First Amendment Limitations on the Power of School Boards to Select and Remove High School Text and Library Books

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FIRST AMENDMENT LIMITATIONS ON THE POWER OF SCHOOL BOARDS TO SELECT AND REMOVE HIGH SCHOOL TEXT AND LIBRARY BOOKS

"In our system, students may not be regarded as closed-circuit recipients of only that which the State chooses to communicate."

INTRODUCTION

In a number of decisions during the 1960's, the Supreme Court emphasized society's duty to safeguard individual rights and, in the process, broadened the first amendment freedoms of teachers and students. Although the Court stressed that the judiciary should refrain from becoming embroiled "in the resolution of conflicts which arise in the daily operation of school systems," it became clear that arbitrary interference with basic constitutional rights would not be tolerated. For example, in 1969 the Supreme Court

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5 The change in the attitude of courts toward public education can be attributed to an increasing awareness of the importance of education, to a mounting proclivity to resort to the courts to resolve disputes and to the inability of legislative bodies to effectively deal with controversial issues. Shannon, The New Tactics Used by Plaintiffs in Imposing Their Views
held that the wearing of black armbands by students was a form of expression "closely akin to pure speech" and therefore protected by the first amendment.6 In holding that students had a right to freedom of expression,7 the Court used particularly sweeping language and thus left open the possibility that first amendment guarantees might be available to students in other areas of potential conflict with school authorities.8

The purpose of this Note is to analyze the recently emerging "schoolbook" controversy in which students have begun to challenge the power of school boards to control the acquisition and retention of textbooks and other instructional materials.9 First, a historical overview of the constitutional limitations on school board authority will be presented. This overview will be followed by a synopsis of conflicting decisions on the schoolbook issue in the Second and Sixth Circuit Courts of Appeals. Next, separate consideration will be given to analysis of the issues of book removal and book selection in light of limitations which the courts have placed on the government's right to restrict first amendment freedoms. Finally, some general guidelines will be suggested to make judicial review of book selection decisions feasible, with allowance made for the fact that selection procedures vary from state-to-state and district-to-district.

BACKGROUND

Historically, school authorities had broad discretionary powers to make decisions affecting the educational process.10 This authority

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on, or Enforcing Their Rights Against, Public School Boards—A Commentary, 2 J.L. & Educ. 77, 77-80 (1973).


7 393 U.S. at 506.

8 See note 32 infra.


10 Some early decisions reflected the view that the courts had virtually no jurisdiction over educational matters. E.g., Bishop v. Inhabitants of Rowley, 165 Mass. 460, 43 N.E. 191 (1896); Watson v. Cambridge, 157 Mass. 561, 32 N.E. 864 (1893). Supporting this view was the theory that attending school was a privilege that could be conditioned on the waiver of constitutional liberties. See Hamilton v. Regents of Univ. of Cal., 293 U.S. 245 (1934). But see Tinker v. Des Moines Indep. Community School Dist., 393 U.S. 503, 506 n.2 (1969) (narrowly viewed, Hamilton "cannot be taken as establishing that the State may impose and enforce any conditions that it chooses upon attendance at public institutions"). An exhaustive study of school board authority to oversee the entire educational process is contained in Goldstein, The Scope and Sources of School Board Authority to Regulate Student Conduct
initially was derived from the common-law doctrine of *in loco parentis* and later expressly and impliedly granted through state enabling acts. Education was viewed as the vehicle through which the existing knowledge and values of the community could be transmitted to the young and thus was a primary tool in the socialization process.

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1 E. Reutter, *The Courts and Student Conduct* 3 (1975) [hereinafter cited as E. Reutter]. Since the school authorities "stand in the place of the parent while the child is at school," they have broad discretion in establishing curriculae and in regulating student conduct. Id.; see *Nonconstitutional Analysis, supra* note 10, at 377-84. It has been argued that the *in loco parentis* doctrine does not give school authorities the same right of control over the student that the parent has, but instead gives only the degree of authority necessary for the school to function properly. H. Punke, *Social Implications of Lawsuits over Student Hairstyles* 241 (1973) [hereinafter cited as H. Punke]. Another writer contends that the pluralism of modern society militates against the validity of *in loco parentis*. McNeil, *Student Rights and the Social Context of Schooling*, in *Schooling and the Rights of Children* 57 (V. Haubrich & M. Apple ed. 1975).


3 Nahmod, *First Amendment Protection for Learning and Teaching: The Scope of Judicial Review*, 18 WAYNE L. REV. 1479, 1480 (1972) [hereinafter cited as Judicial Review]. The inculcation of essential ideas, skills and knowledge is viewed by those favoring the "prescriptive" approach to education as a justification for shielding students from controversial ideas. Nahmod, *Controversy in the Classroom: The High School Teacher and Freedom of Expression*, 39 GEO. WASH. L. REV. 1032, 1033 (1971) [hereinafter cited as Controversy]; cf. Goldstein, *The Asserted Constitutional Right of Public School Teachers to Determine What They Teach*, 124 U. PA. L. REV. 1293, 1350-55 (1976) [hereinafter cited as Goldstein] (*Tinker* is in error if it weakens the validity of the prescriptive model of education). Professor Goldstein argues that socializing students is a proper function of the school and that the elected school board rather than the teachers should have the authority to determine curricular content. *Id*.


The prescriptive or indoctrination model has been attacked by many in the educational community. See, e.g., I. Illlich, *Deschooling Society* (1970); H. Kohl, *The Open Classroom* (1969); N. Postman & C. Weingartner, *Teaching as a Subversive Activity* (1969); C. Silberman, *Crisis in the Classroom* (1970). See also P. Slater, *The Pursuit of Loneliness: American Culture at the Breaking Point* (1970). Those advocating the "progressive" approach view the educational arena as a market place where the goal of intellectual stimulation
In time, however, limits were imposed on the decision-making powers of state education authorities. In *Meyer v. Nebraska,* a 1923 decision, the Supreme Court declared unconstitutional a statute that was designed to promote linguistic homogeneity in the schools. While the Court acknowledged the desirability of the statute's purpose, it indicated that such a goal could not be effectuated at the expense of fundamental individual rights. This view was reiterated in *West Virginia State Board of Education v. Barnette,* wherein the Court held that the first amendment prohibits compelling a student to salute the flag. In so holding, the Court recognized the role of the first amendment in preserving individualism and cultural diversity in our society and stated that fundamental rights cannot be made subordinate to the whims of the majority. In the *Barnette* Court's view, requires at least minimal restrictions on the power of school authorities to affirmatively indoctrinate students. Note, 30 VAND. L. REV. 85, 90 n.40 (1977).

Realistically, there is no clear prescriptive/progressive dichotomy in education. A certain amount of "egalitarianism" is present in education, Project, supra note 4, at 1373, with the judiciary sometimes called upon to achieve a proper balance between state interests and individual rights. *Id.* at 1382. In *James v. Board of Educ.,* 461 F.2d 566 (2d Cir. 1972), *cert. denied,* 409 U.S. 1042 (1973), the Second Circuit noted that "a principal function of all elementary and secondary education is indoctrinative," 461 F.2d at 573, yet upheld the right of a teacher to wear a black armband as a symbolic protest to the war in Vietnam. *Id.* at 574-75.

A common judicial attitude is reflected in a recent federal district court opinion: "I suggest that secondary schools involve a mixture of these elements in the progression toward the ultimate goal of education. As the student advances in age, experience, information, and skills, the need for controlling the educational environment diminishes." Cary v. Board of Educ., 427 F. Supp. 945, 953 (D. Colo. 1977); see Scoville v. Board of Educ., 425 F.2d 10, 13 & n.5 (7th Cir.) (en banc), *cert. denied,* 400 U.S. 826 (1970); Gambino v. Fairfax County School Bd., 429 F. Supp. 731, 734-35 & n.2 (E.D. Va. 1977). *See generally Wisconsin v. Yoder,* 406 U.S. 205 (1972).

*Id.* at 390 (1923).

Id. at 403. The Nebraska statute prohibited teaching a foreign language to students who had not completed the eighth grade. Its purpose was to minimize the danger to society of immigrants rearing their children in their native language. *Id.* at 398.

