



SELECTED SUPREME COURT CASES ON SENTENCING ISSUES

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This document provides brief summaries of select Supreme Court cases that involve the guidelines and other aspects of federal sentencing. The list of cases and the summaries themselves are not intended to be comprehensive. Instead, this document summarizes only a few of the relevant cases, focusing on selected sentencing topics that may be of current interest. The Commission's legal staff publishes this document to assist in understanding and applying the sentencing guidelines. The information in this document does not necessarily represent the official position of the Commission, and it should not be considered definitive or comprehensive.

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United States v. Haymond, 139 S. Ct. 2369 (2019).

The Supreme Court struck down 18 U.S.C. § 3583(k), a provision of the federal supervised release statute requiring a 5-year mandatory minimum sentence for offenders who commit certain enumerated offenses while on supervised release. A plurality of the Court held that section 3583(k) violates the Fifth and Sixth Amendments.

Haymond was convicted of possessing child pornography and sentenced to 38 months in prison, followed by ten years of supervised release. While on supervised release, Haymond was found with images that appeared to be child pornography. At his revocation hearing, the district court found, by a preponderance of the evidence, that he knowingly downloaded and possessed 13 images of child pornography. The statute for Haymond's original offense of conviction generally authorizes a new prison term of zero to two years for a supervised release violation. However, section 3583(k) mandates an additional prison term of five years to life for certain enumerated offenses, including Haymond's offense. The district court, pursuant to section 3583(k), imposed a 5-year sentence but stated that section 3583(k) was "repugnant" without the traditional protections of a jury verdict reached under the reasonable doubt standard. The Tenth Circuit vacated and remanded Haymond's sentence, holding that section 3583(k) violated the Fifth and Sixth Amendments by requiring a new and higher sentencing range based on facts found by a judge by a preponderance.

The Supreme Court agreed with the Tenth Circuit, holding that section 3583(k) impermissibly increased "the legally prescribed range of allowable sentences" in violation of the Fifth and Sixth Amendments. *See Apprendi v. New Jersey*, 530 U. S. 466 (2000) (holding that "other than the fact of the prior conviction, any fact that increases the penalty for a crime beyond the prescribed statutory maximum must be submitted to a jury, and proved beyond a reasonable doubt."); *Alleyne v. United States*, 570 U. S. 99 (2013) (applying *Apprendi* to facts increasing the mandatory minimum). The Court rejected the government's argument that the Sixth Amendment jury protections do not extend beyond the issuance of a sentence to "postjudgment sentence-administration proceedings." The Court instead held that such protections extend until a "final sentence" is imposed, which includes any supervised release sentence. The Court distinguished section 3583(k) from traditional parole and probation, which only allow a defendant to be sentenced to serve the remaining term authorized by his original conviction, as well as prison disciplinary procedures, which involve adjusting the terms of confinement rather than adding a significant new sentence of imprisonment.

The Court also dismissed the government's argument that the jury's verdict authorized a term of supervised release, which was always subject to the possibility of revocation under section 3583(k). The Court noted that, critically, the mandatory minimum here "comes into play *only* as a result of additional judicial factual findings" by a preponderance. Finally, the Court made clear that its holding is limited to the "unusual" section 3583(k)

provision and does not address whether all supervised release proceedings comport with *Apprendi/Alleyne*.

Justice Breyer issued a concurring opinion. He agreed with the dissent that the role of the judge in a supervised-release proceeding is consistent with traditional parole. He also stated that *Apprendi/Alleyne* should not broadly apply to the supervised-release context. However, he concurred in the judgment that section 3583(k) is unconstitutional because its provisions closely resemble the punishment of new criminal offenses without granting a defendant the rights that attend a new criminal prosecution.

Justice Alito issued a dissenting opinion joined by Chief Justice Roberts and Justices Thomas and Kavanaugh. The dissent stated that Justice Breyer's opinion, which was narrower than the plurality's, represented the Court's holding. See *Marks v. United States*, 430 U.S. 188, 193 (1977). The dissent rejected the plurality opinion's analogy between section 3583(k) and the mandatory minimum in *Alleyne*, cautioning that the plurality's reasoning suggests the Sixth Amendment right to a jury trial applies to *any* supervised-release revocation proceeding. The dissent argued that Congress did not intend that supervised release be treated differently from parole for Sixth Amendment purposes. Thus, a parole revocation proceeding was not a "criminal prosecution" within the scope of the Sixth Amendment, and revocation did not result in a new sentence.

***United States v. Davis*, 139 S. Ct. 2319 (2019).**

The Supreme Court struck down the residual clause in 18 U.S.C. § 924(c)(3)(B)'s "crime of violence" definition as unconstitutionally vague. *Davis* followed and relied on *Johnson v. United States*, 135 S. Ct. 2551 (2015), and *Sessions v. Dimaya*, 138 S. Ct. 1204 (2018), which had invalidated similar residual clauses.

In *Johnson*, the Court had struck down the Armed Career Criminal Act (ACCA)'s residual clause which, under the categorical approach, required courts to determine the conduct involved in the "ordinary case" of an offense and measure that against an indeterminate "serious" degree of risk. Those two features in combination made the clause impossible to apply and violated due process. Similarly, *Dimaya* held that a straightforward application of *Johnson* invalidated section 16(b)'s residual clause, because it used the same flawed "ordinary case" approach.

Davis involved section 924(c)(3)(B)'s residual clause, which was identically worded to the clause in *Dimaya*. Given *Johnson* and *Dimaya*, the Court stated that section 924(c)'s residual clause would also be void for vagueness if the categorical approach applied to it. But if the clause permitted a conduct-based approach looking to the facts of the specific case, it would be valid. *Davis* thus focused on whether section 924(c)(3)(b) *requires* a categorical approach. The Court examined the text, context, and history of section 924(c)(3)(B), noting its use of language like "offense" and "by its nature" as well as its similarity and historical connection with the residual clause in section 16(b). Based on those factors, the Court held that section 924(c)(3)(B) requires the categorical approach and is therefore invalid.

The Court rejected the government’s argument that under the canon of constitutional avoidance, the Court must adopt any “fairly possible” reading to avoid holding a statute unconstitutional and thus a conduct-based approach must apply. In rejecting that argument, the Court noted that it has never invoked that canon to expand the reach of a statute and that doing so would risk violating due process and the separation-of-powers and conflict with the rule of lenity.

Justice Kavanaugh wrote a dissenting opinion joined by Justices Thomas and Alito and joined in part by Chief Justice Roberts. The dissent argued that the statute should be read with a conduct-based approach and is thus constitutional. The dissent emphasized the distinction between section 924(c), which involves presently charged conduct, and the ACCA and section 16, which involve prior offenses. Given this distinction, the dissent reasoned, a conduct-based approach under section 924(c) would not require minitrials relitigating past convictions, nor would it implicate the Sixth Amendment, as a jury would have found the requisite level of risk of physical force for the conviction. The dissent also argued that the text of the statute supports a conduct-based approach but, even if the text is ambiguous, constitutional avoidance militates in favor of applying that approach. Finally, the dissent highlighted policy concerns regarding violent conduct that may go unpunished under the majority’s decision.

Stokeling v. United States, 139 S. Ct. 544 (2019).

The Supreme Court held that robbery offenses that require force sufficient to overcome a victim’s resistance qualify as violent felonies under the elements clause of the Armed Career Criminal Act (ACCA) enhancement.

Stokeling pleaded guilty to possessing a firearm and ammunition as a felon. At sentencing, U.S. Probation recommended imposing the ACCA enhancement based, in part, on the defendant’s 1997 Florida conviction for robbery. The district court held that his conviction was not an ACCA predicate and imposed a sentence below the ACCA’s 15-year mandatory minimum. The Eleventh Circuit reversed, holding that Florida robbery is a violent felony under the ACCA’s elements clause, which requires the use, attempted use, or threatened use of “physical force.”

The Supreme Court agreed with the Eleventh Circuit, holding that Florida robbery, which requires force sufficient to overcome a victim’s resistance, is “physical force” under the elements clause. The Court focused on the common law understanding of “force” that was sufficient to distinguish robbery from simple theft, citing a treatise which stated that overcoming a victim’s resistance is enough to make a taking a robbery, however slight the resistance. Based on the amendment history of the ACCA, the Court concluded Congress intended to incorporate this common-law understanding of robbery in the ACCA. The Court noted that to hold otherwise would disqualify the majority of state law definitions of robbery at the time of the ACCA’s enactment.

The Court stated that defining “physical force” to include force sufficient to overcome a victim’s resistance comports with *Johnson v. United States*, 559 U.S. 133 (2010), which held that Florida battery did not require the degree of force necessary to satisfy the elements clause. The Court rejected Stokeling’s argument that *Johnson* defined “physical force” as so substantial as to exclude the force in Florida robbery. The Court confirmed that “physical force” means force “capable of” causing physical pain or injury—not, as Stokeling urged the Court, force “reasonably expected to cause” physical pain or injury. The Court explained that Stokeling’s proposed definition was impractical and inconsistent with common law and the text of *Johnson*. And because “force capable of causing physical pain or injury” includes the amount of force necessary to overcome a victim’s resistance, Florida robbery qualifies as a violent felony.

Justice Sotomayor wrote a dissenting opinion joined by the Chief Justice and Justices Ginsburg and Kagan, questioning the majority’s reading of *Johnson* and “physical force.” The dissent stated that, read in the context of *Johnson*’s entire opinion, “capable of causing physical pain or injury” means a heightened degree of force that Florida robbery does not satisfy. The dissent pointed to Florida robbery cases involving minimal force and resistance, such as a pickpocket attempting to pull free after the victim caught his arm and a purse snatcher whose victim instinctively held onto the strap of her purse for a moment. Thus, the dissent argued, Florida robbery can be committed with force that is no greater than that discussed in *Johnson* and is therefore not categorically the kind of violent offense that makes an offender more likely to be dangerous with a gun and deserving of the significant sentencing enhancement in the ACCA.

***Rosales-Mireles v. United States*, 138 S. Ct. 1897 (2018).**

The Supreme Court held that a miscalculation affecting a defendant’s sentencing guideline range will, in the ordinary case, seriously affect the fairness, integrity, or public reputation of judicial proceedings, and thus will warrant relief under plain error review.

Rosales-Mireles pleaded guilty to illegal re-entry. The presentence report mistakenly counted one of his prior convictions twice in calculating his criminal history score, resulting in an incorrect guideline range of 77 to 96 months. The correct range was 70 to 87 months. He did not object to the error and was sentenced to 78 months of imprisonment. On appeal, he argued for the first time that his guideline range was incorrect, which was reviewed for plain error under Federal Rule of Criminal Procedure 52(b) because he had not objected in the district court. The Fifth Circuit denied relief, ruling that because his 78-month sentence fell within the correct guideline range, he could not satisfy the fourth prong of plain error review under *United States v. Olano*, 507 U.S. 725 (1993), which requires that the error seriously affect the fairness, integrity, or public reputation of judicial proceedings. The Fifth Circuit held that to satisfy that prong, such an error must “shock the conscience.”

The Supreme Court disagreed, holding that the Fifth Circuit’s “shock the conscience” standard was improperly narrow and unsupported by Rule 52(b) and *Olano*. The Court stated that errors need not amount to a “powerful indictment” of the judicial system or call

into question the competence or integrity of the district judge. The Court explained that an error resulting in a higher guideline range usually will warrant relief because it establishes a reasonable probability that a defendant will serve a prison sentence that is longer than necessary to achieve the purposes of incarceration. The Court stated that guideline errors particularly undermine judicial proceedings because of the judge's role in calculating the guideline range and that the public legitimacy of the justice system relies on procedures that are "neutral, accurate, consistent, trustworthy, and fair," with mechanisms for error correction. Correcting the error here, the Court added, required only an inexpensive resentencing proceeding. However, the Court noted that the fourth prong of plain error review is a case-specific inquiry so there may be countervailing factors in some cases that preserve the integrity of the proceeding despite the error.

Justice Thomas wrote a dissenting opinion joined by Justice Alito, arguing that while the "shock the conscience" test was wrong, the fourth prong of plain error review should be reserved for errors determined to be particularly egregious after a case-specific inquiry. Thus, the dissent argued, the majority should not have created a rebuttable presumption that guideline errors will ordinarily satisfy the fourth prong of plain error review. The dissent argued that a proper case-specific inquiry here shows that Rosales-Mireles did not satisfy the fourth prong. The dissent emphasized that the guidelines are advisory and that purely procedural errors that likely did not affect the substantive outcome do not satisfy the fourth prong.

***Koons v. United States*, 138 S. Ct. 1783 (2018).**

The Supreme Court affirmed the denial of the defendants' motions for sentence reductions under 18 U.S.C. § 3582(c)(2), where the high end of the guideline ranges at their original sentencings fell below the applicable mandatory minimum, and the defendants received sentences below the mandatory minimum based on substantial assistance departures.

Koons involved five defendants who had pled guilty to drug trafficking offenses carrying mandatory minimum sentences and had been sentenced below the mandatory minimum for substantial assistance to the government. Significantly, their guideline ranges fell entirely below the mandatory minimum. Following Amendment 782, a retroactive drug guideline amendment which lowered base offense levels for certain drug quantities, they sought to have their sentences further reduced. The district court and 8th Circuit held that they were ineligible for retroactive resentencings under section 3582(c)(2) because each defendant had received a sentence based on his mandatory minimum and not "based on a sentencing range that has subsequently been lowered by the Sentencing Commission."

The Supreme Court unanimously agreed with the lower courts, holding that the defendants were not eligible for sentence reductions under the retroactive guideline amendment because their sentences were "based on" their mandatory minimums and substantial assistance. The Court rejected the defendants' argument that their sentences were "based on" the guidelines because the district court was first required to calculate their guideline

ranges and then use the substantial assistance guidelines to determine whether, and to what extent, to reduce the sentence. The Court noted that what matters is the role the guideline range played in the selection of the eventual sentence, not its role in the initial calculation.

The Court stated that for a sentence to be “based on” a lowered guideline range, the range must have played a relevant part in the framework used by the sentencing judge in imposing the sentence. The Court noted that at each original sentencing, the district court calculated the offender’s guideline range, but then discarded that range in favor of the mandatory minimum sentence because the minimum was higher than the high end of the guideline range. Only after it had discarded the guideline range did the district court proceed to consider the substantial assistance factors—and only the substantial assistance factors—to arrive at its final sentence. The Court indicated that this approach was consistent with §§1B1.1(a)(8) and 5G1.1(b). Because the guideline ranges were necessarily discarded, the Court reasoned that the defendants’ sentences were not “based on” the subsequently reduced guideline ranges.

Hughes v. United States, 138 S. Ct. 1765 (2018).

The Supreme Court held that a sentence entered under a Federal Rule of Criminal Procedure 11(c)(1)(c) (“Type-C”) plea, in which the government and defendant agree to a specific sentence or sentencing range, will generally be “based on” the guidelines, and the defendant will be eligible for resentencing if the guidelines are retroactively amended.

Hughes had received a Type-C plea for a 180-month sentence, which the district court accepted after calculating his guideline range as 188 to 235 months. Soon after, the guidelines were retroactively amended so that his new guideline range would be 151 to 188 months. He filed a motion for a sentence reduction under 18 U.S.C. § 3582(c)(2), which the district court denied and the Eleventh Circuit affirmed. Both courts held that under Justice Sotomayor’s concurrence in *Freeman v. United States*, 564 U.S. 522 (2011), he was ineligible for a sentence reduction because his plea agreement did not expressly rely on a guideline range.

The Supreme Court disagreed with the lower courts, holding that in the ordinary case, a defendant is eligible for a sentence reduction even if he entered a Type-C plea agreement. The Court reasoned that a sentence imposed pursuant to a Type-C plea agreement is not an exception to the general rule that the guidelines form the basis of a defendant’s ultimate sentence. The Court also emphasized §6B1.2(c), which sets the procedure courts use in deciding whether to accept C pleas. The Court noted that a court “may not accept the agreement unless it is satisfied that (1) the agreed sentence is within the applicable guideline range; or (2)(A) the agreed sentence is outside the applicable guideline range for justifiable reasons” Thus, the Court reasoned that C pleas, like ordinary sentences, use “the guideline range [a]s both the starting point and a basis for the ultimate sentence.” The majority stated that its interpretation was the most consistent with the Sentencing Reform Act’s concern with avoiding unwarranted disparity. The majority determined that, because

of the role the guidelines inherently play in a decision whether to accept a C plea, disparate access to retroactive amendments would not be proper.

Justice Sotomayor joined the majority opinion in its entirety but authored a concurrence explaining her change in opinion from *Freeman* to *Hughes*. Justice Sotomayor did not disavow her *Freeman* concurrence's analysis but indicated that her decision to join the majority was driven by the confusion in the lower courts stemming from the prior concurrence.

Chief Justice Roberts wrote a dissenting opinion joined by Justices Thomas and Alito, arguing that a sentence from a Type-C plea agreement is not based on the guidelines. The dissent argued that a judge is not deciding a sentence in a Type-C plea but is merely imposing the sentence brought forth by the parties. The dissent stated that, notwithstanding the requirement of a guideline calculation, the only decision that a judge makes in the C plea context is whether to accept or reject a plea. Moreover, the dissent rejected the majority's disparity arguments, arguing that such defendants had bargained for specific concessions and a specific sentence chosen without judicial discretion.

