Access or Success?: Wyoming Special Education and the Hope of a New Era in Appropriate Education

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I. INTRODUCTION

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), originally adopted as the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA), guarantees that each student in a special education program receives Free Appropriate Public Education (FAPE).¹ To comply with IDEA, the Wyoming Department of Education (WDE) must submit a State Performance Plan (SPP) to the U.S. Department of Education every six years.² After the WDE submits an initial SPP, the WDE must also submit an Annual Performance Report (APR) every subsequent year.³ According to the WDE, SPPs are not “merely a vehicle for reporting” but a tool “to move the state from its current level of compliance with statutory and regulatory requirements of the law and to improve the education and functional outcomes for children with disabilities.”⁴ In particular, the WDE measures state performance in providing

³ WDE, supra note 2.
⁴ WDE, supra note 2.
FAPE to children with disabilities by analyzing and collecting data on specified indicators. The WDE and the Department of Education believe these indicators show whether special education students are receiving FAPE. Indicators include: the number of youth with Individual Education Programs (IEP) who graduate from high school with a regular diploma, dropout rates, performance of children with disabilities on statewide assessments, suspension rates for children with IEPs, the percent of children with disabilities in regular classrooms and/or special education classrooms, children who have shown improvements in different areas of school and social life, and the percent of parents who indicate the school facilitated parent involvement.

Under each of the indicators, the WDE records statewide improvements over the subsequent years. Although data collected from the indicators shows improvement of FAPE, a disconnect remains between the data and the reality of the classroom. This disconnect is in part due to judicial interpretation creating a low standard of FAPE. A majority of courts continue to implement an interpretation of FAPE that only requires students to receive some educational benefit. Even courts that have adopted a slightly higher standard of FAPE, have failed to detail how this higher standard is different from the lower standard. Consequently, there is little difference between the two standards because the courts only impose minimal standards on schools, special education students continue to receive subpar education in comparison to students in the regular

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5 WDE, supra note 2.
6 WDE, supra note 2.
7 See WDE, supra note 2.
8 See generally WDE, supra note 2.
9 See supra note 2.
10 See infra Part II.
11 See infra Part II.C.
12 See infra Part II.C.
classrooms. This low standard of FAPE additionally breeds a hostile schism between parents’ expectations and the goals of the school district.

Take, for example, the story of L.J. As a student in Wyoming’s special education program, L.J. directly encountered the consequences of the low FAPE standard. L.J.’s parents quickly became dismayed with the general sense of complacency the school exhibited towards L.J.’s educational progress. Repeatedly, L.J.’s parents discussed their concerns and provided suggestions on how to change L.J.’s curriculum to better reflect her individual learning needs. Specifically, the special education teachers consistently assigned work to the class as a whole and often completed assignments for L.J. Frustrated, L.J.’s parents did not feel as if the school was challenging their child. After L.J.’s parents presented their concerns, the school cited L.J.’s Individual Education Program (IEP) to deny their requests. The school referenced how L.J. demonstrated some measurable progress indicating that L.J.’s education plan was sufficient. Although L.J.’s IEP suggested that she could perform certain skills, L.J. could not perform these skills outside the classroom. L.J.’s parents thus felt trapped in a vicious cycle. They would bring their concerns to the school and the school would cite L.J.’s IEP as an indication that L.J. had made some measurable progress, which would effectively end the discussion. Alternatively, if the school and L.J.’s parents did reach an

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13 See Mindy LaBrosse, A FAPE Revolution: Reforming the FAPE Standard under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Rowley, Deaf Education, and No Child Left Behind, 12 Whittier J. Child & Fam. Advoc. 87, 106 (2013) (despite Congress’s 1997 and 2004 amendments to IDEA and the passage of NCLB, the courts continue to apply the Rowley standard and consequently disabled students do not receive adequate education); see also infra notes 166–78 and accompanying text.

14 Kotler, supra note 9, at 498 (“The Court’s decision [in Rowley] resulted not only in limiting the substantive educational goals of the Act, but also created a schism between parents of disabled children and the educational establishment.”).

15 Telephone Interview with K.M., parent of L.J. (Aug. 15, 2015) [hereinafter Interview]. This interview illustrates the struggles a parent and a disabled child encounter in the special education system. The judicial interpretations of FAPE not only creates the standard for schools, but directly impacts students and families. Thus, students and their parents serve as the intersection between judicial interpretation and the classroom reality.

16 Interview, supra note 15.

17 Interview, supra note 15.

18 Interview, supra note 15.

19 Interview, supra note 15.

20 Interview, supra note 15. IDEA requires schools to create a written IEP for each student. The IEP provides the child’s academic and functional goals, and measures the child’s progress towards those goals. See generally 20 U.S.C. § 1414(d)(1)(A)(i) (2015).

21 Interview, supra note 15.

22 Interview, supra note 15.

23 Interview, supra note 15.

24 Interview, supra note 15.
agreement about new techniques for L.J., the school would often not follow through with the plans.\(^{25}\) The school’s inactions had negative effects on both L.J. and her parents.\(^{26}\)

Unfortunately, this story is all too familiar for families in Wyoming that have children in the special education program.\(^{27}\) Many parents and children enter into the special education program with the belief that the school will maximize the potential of their child.\(^{28}\) However, the schools only have to provide services to the extent required by law.\(^{29}\) Unfortunately, this means that the relationship between the parents and the school disintegrates.\(^{30}\)

In response to the schism between the school and parent, this comment argues that the judicial interpretation of FAPE, which primarily promotes access over progress, is insufficient for Wyoming parents and special education students.\(^{31}\) This comment further argues that Wyoming should amend Wyoming Statute section 21-2-501 to impose a standard of FAPE that is more in line with the 1997 and 2004 amendments and the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB).\(^{32}\) First, the comment will provide a brief history of special education and the path that led to the creation of IDEA.\(^{33}\) In particular, this comment will show how the discourse surrounding the creation of IDEA continues to influence courts’ interpretations of FAPE.\(^{34}\) The first section will also detail the amendments to IDEA, as well as discuss the standard of education found in the regular classroom by looking to NCLB.\(^{35}\) Next, this comment will argue that despite legislation by Congress

\(^{25}\) Interview, supra note 15. At one point, L.J.’s parents began taking L.J. to the Children’s Hospital in Denver. The doctors provided L.J.’s parents suggestions on how to improve L.J.’s learning and physical limitations. Although L.J.’s parents informed the school of the doctors’ suggestions, the school dismissed the suggestions because they were “unfeasible.”