*Id.* at 401-03. Other attempts by states to strictly control the program of private schools were similarly struck down. *E.g.*, Farrington v. Tokushige, 273 U.S. 284 (1927) (state statute unreasonable in its control of teachers, curriculum, and textbooks in foreign language schools); Pierce v. Society of Sisters, 268 U.S. 510 (1925) (state could not forbid enrollment in private schools); see T. Emerson, THE SYSTEM OF FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION 598-600 (1970) [hereinafter cited as T. Emerson].

319 U.S. 624 (1943).

Id. at 642. The principles of Barnette were applied to high school teachers in Hanover v. Northrup, 325 F. Supp. 170 (D. Conn. 1970). There, the teacher refused to lead her class in the salute to the flag because she disagreed with the phrase "with liberty and justice for all." *Id.* at 171. Since the court found that no discipline problems resulted, the teacher's action, as a form of expression, was protected by the first amendment. *Id.* at 173.

319 U.S. at 641-42.

Id. at 638.
[t]he Fourteenth Amendment, as now applied to the State, protects the citizen against the State itself and all of its creatures—Boards of Education not excepted. These have of course, important, delicate, and highly discretionary functions, but none that they may not perform within the limits of the Bill of Rights. That they are educating the young for citizenship is reason for scrupulous protection of Constitutional freedoms of the individual, if we are not to strangle the free mind at its source and teach youth to discount important principles of our government as mere platitudes.  

Although the Barnette Court emphasized the existence of individual rights within the school, subsequent decisions indicated that the state nonetheless retained broad discretion to regulate educational affairs. It was not until the 1960's that the courts began to place specific constitutional restrictions on the exercise of this broad authority.

At the university level, the Supreme Court adopted the view that the first amendment would not permit laws casting “a pall of orthodoxy over the classroom” since the campus was peculiarly the

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1 Id. at 637. Later quoted approvingly in Tinker, Barnette’s recognition that the fourteenth amendment also protects the student’s freedom of thought established a direct limit on the state’s power to indoctrinate. T. van Geel, Authority to Control the School Program 23 (1976) [hereinafter cited as SCHOOL PROGRAM]. See also Wisconsin v. Yoder, 406 U.S. 205, 243-45 (1972) (Douglas, J., dissenting in part and concurring in part); Presidents Council v. Community School Bd., 409 U.S. 998, 998-99 (1972) (Douglas, J., dissenting).

2 See, e.g., Board of Directors v. Green, 259 Iowa 1260, 147 N.W.2d 854 (1967) (exclusion of married students from extracurricular activities); Rosenberg v. Board of Educ., 196 Misc. 542, 92 N.Y.S.2d 344 (Sup. Ct. Kings County 1949) (refusal to act pursuant to parental demand that “objectionable” book be removed); In re Kornblum, 70 N.Y. Dep’t R. 19 (1949) (refusal to purchase periodical for use in the library); State ex rel. Idle v. Chamberlain, 12 Ohio Misc. 44, 175 N.E.2d 539 (1961) (exclusion of pregnant student).

3 Prior to the 1960's, the only first amendment freedom to receive extensive judicial consideration in the context of education was religion and the requirement that the educational system accommodate differing religious values. Project, supra note 4, at 1426-42; see, e.g., Lemon v. Kurtzman, 403 U.S. 602 (1971) (state may provide books and educational materials to parochial schools); Epperson v. Arkansas, 393 U.S. 97 (1968) (state may not forbid teaching of Darwinian theory); Board of Educ. v. Allen, 392 U.S. 236 (1968) (textbook loans may be made by state to parochial school students); School Dist. of Abington v. Schempp, 374 U.S. 203 (1963) (bible reading may not be required); Engel v. Vitale, 370 U.S. 421 (1962) (school authorities may not compose official prayers); Zorach v. Clauson, 345 U.S. 306 (1952) (“release time” program permitting public schools to release students for religious instruction does not violate “free exercise” and “establishment” clauses); McCollum v. Board of Educ., 333 U.S. 203 (1948) (“release time” program utilizing schools for religious instruction violates “establishment” clause); Everson v. Board of Educ., 330 U.S. 1 (1947) (bus transportation to sectarian schools may be provided by state).

4 Keyishian v. Board of Regents, 385 U.S. 589, 603 (1967). In Keyishian, the Court struck down New York’s teacher loyalty laws and regulations as overbroad restrictions on fundamental personal liberties. Id. at 602. Offering valuable philosophical guidance for future
"marketplace of ideas." A similar philosophy was evident in *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District* wherein the Court considered the extent to which the activities of secondary school students are protected by the first amendment. Finding that the wearing of a black armband to express a political view was a form of symbolic speech, the *Tinker* Court held that such conduct could be curtailed only when necessary to protect the school environment. The burden of justifying restraints on the exercise of this protected "speech" was imposed upon the school authorities. Significantly, the Court rejected the argument that mere apprehension of physical disturbance or a desire to avoid ideological controversy was sufficient justification for restricting the students' freedom of expression. It is against this judicial background that educational disputes, the Court said that "[t]he Nation's future depends upon leaders trained through wide exposure to that robust exchange of ideas which discovers truth 'out of a multitude of tongues,' [rather] than through any kind of authoritative selection." *Id.* at 603 (quoting United States v. Associated Press, 52 F. Supp. 362, 372 (S.D.N.Y. 1943), aff'd, 326 U.S. 1 (1945)).

Similarly, in *Wiemann v. Updegraff*, 344 U.S. 183 (1952), a loyalty oath for college professors was declared unconstitutional because failure to take such an oath gave rise to a presumption of disloyalty. *Id.* at 190-92. In his concurring opinion, Justice Frankfurter focused on the special nature of education and noted that universities must be a forum for open dialogue and the sitting of ideas if teachers are to be able to foster critical thinking. *Id.* at 196-97 (Frankfurter, J., concurring). The same type of reasoning was evident in *Sweezy v. New Hampshire*, 354 U.S. 234 (1957). Both Chief Justice Warren and Justice Frankfurter stated that free societies need free universities. *Id.* at 250; *id.* at 262 (Frankfurter, J., concurring).

21 Keyishian v. Board of Regents, 385 U.S. 589, 603 (1967). The language in *Keyishian* was later quoted approvingly by the *Tinker* Court which apparently extended the "market place of ideas" model to the high school level. 393 U.S. at 512; see *Trachtman v. Anker*, 563 F.2d 512, 521 (2d Cir. 1977) (Mansfield, J., dissenting), *cert. denied*, 46 U.S.L.W. 3582 (U.S. Mar. 21, 1978). This aspect of *Tinker* has been criticized by those who argue that the rights of high school students are not co-extensive with the rights of adult college students. *See* 393 U.S. at 514-15 (Stewart, J., concurring); Goldstein, *supra* note 13, at 1350-55. *See also* note 116 infra. It may be argued, however, that *Tinker* neither repudiates the importance of value inculcation nor demands an absolute "market place." Rather, it emphasizes the need for both models to co-exist to the extent practicable. *Cary v. Board of Educ.*, 427 F. Supp. 945, 952-54 (D. Colo. 1977). This balancing of state and individual interests is most readily apparent in the student press cases. *See* note 83 infra.


21 393 U.S. at 508-10. *Compare* *Burnside v. Byars*, 363 F.2d 744 (5th Cir. 1966), *with* Blackwell v. Issaquena County Bd. of Educ., 363 F.2d 749 (5th Cir. 1966). The *Tinker* Court
the consumers of educational services have begun to challenge the scope of a school board’s power to censor the reading material available to students in the public schools.\textsuperscript{32}

further stated that government’s interest in inculcating social values must yield to the constitutional rights of the students. 393 U.S. at 511.