Sessions v. Dimaya, 138 S. Ct. 1204 (2018).

The Supreme Court held that the residual clause in 18 U.S.C. § 16, which defines a “crime of violence” and is incorporated by reference in the Immigration and Nationality Act’s mandatory removal provisions, is void for vagueness. The Court concluded that section 16’s residual clause possessed the same flaws as the Armed Career Criminal Act’s residual clause, which the Court invalidated in *Johnson v. United States*, 135 S. Ct. 2551 (2015).

In 2010, the government sought to deport Dimaya, a lawful permanent resident, after his second conviction for first-degree residential burglary under California law. The government contended that Mr. Dimaya was deportable as an “aggravated felon” because his convictions were “crimes of violence” under section 16(b). Section 16(b)’s residual clause, on which the government relied, defines a “crime of violence” as “any other offense that is a felony and that, by its nature, involves a substantial risk that physical force against the person or property of another may be used in the course of committing the offense.” Dimaya unsuccessfully challenged his deportation before the Board of Immigration Appeals and appealed to the Ninth Circuit. Relying on *Johnson*, the Ninth Circuit ruled in Dimaya’s favor. The Supreme Court affirmed, concluding that section 16(b) suffered from the same “fatal features” of the ACCA’s residual clause.

The Court observed that the clause creates “uncertainty” about both “how to estimate the risk posed by a crime” and “the level of risk that makes a crime ‘violent.’” It also rejected the government’s emphasis on the textual distinctions between section 16(b) and the ACCA’s residual clause, observing that “[e]very offense that could have fallen within ACCA’s residual clause might equally fall within §16(b). Finally, the Court concluded that precedent established that removal statutes should be held to the same exacting vagueness standard as criminal provisions.

Justice Gorsuch concurred, observing that the standard adopted by the majority should not be limited to criminal statutes or statutes resulting in deportation. Chief Justice Roberts dissented, joined by Justices Kennedy, Thomas, and Alito, concluding that the clause is constitutional “even under the standard applicable to criminal laws.” Justice Thomas also filed a separate dissenting opinion, expressing doubts about whether the void-for-vagueness doctrine is consistent with the original meaning of the Due Process Clause and opining that the clause “might not apply to laws governing the removal of aliens.”

Honeycutt v. United States, 137 S. Ct. 1626 (2017).

The Supreme Court held that 21 U.S.C. § 853(A)(1) (Criminal forfeitures) does not allow joint and several liability for forfeiture judgments. The Court held that, under the statute, forfeiture is limited to “the defendant who initially acquired the property and who bears responsibility for its dissipation.” Honeycutt’s case involved conspiracy to distribute a product used in methamphetamine production. Because Honeycutt had “no ownership interest” in the relevant property and “did not personally benefit” from the relevant sales, the Court held that he never obtained any tainted property as a result of the crime and forfeiture was not required.

Dean v. United States, 137 S. Ct. 1170 (2017).

The Supreme Court held that 18 U.S.C. § 924(c) does not prevent a sentencing court from considering a mandatory sentence imposed under that provision when determining the sentence for the underlying predicate offense.

Dean was convicted on numerous charges related to the robberies, including two counts of violating 18 U.S.C. § 924(A), which establishes mandatory sentences for defendants who used a firearm in furtherance of a crime of violence. The parties agreed that a guidelines range of 84–105 months’ imprisonment on the non-section 924 counts was appropriate. Dean requested that the district court sentence below the guideline range because the section 924(c) counts carried mandatory five- and 25-year prison sentences to run consecutively. The district court indicated that there was no room for modification. The Eighth Circuit agreed. The Supreme Court reversed, rejecting the government’s contention that sentencing courts should not consider the effect of other sentences until it is deciding whether sentences should run consecutively or concurrently.

The Supreme Court explained that a sentencing court may use the full breadth of the factors at 18 U.S.C. § 3553(a) to determine an appropriate sentence for each offense in a multicount case, and that nothing in the text of section 924(c) prohibits a court from considering that statute’s mandatory sentences when calculating the sentence for the predicate offense. Neither the fact that the mandatory sentence must be imposed “in addition to” the

punishment for the predicate offense, nor the fact that the additional sentence must be imposed “consecutively” to the sentence for the predicate offense, affects the sentencing court’s discretion to consider the mandatory minimum when calculating each individual sentence.

***Beckles v. United States*, 137 S. Ct. 886 (2017).**

The Supreme Court decided that the advisory sentencing guidelines are not subject to constitutional challenge under the void-for-vagueness doctrine.

Beckles had been sentenced as a “career offender” under §4B1.1(a) because his offense involved possession of a sawed-off shotgun, and such an offense qualified as a “crime of violence” under §4B1.2(a). He filed a post-conviction motion to vacate his sentence, arguing that §4B1.2(a)’s “residual clause” was unconstitutionally vague. The Eleventh Circuit affirmed the denial of his motion, distinguishing the ACCA’s residual clause from the identical clause in the guidelines. The Supreme Court affirmed, holding that the sentencing guidelines, including §4B1.2(a)’s residual clause, are not subject to vagueness challenges under the Constitution’s Due Process Clause.

The Court distinguished between the ACCA’s residual clause, which fixes sentences for certain defendants, and the advisory guidelines. The guidelines do not fix the permissible range of sentences, the Court noted, but instead guide the exercise of a court’s discretion in choosing an appropriate sentence within the statutory range. The Court also noted that Congress has long permitted district courts wide discretion over sentencing. “If a system of unfettered discretion is not unconstitutionally vague,” it reasoned, then a system of guided discretion could not be, either. The Court cautioned that its holding did not render the advisory guidelines immune from all constitutional scrutiny, or even render “sentencing procedure[s]” entirely “immune from scrutiny under the Due Process Clause.”

Justice Kennedy concurred, emphasizing that “some other explication of the constitutional limitations,” instead of the vagueness doctrine, would be necessary to challenge arbitrariness in sentencing. Justice Ginsburg concurred in the judgment only, noting she would deny Beckles’ petition because he could not show that the guidelines residual clause was vague as applied to him, and would not reach the question of whether the advisory guidelines were generally subject to void-for-vagueness challenges. Justice Sotomayor agreed with Justice Ginsburg about the proper resolution of the case, and therefore also concurred in the judgment only. She also wrote separately to note that the advisory guidelines had an anchoring affect on sentences and therefore implicated the concerns of the vagueness doctrine.

***Mathis v. United States*, 136 S. Ct. 2243 (2016).**

The Supreme Court decided that the “categorical approach” to evaluating predicate convictions at federal sentencing requires that a sentencing court look only to the elements

of the statute of conviction, even if the statute enumerates various factual means of committing one of the listed elements.

Mathis was convicted of being a felon in possession of a firearm and received an enhanced sentence under the Armed Career Criminal Act (“ACCA”) based on his prior convictions under Iowa’s burglary statute. Unlike generic burglary, which requires unlawful entry into a “building or other structure,” the Iowa statute includes unlawful entry into “any building, structure, [or] land, water, or air vehicle.” The sentencing court applied the modified categorical approach. The Eighth Circuit affirmed, acknowledging that the Iowa statute swept more broadly than the generic statute, but noting that, even if “structures” and “vehicles” were not separate elements but alternative means of fulfilling a single element, a sentencing court could still use the modified categorical approach to see which crime the defendant had been convicted of. The Supreme Court reversed, holding that a defendant’s sentence cannot be enhanced by a conviction under a statute when one of the statute’s specified means creates a match with the generic offense, even though the broader component would not.

Relying on decisions of the Iowa Supreme Court, the Court held that the burglary statute’s list of places does not set out alternative elements, but rather alternative means of fulfilling a single locational element. Accordingly, elements of Iowa’s burglary law are broader than those of generic burglary and Mathis’s prior convictions could not give rise to ACCA’s sentence enhancement. The Court cited the ACCA’s text as well as the Sixth Amendment’s requirement that a jury, not a judge, find facts that increase the maximum penalty for an offense. It instructed that the first task for sentencing courts faced with alternatively phrased statutes is to “determine whether its listed items are elements or means.” If the alternatives are means of committing the offense, the court cannot apply the modified categorical approach to determine which of the statutory alternatives was at issue in the earlier prosecution.

Justice Kennedy concurred, emphasizing that the categorical approach should not be justified by the Sixth Amendment concerns raised in *Apprendi v. New Jersey*, 530 U. S. 466 (2000), which he believes was wrongly decided. Justice Thomas also concurred, arguing that the ACCA is unconstitutional in its entirety because necessarily requires a court to find the existence (and nature of) prior convictions. Justice Breyer dissented, joined by Justice Ginsburg, opining that there is no relevant difference between a federal judge looking to judicial records to determine which of multiple alternative elements a defendant had committed, and which of multiple alternative means a defendant had committed. Justice Alito also dissented, noting that the opinion would prove difficult to apply because the distinction between elements and means is seldom relevant “in the real world.”

[Torres v. Lynch, 136 S. Ct. 1619 \(2016\).](#)

The Supreme Court held that a state offense counts as an “aggravated felony” under the Immigration and Nationality Act when it has every element of a listed federal crime except one requiring a connection to interstate or foreign commerce.

Torres immigrated to the United States as a child and is a lawful permanent resident of this country. In 1999, he pleaded guilty to third degree attempted arson under New York law. Later, the government initiated removal proceedings. An immigration judge rejected his request for cancellation of removal on the basis of his prior “aggravated felony” conviction. The term “aggravated felony” is defined in Section 1101(a)(43), which provides a long list of offenses, including 21 different subparagraphs enumerating 80 different crimes. The Board of Immigration Appeals (BIA) affirmed the denial after determining that the New York statute matched the federal arson statute “element-for element with one exception: The New York law does not require a connection to interstate commerce.” It reasoned that the commerce element was merely jurisdictional. The Second Circuit denied Torres’ petition for review of the BIA’s ruling. The Supreme Court affirmed, concluding courts using the categorical approach can ignore the “jurisdictional element” of a federal criminal statute when deciding whether a state offense is “described in” the federal statute.

The Court reasoned that Section 1101(a)(43) “declares the source of criminal law irrelevant,” because it provides that the term aggravated felony applies to a listed offense whether in violation of federal or state law. The Court also held that “a settled practice of distinguishing between substantive and jurisdictional elements of federal criminal laws” supported its reading of Section 1101(a)(43).

Justice Sotomayor dissented, joined by Justices Breyer and Thomas. She observed that “until today, the Court has always required the state offense to match every element of the listed ‘aggravated felony.’”

***Molina-Martinez v. United States*, 136 S. Ct. 1338 (2016).**

The Supreme Court held that a court of appeals cannot categorically require additional evidence to establish that an error in guidelines calculation prejudiced a defendant. The Court noted that when a district court applies an incorrectly calculated guideline range, a defendant has typically been prejudiced by the error, even if the sentence imposed was within the range later found to be correct on appeal.

Molina-Martinez pleaded guilty to illegal reentry after deportation. The Guidelines range calculated in his presentence report was 77 to 96 months. The district court, with little explanation, sentenced him to the low end of what it believed to be the applicable guidelines range —77 months. On appeal, Molina-Martinez argued for the first time that the probation office and the district court miscalculated his guidelines range, which should have been 70 to 87 months, and noted that his 77-month sentence would have been in the middle of the correct range, not at the bottom. The Fifth Circuit agreed that the district court’s guidelines range was incorrect but found that Molina-Martinez could not satisfy Rule 52(b)’s requirement that the error affect his substantial rights. The Supreme Court reversed and remanded, holding that a court of appeals cannot categorically require additional evidence to establish that an error in guidelines calculation prejudiced a defendant.

The Court observed that the Sentencing Guidelines establish the essential framework for sentencing proceedings and noted that courts “must begin their analysis with the Guidelines and remain cognizant of them throughout the sentencing process.” It also cited Sentencing Commission statistics confirming that the guidelines inform the district court’s determination of an appropriate sentence. It relied on several of the Commission’s publications to show that sentences are closely linked to the applicable guideline range in most cases. The Court added that the government could rebut the presumption of error in “unusual circumstances,” such as when the sentencing judge made it clear that the sentence rested on factors outside the guidelines.

Justice Alito, joined by Justice Thomas, wrote a separate opinion, concurring in part and concurring in the judgment. Justice Alito disagreed with the Court’s statement—which he characterized as dicta—that “most” defendants who can show an error in guidelines application will thereby be able to demonstrate a reasonable probability of prejudice, as required to establish plain error.

***Welch v. United States*, 136 S. Ct. 1257 (2016).**

The Supreme Court held that its 2015 decision in *Johnson v. United States*, 135 S. Ct. 2551 (2015), which invalidated the “residual clause” of the Armed Career Criminal Act (“ACCA”), applies retroactively to cases on collateral review.

Welch filed an initial section 2255 motion challenging whether a prior conviction qualified as a predicate “violent felony” under ACCA’s residual clause. The district court denied the petition, and the Eleventh Circuit denied a certificate of appealability (“COA”) prior to the Supreme Court’s decision in *Johnson*. The Supreme Court vacated and remanded the decision, holding that the rule in *Johnson* should be retroactively available.

Applying the framework under *Teague v. Lane*, 489 U.S. 288 (1989), for determining whether a rule applies to cases on collateral review the Court concluded that *Johnson*’s rule was “substantive” rather than a “watershed rule of criminal procedure,” and should be applied retroactively. The Court explained that “a rule is substantive rather than procedural if it alters the range of conduct or the class of persons that the law punishes,” rather than “regulat[ing] only the manner of determining the defendant’s culpability.” Because *Johnson* “changed the substantive reach of” ACCA, thereby “altering the range of conduct or the class of persons” that the statute punishes, it was a substantive decision.

Justice Thomas filed a dissenting opinion. He argued that the Court should not have ruled on a claim that was never brought before a lower court in Welch’s section 2255 petition. He also contended that the *Johnson* decision was not substantive, because it did not preclude the government from enhancing sentences based on the prior commission of violent felonies—it found only that a particular means of doing so was unconstitutionally vague—and it did not narrow the statute’s reach.

Johnson v. United States, 135 S. Ct. 2551 (2015).

The Supreme Court held unconstitutionally vague the “residual clause,” 18 U.S.C. § 924(e)(2)(B)(ii), of the Armed Career Criminal Act (“ACCA”). Accordingly, the Court reversed the defendant’s increased sentence due to ACCA.

Johnson pleaded guilty to being a felon in possession of a firearm, pursuant to 18 U.S.C. § 922(g). The government sought an enhanced sentence under ACCA, which imposes a mandatory minimum 15-year prison term on a felon-in-possession defendant with three prior convictions for a “violent felony,” a term defined in the residual clause to include any felony that “involves conduct that presents a serious potential risk of physical injury to another.” 18 U.S.C. § 924(e)(2)(B)(ii). The district court and the Eighth Circuit agreed that Johnson’s prior state conviction for unlawful possession of a short-barreled shotgun met this definition (it was undisputed that Johnson had two other qualifying convictions). The Supreme Court reversed and remanded, finding that imposing an increased sentence under ACCA’s residual clause violates the Due Process Clause.

The Court found that two features of the residual clause combined to make it unconstitutionally vague. First, the Court’s precedents applying the “categorical approach,” in which the sentencing court pictures the kind of conduct that the crime involves in “the ordinary case” instead of applying a real-world factual inquiry, leaves too much uncertainty and speculation to the residual clause application. Second, the residual clause leaves too much uncertainty about how much risk it takes for a crime to qualify as a violent felony. In particular, the clause’s reference to offenses that “otherwise” pose the necessary risk suggests a link to the four “enumerated offenses” listed just before the residual clause, but the nature of that link is confusing and causes additional uncertainty. A court is left to determine in what sense a particular offense poses a risk comparable to burglary, arson, extortion, or the use of explosives, even though those offenses themselves appear to involve varying, and uncertain, levels of risk.

The Court rejected the argument that the residual clause is constitutional merely because “some conduct clearly falls within the provision’s grasp,” electing instead to strike down the language altogether. The Court also made clear that other laws using terms like “substantial risk” are not touched by this opinion because they generally involve an assessment of risk related to real conduct, not an “idealized ordinary case.”

The Court also rejected the argument that the doctrine of *stare decisis* barred it from finding ACCA’s residual clause unconstitutionally vague. While some prior opinions such as *Sykes v. United States*, 555 U.S. 122 (2009), and *James v. United States*, 550 U.S. 192 (2007), had briefly opined the clause was not vague, they had done so without full briefing or argument, and thus did not constrain the Court. Moreover, the Court found, continued adherence to those decisions would undermine, rather than promote, the goals of evenhandedness, predictability, and consistency served by *stare decisis*.

Justices Kennedy and Thomas concurred in the judgment only, each stating separately their view that the residual clause was not unconstitutionally vague but also that Johnson’s offense did not qualify as a violent felony.

Justice Alito dissented, defending the residual clause because of *stare decisis* and because the residual clause is not unconstitutionally vague in his view. Justice Alito also argued for abandoning the traditional, elements-based categorical approach, in favor of a conduct-based inquiry, solely for application of ACCA's residual clause. Under either approach, he maintained that Johnson's prior conviction did qualify as a violent felony under the residual clause.

