environmental Defense Fund, Inc. v. Ruckelshaus*, 439 F.2d 584, 597 (D.C. Cir.

1970).

77. *Association of Data Processing Serv. Org. v. Camp*, 397 U.S. 150, 157 (1970).

ing private rights is not lightly to be inferred."⁷⁸ In a 1975 case, where the statute did not expressly prohibit review, the court held that absent a prohibition the agency "bears the heavy burden of overcoming the strong presumption that Congress did not mean to prohibit all judicial review of [its] decisions."⁷⁹ The Court found this burden had not been met. At least, the materials the agency relied on suggested that Congress had not addressed the matter. This was insufficient to overcome "clear and convincing evidence" the presumption that Congress meant to prohibit judicial review.⁸⁰

The general rule is that statutory provisions that appear to preclude review are not interpreted literally so as to bar review. It happens, however, when a statute, on its face, gives "clear and convincing evidence" of a legislative intent to preclude review? This is the kind of provision precluding review that a writer once termed "so blatant as to be positively indecent."⁸¹ Recent cases hold that even such a provision is not construed literally to cut off review. As strong a preclusive provision as any contained in the Micronesian Claims Act. It provided that decisions of the agency set up to review claims under the Act were to be "final and conclusive for all purposes, notwithstanding any other provision of law to the contrary and not subject to review."⁸² Even this provision was held not to forestall judicial consideration of complaints that the agency had disregarded statutory directives or constitutional commands.⁸³ The Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia rested its decision in favor of review on broad grounds. It noted that to frustrate the ability to obtain judicial redress would be to call into question the seriousness of the government's devotion to human rights and fundamental freedoms.⁸⁴

There are comparable decisions in other federal and state courts. The most recent was in a New York case, where the statute described decisions of the commissioner as "final and conclusive, and not subject to question or review in any place or court whatever."⁸⁵ This language was described by the court as

78. *Barlow v. Collins*, 397 U.S. 159, 166 (1970).

79. *Dunlop v. Bachowski*, 421 U.S. 560, 567 (1975).

80. *Id.*

81. J. WILLIS, *THE PARLIAMENTARY POWERS OF ENGLISH GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS* (1933).

82. Pub. L. No. 92-39, § 201, 85 Stat. 96 (1971) (terminated Aug. 3, 1976).

83. *Ralpho v. Bell*, 569 F.2d 607 (D.C. Cir. 1977).

84. *Id.* at 626.

85. _____

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seemingly bespeaking an unchallengeable power."⁸⁶ Notwithstanding this, the court declared, "our courts have not hesitated to exercise a reviewing function when, in their opinion, the commissioner had erroneously decided issues involving statutes and questions of law, on the theory that determinations so flawed fell within the rubric of arbitrariness."⁸⁷ Consequently, despite the statute, judicial review in the case was proper.⁸⁸

Despite these cases, the broadside statutory bar against review of decisions granting or denying benefits by the Veterans Administration⁸⁹ is taken literally. Yet the Supreme Court has held that even such a no-review clause does not prohibit *all* judicial review. In *Johnson v. Robison*,⁹⁰ the VA had denied educational benefits to a conscientious objector who had completed 18 months of required alternate civilian service, relying on statutory provisions that denied "eligible veteran" status to such an individual. Appellee challenged the statute's constitutionality on first and fifth amendment grounds. The Court held that the district court had jurisdiction despite the no-review clause. A no-review clause does not "preclude judicial cognizance of constitutional challenges to the veterans' benefits legislation."⁹¹ Other cases hold that the VA no-review clause does not preclude review of VA regulations⁹² or decisions not involving claims for benefits.⁹³

But the courts continue to give literal effect to the VA no-review clause in cases involving claims for benefits. Under the traditional approach, veterans' benefits were mere "privileges," defined on the statutory terms. If one of those terms was a provision precluding review, it would be given literal effect by the courts.⁹⁴ But the distinction between "rights" and "privileges" is seemingly eliminated by *Goldberg v. Kelly*.⁹⁵ The demise of the "privilege" concept in procedural due process cases brought out by *Goldberg* should lead to a similar result with regard to

86. *Board of Educ. v. Nyquist*, 48 N.Y.2d 97, 103, 397 N.E.2d 365, 367, 421 N.Y.S.2d 853, 856 (1979).

87. *Id.*

88. See also *Owens v. Hills*, 460 F. Supp. 216 (N.D. Ill. 1973); *Hirschfeld v. Commission*, 376 A.2d 71 (Conn. 1977).

89. 38 U.S.C. § 211(a) (1976).