\textit{Tinker} resulted in increased litigation involving educational disputes that traditionally were considered beyond the scope of judicial review. For example, regulations similar to those at issue in \textit{Tinker} have been challenged by students, with mixed results. \textit{Compare} \textit{Guzick v. Drebus}, 431 F.2d 594 (6th Cir. 1970), \textit{cert. denied}, 401 U.S. 948 (1971) (ban on all non-school related emblems held lawful due to strong possibility of disruption), and \textit{Wise v. Sauers}, 345 F. Supp. 90 (E.D. Pa. 1972), \textit{aff’d without opinion}, 481 F.2d 1400 (3d Cir. 1973) (ban on armbands urging violation of attendance laws upheld due to “\textit{tense}” situation), \textit{with Butts v. Dallas Indep. School Dist.}, 436 F.2d 728 (5th Cir. 1971) (inquiry by school authorities needed before determination may be made that wearing of armbands would cause disruption), and \textit{Aguirre v. Tahoka Indep. School Dist.}, 311 F. Supp. 664 (N.D. Tex. 1970) (\textit{Tinker} violated when ban on armbands not based on evidence of disruption). For a discussion of these and similar cases, see \textit{E. Reutter, supra} note 11, at 12-18.

Student hairstyles presented another area of litigation. In \textit{Ferrell v. Dallas Indep. School Dist.}, 261 F. Supp. 545 (N.D. Tex. 1968), \textit{aff’d}, 392 F.2d 697 (5th Cir.), \textit{cert. denied}, 393 U.S. 856 (1968), although constitutional protection was accorded students’ choice of hair length, their rights were found to be subordinate to the state’s interest in maintaining effective and efficient schools.


Judicial recognition of the teacher’s right to be free of state intervention in the classroom has been gradual. The concept of academic freedom can be traced to the nineteenth century German concepts of \textit{lehrfreiheit} and \textit{lernfreiheit}. Goldstein, \textit{supra} note 13, at 1299. For an early discussion of its development in the United States, see \textit{R. Hofstadter & W. Metzger, The Development of Academic Freedom in the United States} (1955). Recognition by the Supreme Court of some of the basic principles of academic freedom can be seen in the \textit{Wienmann} and \textit{Sweezy} cases, \textit{discussed in T. Emerson, supra} note 16, at 601-03; \textit{see note 24 supra}. Prior to \textit{Keyishian} and \textit{Tinker}, most of the support for the concept of academic freedom was found in dicta and was seemingly limited to the university setting. \textit{See generally Developments, supra} note 4. Judicial reluctance to intervene in educational disputes, together with the fear of improper influence upon students by teachers, hindered teacher efforts to obtain recognition of a right to academic freedom. \textit{Judicial Review, supra} note 13, at 1495.

The leading cases upholding teachers’ rights in this area are \textit{Keefe v. Geanokos}, 418 F.2d
THE EMERGING CONTROVERSY

In 1971, Community School Board No. 25 of Queens, New York, voted five to three to remove Down These Mean Streets from all junior high school libraries in the district. Objections to the book’s presence in the library had been voiced by parents who claimed that obscenities and sexual episodes in the book would adversely affect their children. Subsequently, teachers, parents, librarians, and students brought suit in federal court, alleging violations of their first amendment rights. In Presidents Council v. Community School Bd., 457 F.2d 289 (2d Cir.), cert. denied, 409 U.S. 998 (1972). Down These Mean Streets, by Piri Thomas, is an autobiographical account of growing up in Spanish Harlem. See 457 F.2d at 291. Three months later, the board’s resolution to remove the book was modified to make the book available on a direct loan basis to parents. Id. at 290.

A recent district court opinion gives explicit recognition to academic freedom. Cary v. Board of Educ., 427 F. Supp. 945 (D. Colo. 1977). In a dispute over control of textbook selection, the court stated that “[t]he selection of the subject books as material for these elective courses in these grades is clearly within the protected area recognized as academic freedom.” Id. at 955. Since the teachers gave up the right to select textbooks in their collective bargaining agreement, however, final authority was found to rest with the school board. Id. at 955-56. Professor Emerson argues that the needs of our democratic society demand inclusion of the “system of academic freedom” within our legal doctrine. T. Emerson, supra note 16, at 593-626.

Section 1983 provides:

Every person who, under color of any statute, ordinance, regulation, custom, or usage, of any State or Territory, subjects, or causes to be subjected, any citizen of the United States or other person within the jurisdiction thereof to the deprivation of any rights, privileges, or immunities secured by the Constitution and laws, shall be liable to the party injured in an action at law, suit in equity, or other proper proceeding for redress.

School Board, a unanimous Second Circuit panel dismissed the plaintiffs' complaint, holding that the removal of the book from the school library did not rise to the level of a constitutional violation. The court reasoned that since the responsibility for selection of public school library materials was vested solely in the school board, it was inappropriate for the court to review "the wisdom or the efficacy of the determinations by the Board." Judicial restraint in library and curriculum matters was urged by the court, which noted that any decision concerning the contents of the school library invariably would be subject to objection from some person or group.

A similar but broader controversy arose in 1972 in Strongsville, Ohio over the selection and removal of high school library books and the selection of textbooks. The Strongsville Board of Education, after receiving recommendations from committees representing faculty, community members, and the board itself, decided not to purchase *Catch 22* by Joseph Heller and *God Bless You, Mr. Rosewater* and *Cat's Cradle* by Kurt Vonnegut, Jr. The board also voted to remove existing copies of *Catch 22* and *Cat's Cradle* from the high school library. Students challenged these decisions in federal district court, claiming that their first amendment freedoms had been abridged. In *Minarcini v. Strongsville City School District*, the District Court for the Northern District of Ohio held that the school board's actions in rejecting and removing the books

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37 457 F.2d at 291.
38 Id. at 290 (quoting N.Y. EDUC. LAW § 2590-e(3) (McKinney 1970)).
39 457 F.2d at 291.
40 Id. In dissenting from the Supreme Court's denial of certiorari in *Presidents Council*, Justice Douglas stressed the dangers inherent in permitting school boards to exercise unlimited authority over the contents of school libraries. 409 U.S. 998, 999-1000 (Douglas, J., dissenting). Of particular concern to Justice Douglas was the possibility that the personal values of school board members would be imposed on students:

> What else can the School Board now decide it does not like? How else will its sensibilities be offended? Are we sending children to school to be educated by the norms of the School Board or are we educating our youth to shed the prejudices of the past, to explore all forms of thought, and to find solutions to our world's problems?

*Id.* at 999-1000 (Douglas, J., dissenting). Justice Douglas also found that the New York statute empowering the school board to make textbook selections was constitutionally defective in that it was overbroad. *Id.* at 1000 (Douglas, J., dissenting); see *Shelton v. Tucker*, 364 U.S. 479, 488 (1960).
42 541 F.2d at 579.
43 *Id.*
45 384 F. Supp. at 698.
presented no violation of the students' constitutional rights.\footnote{Id. at 708-09.} Since the state had given school boards the authority to choose textbooks,\footnote{Id. at 700 (citing \textit{Ohio Rev. Code} § 3329.07 (Page 1972)).} their determinations would not be overturned by the court unless found to be arbitrary and capricious.\footnote{384 F. Supp. at 704.} Relying on the analysis in \textit{Presidents Council},\footnote{Id. at 704-05.} the court found the selection and removal procedure to be "fair, equitable and logical."\footnote{Id. at 706.} On appeal, the Sixth Circuit agreed with the district court that there was no constitutional violation in the board's decision not to purchase the books.\footnote{541 F.2d at 579-80.}

Significantly, however, the Sixth Circuit held that first amendment rights were violated when the board removed existing copies of \textit{Catch 22} and \textit{Cat's Cradle} from the library.\footnote{Id. at 583.} After reviewing the removal procedures used by the board,\footnote{Id. at 582.} the Minarcini court found that the sole basis for removing the books had been the social and political tastes of the school board members.\footnote{Id. at 581} Although factors such as deterioration, obsolescence and architectural necessity would have been adequate justification for removing a book,\footnote{541 F.2d at 582-83. In Gambino v. Fairfax County School Bd., 429 F. Supp. 731 (E.D. Va. 1977), the school board was enjoined from prohibiting publication of an article in the school paper entitled "Sexually Active Students Fail to Use Contraception." The court approvingly cited \textit{Minarcini} for the proposition that "material is not suppressible by reason of its objectionability to the sensibilities of the School Board or its constituents." Id. at 736.} the court stated that removal based on ideological considerations was inconsistent with the students' first amendment rights.\footnote{Id. at 581.} Most com-

\footnote{Id. at 581.}
mentators, however, are of the opinion that President's Council did indeed hold that school boards have absolute authority to remove books.\textsuperscript{58} If this view is correct, the Minarcini decision would appear to place the Sixth and Second Circuits in conflict on the issue of book removal, although they appear in accord on the related issue of book selection.\textsuperscript{69} In light of this conflict, the decisions in President's Council and Minarcini have engendered some uncertainty and have left open the following questions: (1) Does the first amendment prohibit school authorities from removing library books that offend their political and moral beliefs and, if so, is such a prohibition in accord with sound public policy? (2) Are there constitutional limits on the discretionary powers of school authorities to select books for use in the schools? (3) If discretion in the selection process is limited, what standards should the courts apply in reviewing the decisions of school authorities? These questions will be fully explored in the discussion that follows.