***Paroline v. United States*, 572 U.S. 434 (2014).**

The Supreme Court held that mandatory restitution for offenses that involve the sexual exploitation of children and child pornography, pursuant to 18 U.S.C. § 2259, is proper only to the extent that the defendant proximately caused the victim's losses. The Court maintained that even mere possessors of child pornography cause proximate harm to the victims. *Id.* Because child pornography victims suffer "continuing and grievous harm as a result of [knowing] that a large, indeterminate number of individuals have viewed and will in the future view images of the sexual abuse she endured[,] all persons who reproduce, distribute, or possess child pornography play a part in this tragedy and are liable for restitution. *Id.* However, the Supreme Court further addressed the more difficult task of determining the appropriate *amount* of restitution—i.e. how much of the victim's losses are attributable to the defendant's conduct.

The defendant was convicted of possessing child pornography and admitted to possessing a total of 150–300 images, two of which were images of the victim at issue. The victim sought \$3.4 million in damages, and the Fifth Circuit sitting *en banc* held that each defendant who possessed the victim's images should be made liable for the victim's entire loss of \$3.4 million from the trade in her images. In vacating and remanding, the Court, by a 5-4 vote, held that there is a general proximate cause requirement for all losses under section 2259, and that "where it can be shown both that a defendant possessed a victim's images and that a victim has outstanding losses caused by the continuing traffic in those images but where it is impossible to trace a particular amount of those losses to the individual defendant" through the more traditional but-for causal inquiry, the court "should order restitution in an amount that comports with the defendant's relative role in the causal process that underlies the victim's general losses."

The Court provided further guidance to district courts by enumerating factors to consider in determining the amount of restitution: the victim's total losses caused by traffic in her images, the number of past criminal defendants who contributed to those losses, reasonable predictions of the number of future offenders likely to be caught and convicted for contributing, an estimate of the broader number of offenders involved, whether the defendant reproduced or distributed the images, whether the defendant had any connection to the initial production of the images, and how many images of the victim the defendant possessed. In the case of a "possessor like Paroline" who played a relatively small part in the victim's overall losses, the Court held that the amount would "not be severe" but would also

not be “a token or nominal amount.” However, the Court declined to “prescribe a precise algorithm” and urged the courts to use “discretion and sound judgment.”

Abramski v. United States, 573 U.S. 169 (2014).

In a 5-4 opinion, the Supreme Court resolved a circuit split, holding that a straw buyer made a material false statement in violation of 18 U.S.C. § 922(a)(6) when he represented himself as the actual transferee/buyer of a firearm on the sales record. Although Abramski was purchasing a firearm on behalf of his uncle, Abramski answered “Yes,” affirming that he was the “actual buyer” of the firearm on the form used and maintained by federally licensed firearms dealers for gun sales. The Fourth Circuit held that regardless of whether the straw buyer or the actual buyer can legally obtain a handgun, answering the “actual buyer” inquiry falsely does constitute a material misrepresentation. The Supreme Court affirmed, reasoning that “the identity of the actual purchaser of a firearm is a constant that is always material to the lawfulness of a firearm acquisition under § 922(a)(6).”

United States v. Castleman, 572 U.S. 157 (2014).

The Supreme Court held that a defendant could be convicted for illegally possessing a firearm if he had a prior conviction of “intentionally or knowingly caus[ing] bodily injury to” a family member because that offense constituted a “misdemeanor crime of domestic violence.” See 18 U.S.C. § 921(a)(33)(A)(ii); 18 U.S.C. § 922(g)(9). In particular, the Court held that the domestic violence offense did involve “the use or attempted use of physical force” as required by section 922(g)(9). The Court interpreted its prior opinion in *Johnson v. United States*, 559 U.S. 133 (2010), to require it to conclude that the common law definition of “force” applied to this statute. The Court then applied the modified categorical approach discussed in *Descamps v. United States*, 570 U.S. 254 (2013), to conclude that the prior conviction did involve such force.

Justice Scalia concurred in part and concurred in the judgment, disagreeing with the Court that the broader definition of “force” should apply but concluding that the defendant’s prior conviction also qualified under a narrower definition. Justice Alito, joined by Justice Thomas, also concurred in the judgment, expressing their view that *Johnson* was wrongly decided.

Burrage v. United States, 571 U.S. 204 (2014).

The Supreme Court held that a defendant who distributes drugs cannot receive an enhanced penalty when a victim suffers death or serious bodily injury as a result of using the drugs unless the victim’s use of the drugs is a but-for cause of the death or injury, at

least where the use of the drug was not independently sufficient to cause the death or injury.

The victim in the case died following an extended drug binge involving a mixture of several drugs, only one of which he had purchased from the defendant. Expert testimony showed that the drug purchased from the defendant contributed to the victim's death, but not that the use of that drug alone would have caused the death. The Court determined that this type of causation does not meet the standard required by 21 U.S.C. § 841(b)(1)(C), which provides for an enhanced sentence if the death or bodily injury "results from" the drug distributed by the defendant. The Court stated that this statute required actual causation for the enhanced penalty to apply.

Justice Ginsburg, joined by Justice Sotomayor, concurred in the judgment on the basis of the rule of lenity.

Descamps v. United States, 570 U.S. 254 (2013).

The Supreme Court held that, when evaluating whether a prior state conviction constitutes "burglary" within the meaning of the Armed Career Criminal Act ("ACCA"), a federal sentencing court may not apply the modified categorical approach to a non-divisible state statute of conviction.

Descamps argued that his California burglary conviction did not count as ACCA burglary because the California statute did not contain all the elements of generic burglary; specifically, California's burglary statute does not require that a defendant's initial entry into a building be unlawful. The district court and court of appeals accepted the government's argument that the "modified-categorical approach" allowed the court to examine certain documents, including the original state-court plea colloquy, in order to determine that Descamps had in fact committed conduct that would constitute generic ACCA burglary. The Ninth Circuit's holding deepened a circuit split over whether the modified categorical approach, in which such documents may be consulted, applies only to statutes that are "divisible" into multiple, alternative possible elements, any of which suffice for commission of the offense, or also, as here, to a statute that is "indivisible" but overbroad, encompassing a broader array of conduct than the generic offense.

The Court reversed, finding that its existing precedent "all but resolve[d] this case." The Court stated that it had long emphasized that courts should "look only to the statutory definitions" of offenses, and focus on the "elements, not facts" underlying a particular conviction, but that in a "narrow range of cases" courts could look beyond the statute of conviction to such documents as the "charging paper and jury instructions" to determine when ACCA was satisfied. That range of cases consisted of "statute[s] with alternative elements," such as burglary statutes applying to both automobiles and dwellings. This analysis became known as the modified categorical approach. In *Shepard v. United States*, the Court held that the purpose of the modified categorical approach was only to determine what "version" of the statute a defendant had pled guilty to. For that reason, "the only way" the Court had

ever endorsed the use of the modified categorical approach was to evaluate statutes with alternative elements.

Justice Kennedy wrote a separate concurring opinion, emphasizing his concern that a defendant pleading guilty to a state criminal offense will not typically be thinking of the possibility of “later consequences under ACCA,” and finding “troubling” the proposition that inadvertent admissions might later lead to significant sentencing enhancements.

Justice Thomas concurred in the judgment only, and wrote separately to reaffirm his view that ACCA violates the Sixth Amendment because it permits courts to find facts increasing the sentence that could be imposed on a defendant.

Justice Alito dissented. He stated that he would give “ACCA a more practical reading,” and hold that “when it is clear that a defendant necessarily admitted or the jury necessarily found” that a defendant committed generic burglary, a prior conviction should qualify.

Alleyne v. United States, 570 U.S. 99 (2013).

The Supreme Court held that facts that increase a mandatory minimum penalty are elements that must be submitted to a jury and found beyond a reasonable doubt. The opinion overruled *Harris v. United States*, 536 U.S. 545 (2002), in which the Court held that judicial factfinding that increases the mandatory minimum sentence but does not affect the maximum penalty is permissible under the Sixth Amendment. The *Alleyne* Court concluded that *Harris* is inconsistent with *Apprendi v. New Jersey*, 530 U.S. 466 (2000), and with the original meaning of the Sixth Amendment.

The Court held that the Sixth Amendment, in conjunction with the Due Process Clause, requires that each element of a crime be proven to the jury beyond a reasonable doubt. Shortly after *Apprendi*, the Court decided *Harris*, which involved the same statutory provision and issue before the Court in *Alleyne*. The *Harris* Court declined to apply *Apprendi* to facts that altered only the mandatory minimum sentence, and not the maximum penalty. *Harris* reasoned that such facts do not implicate the Sixth Amendment, because the verdict “authorized the judge to impose the minimum with or without the finding.” Such a finding was not “essential” to the defendant’s punishment and merely limited the sentencing judge’s “choices within the authorized range.”

The *Alleyne* Court relied on the logic of *Apprendi* to overrule the holding in *Harris*. The Court concluded that the definition of “elements” necessarily includes facts that not only increase the maximum penalty, but also those that increase the minimum, because both affect the sentencing range to which a defendant is exposed. The Court stated, “[i]t is impossible to dissociate the floor of a sentencing range from the penalty affixed to the crime.” Increasing the legally prescribed floor indisputably aggravates the punishment and “heightens the loss of liberty associated with the crime”, because the government can invoke the mandatory minimum to require a harsher punishment than would have resulted

otherwise. “This reality demonstrates that the core crime and the fact triggering the mandatory minimum sentence together constitute a new, aggravated crime, each element of which must be submitted to the jury.”

Justice Sotomayor filed a concurring opinion, which Justices Ginsburg and Kagan joined, discussing in more detail the question of when the Court should overrule existing precedent. Justice Breyer filed a separate concurring opinion in which he discussed his vote in *Harris* and expressed continuing disagreement with the holding in *Apprendi*. However, Justice Breyer acknowledged that “*Apprendi* has now defined the relevant legal regime for an additional decade” and stated that “the law should no longer tolerate the anomaly that the *Apprendi/Harris* distinction creates.”

Chief Justice Roberts, with whom Justices Scalia and Kennedy joined, dissented. The Chief Justice argued that increasing the mandatory minimum penalty does not affect the defendant’s right to a jury trial under the Sixth Amendment, but rather affects the role of the sentencing judge by limiting discretion. Here, because the jury’s verdict authorized a sentence of anywhere between five years to life in prison, “[n]o additional finding of fact was ‘essential’ to any punishment within the range.” The resulting sentence was within the discretion of the judge, and “entirely consistent with *Apprendi*.”

Justice Alito filed a separate dissenting opinion, stating that the Court should not overrule “well-entrenched precedent” so easily.

***Peugh v. United States*, 569 U.S. 530 (2013).**

In a 5-4 decision, the Supreme Court held that the Ex Post Facto Clause of the constitution prohibits a court from sentencing a defendant pursuant to a guideline that produces a higher range than the guideline in effect at the time the defendant committed the offense, despite the fact that the guidelines themselves are advisory. To determine whether an ex post facto violation occurred, the Court analyzed whether, post-*Booker*, an increased guideline range “presents a sufficient risk of increasing the measure of punishment attached to the covered crimes.” The Court concluded that three features of the system together presented sufficient “procedural hurdles” to imposing a sentence outside the guidelines to trigger the Ex Post Facto Clause. These features are: (1) the requirement that sentencing courts properly calculate the guidelines; (2) the possibility that appellate courts may apply a presumption of reasonableness when reviewing within guideline sentences; and (3) the fact that courts of appeal may review a sentence more closely the farther it varies from the guideline range.

Because the Court’s ex post facto jurisprudence has proceeded on a case-by-case basis rather than setting forth a definitive test, the Court compared the federal system to the Florida guideline system it had previously held did present a sufficient risk in *Miller v. Florida*, and acknowledged that “the federal system’s procedural rules establish gentler checks on the sentencing court’s discretion than Florida’s did.” Nonetheless, the Court concluded that the federal rules “impose a series of requirements on sentencing courts that

cabin the exercise of [] discretion.” The Court noted that there was “considerable empirical evidence indicating that the Sentencing Guidelines have the intended effect of influencing the sentences imposed by judges,” noting that “[i]n less than one-fifth of cases since 2007 have district courts imposed above- or below-Guidelines sentences absent a Government motion” and that “the Sentencing Commission’s data indicate that when a Guidelines range moves up or down, offenders’ sentences move with it.”

Justice Sotomayor, joined by Justices Ginsburg, Breyer, and Kagan, also stated that the Ex Post Facto Clause does not simply protect a defendant’s “reliance interest” in a particular set punishment knowable by the defendant before commission of the offense; “[i]t also reflects principles of fundamental justice.” The Court then disagreed with the Government’s argument that, after *Booker*, “the Guidelines are just one among many persuasive sources a sentencing court can consult, no different from a policy paper,” stating that “[i]t is simply not the case that the Sentencing Guidelines are merely a volume that the district court reads with academic interest in the course of sentencing.” Although courts may consider the newer, higher version of the guidelines, the higher version “will have the status of one of many reasons a district court might give for deviating from the older Guidelines, a status that is simply not equivalent for ex post facto purposes.” Finally, the Court stated that its Ex Post Facto Clause holding did not undermine the Sixth Amendment remedial holding in its *Booker* line of cases, emphasizing the distinction between the Sixth Amendment and Ex Post Facto Clause inquiries and concluding that “[t]he *Booker* remedy was designed, and has been subsequently calibrated, to exploit precisely this distinction: it is intended to promote sentencing uniformity while avoiding a Sixth Amendment violation. In light of the statistics invoked by petitioner [regarding the rate of variances], it appears so far to be achieving this balance.”

Justice Thomas, joined by Chief Justice Roberts and Justices Scalia and Alito, dissented based on the view that the advisory guidelines “merely influence[] the exercise of the sentencing judge’s discretion” within the broader statutory ranges. Justice Thomas alone also stated that application of the Ex Post Facto Clause should be limited to increases in statutory penalties.

***Dorsey v. United States*, 567 U.S. 260 (2012).**

In a 5-4 decision, the Supreme Court held that the Fair Sentencing Act’s (FSA) more lenient mandatory minimum sentencing provisions, which reduced the crack-to-powder cocaine sentencing disparity from 100-to-1 to 18-to-1, applied to offenders who committed cocaine offenses prior to the FSA’s effective date but were sentenced after that date. The issue was framed as one of congressional intent: whether Congress intended the FSA to apply retroactively by virtue of the Sentencing Reform Act (SRA), which says that “regardless of when the offender’s conduct occurs, the applicable Guidelines are the ones ‘in effect on the date the defendant is sentenced,’” or whether an 1871 saving statute, which provides that no new criminal statute may change penalties “unless the repealing Act shall so expressly provide,” governed to preclude retroactivity.

In holding that there was “indicia of clear congressional intent” to apply the FSA’s new minimum penalties, the Court said it was convinced by six considerations. First, despite its “expressly provide” language (which the FSA did not do), the saving statute permits Congress to apply a new act’s more lenient penalties to pre-FSA offenders because “one Congress cannot bind a later Congress” and it remains free to express its intentions as it chooses. Second, Congress must have been aware of the SRA’s “background principle” directing judges to apply the guidelines in effect at the time of sentencing when it passed the FSA. Third, language in the FSA implies that Congress intended to follow the SRA’s background principle to achieve consistency with other guideline provisions. Fourth, applying the prior drug law’s mandatory minimums to pre-FSA offenders sentenced post-FSA “would create disparities of a kind that Congress enacted the [SRA] and the [FSA] to prevent.” Fifth, not applying the FSA to these offenders “would do more than preserve a disproportionate status quo; it would make matters worse” by creating “a new disparate sentencing ‘cliff.’” Sixth, “no strong countervailing consideration[s]” argued against applying the FSA. In dissent, Justice Scalia said he would require that the “‘plain import of a later statute directly conflict[]’” with the earlier one in order to override the saving statute’s default rule; because the FSA was silent on the issue of retroactivity, the saving statute precluded its application.

Setser v. United States, 566 U.S. 231 (2012).

The Supreme Court held that a district court has authority to order a federal sentence be served consecutive to an anticipated (*i.e.*, yet-to-be-imposed) state sentence. While on probation for a drug offense, Setser was arrested for possessing methamphetamine. Setser was indicted in state court for the possession offense, and the state moved to revoke his probation. Setser was also indicted in federal court for the drug possession, to which he pleaded guilty. At the federal sentencing, the district court imposed a 151-month sentence and ordered it to run consecutive to any state sentence on the probation violation, but concurrent with any state sentence for the possession charge. Setser appealed, arguing the district court lacked authority under the SRA to order a consecutive sentence and that the concurrent/consecutive decision should be made by the Bureau of Prisons (BOP) once the state sentence was known. While the appeal was pending, the state court sentenced Setser to five years’ imprisonment for the probation violation and 10 years’ imprisonment for the possession charge, both to run concurrently, effectively “thwart[ing]” the district court’s intended sentence.