\(^{26}\) Interview, supra note 15.

\(^{27}\) See, e.g., Decision C-0122-11, supra note 9; Decision C-0140-11, supra note 9.

\(^{28}\) Kotler, supra note 9, at 500–01 (“At least upon their initial entry into the world of special education, too many parents believe the school shares their goal of maximizing the potential for their child and too many school districts, for whatever reason—differing expectations, fiscal constraints, fungibility of children and, as an institution, not having to deal with the long term consequences of their decisions—seek to provide the bare minimum allowed by law.”).


\(^{30}\) See Kotler, supra note 9, at 489 (“In any event, when parents learn, or come to believe that schools are not offering programming designed to meet their expectations, and educators seek to justify their actions by pointing to technical legal requirements, the predictable response is anger and suspicion by the parents and defensiveness by the schools.”).

\(^{31}\) See infra Part III.


\(^{33}\) See infra Part II.A.

\(^{34}\) See infra Part II.A.

\(^{35}\) See infra Part II.A.
seemingly imposing a higher standard, the majority of courts continue to apply a lower standard of FAPE. 36 Third, this comment will focus on the minority interpretation of FAPE recognized in Wyoming. 37 Finally, this comment argues that there is little difference between the two interpretations of FAPE; however, Congress’s amendments to IDEA and the creation of NCLB suggest a standard of FAPE that emphasizes the success of special education students. 38 Thus, Wyoming should follow in the footsteps of a minority of states that have adopted statutes providing a higher standard. 39

II. BACKGROUND

A. Developing the Idea of “Appropriate” Education and Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA)

Entering into the twentieth century, American society experienced drastic changes as a result of the influx of immigrants and the urbanization of society as part of the industrial revolution. 40 In response to the changing landscape, American society entertained fears of a degenerating society and a national body. 41 Progressives reacted to these changes by looking to the state to remedy social imbalances and to achieve the common good. 42 State run mental institutions and their associated separate schools for “feebleminded” children became the tools to address these social ills. 43 However, with the rise of eugenics and increased admissions, these schools shifted their focus from creating productive individuals to having an asylum only concerned with custodial care of those society deemed

36 See infra Part II.B; see also infra Part II.C.
37 See infra Part II.D.
38 See infra Part II.D.
39 See infra Part III.
40 See Kim E. Nielsen, A Disability History of the United States 98, 100 (2013) (“The solidification of the federal government that developed in this period, along with emerging technologies and urbanization, aided the creation of institutions and the development of policies pertaining to people considered disabled.” “The mass immigration of southern and eastern Europeans who provided the cheap labor that fueled the nation’s industrial and economic expansion now generated fears about a deteriorating national body . . . .”).
41 Nielsen, supra note 40, at 100. According to Progressives, violence, sexual deviancy, poverty, and other social ills that plagued urban cities were evidence that American society was on the decline. See Richard Hofstadter, The Age of Reform 212 (1960).
42 See David J. Rothman, Conscience and Convenience: The Asylum and Its Alternative in Progressive America 49 (1908) (“As [Progressives] saw it, the state would have to exercise its authority to correct imbalances, to bring about equality, to realize the common good.”).
43 See James W. Trent Jr., Inventing the Feeble Mind: A History of Mental Retardation in the United States 26 (1995) (“The goal of education was productivity, and superintendents assumed that educated idiots, freed from inactivity and no longer a burden to their family, would return home to be productive and upright citizens in their communities.”).
“disabled.” Until deinstitutionalization in the 1970s, the mental institutions and schools physically excluded society's "undesirable" members from the general populace. As such, isolated schools and institutions characterized the treatment of disabled adults and children for the majority of the twentieth century.

However, in the wake of the Civil Rights Movement, parents of children who were in these state schools advocated for deinstitutionalization. Parents were not alone in their desire for deinstitutionalization because society also began to negatively view the institutions. Advocates for children with disabilities relied on the 1954 United States Supreme Court decision of Brown v. Board of Education to argue for equal education opportunities for the disabled in the lower courts.

In 1972, two influential district court cases applied Brown's equal protection analysis and due process theory. In Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, thirteen parents and the PARC brought a class action suit against the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, claiming that the state statutes that excluded disabled children from the public schools were unconstitutional. Similarly, Mills v. Board of Education was another class action suit in which seven parents sought to enjoin the District of Columbia from excluding their children from the public schools. The parents claimed that their

44 Trent, supra note 43, at 27, 94.
45 Dr. Thomas Kirkbride, was an influential figure in establishing the state-sponsored mental institutions during the nineteenth century. Although Kirkbride was not alone in this endeavor, he was the most influential. In particular, Kirkbride is representative of the "moral treatment" era. This era supported the creation of state mental institutions and justified society's perceived need to confine the mentally ill. See Nancy Tomes, A Generous Confidence: Thomas Story Kirkbride and the Art of Asylum-Keeping 89, 1840–83 (1984).
46 The history of mental institutions and institutional schools is beyond the scope of this comment; however, it is important to think of the passage of IDEA within the historical framework. States funded the first mental institutions under the theory of "moral treatment," which eventually gave way to the theory of eugenics and custodial treatment. For more information see Henri-Jacques Stiker, A History of Disability (William Sayers trans.,1997) (discussing society's innate desire to achieve "sameness" or "identicalness," and society's continuous struggle with this desire); see also Trent, supra note 43 (discussing how political and social opinions created the label of "disabled" and fostered a segregated state school system).
47 Nielsen, supra note 40, at 20 (challenging American history discourse to include how ideas of ableism are prevalent).
48 Trent, supra note 43, at 1 (showing an increased awareness of what institutional schools were like for children by evidencing that the Chicago Sun-Times received a Pulitzer Prize in 1971 for powerfully disturbing photos of the Lincoln and Dixon schools in Illinois).
52 Mills, 348 F. Supp. at 868.
children’s exclusion from the public schools was a violation of their due process rights.\textsuperscript{53} Both \textit{PARC} and \textit{Mills} resulted in settlement agreements that recognized a state’s obligation to provide public education to disabled children and to ensure parental participation in developing the child’s educational plan.\textsuperscript{54}