**BOOK REMOVAL AND THE RIGHT TO RECEIVE INFORMATION**

Due to the reciprocal nature of communication, it could be argued that the first amendment has always protected the right to receive information as well as the right to transmit it.\textsuperscript{60} Only in recent years, however, have both aspects of the communication process received explicit constitutional recognition.\textsuperscript{61} This acknowledgment...
ment reflects the view that the marketplace of ideas would be a barren one if it had only "sellers" and is rooted in the belief that a democratic government thrives on open inquiry and debate.

In considering the first amendment rights of students when books are removed from a school library, the Minarcini court relied heavily on the reasoning in Virginia State Board of Pharmacy v. Virginia Citizens Consumer Council, Inc., wherein the Supreme Court stated that the first amendment encompasses the right to receive information and ideas. Although the Minarcini court did


425 U.S. 748 (1976); see 541 F.2d at 583.

425 U.S. at 756-57. Although early references to a right to receive information and ideas were made in the 1940's, see note 61 supra, only in the 1960's was this right clearly expressed.

For early discussions of the emerging right to receive information and ideas, see Green, The Right to Communicate, 35 N.Y.U.L. Rev. 903 (1960), and Meiklejohn, Freedom to Hear and to Judge, 10 Law. Guild Rev. 26 (1950). A more recent and exhaustive study is contained in Comment, Freedom to Hear: A Political Justification of the First Amendment, 46 Wash. L. Rev. 311 (1971). In Lamont v. Postmaster Gen., 381 U.S. 301 (1965), the detention of incoming mail from communist countries until a request was made in writing by the addressee, was found to be an unconstitutional limitation on the first amendment rights of addressees. Id. at 305. Although the majority opinion did not specify precisely what rights were violated, Justice Brennan was more explicit in stating that the first amendment protects the right to receive: "The dissemination of ideas can accomplish nothing if otherwise willing addressees are not free to receive and consider them. It would be a barren marketplace of ideas that had only sellers and no buyers." Id. at 308 (Brennan, J., concurring). Later that year, Justice Douglas unambiguously stated that the first amendment includes the "right to receive." See Griswold v. Connecticut, 381 U.S. 479 (1965).

The right to receive information is not limited to conventional ideas. In Stanley v. Georgia, 394 U.S. 557 (1969), possession of obscene materials within the home was found to be protected under the first amendment. Though Stanley emphasized the individual's right to privacy, it was declared that the right to receive information and ideas is not conditioned on their social worth. Id. at 554. In Red Lion Broadcasting Co. v. FCC, 395 U.S. 367 (1969), broadcast listeners were found to have a right to receive suitable access to a variety of ideas. See notes 107-112 and accompanying text infra.

Any doubt concerning the vitality of the "right to receive" was eliminated in two recent cases. Procunier v. Martinez, 416 U.S. 396 (1974); Kleindienst v. Mandel, 408 U.S. 753 (1972). In Kleindienst, the Supreme Court upheld the federal government's refusal to grant a nonimmigrant visa to Ernest Mandel, a Marxist writer and theorist who wished to enter the United States to lecture at various colleges. While denying Mandel the requested relief, the Court explicitly recognized a right to receive information that "is 'nowhere more vital' than in our schools and universities." Id. at 763 (quoting Sweezy v. New Hampshire, 354 U.S. 234, 250 (1957) (citations omitted)). It was only because Congress has plenary power to control immigration that the Court did not find the rights of the listeners dispositive. 408 U.S. at 766.

In Procunier, the Court upheld a prisoners' challenge to the California Department of Corrections' censorship of mail. In finding for the prisoners, the Court stated:

Communication by letter is not accomplished by the act of writing words on paper.
not fully discuss the applicability of the Virginia State Board of Pharmacy reasoning to the educational setting, its conclusion is amply supported by a comparison of the two cases. In Virginia State Board of Pharmacy, a statute imposed civil fines on any pharmacist who violated his professional code by advertising prescription drug prices. The effect of this virtual ban on advertising was to effectively preclude the dissemination of prescription drug price information in the state. Among the issues facing the Court was whether consumers, as potential recipients, had a first amendment right not to be deprived of the price information. Writing for the majority, Justice Blackmun reasoned that freedom of speech embraces both the source and the recipient, and therefore consumers had standing to challenge the ban. Reaching the merits of the case, the majority weighed the consumers' right to receive information against the state's asserted interest in protecting both pharmacists and consumers. Since less restrictive methods for regulating this form of commercial speech were available, the Court found a total prohibition on advertising constitutionally impermissible. Significantly, the majority refused to consider the position, urged by the dissent, that the right to receive information was not impaired since

Rather, it is effected only when the letter is read by the addressee. Both parties to the correspondence have an interest in securing that result, and censorship of the communication between them necessarily impinges on the interest of each. 416 U.S. at 408. The fact that the prisoners were not "free persons" did not deter the Court from finding that first amendment constraints existed. Id. at 409. Analogizing the prison setting to the school setting in Tinker, the Court determined that, even under unusual environmental conditions, the rights conferred by the first amendment cannot be abrogated entirely. Id. at 410-12.

1978] FIRST AMENDMENT LIMITATIONS 469

The primary significance of the Virginia State Board of Pharmacy decision lies in its application of the first amendment to commercial speech. See id. at 758-61. For an application of Virginia State Board of Pharmacy and the "right to receive" cases in a similar commercial context, see American Meat Inst. v. Ball, 424 F. Supp. 758 (W.D. Mich. 1976).

The Board justified its ban on the ground that it was in the state's interest for pharmacists to maintain a high degree of professionalism and for the state to monitor the profession as a whole. Id. at 766-68. Finding other safeguards available that would serve the state's interest without infringing on the consumers' right to receive the information, the Court held that complete suppression based upon fears of the information's effects was unconstitutional. Id. at 770-73. The Court did note that under certain circumstances advertising could be regulated. Id. at 771 n.24.
the state regulatory scheme in question did not prevent consumers from obtaining the same information through independent price-shopping.74 Although on their face the precedents supported the dissent's analysis,75 the majority refused to recognize "any such limitation on the independent right of the listener to receive the information sought to be communicated."76

This reasoning is equally applicable to school libraries, which are an important, although not exclusive, source of literary information for students.77 Thus, in view of the Virginia State Board of Pharmacy rationale, the availability of a particular book from another source outside the school,78 or the fact that classroom discussion of the book is not prohibited,79 would not justify its removal from the library.

74 425 U.S. at 757 n.15. In his dissenting opinion, Justice Rehnquist argued that where the information is available from other uncensored sources, no infringement on the "right to receive" exists. 425 U.S. at 782 (Rehnquist, J., dissenting). The majority, however, rejected this view:

Our prior decisions . . . are said to have been limited to situations in which the information sought to be received "would not be otherwise reasonably available." . . . [E]mphasis is also placed on the appellees' great need for the information, which need, assertedly, should cause them to take advantage of the alternative of digging it up themselves. We are aware of no general principle that freedom of speech may be abridged when the speaker's listeners could come by his message by some other means, such as seeking him out and asking him what it is. Nor have we recognized any such limitation on the independent right of the listener to receive the information sought to be communicated.


76 425 U.S. at 757 n.15.

77 Although Virginia State Board of Pharmacy involved commercial speech, the Supreme Court has expressly recognized that the right to receive information applies equally to the educational field. See Kleindienst v. Mandel, 408 U.S. 753, 763 (1972).

