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PARENTAL RIGHTS IN EDUCATION

Introduction

Almost a century ago, the United States Supreme Court affirmed in two seminal cases, that parents have a fundamental liberty interest under the Fourteenth Amendment¹ in the care, upbringing, control, and education of their children. *Meyer v. Nebraska*, 262 U.S. 390, 399 (1923) (recognizing the right of parents to “[E]stablish a home and bring up children”); *Pierce v. Soc’y of Sisters of Holy Names of Jesus & Mary*, 268 U.S. 510, 534–35 (1925) (affirming the right of parents and guardians “[T]o direct the upbringing and education of children under their control.”). The Supreme Court has time and again affirmed this foundational principle. See, e.g., *Washington v. Glucksberg*, 521 U.S. 702 (1997); *Troxel v. Granville*, 530 U.S. 57 (2000).

What this right essentially means in the education context is that parents can choose the school in which to enroll their children, but once public school is selected, parents have very little say in curricular decisions. “While parents may have a fundamental right to decide *whether* to send their child to a public school, they do not have a fundamental right generally to direct *how* a public school teaches their child.” *Blau v. Fort Thomas Pub. Sch. Dist.*, 401 F.3d 381, 395 (6th Cir. 2005). See also *Swanson v. Guthrie Indep. Sch. Dist.*, 135 F.3d 694, 699 (10th Cir. 1998) (“[P]arents simply do not have a constitutional right to control each and every aspect of their children’s education and oust the state’s authority over that subject.”); *Gruenke v. Seip*, 225 F.3d 290, 304 (3d Cir. 2000) (holding that notwithstanding “near-absolutist pronouncements” by the Supreme Court regarding parental rights, in public schools the state has “custodial and tutelary” authority over students and sometimes act *in loco parentis*).

Challenging Public School Curriculum Matters

A school’s choice of curriculum does not violate parental rights despite parental objections if the curriculum is reasonably related to a legitimate educational purpose. *Herndon*

¹ The Fourteenth Amendment provides, *inter alia*, that “no State shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law.” U.S. Const. amend. XIV, § 1.

by *Herndon v. Chapel Hill-Carrboro City Bd. of Educ.*, 89 F.3d 174 (4th Cir. 1996) (mandatory community service for students held not to violate parental rights as the program was reasonably related to legitimate state educational purposes); *Immediato v. Rye Neck Sch. Dist.*, 73 F.3d 454 (2d Cir. 1996) (mandatory community service held to not be a violation of parental rights). Rather, details such as the school curriculum, school hours, discipline, exam schedules, the hiring and dismissal of teachers, the availability of extracurricular activities, school dress codes, and so forth, are generally under the control of state and local authorities. *Blau*, 401 F.3d at 395–96 (citing *Goss v. Lopez*, 419 U.S. 565, 578 (1975)).²

1. Student exposure to curriculum content that offends religious convictions

Court decisions addressing religious liberty challenges to public school curriculum materials have been unfavorable where the parents claim that the materials violate their religious beliefs. For example, in *Mozert v. Hawkins Cty. Bd. of Educ.*, 827 F.2d 1058 (6th Cir.1987), the court dismissed school students’ free exercise clause claims against a class requirement that students read a book that violated their religious convictions. The court stated:

The lesson is clear: governmental actions that merely offend or cast doubt on religious beliefs do not on that account violate free exercise. An actual burden on the profession or exercise of religion is required. In short, distinctions must be drawn between those governmental actions that actually interfere with the exercise of religion, and those that merely require or result in exposure to attitudes and outlooks at odds with perspectives prompted by religion.

Id. at 1068 (quoting *Grove v. Mead School Dist. No. 354*, 753 F.2d 1528 (9th Cir. 1985)).

Similarly, in *Parker v. Hurley*, 514 F.3d 87 (1st Cir. 2008), the court rejected a Free Exercise challenge to an elementary school’s exposure of young children to books promoting gay marriage. “Public schools are not obliged to shield individual students from ideas which potentially are religiously offensive, particularly when the school imposes no requirement that the student agree with or affirm those ideas” *Id.* at 106. *See also Leebaert v. Harrington*, 332 F.3d 134 (2d Cir. 2003) (rejecting parent’s claim that requiring their son to attend health education classes violated parent’s right to direct the upbringing and education of their son); *Brown v. Hot, Sexy and Safer Prods., Inc.*, 68 F.3d 525 (1st Cir. 1995) (rejecting free exercise clause challenge to sex education program with sexually explicit content and crude language).