90. 415 U.S. 361 (1974).

91. *Id.* at 373.

92. *Evergreen College v. Cleland*, 621 F.2d 1002 (9th Cir. 1980).

93. *University of Maryland v. Cleland*, 621 F.2d 98 (4th Cir. 1980).

94. See B. SCHWARTZ, *ADMINISTRATIVE LAW* § 77 (1976).

95. 397 U.S. 254 (1970).

cial review.⁹⁶

The cases have not yet gone that far. Instead, they still apply literally the provision for administrative finality in the VA statute. In one case, it was claimed that, so taken, the VA new provision violated due process. The court rejected the claim, stating that it was settled that veterans benefits were the gratuities which might be granted or withdrawn under conditions as Congress imposed⁹⁷—i.e., the pre-*Goldberg v. Kelly* approach, which one would have thought that case had precluded.⁹⁸

Aside from these VA cases, however, the prevailing theme in recent years has been that mentioned at the beginning of this section: to expand the availability of judicial review. Thus, several courts have adopted a simple approach to prevent challenges to administrative action from being frustrated by the technical requirement that a proper form of review action be brought. Under the approach in question, the court holds that new actions brought in the wrong form should not be dismissed, but should be regarded as having been brought in the proper form.⁹⁹ This is a substantial step forward which enables the formalistic hurdles to review still posed by the forms of review action in many states to be overcome without legislative action.

The courts are also expanding the availability of review by widening the exceptions to the rule requiring the exhaustion of administrative remedies. Thus, the cases increasingly hold that the exhaustion rule does not apply "where the available administrative remedy is inadequate and to require the party to exhaust those remedies would be a futile gesture."¹⁰⁰ This exception has been ruled applicable where the agency had previously made clear what its decision would be¹⁰¹ in such a case, a court has said, to demand exhaustion "would be to require them to

96. *Goldberg v. Kelly* itself has been narrowed by *Mathews v. Eldridge*, 427 U.S. 199 (1976).

97. *Sager v. Johnson*, 342 F. Supp. 351 (D. Md. 1972). See also *Holley v. United States*, 352 F. Supp. 175 (S.D. Ohio 1972), *aff'd*, 477 F.2d 600 (6th Cir.) cert. denied, 414 U.S. 1023 (1973).

98. On Sept. 11, 1979, the Senate passed a bill which provides for judicial review of decisions denying claims for benefits.

99. See *Hamptons Hosp. v. Moore*, 52 N.Y.2d 88, 417 N.E.2d 533, 436 N.Y.S.2d 195 (1975); *Commonwealth v. East Washington*, 378 A.2d 301 (Pa. 1977).

100. *Battle Creek v. FTC*, 481 F. Supp. 538, 544 (W.D. Mich. 1979).

101. *Alekznagik Natives Ltd. v. Andrus*, 643 F.2d 496 (9th Cir. 1980).

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up oil from a dry hole"¹⁰³ and where excessive administrative delays render the administrative remedies inadequate.¹⁰⁴ In another case, the Supreme Court held that where constitutionality of a statute or other act is challenged on its face, rather than as applied, exhaustion should not be required.¹⁰⁴

B. Scope

The question of the proper scope of judicial review has been coming to the fore again, assuming a significance it has not had before passage of the Federal APA. The new concern with the scope of review is directly related to the widespread dissatisfaction with administrative performance and the consequent emphasis upon the need for effective controls. If the scope of review is too limited, the right to review itself becomes meaningless and the law in operation is reduced to a facade rather than an effective control.¹⁰⁵

One must, however, note a difference in approach to scope of review on the part of the Supreme Court and the other federal and state courts. The highest Court continues to talk in terms of deference to administrative expertise. As the Court stated in an NLRB case, "[t]he Board's resolution of the conflicting claims in this case represents a defensible construction of the statute and is entitled to considerable deference."¹⁰⁶ The judicial review is narrow. It is for the agency, not the courts, to fashion standards and apply them based on its experience. Regardless of how the Court might have resolved the question initially, deference must be given to the judgment of the agency whose special duty it is to apply the broad statutory language to varying fact patterns.¹⁰⁷

Lower courts have attempted to broaden the scope of review by expanding the doctrine of *Woodby v. INS*.¹⁰⁸ The Court there held that it was not enough for a deportation order to be based on the preponderance of the evidence normally required for an agency decision. The impact upon the deportee was so great that the Court imposed a stricter standard: the deportation order had

102. *Ogo Assoc. v. Torrance*, 37 Cal. App. 3d 332, 335, 112 Cal. Rptr. 761 (1974).