78 "[O]ne is not to have the exercise of his liberty of expression in appropriate places abridged on the plea that it may be exercised in some other place." Schneider v. Irvington, 308 U.S. 147, 163 (1939). The existence of private sources where a person may readily obtain controversial books is immaterial to the constitutional question of whether the right of access to information contained in public libraries may be restricted. HUMAN RIGHTS, supra note 75, at 306; see Kleindienst v. Mandel, 408 U.S. 753, 765 (1972); cf. Southeastern Promotions, Ltd. v. Conrad, 420 U.S. 546 (1975) (rejection of applications to use public forum violative of first amendment despite the availability of other forums).

79 Nor is it enough that he should hear the arguments of adversaries from his own teachers, presented as they state them, and accompanied by what they offer as refutations. That is not the way to do justice to the arguments, or bring them into real contact with his own mind. He must be able to hear them from persons who actually believe them; who defend them in earnest, and do their very utmost for them. He must know them in their most plausible and persuasive form; he must
Clearly, the library of a public high school is a "forum for silent speech" with communication evidenced by the presence of a source (books) and a recipient (student-reader).\textsuperscript{80} Since such communications are protected by the first amendment, any justification offered for denying student access to particular books must meet constitutional standards. Thus, in justifying restrictions on students' right to receive information, school authorities must bear the burden of showing a substantial government interest to be served by the restriction.\textsuperscript{81} Admittedly, the burden is less stringent than when such restrictions arise in a truly public form, since students' first amendment rights must be limited to some extent due to the special administrative needs of the school environment.\textsuperscript{82} Nevertheless, the decision to remove a book from library use should be based upon "educational" considerations, obsolescence or architectural necessity.\textsuperscript{83} Such objective criteria would minimize the danger that book removal will be based upon constitutionally impermissible grounds, such as the political and social tastes of board members.

Applying such a test, the Presidents Council decision arguably
is justified by the fact that the school board's decision was motivated by concern for possible adverse moral and psychological effects on the 11 to 15-year-old junior high school students. While broad paternalistic reasons offered as justification for restricting first amendment rights should be closely scrutinized by the courts, concern for the psychological well-being of students is quite properly a factor in educational decision-making. Since the facts suggest that the board exercised its powers with propriety, the holding in Presidents Council is not entirely inconsistent with the notion that the first amendment prohibits unlimited censorship.

While more stringent limits on youth access to constitutionally protected materials have been allowed by the courts, the circumstances must be narrow and well defined. Erznoznik v. City of Jacksonville, 422 U.S. 205, 211-12 (1975).

Speech that is neither obscene as to youths nor subject to some other legitimate proscription cannot be suppressed solely to protect the young from ideas or images that a legislative body thinks unsuitable for them. In most circumstances, the values protected by the First Amendment are no less applicable when government seeks to control the flow of information to minors. Id. at 213-14 (footnote and citations omitted). See also Interstate Circuit, Inc. v. City of Dallas, 390 U.S. 676 (1968).

In the educational environment, the courts are divided over whether school officials may exercise prior restraint or are limited instead to imposing time, place, and manner restrictions on access to student-published materials. The Seventh Circuit, viewing Tinker as dispositive, clearly denies any right on the part of school authorities to invoke prior restraints. See Fujishima v. Board of Educ., 460 F.2d 1355, 1358 (7th Cir. 1972). See also Jacobs v. Board of School Comm'rs, 490 F.2d 601 (7th Cir. 1973), vacated on other grounds, 420 U.S. 128 (1975); Scoville v. Board of Educ., 425 F.2d 10 (7th Cir.) (en banc), cert. denied, 400 U.S. 826 (1970). The Second Circuit, however, has upheld the right of school authorities to require prior approval of printed matter to be distributed on school grounds. Eisner v. Stamford Bd. of Educ., 440 F.2d 803 (2d Cir. 1971). In the Second Circuit's view, such prior restraint is permissible if procedural safeguards are present and if the school authorities demonstrate a reasonable anticipation of serious disruption. Id. at 808-11. The Fourth and Fifth Circuits have generally followed the lead of Eisner. See, e.g., Nitzberg v. Parks, 525 F.2d 378 (4th Cir. 1975); Shanley v. Northeast Indep. School Dist., 462 F.2d 960 (5th Cir. 1972); Quarterman v. Byrd, 453 F.2d 54 (4th Cir. 1971). See also Riseman v. School Comm. of Quincy, 439 F.2d 148 (1st Cir. 1971) (per curiam); Cintron v. State Bd. of Educ., 384 F. Supp. 674 (D.P.R. 1974). See generally E. Reutter, supra note 11, at 18-35; Note, Prior Restraints in Public High Schools, 82 Yale L.J. 1325 (1973).

It should be noted that Presidents Council was decided prior to the Supreme Court's decisions in Kleindienst v. Mandel, 408 U.S. 753 (1972), Procunier v. Martinez, 416 U.S. 396 (1974), and Virginia State Bd. of Pharmacy v. Virginia Citizens Consumers Council, Inc., 425 U.S. 748 (1976), discussed in notes 64-76 and accompanying text supra.
In addition to constitutional considerations, a requirement that book removal be guided by educational concerns, and not subjective political judgments, represents sound public policy. The danger of enforced conformity within the school has been opposed for its possible adverse effects on students.\(^8\) Fostering individual autonomy is the essence of American ideology\(^9\) and is a value that has been reflected in a generation of Supreme Court decisions that view the student as a person possessed of constitutional rights.\(^10\) The importance of individualism to the democratic system mandates that students retain their first amendment rights to the fullest, most practical extent possible within the educational environment.\(^11\)

Judicial mistrust of paternalistic rationales for government interference with first amendment rights has been expressed as follows:

The very purpose of the First Amendment is to foreclose public authority from assuming a guardianship of the public mind through regulating the press, speech, and religion. In this field every person must be his own watchman for truth, because the forefathers did not trust any government to separate the truth from false for us. Thomas v. Collins, 323 U.S. 516, 545 (1945) (Jackson, J., concurring) (citation omitted). See generally Abrams v. United States, 250 U.S. 616, 630 (1919) (Brandeis, J., dissenting); see also Marsh v. Alabama, 326 U.S. 501, 508 (1946); Martin v. City of Struthers, 319 U.S. 141, 146-47 (1943).

In Stanley v. Georgia, 394 U.S. 557 (1969), a statute making it a crime to possess obscene matter was defended on the theory that the statute protected the individual's mind from the effects of obscenity. The Court rejected this reasoning, suggesting that it amounted to a claim that the state has the power to control the contents of people's minds. "To some, this may be a noble purpose, but it is wholly inconsistent with the philosophy of the First Amendment." Id. at 565-66.


of school authorities to regulate student conduct,\textsuperscript{92} course offerings, and book selection is broad.\textsuperscript{93} Such pervasive power over the student's educational life suggests the need to draw a clear line between the necessary regulation of conduct for purposes of school management and unnecessary restriction of activities protected by the first amendment. Just as society at large must strike a balance between individual freedom and the security of its institutions, so too must the school.\textsuperscript{94}

**Book Selection and the Balanced Presentation of Ideas**

While the Sixth Circuit in \textit{Minarcini} recognized a right to receive information which precludes removal of library books based on the personal tastes of school board members, it rejected a challenge to the authority of the school board to select textbooks.\textsuperscript{95} The case, therefore, has been interpreted as supporting the view that with statutorily derived authority, a school board has virtually absolute power not to purchase books.\textsuperscript{96} This interpretation leads to an anomalous result: student access to controversial books already on library shelves would be protected while school boards would be permitted carte blanche authority to refuse to purchase any such books for future use in the school.\textsuperscript{97} The principles of American


The need for broad authority over student conduct is evidenced by a recently released study by the National Institute of Education. The study reports that 25% of American schools suffer from "moderately serious to serious" problems of crime. For example, in a typical month, 1 of every 9 secondary school students will be victimized by theft and 1 of every 80 by a physical attack. Of the nation's 1,000,000 teachers, 5,200 will be attacked each month and another 6,000 robbed. \textit{Time}, January 23, 1978, at 73. \textit{See generally} \textit{Goss v. Lopez}, 419 U.S. 565, 590-97 (1975) (Powell, J., dissenting).