These cases, predicated upon allowing mentally disabled students access to public education, provided the impetus for federal legislation.\textsuperscript{55} Although states had monetary and resource concerns, they joined the movement and looked to Congress to “provide consistency in education programming and subsidize the costs of providing special education.”\textsuperscript{56} Accordingly, Congress passed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA) in 1975.\textsuperscript{57} The EAHCA provided money to states that complied with the EAHCA in order to ensure that children with disabilities would gain access to public education.\textsuperscript{58} Prior to the passage of the EAHCA, public schools excluded approximately 1.75 million school-age children with disabilities and another 2.2 million did not have programs that met their needs.\textsuperscript{59} Based upon these statistics and the legacy of institutional education, Congress’s intent with the passage of the EAHCA was to grant access to public education as a baseline guarantee.\textsuperscript{60} As the EAHCA underwent changes, the amendments to the Act created more in-depth requirements that shifted the focus of EAHCA from that of access to the success of disabled students.\textsuperscript{61}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{53} \textit{Id}.
\item \textsuperscript{54} See \textit{Pennsylvania Ass'n for Retarded Children}, 343 F. Supp. at 302.
\item \textsuperscript{55} Kelly, supra note 49, at 25.
\item \textsuperscript{56} Kelly, supra note 49, at 25; see, e.g., \textit{Mills}, 348 F. Supp. at 875; Note, \textit{Enforcing the Right to an "Appropriate" Education: The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975}, 92 Harv. L. Rev. 1103, 1105 (1979) (“Congress authorized large annual appropriations to aid the states in providing expensive new services for the handicapped.”).
\item \textsuperscript{57} See 20 U.S.C. § 1400(c)(2) (2015).
\item \textsuperscript{59} See \textit{Mark Weber, Special Education Law and Litigation Treatise} 1:1–1:2 (2002).
\item \textsuperscript{60} The \textit{Rowley} decision states:
\begin{quote}
The Act’s legislative history shows that Congress sought to make public education available to handicapped children, but did not intend to impose upon the States any great substantive education standard than is necessary to make such access to public education meaningful. The Act’s intent was more to open the door of public education to handicapped children by means of specialized educational services than to guarantee any particular substantive level of education once inside.
\end{quote}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{Bd. of Educ. v. Rowley}, 458 U.S. 176, 177 (1982). However, given the historical context it is hardly surprising that the focus was on access; yet, despite this focus, there was a sentiment to go even further than just offering access. \textit{See Mark C. Weber, Common-Law Interpretation of Appropriate Education: The Road Not Taken in Rowley}, 41 J.L. & Educ. 95, 110–11 (2012); see also infra Part III.
\item \textsuperscript{61} \textit{See infra} Part II.B.
\end{itemize}
B. From the EAHCA to IDEA

Not only did the EAHCA provide states with a monetary incentive, it also guaranteed “free appropriate public education” (FAPE) to all disabled children.62 In 1990, Congress reauthorized the EAHCA and although the reauthorization did not drastically alter the substance of the Act or its guarantee of FAPE, Congress renamed the EAHCA to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA).63 The most drastic changes and amendments to IDEA came in 1997 and 2004.64

In 1997, Congress enacted the most extensive amendments to IDEA.65 The 1997 amendments attempted to shift the legislation’s focus from mere public school access towards improving a child’s educational achievement and performance.66 Specific changes included strengthening the role of parents in decision-making, encouraging the use of mediation for dispute resolution, including measures to avoid mislabeling students, and codifying comprehensive disciplinary procedures.67 Congress noted that the amendments aligned the statute with the national standard “of ensuring equality of opportunity, full participation, independent living and economic self-sufficiency for individuals with disabilities.”68 In 2004, Congress once again amended IDEA.69

1. No Child Left Behind Act and IDEA

In response to the enactment of NCLB, which Congress passed in 2001, the 2004 amendments to IDEA attempted to reflect the initiatives outlined in NCLB.70 NCLB imposed new educational accountability procedures, such as holding states accountable for students’ performance on state-based tests.71 The 2004 amendments aligned with NCLB’s accountability policies by requiring proficiency in reading, math, and science for all disabled students.72 Thus, these

64 Kelly, supra note 49, at 26.
amendments shifted IDEA’s focus from bureaucratic compliance with procedures to student outcomes and student achievement.  

When Congress passed NCLB with bipartisan approval, it marked a major shift in educational policy. While IDEA serves as the federal legislation that creates standards for the education of disabled children, NCLB provides states with standards for students in the regular classroom of public schools. NCLB holds states accountable by using state tests, based on a state’s general curriculum, to measure student performance. Additionally, public schools must provide “adequate yearly progress” reports under NCLB. These reports must measure the schools’ progress in achieving academic assessments and providing “continuous and substantial academic improvement for all students.” As a method of holding schools accountable for student progress, NCLB also requires states to create incentives for schools to demonstrate a higher percentage of student improvement.

NCLB also requires public schools to demonstrate that students with disabilities have substantial improvement. Thus, NCLB is supposed to have wide reaching impact on every student in a school district. In particular, one of the purposes of NCLB is to “[close] the achievement gap between high-and low-performing children, minority and nonminority students, and between disadvantaged children and their more advantaged peers.” Specifically, NCLB lists children with disabilities as a particular group upon which schools should focus. The purpose of NCLB is to “[help] every child reach his or her academic potential and [aid] each child to self-actualize into smart and effective adults no matter how disadvantaged . . . .” Therefore, NCLB encourages a heightened

75 See id. at 16 (“Unlike IDEA, which was a civil rights bill, NCLB created new conditions for federal funding for public schools. While IDEA confers the right to a [F]APE to children with disabilities, NCLB enumerates standards for schools and ties state educational funding to stringent academic results.”).
84 Kaufman & Blewett, supra note 74, at 16.
standard for every student in the education system. Creating such standards for the regular classrooms has the potential to impact the definition of FAPE. Moreover, a majority of courts continue to view NCLB separately from IDEA.

2. Components of IDEA

IDEA has various procedural safeguards that provide protection for students and their parents. For example, IDEA requires schools to ensure parent involvement in making decisions for the child. In particular, parent involvement occurs through prior written notice and the creation of Individual Education Programs (IEPs). Prior written notice to the parent is required whenever the school proposes or refuses to initiate or change “the identification, evaluation, or education placement of the child, or the provision of a free appropriate public education to the child.” The prior written notice must contain a description of the proposed or refused action and an explanation of why the school has made that decision. Ultimately, these notice requirements provide parents with information necessary to effectively engage in planning their child’s education.