According to the majority, in determining how state and federal sentences “fit together” under these circumstances, it is “fundamental” that the Court construe the SRA and related statutes “in light of ‘the common-law background against which the statutes . . . were enacted.’” The Court explained that judges have long had discretion to impose sentences that will run concurrently or consecutively to other sentences, including those imposed in state proceedings, and that nothing in the SRA indicates otherwise. The Court rejected Setser’s reading of the SRA as conferring authority to impose consecutive sentences *only* when the terms are imposed simultaneously, or when the defendant is already subject to another, undischarged term of imprisonment. The Court based its analysis on statutory

interpretation and policy grounds. The Court concluded Setser’s reading of the statute was inconsistent with the undisputed notion that someone, either the district court or the BOP, must make the concurrent/consecutive decision. Further, rather than conferring specific authority on the district court (and thereby implying other, non-specified authority is withheld), the statute’s language was a “mere acknowledgment of the existence of certain pre-existing authority” In addition, the Court determined that principles of federalism and good policy dictate that the district court, rather than BOP “employees of the same Department of Justice that conducts the prosecution,” decide whether the defendant’s term will be served concurrently or consecutively. Justice Breyer’s dissent focused on practical implications of the law, arguing that until the state sentence is imposed, federal judges lack valuable information necessary to make an informed concurrent/consecutive decision.

***Southern Union Co. v. United States*, 567 U.S. 343 (2012).**

The Supreme Court held that the proposition established in *Apprendi*—that the Sixth Amendment reserves to juries the determination of any fact (other than the fact of prior conviction) that increases a criminal defendant’s maximum potential sentence—applies to criminal fines. Southern Union, a natural gas company, was tried and convicted of storing hazardous material without a permit in violation of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act, which provides for “a fine of not more than \$50,000 for each day of violation.” At sentencing, the government argued that, consistent with the indictment and general verdict form, 762 days of violation occurred for a maximum fine of \$38.1 million. Southern Union argued that this would violate *Apprendi* because the jury instructions allowed a conviction based on a violation of a single day and any fine imposed greater than the one-day penalty of \$50,000 would require judicial factfinding prohibited by the Sixth Amendment. The district court imposed an \$18 million fine. Although the First Circuit found that the jury did not necessarily find a 762-day violation, it affirmed the sentence and held that *Apprendi* is inapplicable to criminal fines.

The Court reviewed the scope of the Sixth Amendment’s jury trial right as construed in *Apprendi*. According to the Court, *Apprendi*’s rule is “rooted in longstanding common-law practice.” The Court supported this argument by providing examples in which *Apprendi* has been applied to “a variety of sentencing schemes that . . . increase a defendant’s maximum authorized sentence.” The Court found “no principled basis” to treat the punishments in the examples differently than criminal fines. “*Apprendi*’s ‘core concern,’” explained the Court, “is to reserve to the jury ‘the determination of facts that warrant punishment for a specific statutory offense,’” and “[t]hat concern applies whether the sentence is a criminal fine or imprisonment or death.” The Court also found that the First Circuit incorrectly relied on *Oregon v. Ice*, which held that *Apprendi* does not forbid a judge from determining facts that authorize the imposition of consecutive sentences. The Court cited a series of cases from the 1800s to demonstrate the “‘two longstanding tenets of common-law jurisprudence’ on which *Apprendi* is based: [f]irst, the ‘the truth of every accusation’ against a defendant ‘should be confirmed’” by a jury; “[a]nd second, ‘an accusation which lacks any particular fact which the law makes essential to the punishment is . . . no accusation within the requirements of

the common law” Finally, the Court dismissed the government’s arguments, particularly that judicially-found facts related to fines “typically involve only quantifying the harm caused by the defendant’s offense . . . as opposed to defining a separate set of acts for punishment.”

In dissent, Justice Breyer argued that when a criminal fine is at issue, the Sixth Amendment allows a sentencing judge to determine facts relevant to the amount of the fine to be imposed. The dissent concludes, based primarily on the historical record and the Court’s earlier opinion in *Ice*, that the finding of this type of “particular fact” was ordinarily a matter for a judge and not within the jury’s domain.

DePierre v. United States, 564 U.S. 70 (2011).

The Supreme Court resolved a circuit conflict to hold that the term “cocaine base” in 21 U.S.C. § 841(b)(1)(A)(iii) applies to all forms of cocaine base and is not limited to “crack cocaine.” The term “cocaine base” defines cocaine in its chemically basic form which includes “crack cocaine” as well as coca paste and freebase. Justice Sotomayor wrote the opinion joined by all the justices (except for a discussion of legislative history which J. Scalia did not join). The Court observed that, because of the significant difference in penalties, Congress wanted to distinguish between powder cocaine and cocaine base products. The Court found that this reading of “cocaine base” was consistent with the structure of section 841(b)(1). The Court was unpersuaded by four additional arguments put forth by *DePierre*. The Court found that records of the congressional hearings did not show that Congress was only concerned with crack cocaine. Second, reading “cocaine base” to mean chemically basic cocaine does not lead to absurd results. Third, the fact that the Sentencing Guidelines defined “cocaine base” as “crack” does not require that the statutory term be interpreted the same way. Fourth, because normal rules of statutory construction made clear what Congress intended, the rule of lenity did not apply.

Freeman v. United States, 564 U.S. 522 (2011).

A 5-4 majority of the Supreme Court held that the defendant, William Freeman, was eligible for a sentence reduction under 18 U.S.C. § 3582(c)(2) after pleading guilty to drug and firearm charges under a Federal Rule of Criminal Procedure 11(c)(1)(C) plea agreement (“Type C agreement”). The five justices who formed the majority split, however, on the reasons the defendant was so eligible.

Under a Type C agreement, the parties agree that a specific sentence or sentencing range is the appropriate disposition of the case and the agreement binds the court once the court accepts it. In 2005, Freeman pleaded guilty under a Type C agreement specifying a sentence of 106 months’ imprisonment, the bottom of the applicable guideline range. The Sentencing Commission later amended the guidelines to lower the base offense level for drug-trafficking offenses involving crack, and made those amendments retroactive. In light

of those amendments, the petitioner filed a motion for a sentence reduction under 18 U.S.C. § 3582(c)(2), which allows a defendant to move for a reduction in a term of imprisonment if he or she “has been sentenced to a term of imprisonment based on a sentencing range that has subsequently been lowered by the Sentencing Commission.” The district court, consistent with existing circuit precedent, denied the motion on the grounds that the defendant was ineligible for a sentence reduction because the sentence was imposed pursuant to a Type C agreement. The Sixth Circuit affirmed.

A plurality of the court concluded that Freeman is eligible for a sentence reduction as a result of a retroactively-applicable guideline amendment because the district judge, in accepting such a plea agreement, had an “independent obligation to exercise its discretion” in imposing the sentence, and part of that exercise was consideration of the guidelines, including the crack cocaine guideline that was subsequently amended and given retroactive effect. As a result, the sentence was “based on” that guideline, and 18 U.S.C. § 3582(c)(2) permits the sentence to be reduced. Justice Sotomayor concurred in the judgment, but did so after finding that the Type C agreement at issue “expressly use[d] a Guidelines sentencing range applicable to the charged offense to establish the term of imprisonment,” and that because it did, the sentence was “based on” the crack cocaine guideline.

The dissent wrote that a sentence imposed pursuant to a Type C agreement is not “based on” the guidelines in any way, but instead is based on the parties’ agreed recommendation. As a result, the dissent argued, no defendant who is sentenced pursuant to a Type C agreement is eligible for a sentence reduction under 18 U.S.C. § 3582(c)(2). The dissent also criticized Justice Sotomayor’s approach as being difficult for lower courts to apply.

McNeill v. United States, 563 U.S. 816 (2011).

The Supreme Court unanimously held that, when determining whether “an offense under State law” is a “serious drug offense” for purposes of the ACCA, the sentencing court should consult the “maximum term of imprisonment” applicable to the defendant’s offense at the time of the state conviction. Under the ACCA, a felon unlawfully in possession of a firearm is subject to a 15-year minimum prison sentence if he has three prior convictions for a “violent felony” or “serious drug offense.” As relevant here, “serious drug offense” is defined as “an offense under State law . . . for which a maximum term of imprisonment of ten years or more is prescribed by law.” The district court found that the ACCA sentencing enhancement applied to the defendant based in part on drug trafficking crimes he committed when they carried a maximum 10-year prison term, even though the legislature had subsequently reduced the maximum sentence. The Fourth Circuit affirmed.

The Supreme Court affirmed for three reasons. First, it held that “the plain text of ACCA requires a federal sentencing court to consult the maximum sentence applicable to a defendant’s previous drug offense at the time of his conviction for that offense.” The Court noted that the issue of the maximum penalty for a past offense is “a backward-looking question” that can only be answered by “consult[ing] the law that applied at the time of that conviction.” Second, the Court discussed the “broader context of the statute as a whole,” and

how the Court had in other cases looked to the historical statute of conviction when determining whether the defendant was convicted of a “violent felony” under the ACCA. Finally, the Court pointed out that absurd results would follow from adopting McNeill’s position, including situations where a prior conviction would “disappear” for ACCA purposes if a state revised its definition of an offense after it was committed.

Pepper v. United States, 562 U.S. 476 (2011).

In a 7-1 decision with several concurrences, the Supreme Court held that “when a defendant’s sentence has been set aside on appeal, a district court at resentencing may consider evidence of the defendant’s postsentencing rehabilitation and that such evidence may, in appropriate cases, support a downward variance from the now-advisory Federal Sentencing Guidelines.” Pepper had pleaded guilty to methamphetamine distribution conspiracy and was sentenced to 24 months’ imprisonment, well below the 97-to-121-month guideline range. Pepper’s sentence was appealed and remanded to the district court, which imposed the same 24-month sentence based on explicit evidence of Pepper’s postsentencing rehabilitation, including his recovery from drug addiction, enrollment in college, and full-time employment. The government re-appealed and the Eighth Circuit concluded that postsentencing rehabilitation was an impermissible factor to consider in granting a downward variance from the advisory guideline range. Pepper was resentenced to a 65-month prison term and appealed.

Justice Sotomayor explained that over the history of federal sentencing reform, sentencing courts have been permitted to consider the widest possible breadth of information about a defendant. Although the SRA constrained the discretion of district courts in various ways, the Court’s cases since *United States v. Booker* made the formerly mandatory system effectively advisory. Therefore, district courts could now consider evidence of postsentencing rehabilitation to support a downward variance from the guidelines. As support for this conclusion, the Court noted that the SRA made no distinction between an initial sentencing and any subsequent resentencing on remand, and postsentencing rehabilitation is relevant to many of the statutory SRA factors. Because this conclusion conflicted with 18 U.S.C. § 3742(g)(2), which precludes a court on resentencing from imposing a sentence outside the guidelines range except upon a “‘ground of departure’ that was expressly relied upon in the prior sentencing,” the Court invalidated it as inconsistent with *Booker*. Similarly, even though the guidelines expressly preclude a district court from considering postsentencing rehabilitation, the majority opinion made clear that a district court “may in appropriate cases impose a non-Guidelines sentence based on a disagreement with the Commission’s views,” especially “where, as here, the Commission’s views rest on wholly unconvincing policy rationales not reflected in the sentencing statutes Congress enacted.” Finally, the court resolved a second question presented in *Pepper* by concluding that, at re-sentencing, a court is not bound by the law of the case to apply a departure percentage applied at the initial sentencing.

Justice Breyer and Justice Alito concurred in separate opinions on the principal issue in the case but each cautioned courts not to disregard the guidelines unreasonably. Justice Alito also dissented in part to the extent he believes sentencing judges must still give significant weight to guidelines provisions and policy statements. Justice Thomas also dissented because of his ongoing belief that the *Booker* remedy cannot be meaningfully applied and therefore he would defer to the judgment of Congress and the Commission that evidence of postsentencing rehabilitation may not be considered.

Sykes v. United States, 564 U.S. 1 (2011) (overruled by Johnson v. United States, 135 S. Ct. 2551 (2015)).

A six-Justice majority resolved a circuit split to hold that an Indiana state crime of felony vehicle flight qualifies as a “violent felony” under the ACCA, 18 U.S.C. § 924(e). That section defines a “violent felony” as one punishable by more than one year of imprisonment and that “(i) has as an element the use, attempted use, or threatened use of physical force against the person of another; or (ii) is burglary, arson, or extortion, involves use of explosives, or otherwise involves conduct that presents a serious potential risk of physical injury to another.” The latter clause beginning with “otherwise” is known as the “residual clause.” Under the Court’s “categorical approach” to the residual clause, the Court determines whether the “elements of the offense are of the type that would justify its inclusion within the residual provision,” without looking to the actual facts disclosed by the record of conviction. The question thus presented was whether Indiana’s prohibition on flight from an officer by driving a vehicle fell within the residual clause because, as a categorical matter, it presented a serious potential risk of physical injury to another.

The Supreme Court affirmed Sykes’s sentence. It described the dangers inherent in vehicular flight from law enforcement and the risk of violence associated with such conduct, citing statistics to build its argument that the risk of physical danger from vehicular flight was greater than the dangers of two of the enumerated offenses of burglary and arson. The Court distinguished other cases on the level of risk inherent in the felony at issue, as well as the fact that it required offenders to act “knowingly or intentionally.” Finally, the Court observed that Congress chose to frame the ACCA in general and qualitative terms that require courts to evaluate the risks posed by different offenses.

Justice Thomas concurred in the judgment. Justice Scalia dissented with a broad criticism of the Court’s recent residual clause jurisprudence starting in 2007, suggesting that the vagueness of the ACCA meant it was time to limit it to the named violent crimes and allow Congress to add additional crimes as it sees fit. Justice Kagan, joined by Justice Ginsburg, questioned the majority’s interpretation of the Indiana statute and argued that simple vehicular flight was not a violent felony under the ACCA.

Tapia v. United States, 564 U.S. 319 (2011).

The Supreme Court held that the SRA precludes a sentencing court from imposing or lengthening a prison term in order to promote a criminal defendant's rehabilitation. Alejandra Tapia was convicted of alien smuggling, among other things. She was sentenced to a term of 51 months' imprisonment, at least in part because the district court apparently wanted to ensure that she served a prison term to qualify for and complete the Bureau of Prison's 500-hour Residential Drug Abuse Program. The Ninth Circuit affirmed the sentence.

The Supreme Court reversed. Writing for a unanimous court, Justice Kagan began with the text of 18 U.S.C. § 3582(a), which instructs courts to "recognize[e] that imprisonment is not an appropriate means of promoting correction and rehabilitation." According to the Court, this language clearly commands a district court to "consider the specified rationales of punishment except for rehabilitation, which it should acknowledge as an unsuitable justification for a prison term." Moreover, the Court explains, the "context of § 3582(a) puts an exclamation point on this textual conclusion." For one thing, because 28 U.S.C. § 994(k) similarly directs the Sentencing Commission to ensure the guidelines reflect the inappropriateness of imposing a sentence for rehabilitation purposes, "Congress ensured that all sentencing officials would work in tandem to implement the statutory determination" to preclude courts from considering rehabilitation in imposing or lengthening prison terms. And "[e]qually illuminating" is "the absence of any provision granting courts the power to ensure that offenders participate in prison rehabilitation programs," in contrast to a sentencing court's power to order appropriate treatment in imposing probation or supervised release. The Court also found the legislative history supported the textual interpretation, and rejected various other arguments of the amicus curiae, who was appointed to defend the Ninth Circuit's judgment. In the opinion's final section, Justice Kagan stated that a sentencing court commits no error by discussing options for prison rehabilitation or urging the BOP to place an offender in a prison treatment program. What it may not do, however, is "impose or lengthen a prison sentence to enable an offender to complete a treatment program or otherwise promote rehabilitation." Finally, in a brief concurrence, Justice Sotomayor (joined by Justice Alito) agreed with the Court that section 3582(a) precludes sentencing courts from considering rehabilitation when imposing or lengthening a prison sentence but was skeptical that the court did so in Tapia's case.

Abbott v. United States, 562 U.S. 8 (2010).

In this case, the Supreme Court resolved a circuit split on the interpretation of 18 U.S.C. § 924(c)'s "except" clause, holding that "a defendant is subject to a mandatory, consecutive sentence for a section 924(c) conviction, and is not spared from that sentence by virtue of receiving a higher mandatory minimum on a different count of conviction." Section 924(c) requires imposition of at least 5 years' imprisonment to be served consecutively for using or carrying a firearm in furtherance of a crime of violence or drug trafficking crime "[e]xcept to the extent that a greater minimum sentence is otherwise provided by this subsection or by any other provision of law." This latter phrase is commonly referred to as

the “except” clause. Defendants Abbott and Gould were each convicted of gun and drug crimes, and each were sentenced to a 5-year term of imprisonment on the section 924(c) offense to run consecutively to the terms of imprisonment they received for their other offenses, each of which carried higher mandatory minimums. The Third and Fifth Circuits affirmed their respective sentences on direct appeal; the Second and Sixth Circuits adopted, however, a contrary interpretation of the “except” clause.