\textit{Minarcini v. Strongsville City School Dist., 541 F.2d 577 (6th Cir. 1976); see notes 41-59 and accompanying text supra.}

\textsuperscript{94} \textit{See Note, 55 Tex. L. Rev. 511, 519 (1977). See also} \textit{The Law of Public Education, supra} note 12, at 112.

FIRST AMENDMENT LIMITATIONS

education, however, require a weighing of the interests of the state, the child and the parent. To allow school boards to make purchasing decisions without balancing those interests seems an affront to the purpose for which school boards initially were conceived.

Education originally was vested in the control of local authorities because it was thought that the formulation of policy at the local level would be freer of partisan politics than was possible at the state legislative level. That school board decisions often do not reflect this laudable goal, either in the decision-making process or in the results of that process, is only too clear. It has been argued that the probability of political interference and local prejudice at


10 It has been questioned whether cases such as Tinker and Yoder really represent "a symbolic battle between adults, each using children as sacrificial pawns." Burt, Developing Constitutional Rights Of, In, and For Children, 39 LAW AND CONTEMP. PROB. 118, 123 (Summer 1975). Interestingly, suits by community members seeking to compel a board to purchase a particular book or have one removed from classroom use have consistently been unsuccessful. See, e.g., Williams v. Board of Educ., 388 F. Supp. 93 (S.D. W. Va. 1975) (textbooks did not violate individual privacy and religious rights); Todd v. Rochester Community Schools, 41 Mich. App. 320, 200 N.W.2d 90 (1975) (reference to religious matters insufficient to justify removal of book); Rosenberg v. Board of Educ., 196 Misc. 542, 92 N.Y.S.2d 344 (Sup. Ct. Kings County 1949) (books depicting Jews in a derogatory manner would not be removed absent showing of "malicious intent" of authors); In re Mitchell, 13 N.Y. Dep't Ed. R. 228 (1973) (use of book containing material on human sexuality within discretionary powers of board); cf. In re Kornblum, 70 N.Y. Dep't R. 19 (1949) (school board cannot be compelled to purchase a particular periodical for use in high school libraries).

11 While school boards are subject to electoral accountability, this check on their power may not be adequate. See note 141 infra. An administrative law analysis of textbook selection in Kanawha County, West Virginia, posits that the rule-making authority of school boards does not include content; rather, the legislature intended that content be determined in an adjudicative setting. Schember, Textbook Censorship—The Validity of School Board Rules, 28 Ad. L. Rev. 259 (1976). The author also argues that the presence of serious constitutional questions mandates a closer scrutiny of school board rules and rule-making. Id. at 276.

10 Developments, supra note 4, at 1149.


13 When the Board of Education of Kanawha County, West Virginia, voted to purchase certain books despite citizens' petitions urging rejection, "homes were firebombed, schools were dynamited, gunfire was exchanged, anti-textbook organizations, rallies, and picket lines were formed, and the controversy received national attention." Schember, Textbook Censorship—The Validity of School Board Rules, 28 Ad. L. Rev. 259, 259 (1976); See O'Neil, supra note 60, at 213 n.14; Project, supra note 4, at 1422-23 & n.258.
the public school decision-making level necessitates increased judicial scrutiny and first amendment protection. Recognizing, therefore, that book selection decisions can be highly controversial and have an important effect on the education students receive, it seems proper that the admittedly broad scope of school board power be limited to decisions based on educational and fiscal considerations. Further, there is a need to recognize that implicit in this authority is the affirmative obligation to provide a balanced spectrum of ideas in academic disciplines where truth is not a given.

The requirement of a balanced presentation of ideas does not require that a particular book be countered with a book of an opposing viewpoint. Rather, it demands that a good faith attempt be made by educational decision-makers to expose students to varying ideas and concepts, including "controversial" ones. While it may be impractical to require that textbooks selected for use in the classroom reflect all points of view, there appears to be no justification for limiting or precluding access to diverse areas of thought in the library. Quite simply, when a text or library book is selected by a school board, the first amendment requires that educational considerations and the goal of a balanced presentation of ideas be the determinative criteria.

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105 The idea that education is a democracy which necessitates that the student be exposed to a balanced presentation of ideas has been discussed by many commentators. See T. Emerson, supra note 16, at 613, 623-26; Emerson & Haber, The Scopes Case in Modern Dress, 27 U. Chi. L. Rev. 522, 526-28 (1960); Van Alstyne, supra note 32, at 856-58; Project, supra note 4, at 1446. See also School Program, supra note 21, at 180-84; Judicial Review, supra note 13 at 1504-05.

An explicit recognition that a balanced presentation of ideas is mandated by the first amendment would prevent the difficulties that occurred in Cary v. Board of Educ., 427 F. Supp. 945 (D. Colo. 1977), wherein it was held that the teachers had surrendered their right to academic freedom through their collective bargaining agreement. Id. at 955. The result was that any interest the students had in reading books, selected free of value judgments by the book selectors, had been bargained away by the teachers.

106 Additional limits on school board discretion in selecting books clearly exist. Textbooks cannot be used to promote religion. See Daniel v. Walters, 515 F.2d 485 (6th Cir. 1975). Racially and sexually discriminatory books would also appear to be proscribed. See The Law of Public Education, supra note 12, at 108; School Program, supra note 21, at 33, 63-65; cf. Jackson v. Godwin, 400 F.2d 529 (5th Cir. 1968) (act of denying black inmate access to black
The concept of balance was previously approved by the Supreme Court in a case involving the content of radio programming. In *Red Lion Broadcasting Co. v. FCC* the Court upheld the fairness doctrine which mandates that equal time to opposing voices and views be provided by the licensee in the discussion of controversial political issues. Because a limited number of radio frequencies existed, the licensee was held to operate the frequency as a fiduciary for the community at large. The Court found that the interest of the viewers and listeners in receiving balanced material overrode the rights of the broadcaster. Although the distinctions between the situation in *Red Lion* and the issue of book selection are readily apparent, the case is significant in that listeners were afforded a "collective right to have the medium function consistently with the ends and purposes of the First Amendment." Like the radio stations that control the airwaves, the school is in many respects a closed system, with the school board determining the content of newspapers and magazines while permitting white inmates to receive white newspapers and magazines must meet heavy burden of justification).

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109 395 U.S. at 389-90.
110 Id. at 390.
111 See O'Neil, supra note 69, at 222-33.
113 "Any such closed, or virtually closed, system of communication [i.e. elementary and secondary schools] creates obvious issues for a democratic society which are not comprehended within the traditional principles of free speech applicable to an open or free-for-all system." Emerson & Haber, The Scopes Case in Modern Dress, 27 U. Chi. L. Rev. 522, 526-27 (1960).

A public high school is not a public forum. Van Alstyne, supra note 32, at 856; see Ferrell v. Dallas Indep. School Dist., 261 F. Supp. 545 (N.D. Tex. 1966) (Godbold, J., concurring), aff'd, 392 F.2d 697 (6th Cir.), cert. denied, 393 U.S. 856 (1968) (reasonable restraints for the classroom are distinguishable from what are reasonable restraints for the street corner); cf. Connecticut State Fed'n of Teachers v. Board of Educ., 538 F.2d 471, 480 (2d Cir. 1976) (school mailboxes, bulletin boards, and meeting rooms are not public forums).

communication within its walls. The state, through the school board, enjoys a virtual monopoly over the exposure students get to various ideas. These circumstances, which place special limitations upon the rights of students, also give rise to corresponding responsibilities, analogous to those imposed upon broadcasters by the Red Lion Court. It has been suggested that teachers have a duty to present a balanced view in the classroom; there appear


It also should be noted that the status of students in the classroom is distinguishable from the status of students using the library. Compulsory education laws require student presence in the classroom and official control over student conduct in the classroom is broad. Thus, to a great extent, students are a captive audience of the teacher. Van Alstyne, supra note 32, at 856. Use of the library, however, has no such coercive features, except to the extent that the student’s receipt of information is limited to the books present on the shelves. This distinction was recently recognized by a federal district court in Gambino v. Fairfax County School Bd., 429 F. Supp. 731 (E.D. Va.), aff’d, 564 F.2d 157 (4th Cir. 1977) (per curiam), wherein the school board argued that suppression of a school newspaper article on student sexual conduct was justified on the ground that the student-readers constituted a “captive audience.” The court rejected application of the “captive audience” principle, noting that students are under no compulsion to read the article since they must voluntarily pick up the paper. 429 F. Supp. at 736. See also Packer Corp. v. Utah, 285 U.S. 105 (1932).