Additionally, each child in special education must have a written IEP. Each IEP contains the following information: a statement regarding the student’s present academic and functional abilities, a statement of the student’s measurable annual goals, a statement of the student’s academic and functional goals, a description of how to measure progress towards those goals, a statement detailing the related services and supplementary aids the student requires, an explanation

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85 Robin Bucaria, Expanding the Definition of FAPE Under NCLB: Why Courts Give FAPE the Slip and Leave It Swimming in a Sea of Alphabet Soup 10 J.L. & Fam. Stud. 237, 245 (stating: “NCLB could modify the provision of a FAPE under IDEA in several ways.”). See infra Part II.D.
86 See infra Part II.C. The effectiveness of NCLB is outside the scope of this comment. Rather, NCLB is used in this framework to understand the impact upon IDEA. Imposing standards on the regular public classroom and the effect that will have on FAPE.
87 See 20 U.S.C. § 1415(b) (2005) (detailing the required procedures for schools, including but not limited to the ability of the parents to examine all of the child’s records, medication, written prior notice, planning of IEPs, and the opportunity to present a complaint).
88 See 20 U.S.C. § 1400(c)(5)(B) (2010) (“education of children with disabilities can be made more effective by—(B) strengthening the role and responsibility of parents and ensuring that families of such children have meaningful opportunities to participate in the education of their children at school and at home . . . .”).
89 Kelly, supra note 49, at 28–9.
92 Allan G. Osborne, Jr. & Charles J. Russo, Special Education and the Law: A Guide for Practitioners 98 (2014) (“The IDEA’s notice requirements are designed to provide parents with the information necessary to allow them to participate actively in the educational planning process for their children.”).
of the amount of time the student will spend in the regular classroom, and various other explanations and statements relating to the student's educational plan.\textsuperscript{94} IDEA requires an IEP team to create the child's IEP and this team must meet at least once per year.\textsuperscript{95}

IDEA also provides that all children with disabilities will receive Free Appropriate Public Education (FAPE) in the least restrictive environment (LRE).\textsuperscript{96} In particular, IDEA defines FAPE as:

special education and related services that[:] (A) have been provided at public expense, under public supervision and direction, and without charge, (B) meet the standards of the State educational agency, (C) include appropriate preschool, elementary, or secondary school education in the State involved, and (D) are provided in conformity with the individualized education program . . . .\textsuperscript{97}

Specifically, special education is educational instruction for handicapped children that is designed to meet the unique needs of the child's disability at no cost to the parents.\textsuperscript{98} Related services include "transportation, and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services . . . as may be [required] to assist a child with disability to benefit from special education."\textsuperscript{99} Although IDEA provides this definition of FAPE, it is vague when determining a standard of "appropriateness."\textsuperscript{100} Some scholars believe Congress intentionally left the term open for courts to interpret.\textsuperscript{101}

\textsuperscript{95} 20 U.S.C. §§ 1414(d)(1)(B), (d)(4)(A)(i). The team consists of the child's parents, at least one regular education teacher and one special education teacher, a representative of the school, and any other individuals the parents would like to include who have particular expertise or knowledge of the child's needs.
\textsuperscript{96} See 20 U.S.C. § 1412(a)(5) (2005). LRE in IDEA refers to the instruction of disabled children in regular classrooms to the "maximum extent appropriate." Because FAPE and LRE are interrelated in IDEA, LRE is often associated with FAPE. See Craparo, supra note 58, at 469.
\textsuperscript{98} 20 U.S.C. § 1401(29) (special education includes physical education as well as instruction conducted "in the classroom, in the home, in hospitals and institutions, and in other settings . . . .").
\textsuperscript{100} Bd. of Educ. v. Rowley, 458 U.S. 176, 188–89 (1982) ("[n]oticeably absent from the language of the statute is any substantive standard prescribing the level of education to be accorded handicapped children."); see Weber, supra note 60, at 101 ("[a]lthough special educators used the words 'appropriate education' before passage of the Act, there appears to have been no clear or uniform meaning given to the term when they did so.").
\textsuperscript{101} See Weber, supra note 60, at 107.
C. Majority Interpretation of FAPE

*Board of Education v. Rowley* is the prevailing United States Supreme Court case concerning what constitutes FAPE. Since Amy Rowley had minimal residual hearing, the school prepared an IEP for her. The IEP stated that Amy would remain in the regular classroom, continue using an FM hearing aid, and receive instruction from a tutor one hour each day. However, Amy’s parents disagreed with the IEP because they believed she also needed to have a sign language interpreter in the classroom. Amy’s parents argued that the school’s refusal to have a sign-language interpreter denied their daughter’s guarantee of an “appropriate” education because Amy understood fewer words without the interpreter. The district court held that Amy was not receiving FAPE and the court defined the standard “appropriate” to require “that each handicapped child be given an opportunity to achieve his full potential commensurate with the opportunity provided to other children.” The appellate court affirmed the district court.

On appeal, the Court reversed the decision of the appellate court based on an alternative interpretation of FAPE. The Court determined that Congress’s intent when passing the EAHCA was not to maximize the opportunity of success for each individual child nor did it require anything more than equal access. According to the Court, FAPE only requires that the school provide the child with access to public education that “confer[s] some educational benefit upon the handicapped child.” Justices White, Brennan, and Marshall dissented and found that the legislative history of the EAHCA provided a different interpretation which “supports the conclusion that [the EAHCA] intends to give handicapped children an educational opportunity commensurate with that given other children.” While the dissent argued FAPE was a means to “eliminate the effects of the handicap, at least to the extent that the child will be given an equal opportunity to learn,” the majority indicated that the “basic floor of opportunity” standard

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102 See *Rowley*, 458 U.S. at 184–85; see also Weber, *supra* note 60, at 95.
103 *Rowley*, 458 U.S. at 184.
104 *Id.*
105 *Id.* at 185.
106 *Id.* at 185.
108 *Rowley*, 632 F.2d at 948.
110 *Id.* at 196–97.
111 *Id.* at 200–01 (emphasis added).
112 *Id.* at 212, 214 (White, J., dissenting).
meant disabled children were only guaranteed access to public education. Thus, the Rowley Court developed the “basic floor of opportunity” or the “some benefit” standard of FAPE.

Even though Congress adopted amendments to IDEA in 1997 and 2004, in an attempt to shift IDEA’s focus to student progress, Rowley remains the authority defining FAPE. By interpreting the requirements of FAPE in 1982, the Rowley Court restricted the development of other FAPE standards in the lower courts. Consequently, lower courts have hesitated to adopt alternative standards of FAPE based upon proportional maximization or equal opportunity.