The Supreme Court affirmed their sentences, holding that a defendant is subject to consecutive mandatory minimum sentences for both the predicate offense and the section 924(c) offense, even if the predicate offense carries a greater mandatory minimum than the section 924(c) offense. Although the defendants argued that the “except” clause meant that they could not be sentenced to consecutive mandatory minimum terms under section 924(c) because they were also subject to other, higher mandatory minimums, the Court felt that this interpretation would “undercut” the congressional purpose of imposing additional punishments for possessing a firearm, as many defendants subject to section 924(c)’s five-year mandatory minimum are also subject to lengthier mandatory minimums for their predicate offenses. The Court also noted other “anomalies” that rendered the defendants’ interpretation implausible, as in the case of defendants who sell enough drugs or have an extensive enough criminal history to trigger high mandatory minimums and therefore would manage to avoid being punished at all for the section 924(c) offense. After reviewing the “except” clause in its textual context, the Supreme Court concluded that “Congress intended the ‘except’ clause to serve simply as a clarification of section 924(c), not as a major restraint on the statute’s operation.” Finally, the Court noted that the rule of lenity was inapplicable because, “[a]lthough the clause might have been more meticulously drafted,” the defendants’ interpretation of the statute reflected an implausible reading of congressional purpose.

***Dillon v. United States*, 560 U.S. 817 (2010).**

The Supreme Court, in a 7-1 opinion with Justice Alito recused, considered what the impact of its *Booker* decision should be on sentence reductions under 18 U.S.C. § 3582(c)(2). The Court concluded that *Booker* does not apply to proceedings under section 3582(c)(2) and that U.S.S.G. §1B1.10 is binding on courts reducing sentences under that provision.

The Court began its analysis of the case by addressing the petitioner’s argument that proceedings under section 3582(c)(2) are “resentencing” proceedings, concluding that the plain language of the statute does not support this characterization. The Court also noted that the statute only applies to those prisoners whose guideline range was subsequently reduced by the Commission. These two factors, the Court concluded, demonstrate Congress’s intent that such proceedings not be complete resentencings. The Court went on to state, however, that “[t]he substantial role Congress gave the Commission with respect to sentence-modification proceedings further supports this conclusion,” stating that both 28 U.S.C. §§ 994(o) and (u) “constrain[]” a district court’s power under section 3582(c)(2).

The statute, the Court stated, requires a two-step approach in such cases: in the first step, the court must “follow the Commission’s instructions in §1B1.10 to determine the prisoner’s eligibility for a sentence modification and the extent of the reduction authorized.” In the second step, the court must “consider any applicable § 3553(a) factors and determine whether, in its discretion, the reduction authorized by reference to the policies relevant at step one is warranted in whole or in part under the particular circumstances of the case.” The Court further stated: “Because reference to § 3553(a) is appropriate only at the second step of this circumscribed inquiry, it cannot serve to transform the proceedings under § 3582(c)(2) into plenary resentencing proceedings.”

The Court held that section 3582(c)(2) proceedings do not implicate the Sixth Amendment right at issue in *Booker* because they “represent[] a congressional act of lenity intended to give prisoners the benefit of later enacted adjustments to the judgments reflected in the Guidelines.” The Court also held that the remedial *Booker* opinion does not apply to section 3582(c)(2) proceedings, rejecting the Ninth Circuit’s opinion in *United States v. Hicks*, 472 F.3d 1167, 1170 (9th Cir. 2007). The Court again distinguished section 3582(c)(2) proceedings from other sentencing proceedings, concluding that “requiring courts to honor §1B1.10(b)(2)’s instruction not to depart from the amended Guidelines range at [section 3582(c)(2)] proceedings will create none of the confusion or unfairness that led us in *Booker* to reject the Government’s argument for a partial fix.”

The Court finally addressed Dillon’s argument that the district court should have corrected his criminal history calculation, holding that because §1B1.10(b)(1) instructs the court to leave other guideline application decisions unchanged, the district court correctly declined to do so.

In dissent, Justice Stevens set forth his view that *Booker*’s remedial opinion should apply to section 3582(c)(2) proceedings, conceding that “[a]s a matter of textual analysis, divorced from judicial precedent, it is certainly reasonable for the Court to find that the Commission can set mandatory limits on sentence reductions under § 3582(c)(2)” but disagreeing that this analysis is sufficient to decide the case. Justice Stevens expressed his view that “[t]he only fair way to read the *Booker* majority’s remedy is that it eliminated the mandatory features of the Guidelines—all of them.” Additionally, Justice Stevens expressed his view that the majority’s decision raises separation-of-powers and delegation concerns.

Johnson v. United States, 559 U.S. 133 (2010).

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 decision, held that the petitioner’s prior conviction under Florida law for the felony offense of battery by “[a]ctually and intentionally touch[ing]” another person did not constitute a violent felony for purposes of the ACCA.

The defendant’s ACCA sentencing enhancement was based, in part, on a 2003 conviction for battery in violation of Fla. Stat. § 784.03(1). The government may prove a battery under that statute “in one of three ways It can prove that the defendant ‘[i]ntentionally caus[ed] bodily harm,’ that he ‘intentionally str[uck]’ the victim, or that he merely

‘[a]ctually and intentionally touche[d]’ the victim.” In determining whether the battery conviction was a “violent felony” for the purpose of the ACCA, the Supreme Court applied the “modified categorical approach,” whereby the court may “determine which statutory phrase was the basis for the conviction by consulting the trial record.” In this case, the record did not provide a basis for this determination. Therefore, the Court was required to determine whether a conviction for the least of the acts enumerated in the Florida battery statute (actually and intentionally touching another person) had as an element the use of force against the person of another.

The Court held that it does not. First, the Court held that it was bound by the Florida Supreme Court’s interpretation of the elements of the battery statute, and that that court had held that “the element of ‘actually and intentionally touching’ . . . is satisfied by any intentionally physical contact, ‘no matter how slight.’” The Court went on to reason that, absent a definition within the ACCA of “physical force,” it must give the term its ordinary meaning, and that the ordinary meaning of “force” “suggest[s] a degree of power that would not be satisfied by the merest touching.” The Court then held that although force was an element of common law battery (which itself encompassed “even the slightest offensive touching”), in the context of §924(e)(1)(B)(i), “physical force” must mean “violent force—that is, force capable of causing physical pain or injury to another person.”

In his dissent, Justice Alito, joined by Justice Thomas, argued that the Court should look to the traditional, common law definition of battery, which includes the element of physical force. Since battery may encompass even slight touching, Alito reasoned, slight touching must therefore involve the element of physical force, and battery under the Florida statute must be a violent felony.

United States v. O’Brien, 560 U.S. 218 (2010).

The Supreme Court unanimously held that, under 18 U.S.C. § 924(c), which prohibits the use of a firearm in relation to or in furtherance of a crime of violence, the fact that the firearm is a machine gun is an element of the offense that must be proved to a jury. The Court considered this issue in an earlier case, *Castillo v. United States*, 530 U.S. 120 (2000), interpreting an earlier version of the statute, and held that the machine gun provision was an element of the offense. The Court reconsidered the issue in light of changes made to section 924(c) in 1998.

In this case, the defendant was charged with the attempted robbery of an armored car. Among the weapons recovered by authorities was a pistol that allegedly operated as a fully automatic weapon. The defendant disputed whether this pistol was in fact a machine gun. Under 18 U.S.C. § 924(c), the defendant would be subject to a 30-year mandatory minimum sentence if the gun were determined to be a machine gun. The district court ruled that the machine gun provision of section 924(c) was an element of the offense. The First Circuit affirmed, basing its decision on *Castillo*. The First Circuit held that even though *Castillo* had been decided using an earlier version of the statute, the changes to the statute

simply amounted to breaking up a lengthy sentence into subparagraphs that were easier to read, and the changes in no way altered the meaning of the statute.

The Supreme Court did not interpret the statute anew, but rather asked only if the analysis of *Castillo* must change in light of the 1998 restructuring of the statute. In *Castillo*, the Court examined five factors to determine whether Congress intended the machine gun provision to be an element or a sentencing factor: (1) language and structure, (2) tradition, (3) risk of unfairness, (4) severity of the sentence, and (5) legislative history. The Court held that the main effect of the 1998 changes “was to divide what was once a lengthy principal sentence into separate subparagraphs.” This change, the Court held, would change the analysis only as to the first *Castillo* factor. The Court described the 1998 version as making three main changes to the statute, two of which it called substantive and the last structural. The substantive changes were: 1) what were once mandatory sentences became mandatory minimum sentences; and 2) the revised statute added the word “possesses” to “uses or carries,” and added mandatory minimums for the acts of brandishing and discharging the firearm. The third change, which the Court called structural, consisted of moving the machine gun provision from the main paragraph of the statute to a separate subsection. The Court held that this change “does not provide a clear indication that Congress meant to alter its treatment of machineguns as an offense element.” Rather, the Court determined, Congress more likely sought to break up a lengthy paragraph before adding the substantive changes.

As for the other *Castillo* factors, the Court held that the second—legal tradition and past congressional practice—was unaffected by the 1998 changes, noting that “[s]entencing factors traditionally involve characteristics of the offender—such as recidivism, cooperation with law enforcement or acceptance of responsibility Characteristics of the offense itself are traditionally treated as elements, and the use of a machinegun under §924(c) lies closest to the heart of the crime at issue.” The Court rejected the government’s argument that the SRA, and thus the sentencing guidelines, treat possession of a firearm as a sentencing factor, and that whether a firearm is a machine gun should likewise be treated as a sentencing factor. The Court pointed out that the SRA was enacted before the original section 924(c) was enacted, and thus would already have been considered in *Castillo*. Next, the court held that the third *Castillo* factor, potential unfairness, was not changed by the 1998 amendments. The *Castillo* court noted that a judge might not be aware of which among many firearms a jury had determined a defendant had used in the course of a crime, and that thus a judge’s sentencing determination could be at odds with a jury’s factfinding. The Court in the present case held that this holding of *Castillo* remained unaffected. The Court further held that the restructuring of the statute had no effect on the fourth factor in *Castillo*, the potential severity of the sentence. In each instance, the shift from a mandatory minimum of five years to one of thirty years represents “a drastic, sixfold increase that strongly suggests a separate substantive crime.” The fifth *Castillo* factor was legislative history, and in both *Castillo* and the present case, the Court held that the legislative history was “of little help” in resolving the question presented. Given that four out of five *Castillo* factors were unaffected, and that there was no strong support for changing the analysis of the first factor, the Court reached the same conclusion that it had in *Castillo*: whether the firearm possessed or used under 18 U.S.C. § 924(c) was a machine gun is an element of the offense and not a sentencing factor.

Justice Stevens authored a concurring opinion, in which he wrote that the principles of *Apprendi* should apply with equal force to statutes that trigger mandatory minimums. Stevens contended that a preferable solution to the issue presented “would be to recognize that any fact mandating the imposition of a sentence more severe than a judge would otherwise have discretion to impose should be treated as an element of the offense.” This would mean overruling the Court’s earlier holdings in *McMillan v. Pennsylvania*, 477 U.S. 79 (1986) and *Harris v. United States*, 536 U.S. 545 (2002). Justice Thomas concurred in the judgment. Justice Thomas cited his own dissent in *Harris*, writing, “it is ultimately beside the point whether as a matter of statutory interpretation [the machinegun enhancement] is a sentencing factor [A]s a constitutional matter, because it establishes a harsher range of punishments, it must be treated as an element of a separate, aggravated offense that is submitted to a jury and proved beyond a reasonable doubt.”

***Chambers v. United States*, 555 U.S. 122 (2009).**

The Supreme Court, in a 9-0 decision, reversed the Seventh Circuit’s opinion upholding the district court’s conclusion that the defendant’s prior offense of failure to report for periodic incarceration qualified as a “violent felony” for purposes of the ACCA. Justice Breyer authored the opinion; Justice Alito wrote a separate concurring opinion, in which Justice Thomas joined.

The ACCA, 18 U.S.C. § 924(e), requires a 15-year minimum term of imprisonment if an individual convicted of being a felon in possession of a firearm has three prior convictions “for a violent felony or a serious drug offense, or both” The issue before the district court was whether the defendant’s prior conviction for failing to report to a penal institution qualified as a “violent felony” as that term is used in the ACCA because it “otherwise involve[d] conduct that presents a serious potential risk of physical injury to another.” The district court held that the failure to report was a type of escape, which qualified as a violent felony under the ACCA. The Seventh Circuit affirmed this classification, and the Supreme Court granted review in light of conflicting case law on this point among the circuits.

The Court reaffirmed the use of the categorical approach in applying the ACCA, stating that “[t]he nature of the behavior that likely underlies a statutory phrase matters in this respect.” The Court referred back to its opinion in *Shepard v. United States*, 544 U.S. 13 (2005), in which it examined a Massachusetts statute that combined various breaking and entering offenses into one section and “found that the behavior underlying, say, breaking into a building, differs so significantly from the behavior underlying, say, breaking into a vehicle, that for ACCA purposes a sentencing court must treat the two as different crimes.” The Court took a similar approach to the Illinois statute at issue, separating the “failure to report” sections of the statute from the sections involving escape from secured custody or from the physical custody of a law enforcement officer on one hand, and the failure to abide by conditions of home detention on the other. For ACCA purposes, then, the Court said, the Illinois statute involved “at least two separate crimes”: escape from se-

cured custody or physical custody of a law enforcement officer, which would qualify as a violent felony; and failure to report, which would not qualify as a violent felony. The Court further observed that the statute (1) “lists escape and failure to report separately (in its title and its body);” and (2) “places the behaviors in two different felony classes (Class Two and Class Three) of different degrees of seriousness.”

As so defined, the Court held that the crime of failure to report does not qualify as a violent felony under the ACCA:

Conceptually speaking, the crime amounts to a form of inaction, a far cry from the “purposeful, ‘violent,’ and ‘aggressive’ conduct” potentially at issue when an offender uses explosives against property, commits arson, burgles a dwelling or residence, or engages in certain forms of extortion. [*Begay v. United States*, 553 U.S. 137, 146 (2008)] (slip op., at 7). While an offender who fails to report must of course be doing something at the relevant time, there is no reason to believe that the something poses a serious potential risk of physical injury. Cf. *James [v. United States]*, 550 U.S. [192], at 203–204. To the contrary, an individual who fails to report would seem unlikely, not likely, to call attention to his whereabouts by simultaneously engaging in additional violent and unlawful conduct.

In so holding, the Court rejected the government’s argument “that a failure to report reveals the offender’s special, strong aversion to penal custody” and that this aversion suggests that this presents a serious potential risk of physical injury. The Court disagreed, citing a Commission report that it said “helps provide a conclusive, negative answer” to the question of whether this connection exists. The Court discussed the information provided in the report, concluding that it “strongly supports the intuitive belief that failure to report does not involve a serious potential risk of physical injury.” As a result, the Court reversed the Seventh Circuit’s judgment and remanded the case.

Justice Alito, joined by Justice Thomas, wrote a separate concurring opinion, noting a continuing disagreement with the use of the categorical approach in these cases, but recognizing the precedential value of earlier cases on the issue. Additionally, Justice Alito emphasized the view that action from Congress is required to properly address the issue.

***Spears v. United States*, 555 U.S. 261 (2009).**

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 per curiam opinion, granted certiorari and summarily reversed and remanded this crack cocaine case to the Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals. Justice Kennedy disagreed with this approach, preferring to grant review and schedule the case for oral argument. Justice Thomas dissented without comment, and Chief Justice Roberts, joined by Justice Alito, wrote a dissenting opinion.

The defendant was convicted of conspiring to distribute crack and powder cocaine; in determining his sentence, the district court declined to impose a sentence within the guideline range, concluding that the 100:1 crack to powder ratio inherent in that range produced

too long a sentence. Instead, the district court determined what the defendant's guideline range would be if the drug guideline contained a 20:1 crack to powder ratio, and imposed a sentence near the middle of that range. The en banc Eighth Circuit, prior to the Supreme Court's opinion in *Kimbrough*, held that this sentence was unreasonable because, in its view, 18 U.S.C. § 3553(a) and *Booker* did not permit district courts to substitute a different ratio. The Supreme Court concluded that this decision was inconsistent with its opinion in *Kimbrough*.

Discussing *Kimbrough*, the Supreme Court explained that it “holds that with respect to the crack cocaine Guidelines, a categorical disagreement with and variance from the Guidelines is not suspect.” In fact, the Court said, this “was indeed the point of *Kimbrough*: a recognition of district courts' authority to vary from the crack cocaine Guidelines based on policy disagreement with them, and not simply based on an individualized determination that they yield an excessive sentence in a particular case.” It necessarily follows from this authority, the Court held, that a district court also has authority to substitute “a different ratio which, in his judgment, corrects the disparity.” The Court noted that, in this case, the election of the 20:1 ratio “was based upon two well-reasoned decisions by other courts, which themselves reflected the Sentencing Commission's expert judgment that a 20:1 ratio would be appropriate in a mine-run case.”

Chief Justice Roberts, in dissent, expressed disagreement with the Court's decision to summarily reverse the Eighth Circuit's opinion, though acknowledging that the majority's holding “may well” follow from *Kimbrough*.