The Supreme Court has noted that “a State may regulate the dissemination to juveniles of, and their access to, material objectionable as to them, but which a State clearly could not regulate as to adults.” Interstate Circuit v. Dallas, 390 U.S. 676, 690 (1968), discussed in Comment, Exclusion of Children From Violent Movies, 67 COLUM. L. REV. 1149 (1967); accord, Ginsberg v. New York, 390 U.S. 629 (1968); see Prince v. Massachusetts, 321 U.S. 158 (1944) (regulation of economic activities of minors).


Implicit in Red Lion is the view that in the area of broadcasting, a balanced presentation is constitutionally mandated. O’Neil, supra note 60, at 231, 233. The fairness doctrine has been analogized to numerous educational contexts. See, e.g., Joyner v. Whiting, 477 F.2d 466 (4th Cir. 1973) (college press); Judicial Review, supra note 13, at 1508-10 (curriculum); O’Neil, supra note 60, at 233 (public libraries). See generally In re James, 10 N.Y. Dep’t Ed. R. 58 (1970), rev’d on other grounds, 461 F.2d 566 (2d Cir. 1972), cert. denied, 409 U.S. 1042 (1973).

It is a matter of fundamental educational policy that whatever subject of instruction may be involved, the teacher must present the entire range of information available in relation to each subject. If the subject matter involves conflicting opinions, theories or schools of thought, the teacher must present a fair summary of the entire range of opinion so that the student may have complete access to all facets and phases of the subject.

In re James, 10 N.Y. Dep’t Ed. R. 58, 63 (1970), rev’d on other grounds, 461 F.2d 566 (2d
to be no valid reasons why book selectors should not be similarly constrained.

Under both the prescriptive and progressive theories of education, optimum development of the student's intellect is sought to be achieved. Ideological proselytizing through book selection hardly seems an effective method for achieving this goal. Although practical educational considerations require that some degree of control over curriculum content be tolerated, the educational objectives sought to be achieved by this control, and the means used in effectuating control, should not be beyond judicial scrutiny. Thus, a


In upholding the dismissal of a teacher for wearing an armband in class to protest the Vietnam conflict, the New York Commissioner of Education noted that the Joint Code of Ethics, adopted by the New York State School Boards Association and the New York State Teachers Association, "specifically considers as unethical the use of schools by teachers and boards 'to promote personal views on religion, race or partisan politics' and to 'deny the student access to varying points of view.'" 10 N.Y. Dep't Ed. R. at 63 (emphasis in original).

A similar view was expressed by a New York State court in Nistad v. Board of Educ., 61 Misc. 2d 60, 304 N.Y.S.2d 971 (Sup. Ct. Richmond County 1969). The New York City Board of Education adopted a resolution permitting students to be excused from school if they desired to attend the "War Moratorium" of October 15, 1969. Id. at 61, 304 N.Y.S.2d at 972-73. In granting an injunction, the court noted that the resolution placed the affirmative support of government behind the moratorium and compelled students to declare their views on the subject. Id. at 63, 304 N.Y.S.2d at 973. Acknowledging the good, subjective intent of the school board, the court concluded that such good intent could not justify violation of personal liberties and the Constitution. Id. at 64, 304 N.Y.S.2d at 973.

See note 13 supra.


The Constitution requires that the flow of ideas in a democracy be free of government control. Cary v. Board of Educ., 427 F. Supp. 945, 949 (D. Colo. 1977); see Southeastern Promotions, Ltd. v. Conrad, 420 U.S. 546, 544 (1975) (Douglas, J., dissenting in part and concurring in part); Police Dep't v. Mosley, 408 U.S. 92, 95-96 (1972); Stanley v. Georgia, 394 U.S. 557, 565 (1969). While government may not restrict expression because of its content, reasonable restrictions as to time, place, and manner are generally permissible. Grayned v. City of Rockford, 408 U.S. 104, 115 (1972); see note 83 supra. Thus, the circumstances surrounding any regulation of communication are crucial to any inquiry into the constitutionality of such action. Some censorship, or editorial judgment based upon various considerations, including content, is recognized as unavoidable in operating a school system. Minarcini v. Strongsville City School Dist., 384 F. Supp. 698, 704 (N.D. Ohio 1974), rev'd on other grounds, 541 F.2d 577 (6th Cir. 1976); see Presidents Council v. Community School Bd., 457 F.2d 289, 291-92 (2d Cir.), cert. denied, 409 U.S. 998 (1972). Judicial review of the factors considered and the procedures used in restricting first amendment freedoms has occurred in various contexts. See, e.g., Freedman v. Maryland, 380 U.S. 51 (1965) (prior restraint of
judicial declaration that the first amendment requires that books be selected to reflect a balanced spectrum of ideas would appear appropriate.

The discretionary power of school authorities to select books would not seem to be unduly hampered by requiring selection to be in accord with the spirit of the first amendment. In other situations, the danger of infringements on constitutional rights has caused courts to intercede in the educational arena and review a particular exercise of discretion.\textsuperscript{122} Judicial review does not offend traditional notions of deference to professional expertise;\textsuperscript{123} it simply reflects a recognition of the importance of holding school authorities accountable under the Constitution.\textsuperscript{124}

**JUDICIAL REVIEW OF THE SELECTION PROCESS**

Neither lack of judicial expertise in educational matters, nor fear of burgeoning court calendars, should cause judicial reluctance to review challenges to book selection procedures.\textsuperscript{125} Acknowledging motion pictures); Bantam Books, Inc. v. Sullivan, 372 U.S. 58 (1963) (prior restraint of distribution of books and magazines); Speiser v. Randall, 357 U.S. 513 (1958) (requirement that property tax exemption claimant sign statement on tax return declaring he will not engage or advocate overthrow of the United States). See also Procunier v. Martinez, 416 U.S. 396, 404-06 (1974).


\textsuperscript{124} See James v. Board of Educ., 461 F.2d 566, 574 (2d Cir. 1972), cert. denied, 409 U.S. 1042 (1973). Since individual rights may be subordinated to the legitimate interests of the school board in regulating curriculum, any regulations promulgated by the board should be "reasonably related to the needs of the educational process." Id. See also Gyory, The Constitutional Rights of Public School Pupils, 40 Fordham L. Rev. 201, 215-16 (1971).


\textsuperscript{125} In Breen v. Kahl, 419 F.2d 1034 (7th Cir. 1969), cert. denied, 398 U.S. 937 (1970), the court found that students have a constitutional right to wear a hairstyle of their own choice. The argument that such a holding would open the floodgates of litigation was rejected on the ground that failure to hold an arbitrary regulation unconstitutional "would be an abdication of the judiciary's role of final arbiter . . . and protector of the people." 419 F.2d at 1038. See generally Blount v. Rizzi, 400 U.S. 410, 418 (1971).
that a balanced education is a basic constitutional value requiring student exposure to a diversity of ideas through balanced book selection, however, may pose some practical difficulties for the courts. What is needed are reasonably precise standards of selection with adequate procedural safeguards so as to provide a record of the selection process for the reviewing court.128

The mechanism for providing such a record already exists within most school systems.127 Teachers and librarians are frequently requested to submit recommendations for proposed book purchases to the school board.128 Depending on various factors, these recommendations are made directly, by the individual faculty member, or indirectly, through a faculty committee representing the various academic disciplines.129 In practice, recommendations


It is not without significance that most of the provisions of the Bill of Rights are procedural. It is procedure that spells much of the difference between rule by law and rule by whim or caprice. Steadfast adherence to strict procedural safeguards is our main assurance that there will be equal justice under the law.