One case that indicates Rowley is still the controlling precedent, despite legislative changes to IDEA, is Lt. T. B. v. Warwick School Committee. In Warwick, the parents of an autistic child challenged the adequacy of their child’s IEP. In particular, the parents argued that the 1997 amendments to IDEA “changed [the ‘some benefit’ standard of Rowley] to require school districts to provide the ‘maximum benefit’ to special needs children.” The parents argued that the amendments required teachers to be qualified to prepare special education students to “lead productive, independent, adult lives, to the maximum extent possible.” Yet, the court held that the 1997 amendments did not increase the standard beyond the “basic floor of opportunity” standard.

In Kirby v. Cabell County Board of Education, the court reached a similar conclusion regarding the 2004 amendments. In Kirby, the parents of a child

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113 Id. at 200 (majority opinion) ("neither the Act nor its history persuasively demonstrates that Congress thought that equal protection required anything more than equal access." (emphasis added)).

114 Id. at 201. See Maureen A. MacFarlane, The Shifting Floor of Educational Opportunity: The Impact of Educational Reform on Rowley, 41 J.L. & EDUC. 45, 45–8 (2012) (arguing that the ‘basic floor of opportunity’ or ‘some benefit’ standard is still good law); Weber, supra note 60, at 95–96 (stating that although there may be some competing definitions of “appropriate” in other circuits, the ‘basic floor of opportunity’ or ‘some benefit’ standard remains the widely accepted meaning of “appropriate”).

115 See MacFarlane, supra note 114, at 46–47.

116 See Weber, supra note 60, at 100.

117 See Weber, supra note 60, at 119.


119 Id. at 81.

120 Id. at 83.

121 Id. (citing 20 U.S.C. § 1400(c)(5)(E) (2010)).

122 Id. at 83 (holding that the 1997 amendments did not increase the standard of “basic floor of opportunity,” found in Rowley, to the policy of “maximum benefit”); see LaBrosse, supra note 13, at 97–98 (discussing how a majority of courts continue to apply the Rowley standard).

with Asperger’s Syndrome alleged that the school did not provide an IEP that sufficiently provided “appropriate” education.124 The parents argued that NCLB, as well as the 2004 amendments to IDEA, obligated schools to provide a higher level of educational benefit.125 However, the court held that the language in NCLB did not create any obligations that schools must adhere to in their special education programs.126 Additionally, the court stated that IDEA “does not require providing every available service necessary to maximize a disabled child’s potential.”127 Rather, IDEA ensures access to education and that disabled children will have the opportunity to interact with other children in the school.128

Even without parents raising the arguments regarding amendments to IDEA and NCLB, a majority of circuit courts continue to apply Rowley’s “some benefit” standard.129 For instance, the United States Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit in Sytsema v. Academy School District No. 20 held that the school district only needed to provide a student with some benefit.130 In Sytsema, the school developed an IEP for Nicholas Sytsema, an autistic student, in which the school broke-down the number of hours that he would receive independent instruction and how much time he would spend in the regular classroom.131 Nicholas’s parents rejected the IEP, noting that Nicholas did not do well in an integrated classroom.132 Instead, Nicholas’s parents enrolled him in a private school.133 Seeking tuition reimbursement, Nicholas’s parents argued the district denied him FAPE.134 However, the court rejected the parents’ argument that the integrated classroom method was ineffective for Nicholas, resulting in denying him FAPE.135 In particular, the court noted that under Nicholas’s IEP, he would

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124 Id. at *2, *6–8.
125 Id. at *6.
126 Id.
127 Id. at *2.
128 Id. (citing Sch. Comm. v. Dept of Educ., 471 U.S. 359, 369 (1985) (stating IDEA “intends that the disabled child will receive an education, where possible, in public schools and by participating as much as possible in the same activities as nondisabled children.”)).
130 Sytsema ex rel. Sytsema v. Acad. Sch. Dist. No. 20, 538 F.3d 1306, 1317 (10th Cir. 2008) (emphasis added) (holding that under the Rowley standard the district only needed to provide Nicholas with some benefit).
131 Id. at 1309–10.
132 Id. at 1310.
133 Id.
134 Id.
135 Id. at 1317.
be exposed to various teaching methods which “would have provided Nicholas with some educational benefit.”\footnote{136} Although Sytsema was decided in 2008, the court continued to rely upon Rowley’s interpretation of FAPE and did not impose a higher standard of appropriate education.\footnote{137}

Thus, despite the 1997 and the 2004 amendments, as well as NCLB, courts continue to apply Rowley’s concept of access as the standard required for “appropriate” education.\footnote{138} Some courts have even argued that Congress’s failure to change the statute’s language regarding “appropriate” education demonstrates Congress’s ratification of the access standard.\footnote{139} However, inconsistencies in the circuit courts suggest that the interpretation of FAPE remains unclear.\footnote{140}

\section*{D. Minority Interpretation of FAPE}

Despite the fact that a majority of circuit courts apply the “some benefit” standard of Rowley, there are a minority of courts that determined IDEA requires schools to provide educational access that is more than de minimus. This is typically referred to as the “meaningful benefit” standard.\footnote{141} Polk v. Central Susquehanna Intermediate Unit 16 is the leading authority on requiring schools to ensure special educational students receive more than de minimus education and show “tangible gain in abilities.”\footnote{142} In Polk, Christopher was eligible for special

\footnote{136} Id. (emphasis added).

\footnote{137} Id. The Tenth Circuit has adopted the “some benefit” standard in three major cases decided after the 1997 and 2004 amendments. See id.; O’Toole v. Olathe Dist. Sch. Unified Sch. Dist. No. 233, 144 F.3d 692, 699–01 (10th Cir. 1998) (rejecting the parents’ argument that Kansas state law imposed a higher standard of FAPE and holding that the court must only determine whether a child received some educational benefit); Thompson R2–J Sch. Dist. v. Luke P. ex rel. Jeff P., 540 F.3d 1143, 1154 (2008) (stating “the legal principle outlined there by the Supreme Court [in Rowley] controls equally here: a school district is not required to provide every service that would benefit a student if it has a formula that can reasonably be expected to generate some progress on that student’s IEP goals.”).

\footnote{138} See, e.g., Sch. Bd. v. M.M., No. 2:05-CV-5-FtM-29SPC, 1–15, 8–13 (M.D. Fla. Mar. 27, 2007) (holding that plaintiff’s argument contending NCLB created a higher standard requiring a school to maximize their child’s potential was rejected and the court reiterated the Rowley standard of “a basic floor of opportunity”); Leighty ex rel. Leighty v. Laurel Sch. Dist., 457 F. Supp. 2d 546, 562 (W.D. Pa. 2006) (rejecting the application of NCLB to increase the level of education provided to special education students).