103. *Camenisch v. University of Texas*, 616 F.2d 127 (5th Cir. 1980).

104. *Moore v. East Cleveland*, 431 U.S. 494 (1977).

105. See Jackson, J., dissenting, in *SEC v. Chenery Corp.*, 332 U.S. 194, 210 (1947).

106. *NLRB v. Local Union No. 103, Int'l Assoc. of Bridge, Structural & Ornamental Workers*, 434 U.S. 335, 350 (1978).

107. See *Bayside Enterprises v. NLRB*, 429 U.S. 298, 304 (1977).

108. 383 U.S. 276 (1966).

be supported by "clear and convincing evidence."¹⁰⁹

Does the stricter *Woodby* standard apply in other cases where the impact of the agency decision is comparable? The Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia answered this question affirmatively in a 1980 case.¹¹⁰ The FCC had revoked a radio station's license on the ground that the station's owner and his officers had made deceptive statements to the Commission to conceal improper billing practices. The revocation order was supported by substantial evidence, but the court held that this was not enough. Such a license revocation involved "a loss of livelihood" and the FCC determination should be governed by the "clear and convincing" standard.¹¹¹ The same court had previously held that the SEC revocation of a broker's license also had to be supported by "clear and convincing" evidence. Though the SEC sanction was not as "profound as that of deportation, or to ancient banishment," it was severe enough to require the stricter standard.¹¹²

The Supreme Court, however, rejected this line of cases in *Steadman v. SEC*.¹¹³ The SEC had issued an order, after a lengthy evidentiary hearing, barring petitioner from associating with an investment advisor or dealer in securities. The order was based upon a finding that petitioner had violated various anti-fraud provisions of the federal securities laws. Petitioner contended that, because of the severe sanctions that the Commission was empowered to impose, its order had to meet the "clear and convincing evidence" standard. The Court rejected this contention, noting that *Woodby* could require the stricter standard because Congress had not spoken on the matter and it involved a proceeding not governed by the APA. However, the instant proceeding was subject to the APA. The Court interpreted section 7(c) of the APA as establishing a standard of proof and held that the standard adopted was "the traditional preponderance of evidence standard."¹¹⁴ Where Congress has thus spoken, the court should defer. There is no reason to accord less deference to congressionally prescribed standards of proof and rules of evidence in agency proceedings than in judicial proceedings.

The *Steadman* opinion draws an interesting analogy with

109. *Id.* at _____

110. *Sea Island Broadcasting v. FCC*, 627 F.2d 240 (D.C. Cir. 1980).

111. *Id.* at 244.

112. *Collins Securities v. SEC*, 562 F.2d 820 (D.C. Cir. 1977).

113. 450 U.S. 91 (1981).

114. *Id.* at 102.

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Vermont Yankee case.¹¹⁵ The *Vermont Yankee* Court stated that section 4 of the APA sets the maximum procedural requirements for rulemaking, which may not be expanded by the courts.¹¹⁶ In *Steadman*, the Court applied the *Vermont Yankee* approach to administrative adjudications. Justice Brennan's opinion stressed that Congress had expressed its intent that determinations in adjudicatory proceedings subject to the APA be made according to the preponderance of the evidence.¹¹⁷ Here, the courts may not impose a stricter requirement than that chosen by Congress. *Steadman* answers the question already posed—whether the *Woodby* stricter standard applies in other cases where the impact of the agency decision is severe—in the affirmative, at least so far as proceedings governed by the APA are concerned.

In many ways, the most important developments on scope of judicial review have taken place in California. The developments there have been both legislative and judicial. A recent statute has changed the scope of review of agency regulations. Under it, a "regulation may be declared invalid if the court cannot find that the record of the rulemaking proceeding supports the agency's determination that the regulation is reasonably necessary to effectuate the purpose of the statute relied on as authority for the adoption of the regulation."¹¹⁸

Before this statute, regulations were required to be "consistent and not in conflict with the statute and reasonably necessary to effectuate the purpose of the statute."¹¹⁹ The cases, however, had held that in reviewing a regulation to determine whether it was reasonably necessary the independent judgment of the courts could not be utilized.¹²⁰ According to the California Court, the notion of independent judgment review was inconsistent with the "presumption of regularity accorded administrative rules and regulations."¹²¹ So long as the agency acted within the limits of its enabling act, the courts would defer to the agency's determination that a regulation was reasonably

15. *Vermont Yankee Nuclear Power Corp. v. Natural Resources Defense Council*, 435 U.S. 519 (1978).