The New York State Board of Regents recently adopted textbook selection guidelines that stress the need for critical thinking in schools. The board stated that the presence of sex and profanity should not automatically disqualify a book; rather, the test should be whether the book has literary merit. The guidelines recommended development of a "materials-selection policy" within each school district by representatives of the various segments of the community. Among the criteria to be included in district selection policies are materials presenting a balance of opposing sides of controversial issues. N.Y. Times, Oct. 30, 1976, sec. 1, at 27. It is submitted that such specific book selection policies have two positive effects: they tend to prevent attempts at censorship and they provide consistency in book selection. See L. Merritt, BOOK SELECTION AND INTELLECTUAL FREEDOM 25 (1970).

In assessing the feasibility of recognizing a distinct constitutional right of academic freedom, Professor Emerson noted the practical importance of having an existing system into which the right could be assimilated, thus making unnecessary the exercise of affirmative legislative powers by the courts. Instead the courts merely would be using their negative powers of judicial supervision. T. Emerson, supra note 16, at 612.


Professor van Geel notes that the process of selecting textbooks varies from state to state. Among the areas where variations are found are: the grades to which the system for selecting textbooks applies; the kinds of textbooks subject to the selection system; the level at which the ultimate decision is made; the selection criteria to be followed; and the procedure to be used in establishing the approved book list. SCHOOL PROGRAM, supra note 21, at 80.

Increasingly, curriculum control is becoming part of the collective bargaining process between teachers' unions and school boards. A 1968-1969 National Education Association study of 978 collective bargaining agreements revealed that 54% dealt with curriculum review
made by the staff are accepted without examination by the school board unless a politically controversial choice is made. Thus, while in most cases there will be no separate record of the board's reasons for making a particular decision, its approval or disapproval of recommendations should provide the court with ample indications of whether choices were calculated to result in a balanced presentation.

In applying the concept of "balanced presentation of ideas" as the appropriate standard for judicial review, the courts will have to distinguish between permissible and impermissible content considerations. If a book of conceded literary merit is rejected and the justification has socio-political overtones, the court should scrutinize the decision closely. If, on the other hand, the rejected book is arguably too difficult or beyond the maturity level of the students, the court should be reluctant to overturn the board's decision where it is adequately supported by the facts. In addition, in evaluating a particular decision, the court may examine past decisions of the board to determine whether a pattern of partisan book selection exists.

Generally, the decision of the school board should be afforded a presumption of validity and close questions should be resolved

and textbook selection. Id. at 133 & n.52; see Cary v. Board of Educ., 427 F. Supp. 945 (D. Colo. 1977), discussed in note 32 supra.

130 School Program, supra note 21, at 118-19.

131 In 1976, the school board of Island Trees, New York, banned nine books from use in the classroom and library, terming the books "[a]nti-American, anti-Christian, anti-Semitic and just plain filthy." Newsday, Feb. 3, 1978, at 19. Counsel has argued that the dominating factor in their decision was their "conservative philosophy of morals and traditional values" and not "religious and political" considerations. Defendant's Reply Memorandum of Law to Amicus Curiae (American Jewish Committee) at 4-5, Pico v. Board of Educ., No. 77-217 (E.D.N.Y., argued Feb. 2, 1978). It is submitted that the distinction made by counsel is an illusory one.


133 The amount of exposure students should get to various ideas and experiences arguably depends upon his or her level of maturity. Compare Wisconsin v. Yoder, 406 U.S. 205, 245 n.3 (1972) (Douglas, J., dissenting in part and concurring in part), and Russo v. Central School Dist., 469 F.2d 623, 633 (2d Cir. 1972), cert. denied, 411 U.S. 932 (1973), with Ginsberg v. New York, 390 U.S. 629, 641-42 (1968), and Eisner v. Stamford Bd. of Educ., 440 F.2d 803, 808 n.5 (2d Cir. 1971). Professor Nahmod, however, states that "little is known about what significantly affects intellectual development at any age level." Controversy, supra note 13, at 1048.

134 The Law of Public Education, supra note 12, at 508; see, e.g., East Hartford Educ. Ass'n v. Board of Educ., 562 F.2d 838, 861 (2d Cir. 1977) (en banc) (school board dress code requiring teachers to wear a tie is presumptively constitutional with the burden on the plaintiff challenging the code to show that it is "so irrational" as to be termed "arbitrary"). Judicial Review, supra note 13, at 1502; note 4 supra.
in its favor. Judicial restraint should be exercised, since both the educational system and the judiciary would suffer from excessive involvement by the courts in educational decision making. When there has been a clear abuse of discretion, however, the courts must not hesitate to provide relief. It is evident that a myriad of constitutionally permissible reasons exist to justify the rejection of a particular book or the selection of one book in favor of another. It is only when social and political tastes enter the process that judicial intervention is necessary.

CONCLUSION

Judicial inquiry into decisions concerning the selection and removal of books is necessary if the spirit of Tinker and its progeny is to retain its vitality. It would seem an unwarranted stretching of the principle of judicial restraint to deny the existence of serious first amendment implications in book removal and rejection situations. Recognizing a student right to receive information and a balanced presentation of ideas need not overly involve the courts in educational affairs. Instead, school authorities would be on notice of the presence of constitutional constraints which govern their actions. The burden of including constitutional considerations in the decision-making process has been imposed on school authorities

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136 Professor Jaffe has described abuse of discretion in the following manner:
Broadly stated an abuse of discretion is an exercise of discretion in which a relevant consideration has been given an exaggerated, an “unreasonable” weight at the expense of others. The “letter” has been observed; the “spirit” has been violated. Discretion implies a “balancing”; where the result is eccentric, either there has not been a balancing, or a hidden and mayhap improper motive has been at work.
L. JAFFE, JUDICIAL CONTROL OF ADMINISTRATIVE ACTION 586 (1965).
137 Professor Emerson argues that fears of excessive judicial involvement in educational affairs are probably overstated, just as were the fears that Federal judicial supervision over State criminal proceedings would destroy the Federal-State relationship. The role of the courts would be simply to enforce “the fundamental principles of academic order.” They would leave the actual implementation of such principles to those charged with that function. There is grave doubt that the courts would find it possible as an administrative matter to do anything else.
T. EMERSON, supra note 16, at 615.
138 One author has argued that the applicability of a fairness doctrine to school libraries could lead to a “situation in which courts might unconsciously use constitutional issues as a pretext for substituting their own educational judgment for that of the school board’s.” Note, 55 Tex. L. Rev. 511, 521 (1977). The possibility of a court improperly substituting its own judgment for that of the state authority, however, exists whenever there is judicial review of discretionary state action.
when controlling student conduct\textsuperscript{139} and restricting student expression;\textsuperscript{140} imposition with respect to book removal and selection would not be an intolerable intrusion into or burden on the educational process.

In addition, placing emphasis on the procedural aspects of book removal and selection would represent an improvement over the present reliance on the electoral accountability of local school boards. The political process cannot adequately protect the first amendment interests of the various parties affected\textsuperscript{141} and such deference therefore seems to represent an abdication of the judiciary's role as the final arbiter of constitutional disputes.

In \textit{Tinker}, the Supreme Court implicitly rejected the view that the inculcation of the majority's values could be used as justification for limiting student expression.\textsuperscript{142} This argument should be similarly rejected when urged as a reason for limiting student access to information. The educational environment should be one where ideas are exchanged freely. Greater perspective on the part of school authorities and increased scrutiny on the part of the judiciary would represent positive, important steps toward this goal.

\textit{Richard P. Smith}

\textsuperscript{139} See note 124 supra.
\textsuperscript{140} See note 32 supra.
\textsuperscript{141} But see Minarcini v. Strongsville City School Dist., 384 F. Supp. 698 (N.D. Ohio 1974), rev'd, 541 F.2d 577 (6th Cir. 1976), wherein the school board's action in removing some books and not purchasing others was upheld by the district court. The court noted that 18 months after the dispute arose, a newly composed board selected a highly controversial novel for classroom use. 384 F. Supp. at 705. The court stated that ideological conflict within communities is cyclical and concluded that "[t]he events of the two years since the Board's initial action in 1972 dramatically demonstrates the dynamics and the pragmatism of the cycle in operation." \textit{Id.} at 704-05. The argument that the electoral process is an acceptable method for resolving schoolbook controversies has been urged in a recent federal district court case. See Defendant's Memorandum of Law in Support of Motion for Summary Judgment at 32, Pico v. Board of Educ., No. 77-217 (E.D.N.Y., argued Feb. 2, 1978).