\footnote{139} See J.L. v. Mercer Island Sch. Dist., 592 F.3d 938, 948 (9th Cir. 2010); Mr. C. v. Maine Sch. Admin. Dist. No. 6, 538 F. Supp. 2d 298, 300–01 (D. Me. 2008); Weber, supra note 60, at 116.

\footnote{140} Weber, supra note 60, at 116.


\footnote{142} Polk v. Cent. Susquehanna Intermed. Unit 16, 853 F.2d 171 (3d Cir. 1988); see Decision C-0122-1, supra note 9.
educational services because he was severely developmentally disabled. As part of his special education, Christopher was entitled to receive related services. Christopher’s parents believed that his education benefited from receiving direct physical therapy from a licensed physical therapist. The school district remained unwilling to provide Christopher with direct physical therapy even though it aided him in school. Instead, the school district only allowed a physical therapist to consult the teachers on how to provide physical therapy. Christopher’s parents argued that the school district did not individually tailor Christopher’s education as required by law. The district court relied on Rowley and held that Christopher had received some benefit from his education; as such, the school district had met its requirements.

On appeal, the circuit court reversed the decision of the district court and held that the school district must provide an education that is more than de minimus. Ultimately, the circuit court held that there is not a blanket standard that is applicable to every student, but rather it “must be gauged in relation to the child’s potential.” The school district therefore must consider the individual student’s capabilities in determining what education is appropriate for him or her. Considering the capabilities and needs of Christopher individually, the court found that he was entitled to direct physical therapy as part of his appropriate education.

Similarly, in Ridgewood Board of Education v. N.E. ex rel. M.E., M.E. was eligible for special education services and was held back in first grade because the school determined his skills were inferior to his classmates. Since M.E. struggled to improve in school, his parents sought an independent evaluation. The evaluation concluded that M.E.’s intelligence was in the ninety-fifth percentile and his reading skills were in the second percentile. Consequently,

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143 Polk, 853 F.2d at 173.
144 Id.
145 Id. at 174.
146 Id.
147 Id.
148 Id.
149 Id. at 175.
150 Id. at 184–85.
151 Id. at 185.
152 Id.
153 Id.
155 Id. at 243.
156 Id.
M.E.’s parents took him out of the public school system and placed him in a private school.\textsuperscript{157} Seeking reimbursement for the tuition of the private school, M.E.’s parents brought legal action against the school district for denying M.E. FAPE under the 1997 IDEA.\textsuperscript{158}

On appeal, the United States Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit held that IDEA imposed a higher standard than a “trivial educational benefit.”\textsuperscript{159} In particular, the court noted that \textit{Rowley} rejects “a bright-line rule on the amount of benefit required of an appropriate IEP in favor of an approach requiring a student-by-student analysis that carefully considers the student’s individual abilities.”\textsuperscript{160} The court held that there should be more focus upon the student’s capabilities as opposed to focusing upon the contents of the IEP.\textsuperscript{161}

Although the “meaningful education benefit” standard encourages courts to look at each child individually and determine their capabilities, some scholars and attorneys question the impact of this standard.\textsuperscript{162} Minority courts have yet to draw a distinction between the “meaningful education benefit” and \textit{Rowley}’s “some benefit” standard. Commenting upon the ambiguity and the inconsistency of the two standards, Judge Samuel P. King questioned the differences in \textit{Blake v. Department of Education, State of Hawaii}.\textsuperscript{163} Judge King noted that “[v]arious opinions have left it ambiguous as to what the precise difference, if any, is between ‘meaningful’ benefit and ‘some’ benefit.”\textsuperscript{164} Despite these inconsistencies, the “meaningful benefit” standard is still used by a minority of jurisdictions including Wyoming.\textsuperscript{165}

Wyoming Statute section 21-2-501 states that “[e]very child of school age in the state of Wyoming having a mental, physical or psychological disability which impairs learning, shall be entitled to and shall receive a free and appropriate education in accordance with his capabilities.”\textsuperscript{166} Chapter Seven of the Wyoming Statute...
Education Rules, promulgated by the WDE, also discusses FAPE; however, the rule remains vague.\footnote{See Chapter 7 Services For Children with Disabilities, Wyoming Department of Education § 5(a)(i) (2010), http://soswy.state.wy.us/Rules/RULES/7767.pdf.} The rule states:

School districts and public agencies shall ensure that a Free Appropriate Public Education (FAPE) is available to all children with disabilities residing in Wyoming no later than the child’s third (3rd) birthday through the completion of the school year the child turns twenty-one (21), including those children who have been suspended or expelled from school.\footnote{Id.}

In interpreting FAPE, Wyoming cases primarily deal with the age limit for students to remain in the program.\footnote{See, e.g., Natrona Cty. Sch. Dist. No. 1 v. Ryan, 764 P.2d 1019, 1035 (Wyo. 1988) (holding the State Board of Education’s rule that provided education until age twenty-two invalid because state law only requires the local school district to provide education to handicapped students between the ages of five and twenty-one); Natrona Cty. Sch. Dist. No. 1 v. McKnight, 764 P.2d 1039, 1050–53 (Wyo. 1988); State v. Cochran, 764 P.2d 1037 (Wyo. 1988).} However, Wyoming does publish final complaint decisions.\footnote{See WDE, supra note 2.} These complaint decisions stem from IDEA’s dispute resolution mechanisms for parents, which allow for resolution of their concerns outside the courts.\footnote{See 20 U.S.C. § 1415 (2005).} After a parent submits a complaint to the WDE, mediation may occur between the parents and the school, or a hearing officer may be appointed to hear both parties and make a decision.\footnote{See 20 U.S.C. § 1415.}

The Wyoming complaint decisions reveal that Wyoming inconsistently uses the “some benefit” standard and the “meaningful benefit” standard.\footnote{See Decision C-0122-1, supra note 9.} For instance Wyoming complaint decision C-0122-11 cites Thompson RJ-2 School District v. Luke P. and states that the United States Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit “reiterated that a school district is providing a student with appropriate special education program if the services are reasonably calculated to allow the student to make ‘some progress’ in the IEP.”\footnote{See Decision C-0122-1, supra note 9, at 16.} However, the complaint additionally cites Polk and states that IDEA requires more than a trivial educational benefit.\footnote{See Decision C-0122-1, supra note 9, at 16.}