***Begay v. United States*, 553 U.S. 137 (2008).**

The Supreme Court, in a 6-3 opinion, held that a conviction for felony driving under the influence (DUI) is not a “violent felony” that can trigger the mandatory 15-year minimum under the ACCA. Justice Breyer wrote for the majority, in which Chief Justice Roberts and Justices Stevens, Kennedy, Souter, and Ginsburg joined. Justice Scalia, writing separately, concurred in the judgment; Justice Alito, joined by Justices Souter and Thomas, dissented.

The Court was asked to construe the “residual clause” of 18 U.S.C. § 924(e)(2)(B)(ii), which defines a “violent felony” as, inter alia, a crime punishable by more than one year's imprisonment that “is burglary, arson, or extortion, involves use of explosives, or otherwise involves conduct that presents a serious potential risk of physical injury to another.” The petitioner challenged the enhancement of his sentence on the basis of the prior DUI, arguing that the “otherwise” clause of the above provision was not intended to encompass DUI. The government argued that, because DUI presents a serious potential risk of physical injury to another, it falls within the scope of the statute and therefore qualified the petitioner for the enhanced sentence. The district court accepted the government's view of the statute and applied the enhancement, and the court of appeals upheld the sentence.

The Supreme Court concluded that the lower courts had erroneously construed the statute, holding that a prior conviction for DUI should not expose a defendant to the 15-year mandatory minimum. The Court began with the presumption that “the lower courts were right in concluding that DUI involves conduct that ‘presents a serious potential risk of physical injury to another.’” The Court then faced the issue of why Congress included the enumerated offenses (burglary, arson, extortion, and offenses involving “use of explosives”) in the provision. The Court rejected the government’s argument that the examples were intended “to demonstrate no more than the degree of risk sufficient to bring a crime within the statute’s scope,” concluding that “the examples are so far from clear in respect to the degree of risk each poses that it is difficult to accept clarification in respect to degree of risk as Congress’ only reason for including them.” Rather, the Court concluded, “we should read the examples as limiting the crimes . . . to crimes that are roughly similar, in kind as well as in degree of risk posed, to the examples themselves.” The Court held that the legislative history of the ACCA supported this conclusion. Applying this standard, the Court concluded that DUI does not sufficiently resemble the enumerated crimes to bring it within the ambit of the statute. The most significant distinction, according to the Court, is the fact that DUI offenses are essentially strict liability crimes, whereas the enumerated offenses typically involve “purposeful, violent, and aggressive conduct . . . [which] makes it more likely that an offender, later possessing a gun, will use that gun deliberately to harm a victim.”

In a separate concurrence, Justice Scalia followed the analysis set forth in his dissent in *James v. United States*, a case from the prior term in which the Court addressed whether attempted burglary fell within the statute. Under this analysis, Justice Scalia concluded that, without further evidence, he could not find that DUI “pose[s] at least as serious a risk of physical injury to another as burglary” and that the rule of lenity therefore required the conclusion that the defendant’s sentence could not be enhanced under the ACCA.

In dissent, Justice Alito argued that the text of the statute requires only the analysis of whether the offense in question presents a serious risk of physical injury to another, and concluded that the DUI in this case did pose such a risk.

***Greenlaw v. United States*, 554 U.S. 237 (2008).**

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 opinion, held that an appeals court was not permitted to order an increase in a defendant’s sentence where the government did not appeal the sentence. Justice Ginsburg wrote for the majority, in which Chief Justice Roberts and Justices Scalia, Kennedy, Souter and Thomas joined. Justice Breyer wrote separately, concurring in the judgment. Justice Alito dissented; Justice Stevens joined the dissent in full and Justice Breyer joined it in part.

The petitioner was convicted of seven counts of an eight-count indictment arising out of his participation in a crack cocaine trafficking scheme. The charges included two section 924(c) counts; the district court, in direct contravention of prior Supreme Court precedent, held over government objection that the second count was not considered a “second or subsequent conviction” because the two counts were charged in the same indictment. As a

result, the district court erroneously imposed a sentence of 442 months' imprisonment, which fell below the required mandatory minimum of 622 months' imprisonment. Nevertheless, the defendant appealed the sentence; in defending the sentence, the government noted that the sentence was erroneously low, but did not file a cross-appeal of the error. The Eighth Circuit, relying on the "plain error" rule set forth in Fed. R. Crim. P. 52(b), vacated the sentence and remanded to the district court with instructions that it impose the statutorily mandated sentence. The defendant then sought rehearing and rehearing en banc, and the petitions were summarily denied. The defendant and the United States agreed that the appeals court erred in vacating and remanding the sentence; therefore, the Court invited an amicus brief in support of the Eighth Circuit's position.

The majority opinion began by noting the general "principle of party presentation" that characterizes the United States' adversary system in which courts "rely on the parties to frame the issues for decision" and themselves play "the role of neutral arbiter of matters the parties present." Derived from this principle is the "cross-appeal rule," which the Court described as an "unwritten but longstanding rule" that "an appellate court may not alter a judgment to benefit a nonappealing party." The Court noted the split among the circuits regarding the question of whether this rule is "jurisdictional," and therefore not subject to exception, or a "rule of practice" to which courts may create exceptions. As in previous cases, the Court declined to resolve the circuit split, concluding that resolving the issue was not necessary to deciding the case at bar.

The Court discussed 18 U.S.C. § 3742(b), which provides that the government may not proceed with an appeal of a criminal case "without the personal approval of the Attorney General, the Solicitor General, or a deputy solicitor general designated by the Solicitor General." The Court concluded that "[i]t would severely undermine Congress' instruction were appellate judges to 'sally forth' on their own motion . . . to take up errors adverse to the Government when the designated Department of Justice officials have not authorized an appeal from the sentence the trial court imposed." The Court said that "[t]hat measure should garner the Judiciary's full respect." The Court then addressed the relationship between Fed. R. Crim. P. 52(b) and the cross-appeal rule, concluding that no plain-error exception to the cross-appeal rule existed where the error was to the detriment of the government in a criminal appeal.

The Court then rejected the arguments of amicus supporting the Eighth Circuit's position. In so doing, the Court discussed at some length the argument that 18 U.S.C. § 3742, the part of the SRA dealing with appellate review standards, supports the Eighth Circuit's judgment. The argument relies on a comparison of section 3742(f)(1) and (f)(2); the former sets the standard of review for "sentences imposed 'in violation of law' and Guideline application errors" and the latter sets the standard of review for "sentences 'outside the applicable Guideline range.'" For sentences outside the range, the provision specifies that remand is proper "only where a departure from the Federal Sentencing Guidelines harms the appellant;" for sentences that are "imposed 'in violation of law'" or that result from an erroneous guideline application, no limit is specified. "The inference amicus draws from this distinction is that Congress intended to override the cross-appeal rule for sentences controlled by § 3742(f)(1), i.e., those imposed 'in violation of law' (or incorrectly applying the Guidelines),

but not for Guideline departure errors, the category covered by § 3742(f)(2).” The Court rejected this interpretation, instead concluding that, since the cross-appeal rule was well-settled at the time of the SRA, “Congress was aware of the cross-appeal rule, and framed § 3742 expecting that the new provision would operate in harmony with the ‘inveterate and certain’ bar to enlarging judgments in favor of an appellee who filed no cross-appeal.” In support of its interpretation, the Court noted that earlier crime control legislation had included a specific exception to the cross-appeal rule, which was repealed by the SRA. Additionally, the Court noted that “the construction proposed by amicus would draw a puzzling distinction between incorrect applications of the Sentencing Guidelines . . . and erroneous departures from the Guidelines.” Finally, the Court supported its application of the cross-appeal rule by discussing what it called the “auxiliary” roles of the Federal Rules of Appellate Procedure in ensuring “fair notice and finality” to permit strategic decisions in appellate litigation.

The Court concluded by distinguishing its holding in this case from what it viewed as proper treatment of “sentencing package cases” in which a defendant successfully attacks his sentence on one or some of the multiple counts, and the appellate court vacates “the entire sentence on all counts so that, on remand, the trial court can reconfigure the sentencing plan to assure that it remains adequate to satisfy the sentencing factors in 18 U.S.C. § 3553(a).” This procedure, the Court said, “is not at odds with the cross-appeal rule” and “simply ensures that the sentence ‘will suit not merely the offense but the individual defendant.’”

In concurring in the judgment, Justice Breyer expressed the view that the Eighth Circuit had authority to vacate the sentence, but that its decision to do so in this case was an abuse of discretion because the decision was “based solely on the obviousness of the lower court’s error,” a standard which is explicitly disapproved by prior Supreme Court precedent.

In dissent, Justice Alito expressed the view that the cross-appeal rule is not jurisdictional but rather a rule of practice, and therefore subject to exceptions. Further, Justice Alito argued that application of the rule in this instance is not as important to the interests of justice as the majority believed it is, and would in fact “disserve[] . . . the interest of the Judiciary and the public in correcting grossly prejudicial errors of law that undermine confidence in our legal system.” Because the parties did not brief the issue of whether, if the Eighth Circuit did have such authority, it abused its discretion in the case at bar, Justice Alito noted that he would affirm without reaching the question.

Irizarry v. United States, 553 U.S. 708 (2008).

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 opinion, held that a district court was not required to provide advance notice to the parties when imposing a sentence that represents a variance from the guideline range. Justice Stevens delivered the opinion of the Court, in which Chief

Justice Roberts and Justices Scalia, Thomas, and Alito joined. Justice Thomas filed a concurring opinion. Justice Breyer filed a dissent, in which Justices Kennedy, Souter, and Ginsburg joined.

Petitioner Richard Irizarry pleaded guilty to one count of making a threatening interstate communication, in violation of 18 U.S.C. § 875(c). Irizarry admitted to sending a number of e-mails threatening to kill his ex-wife and her new husband, and that his emails were intended to be true threats to kill or injure them. The PSR described the threatening emails and added that the petitioner had asked another inmate to kill his ex-wife's new husband. As possible grounds for departure, the PSR stated that Irizarry's criminal history category might not adequately reflect his past criminal conduct or the likelihood that he would commit other crimes. The government noted in its response to the PSR that it intended to call Irizarry's ex-wife as a witness at the sentencing hearing. At the hearing, Irizarry's ex-wife testified regarding incidents of domestic violence, the basis for the restraining order against Irizarry, and the threats he had made against her and her family. A special agent of the FBI also testified, describing documents recovered from Irizarry's car indicating that he intended to find his ex-wife and their children. And Irizarry's cellmate testified that Irizarry "was obsessed with the idea of getting rid of" his ex-wife's husband. Irizarry also testified. After listening to the witnesses and hearing from counsel, the district court concluded "that the maximum time that [the defendant] can be incapacitated is what is best for society, and therefore the guideline range . . . is not high enough." The court varied upward from the Guidelines range, and sentenced Irizarry to the statutory maximum term of imprisonment. The court's decision was based on its determination, after hearing Irizarry's ex-wife testify at the sentencing hearing, that Irizarry "will continue . . . in this conduct regardless of what this court does and regardless of what kind of supervision he's under." Following the court's imposition of sentence, Irizarry objected, stating that he "didn't have notice of [the court's] intent to upwardly depart." The court overruled this objection, finding that notice was not required now that the U.S. Sentencing Guidelines are advisory. The Court of Appeals for the Eleventh Circuit affirmed, holding that Rule 32(h) did not apply in this case because the above-Guidelines sentence was a variance, not a departure.

The Supreme Court granted certiorari and affirmed, holding that Rule 32(h) does not apply to a variance from a recommended Guidelines range. The Court's holding rests on its decision in *Booker*, "which invalidated the mandatory features of the Guidelines." According to the Court, "[t]he due process concerns that motivated the Court to require notice in a world of mandatory Guidelines no longer provide a basis for this Court to extend the rule set forth in *Burns* either through an interpretation of Rule 32(h) itself or through Rule 32(i)(1)(c)."

In *Burns*, the Court had previously held that the text of Rule 32 required "'notice of any contemplated departure.'" Justice Souter's dissent, which argued that the text itself did not require notice, discussed due process concerns. The Court in this case stated that its decision in *Burns* "applied in a narrow category of cases," namely, departures "authorized by 18 U.S.C. § 3553(b) which required 'an aggravating or mitigating circumstance of a kind, or to a degree, not adequately taken into consideration by the Sentencing Commission in formulating the guidelines that should result in a sentence different from that described.'"

Such departures had to be based on “the sentencing guidelines policy statements, and official commentary of the Sentencing Commission.” Further, the notice requirement set forth in *Burns* “only applied to the subcategory of those departures that were based on ‘a ground not identified as a ground . . . for departure either in the presentence report or in a pre-hearing submission.’”

Because, post-*Booker*, “there is no longer a limit comparable to the one at issue in *Burns* on the variances from Guidelines ranges,” the Court held that Rule 32(h) does not apply to variances. The Court also voiced more practical concerns that a special notice requirement in such circumstances might “create unnecessary delay.” The Court stated that the proper approach to cases in which “the factual basis for a particular sentence will come as a surprise to a defendant or the Government” is for the “district court to consider granting a continuance when a party has a legitimate basis for claiming that the surprise was prejudicial.”

The dissent (written by Justice Breyer) contended that Rule 32(h) applies to section 3553(a) variances by its terms. The dissent argued that by distinguishing “departures” from “variances” in this context, the Court is “creat[ing] a legal distinction without much of a difference.” According to the dissent, “[s]o-called variances fall comfortably within” the Guidelines’ definition of “departure.” Further, “[v]ariances are also consistent with the ordinary meaning of the term ‘departure,’” and “conceptually speaking, the substantive difference between” the two terms “is nonexistent.” The majority rejected this argument, stating that “[d]eparture’ is a term of art under the Guidelines and refers only to non-Guidelines sentences imposed under the framework set out in the Guidelines.”

The dissent also found the majority’s concerns about delay to be “exaggerated,” noting that in most cases in which the district court varies outside the Guidelines range, the PSR or the parties have identified the ground for the variance. In other cases, the parties might be able to address the “unconsidered” issue at the hearing without the need for a continuance. In all other cases, according to the dissent, “fairness justifies notice regardless” of “burdens and delay.”

United States v. Rodriguez, 553 U.S. 377 (2008).

The Supreme Court, in a 6-3 opinion, held that a previous offense for which the statutory maximum sentence was 10 years’ imprisonment only because the defendant was a repeat offender qualified as a predicate offense under the ACCA. Justice Alito, writing for Chief Justice Roberts and Justices Scalia, Kennedy, Thomas and Breyer concluded that the recidivism enhancement applied under state law should be used to calculate the “maximum term of imprisonment” for ACCA purposes. Justice Souter authored a dissenting opinion, which was joined by Justices Stevens and Ginsburg.

In the case at bar, the defendant had two California burglary convictions and three convictions in Washington state for delivery of a controlled substance. The district court, in sentencing the defendant on a federal felon-in-possession charge, declined to apply the

ACCA enhancement because the defendant was subject to the ten-year maximum in Washington state only because he was a repeat offender; under that law, first offenders face only a statutory maximum of five years. The Ninth Circuit affirmed, noting that its holding on this issue was in conflict with law from the Seventh Circuit and “in tension” with precedent from the Fourth and Fifth Circuits.

The Court held that the government’s interpretation of the ACCA was the correct one, focusing on the statute’s definition of three terms: “offense,” “law,” and “maximum term.” The Court said:

The “offense” in each of the drug-delivery cases was a violation of §§69.50.401(a)(ii)–(iv). The relevant “law” is set out in both that provision, which prescribes a “maximum term” of five years for a first “offense,” and §69.50.408(a), which prescribes a “maximum term” of 10 years for a second or subsequent “offense.” Thus, in this case, the maximum term prescribed by Washington law for at least two of respondent’s state drug offenses was 10 years.

The Ninth Circuit’s approach, the Court said, “contorts ACCA’s plain terms” and is “inconsistent with the way in which the concept of the ‘maximum term of imprisonment’ is customarily understood by participants in the criminal justice process.”

Addressing the respondent’s arguments, the Court rejected the argument that the term “offense” as used in the ACCA should be defined as the elements of the offense, of which a recidivism enhancement (at least of the kind in this case) is not one. The Court held that this reading added a limitation to the ACCA that was not part of the plain language of that statute. Additionally, the court rejected the respondent’s argument that the government’s reading contradicted the “manifest purpose” of the ACCA. The respondent argued that, since the sentence length was used essentially as a proxy for the seriousness of the offense (thus limiting application of the ACCA enhancement to those convicted of more serious prior offenses), including recidivism enhancements skews this measurement. The Court stated that “[t]his argument rests on the erroneous proposition that a defendant’s prior record of convictions has no bearing on the seriousness of an offense,” instead noting that “an offense committed by a repeat offender is often thought to reflect greater culpability and thus to merit greater punishment” and that “a second or subsequent offense is often regarded as more serious because it portends greater future danger and therefore warrants an increased sentence for purposes of deterrence and incapacitation.” Additionally, the Court observed that “the ACCA itself is a recidivist statute,” concluding that this fact “bolster[ed]” its reading of the statute in that “Congress must have had such provisions in mind and must have understood that the ‘maximum penalty prescribed by [state] law’ in some cases would be increased by state recidivism provisions.”