16. *Id.* at 523-24.

17. 450 U.S. at 100-02.

18. Cal. Gov't Code § 11350(b), amended by 1979 Cal. Stats., ch. 567.

19. Cal. Gov't Code § 11374 (West 1966).

20. *Ralphs Grocery Co. v. Reimel*, 69 Cal. 2d 172, 175, 444 P.2d 79, 82, 70 Cal. 407, 410 (1963).

21. *Id.*

necessary.¹²²

Such deference is eliminated by the new provision on review of regulations. Its language appears to contemplate independent judicial review on the necessity of regulations.¹²³ This makes a drastic change in the scope of review of rules that greatly expands the role of the courts in controlling administrative power.

A comparable expansion has been worked by the adoption of the California court of the *Strumsky* rule that, where an agency decision substantially affects "a fundamental vested right," the reviewing court must exercise its independent judgment on the evidence.¹²⁴ This rule limits the substantial evidence test to cases where the agency decision does not affect a fundamental right; where such a right is affected, the reviewing court must reverse if the findings are not supported by the weight of the evidence. As this writer has shown,¹²⁵ the fundamental right doctrine is a California version of the *Ben Avon* doctrine.¹²⁶ It is, indeed, even broader, since unlike *Ben Avon*, it is not limited to constitutional rights; it includes economic entitlements, such as a police widow's pension.¹²⁷

Yet, if the *Strumsky* rule has a *Ben Avon*-type constitutional foundation, that basis is an unusual one, since under a *Ben Avon* case it can be abrogated by statutory provision. At issue in the case referred to was the proper scope of review of an unfair labor practice order of the Agricultural Labor Relations Board.¹²⁸ The governing statute provided that the agency's findings should be conclusive if supported by substantial evidence on the whole record. The employer claimed that, despite this, the California Constitution's restrictions on judicial power required courts to reject the findings unless, after an independent review of the record, they were ruled supported by the weight of the evidence. The court rejected the claim. It held that

122. See *Agricultural Labor Relations Bd. v. Superior Court*, 546 P.2d 637, 700, 128 Cal. Rptr. 183 (1976).

123. See Startz, *California's New Office of Administrative Law and Other Amendments to the California APA*, 32 Ad. L. Rev. 713, 729 (1980).

124. *Strumsky v. San Diego County Employees Retirement Ass'n*, 11 Cal. 3d 23, 429, 112 Cal. Rptr. 305 (1974).

125. B. SCHWARTZ, *ADMINISTRATIVE LAW* § 225 (1976).

126. *Ohio Valley Water Co. v. Ben Avon Borough*, 253 U.S. 237 (1920).

127. This was the right involved in *Strumsky*, 11 Cal. 3d 23, P.2d 29, 112 Cal. Rptr. 305 (1974).

128. *Tex-Cal Land Management, Inc. v. Agricultural Labor Relations Bd.*, 24 Cal. 3d 335, 595 P.2d 579, 156 Cal. Rptr. 1 (1979).

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Strumsky rule did not bar the legislature from providing a narrower scope.¹²⁹

Though it may thus be subject to legislative control, the *Strumsky* doctrine still makes for a substantial broadening of scope of judicial review. From a wider point of view, the California approach may be seen as a logical consequence of the tendency in recent years to permit broad review of agency action affecting personal rights. The preferred status of personal rights in present day public law has led the federal courts to adopt a higher standard for judging restrictions on them than the standard for judging restrictions on property rights. Thus, when agency action affects such personal rights protected by the Constitution as the right of citizenship, there may be room for broader review. This has been confirmed in *Agosto v. INS*,¹³⁰ where the Court stated that "the Constitution requires that there be some provision for *de novo* judicial determination of claims to American citizenship in deportation proceedings."¹³¹ A resident of this country has a right to *de novo* determination of claim to United States citizenship, since citizenship is a "fact" on which both congressional and agency power to order deportation depend.

The growing disenchantment with the administrative process may lead the courts to extend the broad review now asserted by the federal courts in personal rights cases to other rights, leading ultimately to adoption of something like the California fundamental rights doctrine. A suggestive decision was by a district court in a case involving review of regulations. Despite the recent California statute discussed, review of regulations is normally governed by the test of reasonableness, with deference accorded the agency judgment on the matter.¹³² According to the federal court in question, however, a stricter standard of review is required where a "fundamental right" is involved. In such a case the court may not end its inquiry upon finding that the regulation is reasonably related to its enabling legislation. A regulation that significantly interferes with the exercise of a fundamental right requires more rigorous scrutiny: it must be supported by a compelling interest and be closely tailored to actuate only that interest.¹³³

129. *Id.* at ____ 595 P.2d at ____, 156 Cal. Rptr. at ____.