Similarly, in Wyoming complaint decisions C-0175-11 and C-0176-11 the WDE concluded that “a child’s education benefit must be more than de
minimus—there must be some tangible gain in abilities.” 176 In a subsequent paragraph, the complaint states that “[i]t is the obligation of the [school] [d]istrict to provide special education and related services reasonably calculated to result in some educational benefit as measured by progress toward IEP goals, or to take steps to address the lack of progress.” 177 Therefore, while Wyoming acknowledges the heightened meaningful education benefit, the WDE has tempered it by holding that school districts “are not required to maximize a student’s educational performance.” 178 Additionally, the WDE further complicates the interpretation of FAPE by relying upon both the Rowley “some benefit” standard and the “meaningful benefit” standard.179

E. Alternative Approaches

With the inconsistencies both in the courts and at the state level regarding FAPE, scholar Maureen MacFarlane provides two potential options: individual states should embrace a higher standard, or Congress should expressly amend or reject the Rowley standard.180

Michigan, for example, adopted a state mandate with a heightened standard of FAPE.181 The mandate reads, “[t]he board of a local school district shall provide special education programs and services designed to develop the maximum potential of every handicapped person.” 182 Although this maximum potential standard in Michigan does not require the best education possible, Michigan adopted a higher standard than required at the federal level.183 However, Michigan has yet to define what “maximum potential” requires in the context of IDEA.184 Despite not having a clear definition of how the standard differs

177 Decision C-0175-11 and C-0176-11, supra note 176, at 15 (emphasis added).
178 Decision C-0122-1, supra note 9, at 16 (citation omitted).
179 See Decision C-0122-1, supra note 9; Decision C-0175-11 and C-0176-11, supra note 176.
180 MacFarlane, supra note 114, at 59.
183 Dick-Friedman ex rel. Friedman v. Bd. of Educ., 427 F. Supp. 2d 768, 778 (E.D. Mich. 2006) (“The substantive requirement of the IDEA . . . incorporates Michigan’s higher standard requiring that the IEP be designed to ‘develop the maximum potential’ of the child.” (citation omitted)); Renner v. Bd. of Educ., 185 F.3d 635, 645 (6th Cir. 1999) (“Michigan has chosen to enhance IDEA’s requirements . . . it does not necessarily require the best education possible.” (citation omitted)).
184 Renner, 185 F.3d at 645.
from federal legislation, the continued application of the heightened standard remains important.185

III. Analysis

Whether states adopt the “meaningful benefit” standard espoused by a minority of courts or adopt a higher standard of FAPE, states need to specifically distinguish the standard from the Rowley standard. Without defining these higher standards explicitly, the impact of the standards, like the “meaningful benefit” standard, is lessened because there is no distinction between the heightened standard and the Rowley “some benefit” standard.186 While Wyoming acknowledges the “meaningful benefit” standard, in practice, this standard does little to expand the opportunities provided to special education students.187 Since neither the Court nor Congress has expressly rejected the Rowley “some benefit” standard, the risk is that the “meaningful benefit” standard cannot stand on its own, nor can any other heightened standard.188

Even with slightly higher standards, courts continue to look to Rowley for guidance and ultimately fail to interpret a greater obligation to students with disabilities.189 The result is that the higher standards have no chance of creating an impact or change when defining FAPE. The Rowley standard restricts courts to a narrow application despite the 1997 and 2004 amendments to IDEA and the implementation of NCLB.190 Although a direct congressional rejection of Rowley would be effective, Wyoming should take steps towards reframing FAPE to align with IDEA’s amendments and NCLB.191 Thus, Wyoming should amend its statutes in order to clearly define FAPE in the context of the IDEA amendments and NCLB.

A. Wyoming Should Adopt a Heightened Standard

The Wyoming State Legislature and the WDE should re-evaluate the standard of “appropriate” education for all disabled children in light of the heightened standards developed by NCLB and the amendments to IDEA. This does not mean that students in special education programs should receive superior services than those offered to other students.192 Rather, NCLB requires all students

185 See Monserud, supra note 181, at 834.
186 See supra notes 166–78 and accompanying text; see also Wenkart, supra note 129, at 29.
187 See supra Part II.D; Wenkart, supra note 129, at 29; Kaufman & Blewett, supra note 74, at 20–21.
188 See supra Part II.C.
189 See supra Part II.C.
190 See supra Part II.C.
191 See supra Part II.D.
192 See Weber, supra note 60, at 103–04.
in a school district, no matter their background, to achieve a certain level of proficiency. NCLB also requires Wyoming to have academic standards that challenge all students in academic subjects and achievement. If all students are to achieve these standards, the standards should extend to special education students as well.

As discussed earlier, NCLB also requires Wyoming to show students with disabilities have made substantial improvement. Thus, NCLB should have a wide-reaching impact on every student in a school district. Although the specific accountability requirements of NCLB have not always been popular in Wyoming, the goal of improving student education is indisputable.

Developing a standard of education that encompasses disabled children and their peers is not without challenges. It is difficult to determine whether a student is receiving an education comparable to other students in the regular classroom; however this difficulty should not be a deterrent in achieving this standard. Quality of education can be determined in various ways including: “qualification of teachers, depth and innovativeness of teaching technique, research support behind the curriculum, consistency in the application of professional best practices, conformity to state rules, responsiveness of the administration, and other indicators.” This approach would also require schools and Wyoming to undergo changes. For instance, schools would need stricter standards for special education students, teachers would need to be willing to dedicate more time to individual students, and schools would need to make sure that special education teachers and paraprofessionals have qualified experience. In contrast, Wyoming would need to navigate the transition by taking into consideration the concerns of all of those involved, including parents, educators, and school districts. These changes will not occur over a short period of time, but this approach will have positive impacts on schools and disabled students.

193 See supra notes 70–86 and accompanying text.
195 Weber, supra note 60, at 103–04 (“If the children without disabilities in a given school district receive excellent services in comparison to students throughout the nation, then so should the children with disabilities. This standard does not entail maximizing education opportunities of children with disabilities, but rather treating all children equitably.”).
197 See Heather Richards, Committee Takes on No Child Left Behind, CASPER STAR TRIBUNE A1 (Nov. 19, 2015). This comment does not argue the effectiveness of NCLB, but rather uses it as a framework to demonstrate the changing political environment regarding education and disabled students.
198 See supra Part II.D.
199 See Weber, supra note 60, at 103.
200 Weber, supra note 60, at 103.
Considering NCLB in conjunction with the amendments to IDEA furthers the argument that federal legislation, as it is written, requires a heightened standard of FAPE. 201 The 2004 amendments to IDEA aligned IDEA more closely to NCLB. 202 After 2004, similar to NCLB, IDEA required teachers to be “highly qualified” and special education assessments came under the accountability provisions of NCLB. 203 With these changes to IDEA, federal legislation focused more on a disabled student’s results and achievements as opposed to bureaucratic compliance. 204 Since the original special education law of EAHCA, there have been dramatic changes in the political context of the United States as well as in IDEA itself. 205

With the enactment of EAHCA in 1975, access to public education for disabled children was the primary concern because school districts actively excluded disabled children from the education system. 206 Thirty plus years after Rowley, disabled children are not denied access to a public education, but rather the concern is with the quality of education that disabled children receive in the classroom. IDEA has not remained stagnant over these years, both the 1997 and the 2004 amendments attempted to shift the focus of the act to a more quality based standard. 207 Yet, the courts continue to look to Rowley for guidance and fail to interpret a greater obligation to students with disabilities despite advancements in understanding disabilities as well as the amendments to IDEA and the enactment of NCLB. 208 The definition of FAPE should reflect these changes and greater understandings.