Finally, the Court rejected the respondent’s arguments that the Court’s prior decisions in *LaBonte* and *Taylor*, as well as the policy and practical implications of the government’s reading, support the respondent’s interpretation of the statute. With respect to *LaBonte*, the Court rejected the respondent’s argument that Congress’s decision not to make reference to a “category of offenders” in the ACCA as it did in 18 U.S.C. § 994(h) (which the Court interpreted in *LaBonte*) supported his interpretation of the ACCA. The Court said:

“Respondent does not explain how 18 U.S.C. § 924(e)(2)(A) could have easily been reworded to mirror 28 U.S.C. § 994(h). But in any event, the language used in ACCA, for the reasons explained above, is more than clear enough.” The Court similarly rejected the respondent’s argument that the Court’s decision in *Taylor*, adopting the categorical approach, supported his interpretation, finding “no connection . . . between the issue in *Taylor* . . . and the issue here”

In dissent, Justice Souter argued that the majority “chooses one reading of the [ACCA] over another that would make at least as much sense of the statute’s ambiguous text and would follow the counsel of a tradition of lenity in construing perplexing criminal laws” and that the majority’s interpretation “promises hard times for the trial courts that will have to make the complex sentencing calculations this decision demands.”

Cunningham v. California, 549 U.S. 270 (2007).

The Supreme Court in a 6-3 opinion struck down California’s Determinate Sentencing Law (DSL) on grounds that it violated the Sixth Amendment’s jury trial right, as interpreted by the Supreme Court in the *Apprendi* line of cases. The specific question presented in the case was: “Whether California’s Determinate Sentencing Law, by permitting sentencing judges to impose enhanced sentences based on their determination of facts not found by the jury or admitted by the defendant, violates the Sixth and Fourteenth Amendments.” The Court concluded that it did, holding that the relevant statutory maximum for Sixth Amendment purposes under California’s DSL was the middle term sentence because a judge was required to find no facts beyond the jury’s verdict to impose it. In so holding, the Court overruled a California Supreme Court case, *People v. Black*, 113 P.3d 534 (Cal. 2005), which had determined that the DSL did not violate *Blakely*.

Gall v. United States, 552 U.S. 38 (2007).

In a 7-2 decision, the Supreme Court held that the abuse of discretion standard of review applies equally to all sentences, rejecting the form of proportionality review employed by the court of appeals in the case. Justice Stevens delivered the opinion of the Court, in which Chief Justice Roberts, Justices Scalia, Kennedy, Souter, Ginsburg, and Breyer joined. Justices Scalia and Souter filed concurring opinions, and Justices Thomas and Alito filed dissenting opinions.

The Court held that “while the extent of the difference between a particular sentence and the recommended Guidelines range is surely relevant, the court of appeals must review all sentences—whether inside, just outside, or significantly outside the Guidelines range—under a deferential abuse of discretion standard.” The Court further held that the appellate rule “requiring ‘proportion’ justifications for departures from the Guidelines range is not consistent with” *Booker*. The Court also stated: “Our explanation of ‘reasonableness’

review in the *Booker* opinion made it pellucidly clear that the familiar abuse of discretion standard of review now applies to appellate review of sentencing decisions.”

In reviewing the reasonableness of a sentence outside the range, the Court said, appellate courts “may therefore take the degree of variance into account and consider the extent of a deviation from the Guidelines.” An inappropriate standard of appellate review, the Court said, is one: “that requires ‘extraordinary’ circumstances to justify a sentence outside the Guidelines range.” The Court also disapproved “the use of a rigid mathematical formula that uses the percentage of a departure as the standard for determining the strength of the justifications required for a specific sentence.” The Court reasoned that such an approach would “come too close to creating an impermissible presumption of unreasonableness for sentences outside the Guidelines range.” The Court also stated that the “mathematical approach also suffers from infirmities of application” and “assumes the existence of some ascertainable method of assigning percentages to various justifications.” The Court also observed that these practices “reflect a practice . . . of applying a heightened standard of review to sentences outside the Guidelines range,” which, the Court said, “is inconsistent with the rule that the abuse of discretion standard of review applies to appellate review of all sentencing decisions —whether inside or outside the Guidelines range.”

The Court then discussed the proper analysis for sentencing courts, beginning with proper calculation of the guideline range, followed by consideration of the section 3553(a) factors, and noting that if the court determines that a sentence outside the guideline range is appropriate, the court “must consider the extent of the deviation and ensure that the justification is sufficiently compelling to support the degree of the variance.” The Court went on to state: “We find it uncontroversial that a major departure should be supported by a more significant justification than a minor one.” After making this determination, the Court said, the sentencing court must adequately explain the reasons for the sentence. With respect to appellate review, the Court acknowledged that reviewing courts “will, of course, take into account the totality of the circumstances, including the extent of any variance from the Guidelines range.” In so doing, the Court said, the appellate court “may consider the extent of deviation, but must give due deference to the district court’s decision that the 3553(a) factors, on a whole, justify the variance. The fact that the appellate court might reasonably have concluded that a different sentence was appropriate is insufficient to justify reversal of the district court.”

The Court then concluded that, in the case at bar, the Eighth Circuit failed to give the proper deference to the district court’s decision, and reversed the judgment.

Justice Alito, dissenting, stated that he would hold that “a district court must give the policy decisions that are embodied in the Sentencing Guidelines at least some significant weight” and would therefore affirm the Eighth Circuit’s decision.

James v. United States, 550 U.S. 192 (2007).

The Supreme Court in a 5-4 opinion upheld the Eleventh Circuit's determination that a conviction for attempted burglary under Florida law is a "violent felony" under the ACCA, 18 U.S.C. § 924(e). The issue was whether "overt conduct directed toward unlawfully entering or remaining in a dwelling, with the intent to commit a felony therein, is 'conduct that presents a serious potential risk of physical injury to another.'" The Court said that "[t]he main risk of burglary arises not from the simple physical act or wrongfully entering onto another's property, but rather from the possibility of a face-to-face confrontation between the burglar and a third party - whether an occupant, a police officer, or a bystander - who comes to investigate." Attempted burglary, the Court said, "poses the same kind of risk." The Court also noted that, because attempted burglaries that give rise to convictions are typically those that were interrupted by such a third party, attempted burglaries that are ACCA predicates may actually pose a greater risk than completed burglaries. The Court concluded: "As long as an offense is of a type that, by its nature, presents a serious potential risk of injury to another, it satisfies the requirements of" the ACCA.

Kimbrough v. United States, 552 U.S. 85 (2007).

In a 7-2 opinion, the Court held that a sentencing judge may consider the disparity between the Guidelines' treatment of crack and powder cocaine when determining a sentencing range.

The Court summarized the history of the crack/powder disparity, noting the circumstances surrounding its inclusion in the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1986 (the 1986 Act) and the assumptions that underlay the conclusion that crack offenders should be punished significantly more severely than powder cocaine offenders. The Court observed that, in creating the drug guidelines, the Commission varied from its usual practice of employing an "empirical approach based on data about past sentencing practices," instead adopting the "weight-driven scheme" used in the 1986 Act, and maintaining the 100-to-1 quantity ratio throughout the drug table. The Court then discussed the Commission's subsequent criticisms of the ratio, quoting from the various Commission reports to Congress on the issue, and discussed Congress's previous responses to Commission actions and recommendations. The Court finally discussed the Commission's 2007 amendments, and observed that the Commission considered them "only . . . a partial remedy" for the problems caused by the disparity.

The Court then discussed the status of the relevant guidelines in light of *Booker*, examining the government's arguments that "the Guidelines adopting the 100-to-1 ratio are an exception to the general freedom that sentencing courts have to apply the § 3553(a) factors." The Court first rejected the government's grounding of the proposition in the text of the 1986 Act, "declin[ing] to read any implicit directive into [the] congressional silence" on the appropriate length of sentences not dictated by the mandatory minima and maxima in the 1986 Act itself. The Court observed that "[d]rawing meaning from silence is particularly inappropriate here, for Congress has shown that it knows how to direct sentencing prac-

tices in express terms,” citing 28 U.S.C. § 994(h)’s direction regarding career offenders. Additionally, the Court looked to its earlier decision in *Neal v. United States*, 516 U.S. 284 (1996), in which it held that the Commission’s method for calculating the weight of LSD did not dictate the method used for determining the applicable statutory mandatory minimum.

Next, the Court rejected the government’s argument that Congress’s 1995 disapproval of the Commission’s implementation of the 1:1 ratio in the guidelines “made clear that the 1986 Act required the Commission (and sentencing courts) to take drug quantities into account, and to do so in a manner that respects the 100:1 ratio.” The Court observed that “nothing in Congress’ 1995 reaction to the Commission-proposed 1-to-1 ratio suggested that crack sentences must exceed powder sentences by a ratio of 100 to 1. To the contrary, Congress’ 1995 action required the Commission to recommend a ‘revision of the drug quantity ratio of crack cocaine to powder cocaine.’” The Court further observed that the 2007 amendments result in a crack/powder ratio that is not consistently 100-to-1, but that Congress did not disapprove of the amendments.

Finally, the Court rejected the government’s arguments that consideration of the 100-to-1 ratio would result in unwarranted sentencing disparities in violation of section 3553(a)(6). The two kinds of disparities considered were those arising from “cliffs” in the guideline ranges near and at the mandatory minima, and those arising from different sentencing judges’ opinions regarding the proper relationship between crack offenders and powder cocaine offenders. The Court observed that both are inherent in the guidelines system and that “advisory Guidelines combined with appellate review for reasonableness will . . . not eliminate variations between district courts, but . . . *Booker* recognized that some departures from uniformity were a necessary cost of the remedy [*Booker*] adopted.” The Court finally noted that, if an unwarranted disparity arises, the district court is required to address it under section 3553(a)(6).

The Court then discussed the Commission’s ongoing role in determining sentencing ranges, noting that “while the Guidelines are no longer binding, closer review may be in order when the sentencing judge varies from the Guidelines based solely on the judge’s view that the Guidelines range ‘fails properly to reflect § 3553(a) considerations’ even in a mine-run case.” The Court held that the crack cocaine guidelines “do not exemplify the Commission’s exercise of its characteristic institutional role” and noted the Commission’s opinion that the crack cocaine guidelines produce “disproportionately harsh sanctions.” In light of this, “it would not be an abuse of discretion for a district court to conclude when sentencing a particular defendant that the crack/powder disparity yields a sentence ‘greater than necessary’ to achieve § 3553(a)’s purposes, even in a mine-run case.”

Applying these principles, the Court concluded that the sentence in the instant case did not constitute an abuse of discretion, and reversed the Fourth Circuit’s order vacating the sentence.

In dissent, Justice Thomas expressed his continuing disagreement with the opinion of the *Booker* remedial majority, and Justice Alito wrote that he would vacate the Fourth Circuit’s decision and remand for reconsideration in light of *Booker*’s holding that a court of appeals may not “treat the Guidelines’ policy decisions as binding.”

Logan v. United States, 552 U.S. 23 (2007).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous opinion, held that, under the ACCA, 18 U.S.C. § 924(e)(1), a violent felony offense for which the defendant’s civil rights were never revoked is not excluded from qualifying as a predicate for an enhanced sentence. Such a prior offense, the Court ruled, does not fall into the category of those offenses “for which a person . . . has had civil rights restored.” 18 U.S.C. § 921(a)(20). The case addressed a circuit split arising out of two main cases: *McGrath v. United States*, 60 F.3d 1005 (2d Cir. 1995), holding that such convictions are not excluded, and *United States v. Indelicato*, 97 F.3d 627 (1st Cir. 1996), holding the opposite. In the case at bar, the Seventh Circuit adopted the *McGrath* analysis.

The petitioner pleaded guilty in the Western District of Wisconsin to a violation of 18 U.S.C. § 922(g)(1), the felon-in-possession statute. His sentence was enhanced pursuant to the ACCA, and the district court imposed the relevant 15-year mandatory minimum. The court based the enhancement on the petitioner’s three Wisconsin misdemeanor battery convictions, each punishable by up to three years’ imprisonment. Although these convictions would otherwise count as “violent felonies” for ACCA purposes pursuant to 18 U.S.C. § 921(a)(20)(B), the petitioner argued that, because none of them caused the revocation of his civil rights, they were exempt pursuant to 18 U.S.C. § 921(a)(20). That statute excludes from the relevant definition of a qualifying predicate offense:

Any conviction which has been expunged, or set aside or for which a person has been pardoned or has had civil rights restored . . . unless such pardon, expungement, or restoration of civil rights expressly provides that the person may not ship, transport, possess, or receive firearms.

In support of his position that the term “restored” should be construed to include offenses for which civil rights were never revoked, the petitioner argued inter alia that the *McGrath* construction would contravene the purpose of the statute and produce absurd results. He argued that the purpose of the statute was to expand the reach of the exemption provision and to permit its application to be dictated by state law. He further argued that less serious offenders (i.e., those whose offenses did not result in the revocation of civil rights) would receive harsher treatment than more serious offenders (i.e., those whose offenses did result in revocation, but whose civil rights were later restored). In response, the government relied largely on textualist arguments, emphasizing the plain meaning of the term “restored” and its implication that something never lost may not be restored.

The Supreme Court examined Congressional intent, and summarized it as follows:

Congress framed § 921(a)(20) to serve two purposes. It sought to qualify as ACCA predicate offenses violent crimes that a State classifies as misdemeanors yet punishes by a substantial term of imprisonment, i.e., more than two years. Congress also sought to defer to a State’s dispensation relieving an offender from disabling effects of a conviction. Had Congress included a retention-of-rights exemption, however, the very misdemeanors it meant to cover would escape ACCA’s reach.

(Internal citations omitted). The Supreme Court further observed that the petitioner’s reading of the statute would also produce absurd or anomalous results, noting that Maine does not revoke any offender’s civil rights, and so offenders who committed the most dangerous offenses in Maine would receive less punishment than offenders who committed less serious offenses in other states. The Supreme Court also noted that Congress must have been aware that allowing state laws, which vary, to dictate application of the ACCA would produce some anomalous results. Ultimately, the Supreme Court held that it had “no warrant” to move beyond the plain language of the provision and observed: “We are not equipped to say what statutory alteration, if any, Congress would have made had its attention trained on offenders who retained civil rights; nor can we recast §921(a)(20) in Congress’ stead.”

Rita v. United States, 551 U.S. 338 (2007).

The Supreme Court, in an 8-1 decision, held that courts of appeals may apply a presumption of reasonableness when reviewing a sentence imposed within the sentencing guideline range, and affirmed the within-guidelines sentence imposed in the case. Writing for the majority, Justice Breyer, joined by Chief Justice Roberts and Justices Stevens, Kennedy, Ginsburg, and Alito, emphasized the close relationship between the guidelines and the section 3553(a) factors.

First, the Court discussed the statutory provisions governing the promulgation of the guidelines and how those provisions mirror the factors that section 3553(a) requires sentencing courts to consider, noting that “the sentencing statutes envision both the sentencing judge and the Commission as carrying out the same basic § 3553(a) objectives, the one, at retail, the other at wholesale.” Second, the Court discussed the process that the Commission used to initially promulgate and subsequently amend the guidelines, concluding that the guidelines “seek to embody the § 3553(a) considerations, both in principle and in practice” and that they “reflect a rough approximation of sentences that might achieve § 3553(a)’s objectives.” In sum, the Court said “the courts of appeals’ “reasonableness” presumption, rather than having independent legal effect, simply recognizes the real-world circumstance that when the judge’s discretionary decision accords with the Commission’s view of the appropriate application of § 3553(a) in the mine run of cases, it is probable that the sentence is reasonable.” The majority also emphasized that circuits are not required to employ a presumption when conducting reasonableness review, and that the presumption is applied on appeal and not by the sentencing judge.

The majority opinion also discussed the procedural issues raised by the advisory guidelines scheme. Specifically, the Court (and in this it was joined by Justices Scalia and Thomas) examined the district court’s statement at sentencing to determine whether it complied with the requirement in section 3553(c) that the judge “state in open court the reasons for its imposition of the particular sentence.” The Court emphasized that the amount of detail required in such a statement would vary depending on the circumstances of the case, but that the district court “should set forth enough to satisfy the appellate court that he has considered the parties’ arguments and has a reasoned basis for exercising his own legal decisionmaking authority.” Further, the Court said, when imposing a within-

guidelines sentence, a brief explanation may be sufficient: “Unless a party contests the Guidelines sentence generally under §3553(a) - that is argues that the Guidelines reflect an unsound judgment, or, for example, that they do not generally treat certain defendant characteristics in the proper way - or argues for departure, the judge normally need say no more.” The Court said that, where such arguments are made, the sentencing judge will typically explain why he has rejected them; it noted again, however, that a brief explanation may be sufficient. The Court approved the sentencing judge’s very brief explanation in sentencing Mr. Rita, noting that the judge had clearly heard and considered the arguments relating to Mr. Rita’s military service, his health issues, and his vulnerability in prison, but “simply found [them] insufficient to warrant a sentence” below the guideline range. On this issue, the Court concluded: “Where a matter is as conceptually simple as in the case at hand and the record makes clear that the sentencing judge considered the evidence and arguments, we do not believe the law requires the judge to write more extensively.”