2. Coercion of students to affirm beliefs that violate the student’s religious convictions

Where students are coerced, however, into verbally affirming the truth of something that violates the student’s religious convictions, a First Amendment claim may be successful. For example, in *Wood v. Bd. of Educ.*, No. GJH-16-00239, 2016 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 136512 (D. Md.

² In Texas, however, a statute allows parents to request the school board to add classes to the curriculum. Tex. Educ. Code Ann. § 26.003(a)(3)(A) (Vernon 2011) (entitling parents to request “[T]he addition of a specific academic class in the course of study of the parent’s child in keeping with the required curriculum if sufficient interest is shown . . .”).

Sep. 30, 2016), the court held that the Plaintiff stated a First Amendment claim where she alleged that the school required her daughter to profess the five pillars of Islam and to write out faith statements of the religion. One recent case out of the 5th Circuit held, however, that unless compelled recitation involved an attempt to compel the student's affirmative belief, there is no First Amendment violation. *Brinsdon v. McAllen Indep. Sch. Dist.*, 832 F.3d 519 (5th Cir. 2016). In *Brinsdon*, the court rejected a student's First Amendment challenge to a requirement that the student recite the Mexican pledge of allegiance in Spanish class. *See also C.N. v. Ridgewood Bd. of Educ.*, 430 F.3d 159, 187 (3d Cir. 2005) (“[W]hile a public educational institution may not demand that a student profess beliefs or views with which the student does not agree, a school may in some circumstances require a student to state the arguments that could be made in support of such beliefs or views”).

In sum, the greater the coercion on students to profess beliefs that violate the student's conscience, the greater the likelihood that the offending school requirement could be successfully challenged in court. By contrast, situations involving mere exposure to offensive materials would be better handled by initiating and maintaining an open dialogue with school administrators on the issue. Parents can serve as a grassroots catalyst for educational reform and should also consider running for school board and becoming involved in school policy decision making. In taking such affirmative steps at the local level, parents can influence school curriculum and encourage the adoption of opt-out policies.

State Laws Providing Parental Opt-Out Rights for Curriculum Materials and Classes

Although the courts have not allowed parents to remove their children from objectionable classes on constitutional grounds, many states have enacted “opt-out” laws that permit parents to remove their children from various kinds of public school classes. The statutes range from being permissive to restrictive, with restrictive statutes generally limiting parental opt-out rights to limited categories of sex education classes. *See, e.g.* Ala. Code § 16-41-6 (2017); Idaho Code Ann. § 33-1611 (2017); Mass. Gen. Laws Ann. ch. 71, § 32a (West 2017).

By contrast, permissive statutes may include a broader category of classes and curricula from which parents may withdraw their children. For example, three permissive states, Arizona, Minnesota, and Texas grant extensive statutory rights to parents, permitting opt-outs for any class, school activity, and instructional materials to which parents object. The opt-out rights are not confined to specific courses or topics such as sex education or comprehensive health education. Ariz. Rev. Stat. Ann. § 15-102(A)(3) (2017); Minn. Stat. § 120B.20 (2017); Tex. Educ. Code Ann. § 4.001 (West 2017).

An exhaustive survey of state opt-out statutes is beyond the scope of this memorandum, but parents with curriculum concerns should consult a local attorney about whether their state has an opt-out statute.

The Protection of Pupil Rights Amendment

A federal law, the Protection of Pupil Rights Amendment (PPRA)³, 20 U.S.C. § 1232h,

³ Also known as the “Hatch Amendment.”

reinforces the parental right to know and be informed about their children's education by giving parents the authority to inspect all instructional material. *Id.* § 1232h(a). In addition, unless parental consent is given, no student is required to submit to any kind of test designed to reveal information concerning political affiliations, potentially embarrassing psychological problems, sexual behavior and attitudes, illegal and anti-social behavior, critical appraisals of family relationships, legally privileged relationships (e.g. those with a minister or doctor), and income. *Id.* § 1232h(b). Violations of the PPRA should be resolved locally, as far as possible, but if efforts fail, the PPRA also provides avenues for relief through the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act Office of the U.S. Department of Education.

Homeschooling Parents' Rights

For information on laws regarding parental rights related to home schooling, visit <http://www.hsllda.org/laws/default.asp>