As Justice Rehnquist stated in Rowley, the original intent of EAHCA “was more to open the door of public education to handicapped children on appropriate terms than to guarantee any particular level of education once inside.” 209 Although that may have been the original intent of EAHCA, public schools are well beyond this consideration. 210 In the immediate aftermath of deinstitutionalization, a law focused on “some educational benefit” was an improvement for children. However, today the political context is very different. Congress passed the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) in 1990, the NCLB in 2004 which addresses the education of every child, and the amendments
to IDEA. All of these acts exemplify how far the United States has come in recognizing the basic rights of individuals with disabilities. The issue is no longer whether a disabled child has access to a public education, but rather whether the U.S. and the individual states are prepared to take the next step to ensure quality education for special education students, requiring more than just “some benefit.”

A starting point for change is for Wyoming to adopt its own definition of FAPE because the current court interpretation is insufficient. Wyoming complaint decisions reveal some of the practical problems of FAPE. Hearing officers who oversee complaint decisions use two standards to determine if a school district has denied a special education student FAPE. While simultaneously applying the “some benefit” standard of Rowley and the “meaningful benefit” standard of Polk, the WDE has convoluted the definition of FAPE. This confusion has made the interpretation of FAPE uncertain. On the one hand, the uncertainty of what FAPE requires denies parents the ability to know which standard Wyoming follows. Thus, parents who are frustrated with the system assume schools ought to do more. Additionally, schools do not know how to provide FAPE to each individual student and what constitutes a denial of FAPE. When neither party understands the requirements of FAPE, the chance of an amicable relationship is significantly decreased.

This uncertainty frustrates the complaint process for parents and causes hostility between parents and schools. A hearing officer—without specific guidance from the state—may implement either the “some benefit” or “meaningful benefit” standard. Thus, submitting a complaint to the WDE is risky. Parents might submit a complaint believing that the school has denied their child of FAPE, but without knowing the FAPE standard parents will not know what the WDE will conclude. Without any certainty as to the interpretation of FAPE, parents might be deterred from utilizing the complaint process. Unfortunately, those who suffer the most from these inconsistencies are the special education students.

The Wyoming legislature needs to explicitly define FAPE because of the changing political context, the frustrated system, and the desire for a clear understanding of FAPE. Moreover, Wyoming needs to provide a definition that focuses on the success of special education students.

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212 See supra notes 166–78 and accompanying text.

213 See supra notes 166–78 and accompanying text.

214 See supra Part I.

215 See supra notes 166–78 and accompanying text.
B. Where to Go from Here

Wyoming has the ability to provide a clear definition of FAPE that better reflects the intention of IDEA and NCLB. Scholars that encourage a revamp of FAPE provide several suggestions including higher state standards, IDEA’s express rejection of Rowley, and higher qualification standards for teachers. Scholar, Martin A. Kotler, suggests that the law should impose a stricter requirement for schools to disclose information to parents. A higher disclosure obligation may lead to open communication between parents, and help schools and parents find common ground. If parents understood why their child was not improving, the likelihood for hostility would decrease. Scholars, Kaufman and Blewet, also suggest amending the definition of FAPE in IDEA to effectively overrule Rowley.

States have the ability to provide their own standards for FAPE; thus, the best solution for Wyoming is to amend its definition of FAPE in Wyoming Statute section 21-2-501. The definition should state that FAPE not only requires students to have access to public education, but that the students should receive a meaningful education to the best of the schools’ ability. Similar to NCLB’s stringent reporting and achievement standards, Wyoming should also incorporate stringent achievement and reporting standards in special education classrooms.

To begin, section 21-2-501 should first include language of success. For example, the statute could say: “A local school district shall provide a meaningful education to an individual in the special education program. Meaningful education is defined as an education that encourages the improvement of a child’s capabilities. Improvement shall be based upon an assessment of the individual child’s capabilities in accordance to his or her strengths and weaknesses.” This language suggests one way for Wyoming to achieve a clear and higher standard of FAPE. Ultimately, the Wyoming legislature should provide a forum for interested parties to converse. Specifically, Wyoming will need to determine how to hold schools accountable and how the language of FAPE should emphasize success over access. This could require schools to hire more qualified special education teachers, encourage open communication between parents and school districts, or focus on each individual child’s abilities as opposed to the special education class as a whole. Defining FAPE to encourage success over access is not a quick and easy

216 See Kotler, supra note 9, at 488; Kaufman & Blewett, supra note 74, at 20.
217 See Kotler, supra note 9, at 552.
218 See Kotler, supra note 9, at 552.
219 See Kotler, supra note 9, at 552.
220 See Kaufman & Blewett, supra note 74, at 20–21.
221 See supra notes 70–86 and accompanying text.
task that will happen without difficulties. However, in order to provide a better education to disabled students, Wyoming needs to address these issues.

V. CONCLUSION

L.J. graduated high school after she turned twenty-one years old.222 Although she technically graduated from her school, she does not have proficiency in reading, math, or other core subjects.223 Looking back on her high school experience, L.J.’s parents believe that if the school was more concerned with improving L.J.’s skills, her transition into adulthood would have been different.224 Wyoming needs to reconsider its present definition of FAPE because of L.J. and those students similarly situated. With the enactment of NCLB and the 1997 and 2004 amendments, IDEA has changed its focus from that of access to that of improvements and results. Moreover, the definition of FAPE should not be stagnant and remain reliant upon an interpretation from over thirty years ago, but should better reflect the changes in how the U.S. views disability. Wyoming can make a difference by taking the lead and defining FAPE in terms of success as opposed to access.

222 See Interview, supra note 15.

223 See Interview, supra note 15.

224 See Interview, supra note 15.