130. 436 U.S. 748 (1978).

131. *Id.* at 753.

132. See B. SCHWARTZ, *ADMINISTRATIVE LAW* § 57 (1976).

133. *Southwestern Community Action Council, Inc. v. Community Serv. Admin.*,

If the federal court's approach is correct in cases where regulations affecting fundamental rights are at issue, why is it not correct in cases involving other agency acts which affect fundamental rights? If the court's reasoning is followed to its logical conclusion, the result will be an expansion in the scope of review comparable to that under the California *Strumsky* rule.

CONCLUSION

According to the West Virginia court, "the ad hoc development of administrative law . . . produced a creature which looked very much like the famous elephant, which was allegedly worse designed by a committee."¹³⁴ American administrative law has clearly developed in an unsystematic fashion; to use Justice Frankfurter's oft-quoted phrase: "our Administrative Law largely 'grewed' like Topsy."¹³⁵

Despite this our administrative law has been governed by cyclical trends during its different periods. The first period of administrative law development saw the creation and then proliferation of agencies. The first task of the developing system was to legitimize the vast delegation of powers made to agencies. The emphasis was on delegation and judicial review as means of controlling delegation. The next stage saw a shift in emphasis to administrative procedure. During this period, starting in the 1930s, the procedural pattern was worked out—first in the regulatory agencies and then extended to the newer areas of social welfare. The basic principles were codified in the Federal Administrative Procedure Act and its state counterparts.

Toward the end of the period, there was another spate of agency creation, this time a product of the increased focus on consumer and environmental protection that has so changed our public law in recent years.¹³⁶ The proliferation of the new generation of agencies has rivaled, if not surpassed, that during the New Deal period. "The term 'alphabet soup,'" the Supreme Court tells us, "gained currency in the early days of the New Deal as a description of the proliferation of new agencies . . ."¹³⁷ By comparison, it goes on, the terminology needed to

134. Supp. 289 (S.D. W. Va. 1978).

135. *Citizens Bank v. Board of Banking*, 233 S.E.2d 719, 724 (W. Va. 1977).

136. Frankfurter, Foreword, 41 *Col. L. Rev.* 535, 586 (1941).

137. The most important of these new-breed agencies are the Environmental Protection Agency, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration, and the Consumer Products Safety Commission.

138. *Chrysler Corp. v. Brown*, 441 U.S. 231, 236 n.4 (1979).

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scribe the situation now "suggests that the 'alphabet soup' of New Deal era was, by comparison, a clear broth."¹³⁸

The renewed growth of administrative power, however, has been accompanied by ever-increasing concern about administrative effectiveness. That concern has been reflected in the developments discussed in this article. The renewed emphasis on delegation and judicial review has been a response to the felt need to subject agencies to effective controls. Such controls are being imposed both by the legislature and within the executive branch itself. They are subjecting administrative rulemaking to increased procedural requirements, as well as to direct legislative and executive review. Just as significant is the growing judicial consciousness of courts' role in ensuring the basic goals of our administrative law. Justice Frankfurter once wrote, "How to fit ancient liberties . . . into solution of those exigent and intricate economic problems that have been too long avoided rather than faced, is the special task of Administrative Law."¹³⁹

Judges are coming to realize that abdication of the field to the administrator is not a proper way of performing the task. "It is not to do to say that it must all be left to the skill of executives."¹⁴⁰ A more positive judicial role is demanded by the changing nature of agency power, which increasingly touches on fundamental personal interests. "To protect these interests from administrative arbitrariness, it is necessary . . . to insist on the most rigorous judicial scrutiny of administrative action."¹⁴¹ After all, as the Supreme Court reminded us four decades ago, "Courts no less than administrative bodies are agencies of government. Both are instruments for realizing public purposes."¹⁴²

38. *Id.* at 237.

39. Frankfurter, *supra* note 135, at 536.

40. *FPC v. Hope Natural Gas Co.*, 320 U.S. 591, 627 (1944).

41. *Environmental Defense Fund, Inc. v. Ruckelshaus*, 439 F.2d 564, 598 (D.C. 1971).

42. *Scripps Howard Radio, Inc. v. FCC*, 316 U.S. 4, 15 (1942).