In dissent, Justice Souter argued that it is impossible, under the current system, to “recognize such a presumption and still retain the full effect of *Apprendi* in aid of the Sixth Amendment guarantee.” In his view, the proper resolution to the tension between the Sixth Amendment jury trial right and Congressional concerns about uniformity would be for Congress to “reenact the Guidelines law to give it the same binding force it originally had, but with provision for jury, not judicial, determination of any fact necessary for a sentence within an upper Guidelines subrange.” Concurring in part and concurring in the judgment, Justice Scalia (with whom Justice Thomas joined), criticized the Court because, he said, “the Court has failed to establish that every sentence which will be imposed under the advisory Guidelines scheme could equally have been imposed had the judge relied upon no facts other than those found by the jury or admitted by the defendant.” In his view, “reasonableness review cannot contain a substantive component at all,” but procedural reasonableness review can provide some sentencing uniformity. Applying this standard, Justices Scalia and Thomas concluded that the sentence imposed in this case was reasonable. Justice Stevens, joined by Justice Ginsburg, concurred, also concluding that the sentence was reasonable, but emphasized that the presumption was a rebuttable one and that even an outside-the-guidelines sentence would be reviewed “under traditional abuse-of-discretion principles.”

Watson v. United States, 552 U.S. 74 (2007).

In a unanimous opinion, the Supreme Court held that, for purposes of 18 U.S.C. § 924(c)(1)(A), a person who receives a firearm in a drugs-for-firearms transaction does not “use” the firearm “during and in relation to ... [a] drug trafficking crime.” The Court observed that a circuit conflict had arisen regarding the construction of the term “use” in this context, and reversed the Fifth Circuit’s ruling in this case, remanding for proceedings consistent with the opinion.

The Court began by noting that section 924(c)(1)(A) prescribes a mandatory minimum sentence for a defendant who “during and in relation to any crime of violence or drug trafficking crime[,] . . . uses or carries a firearm,” but does not define the term “uses.” The court further observed that it had addressed the definition of the term in two earlier cases,

Smith v. United States, 508 U.S. 223 (1993) and *Bailey v. United States*, 516 U.S. 137 (1995). In *Smith*, the Court held that a person who trades a firearm for drugs does “use” the firearm for purposes of the statute; the *Watson* court observed that this ruling relied mostly on the “ordinary or natural meaning” of the term “use” in the context of the statute. In *Bailey*, the Court held that possessing a firearm when the firearm was stored near the scene of drug trafficking did not constitute “use” for purposes of section 924(c)(1). The *Watson* court again observed that this construction relied on the “ordinary or natural” meaning of the term and held that the statute “requires evidence sufficient to show an active employment of the firearm by the defendant, a use that makes the firearm an operative factor in relation to the predicate offense.”

The Court observed that neither *Smith* nor *Bailey* answered the question presented in the case at bar, and stated:

With no statutory definition or definitive clue, the meaning of the verb “uses” has to turn on the language as we normally speak it; there is no other source of a reasonable inference about what Congress understood when writing or what its words will bring to the mind of a careful reader.

(Internal citations omitted.) The Court concluded that “regular speech would not say that” the person in these circumstances had “used” the item received in the barter.

The Court then turned to the government’s arguments for a different construction of the term, rejecting each in turn. The government’s first argument asked the Court to read section 924(c)(1)(A) in conjunction with section 924(d), arguing that the *Smith* court’s observation that section 924(d) supported its reading of 924(c) means that the Court must construe the two provisions to give the same meaning to the term “use” in both sections. The Court rejected this reading of *Smith*, and concluded that the differences between the two provisions render section 924(d) unhelpful in this case. This is because, the Court said, “[section 924(d)] tells us a gun can be ‘used’ in a receipt crime, but not whether both parties to a transfer use the gun, or only one, or which one.” Since the two provisions operate at different levels of specificity, the Court held, construing them differently does not bring them into conflict.

The government’s second argument was, the Court said, essentially a policy argument; the government characterized the ordinary meaning of the statute as leading to “unacceptable asymmetry” with *Smith*. The Court held that if Congress concluded that the asymmetry was unacceptable, it could amend the statute, noting that “law depends on respect for language and would be better served by a statutory amendment . . . than by racking statutory language to cover a policy it fails to reach.”

Justice Ginsburg concurred in the judgment and wrote separately to observe that distinguishing between the two parties to the gun-for-drugs transaction “makes scant sense,” but that she joined the judgment because she had since concluded that *Smith* was wrongly decided and would overrule it, holding that the term “use” in section 924(c)(1) was limited to using the firearm “as a weapon, not . . . in a bartering transaction.”

***Washington v. Recuenco*, 548 U.S. 212 (2006).**

In this 7-2 decision, the Supreme Court reversed the Supreme Court of Washington. The Court held that failure to submit a sentencing factor to the jury is not “structural” error which always invalidates a conviction. Rather, *Blakely* violations may be subject to harmless error review.

Recuenco was convicted of second-degree assault based on the jury’s finding that he was armed with a “deadly weapon.” Rather than requesting the one-year enhancement corresponding to a finding of the involvement of a deadly weapon, the state sought a mandatory three-year enhancement because the defendant was armed with a firearm. Under Washington law, a firearm qualifies as a deadly weapon, but the jury form did not require the jury to make the specific finding that a firearm was used. The trial court found that the weapon was a firearm and imposed the higher penalty. The state conceded before the Washington Supreme Court that a Sixth Amendment violation occurred under *Blakely*. The Washington Supreme Court refused to apply harmless-error analysis to the *Blakely* error, vacated the sentence, and remanded for sentencing based on the deadly weapon enhancement.

In reversing the state court, the Court noted that it has repeatedly recognized that “commission of a constitutional error at trial alone does not entitle a defendant to automatic reversal. Instead, most constitutional errors can be harmless.”

***Shepard v. United States*, 544 U.S. 13 (2005).**

The Supreme Court, in a plurality decision (5-1-2), held that a sentencing court cannot look to police reports in making a “generic burglary” decision under the ACCA.

The ACCA mandated a fifteen-year minimum sentence for any person found to have committed certain federal firearms violations if that person had three prior convictions for “violent felonies.” Congress specified that the term “violent felony” included “burglary,” and the Court in *Taylor v. United States* held that the ACCA’s use of the term “burglary” encompasses only “generic burglary.” A “burglary” was considered a “generic burglary” if three elements were present: “[i] unlawful or unprivileged entry into, or remaining in, [ii] a building or structure, [iii] with intent to commit a crime.” In *Taylor*, the Court stated that a sentencing court, in determining whether a previous trial-based conviction is for a “generic burglary,” can look to the statutory definition, charging documents and jury instructions. *Taylor*, therefore, does not require that recidivism be proved beyond a reasonable doubt for the purposes of sentencing under the ACCA. The Court in *Shepard*, however, did not expand *Taylor* to allow a sentencing court to examine the police record and complaint to determine whether an earlier guilty plea to burglary counts as a “generic burglary,” and thus considered a “violent felony,” for the purposes of sentencing pursuant to the ACCA.

Justice Souter, delivering the opinion of the Court, except as to Part III, concluded that judicial inquiry under the ACCA, as to whether a guilty plea to burglary is a “violent

felony,” “is limited to the terms of the charging document, the terms of a plea agreement or transcript of colloquy between judge and defendant in which the factual basis for the plea was confirmed by the defendant, or to some comparable judicial record of this information.” In Part III of the plurality opinion, Justice Souter attempted to distinguish the situation found in *Shepard* from all other situations where a jury need not find the factor of recidivism beyond a reasonable doubt. Justice Souter, joined by Justice Stevens, Justice Scalia, and Justice Ginsburg, explained that the fact of a prior conviction in the *Shepard* context “is too far removed from the conclusive significance of a prior judicial record” because the sentencing judge would have to “make a disputed finding of fact about what the defendant and the state judge must have understood as the factual basis of the prior plea.”

United States v. Booker, 543 U.S. 220 (2005).

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 decision, held that any fact (other than a prior conviction) which is necessary to support a sentence exceeding the maximum authorized by the facts established by a plea of guilty or a jury verdict must be admitted by the defendant or proved to a jury beyond a reasonable doubt. “The Sixth Amendment, as construed in *Blakely*, does apply to the Sentencing Guidelines.” A separate majority determined that the remedy was to excise two provisions of the SRA, rendering the federal sentencing guidelines advisory.

Booker was convicted of possession with intent to distribute cocaine. The defendant’s criminal history and drug quantity resulted in a recommended guidelines range of 210 to 262 months. The sentencing judge later found, by a preponderance of the evidence, that the defendant possessed a greater amount than the jury found and increased the defendant’s sentence. Booker appealed arguing that the sentence enhancement violated his Sixth Amendment right to a jury trial because it permitted the judge to find facts not admitted by the defendant nor found by the jury. The Seventh Circuit held that the sentence enhancement violated the Sixth Amendment because it limited Booker’s right to have a jury find facts. The court affirmed the conviction but overturned the sentence and ruled that the Guidelines violated the Sixth Amendment in cases where they limit the defendant’s right to a jury trial.

The Government raised two issues before the Supreme Court to determine “whether the *Apprendi* line of cases applies to the Sentencing Guidelines and, if so, what portions of the guidelines remain in effect.” The Court noted that in *Apprendi* it expressly declined to consider the Guidelines because a statute, not guidelines, was considered in that case. However in *Blakely* the Court stated that “there was no distinction of the constitutional significance between the federal sentencing guidelines and the Washington procedures at issue.” “The availability of a departure in specified circumstances does not avoid the constitutional issue, just as it did not in *Blakely* itself.” The Court rejected the government’s argument that there would only be a Sixth Amendment violation if the final sentence exceeded the applicable statutory maximum for the offense. The Court concluded that application of the Federal Sentencing Guidelines violated the Sixth Amendment. Having rejected that argument, the Court answered the question of remedy “by finding the provision of the federal

sentencing statute that makes the Guidelines mandatory, 18 U.S.C.A. § 3553(b)(1) (Supp. IV), incompatible with today’s constitutional holding.”

In a separate opinion by Justice Breyer, joined by Chief Justice Rehnquist, Justice O’Connor, Justice Kennedy, and Justice Ginsberg, the Court concluded that “the two provisions of the [SRA] that have the effect of making the Guidelines mandatory must be invalidated in order to allow the statute to operate in a manner consistent with congressional intent.” The Court concluded that 18 U.S.C.A. §§ 3553(b)(1) and 3742(e), which depend upon the Guidelines’ mandatory nature, must be severed and excised. “So modified, the Federal Sentencing Reform Act of 1984 . . . makes the Guidelines effectively advisory.” With this modification, the sentencing courts would be required to consider Guidelines ranges, but also be permitted to tailor the sentence in light of other statutory concerns.

Four dissenting opinions (dissenting in part) were filed. Justice Stevens dissented in part, joined by Justice Souter and Justice Scalia, who joined except for Part III and footnote 17 of the dissenting opinion. Justice Stevens addressed the Court’s decision to excise and sever the two statutory provisions which made the application of the Guidelines mandatory. Justice Stevens asserted that the Court’s decision to do so represented a policy choice that Congress had considered and decisively rejected. “While it is perfectly clear that Congress has ample power to repeal these two statutory provisions if it so desires, this Court should not make that choice on Congress’ behalf.” Justice Stevens recognized the Court’s action as an “extraordinary exercise of authority” that violated “the tradition of judicial restraint that has heretofore limited our power to overturn validly enacted statutes.”

Justice Scalia wrote a dissent, dissenting in part to the excision of the provision governing appellate review of sentences, 18 U.S.C. § 3742(e), which had, as its sole purpose, enabling the appellate courts to enforce conformity with the Guidelines. Justice Scalia asserted that “if the Guidelines are no longer binding, one would think that the provision designed to ensure compliance with them would, in its totality, be inoperative.”

Justice Thomas’s dissent concluded that the presumption of severability had not been overcome in *Booker*. According to Justice Thomas, the question remains “whether the unconstitutional application of certain statutory provisions and guidelines applied to *Booker* are severable from the constitutional applications of the same provisions to other defendants.”

Justice Breyer wrote a dissent, joined by Chief Justice Rehnquist, Justice O’Connor, and Justice Kennedy, disagreeing with the Court’s conclusion requiring a jury, not a judge, to find sentencing facts. Justice Breyer stated that he found “nothing in the Sixth Amendment that forbids a sentencing judge to determine (as judges at sentencing have traditionally determined) the manner or way in which the offender carried out the crime of which he was convicted.” “The upshot is that the Court’s Sixth Amendment decisions —*Apprendi*, *Blakely*, and today’s— deprive Congress and state legislatures of authority that is constitutionally theirs.”

Blakely v. Washington, 542 U.S. 296 (2004).

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 decision, held that the defendant's sentence violated his Sixth Amendment right to a jury trial, because the sentencing judge increased his sentence above the prescribed guideline range based on an aggravating factor found by the judge and not admitted by the defendant in his guilty plea. The State of Washington charged defendant Ralph Blakely with first-degree kidnaping. Blakely pleaded guilty to second-degree kidnaping for which the statutory maximum sentence was ten years of imprisonment. Under the state's sentencing guidelines, the "standard sentencing range" or presumptive sentence for the kidnaping charge was 49 to 53 months. Under the Washington guidelines, the sentencing court must impose a sentence within the standard sentencing range, unless the court finds aggravating or mitigating circumstances by a preponderance of the evidence that justify an "exceptional sentence." After conducting a sentencing hearing, the judge found that Blakely acted with deliberate cruelty, one of the specified statutory aggravating factors, and sentenced Blakely to 90 months of imprisonment. The Supreme Court found that this increase beyond the presumptive range was unconstitutional.

The Court held that any fact, other than a prior conviction, that raises the penalty beyond the prescribed statutory maximum must be submitted to a jury and proved beyond a reasonable doubt." The Court defined "statutory maximum" as the "maximum sentence a judge may impose solely on the basis of the facts reflected in the jury verdict or admitted by the defendant." In other words, the Court said, "the relevant 'statutory maximum' is not the maximum sentence a judge may impose after finding additional facts, but the maximum he may impose without any additional findings" beyond what the jury found in its verdict or what was admitted by the defendant. The majority did not address the application of the case to the federal sentencing guidelines.

Three dissenting opinions were filed. Justice O'Connor wrote a dissent joined by Justice Breyer in its entirety, and by Chief Justice Rehnquist and Justice Kennedy, except as to the section addressing the possible impact on the federal guidelines. Justice O'Connor warned that the majority's opinion may bring an end to 20 years of sentencing reform. Prior to the enactment of the Washington guidelines, there was unguided discretion that resulted in racial disparity and a general lack of uniformity in sentencing. The new system "placed meaningful restraints on discretion" and eliminated parole. Justice O'Connor noted that the sentencing system sought uniformity, transparency, and accountability, and that it had largely met those goals. Justice O'Connor also wrote of the far-reaching impact the decision could have on other states' sentencing guideline systems and the federal sentencing guidelines.

Justice Kennedy wrote a brief separate dissent joined by Justice Breyer. Justice Kennedy described sentencing as a collaborative process between the legislatures and the courts. Justice Kennedy cited *Mistretta v. United States*, 488 U.S. 361 (1989), as recognizing that this interchange among the branches of government "is consistent with the Constitution's structural protections."

Justice Breyer also wrote separately in dissent joined by Justice O'Connor. Justice Breyer stated that this holding "threatens the fairness of our traditional criminal justice

system” and distorts historical sentencing practices. Justice Breyer concluded that, as a result of this opinion, legislatures will have several options for sentencing systems in the future, but that these alternative approaches are problematic because they shift power to the prosecutor, they lack uniformity, or they are too complex and expensive to implement. Lastly, Justice Breyer questioned whether it will be possible to distinguish the federal sentencing guidelines from the Washington system.

***Leocal v. Ashcroft*, 543 U.S. 1 (2004).**

In this unanimous opinion, the Supreme Court reversed the Eleventh Circuit’s decision in *Le v. United States Attorney General*, 196 F.3d 1352 (11th Cir. 1999), which held that a conviction under the Florida DUI statute qualified as a crime of violence. In doing so, the Court resolved a split among the circuits on the question of whether state DUI offenses similar to Florida’s, which either require only a showing of negligence or do not have a *mens rea* requirement, can qualify as a crime of violence. The petitioner, a Haitian citizen, was a lawful permanent resident of the United States convicted under Florida law of DUI and causing serious bodily injury. He was ordered deported after his DUI conviction was classified as a “crime of violence” under 18 U.S.C. § 16 and therefore deemed an “aggravated felony” under the Immigration and Nationality Act (INA). The Supreme Court disagreed. “Many states have enacted similar statutes, criminalizing DUI causing serious bodily injury or death without requiring proof of any mental state, or, in some states, appearing to require only proof that the person acted negligently in operating the vehicle.” “The critical aspect of § 16(a) is that a crime of violence is one involving the “use . . . of physical force against the person or property of another.” “The key phrase in § 16(a) —the ‘use . . . of physical force against the person or property of another’— most naturally suggests a higher degree of intent than negligent or merely accidental conduct.” The Court concluded that petitioner’s DUI offense, a third-degree felony, did not require proof of any particular mental state and thus would not qualify as a “crime of violence” under sections 16(a) or (b). However, the Court did conclude that an underlying offense requiring proof of a reckless use of force would qualify as a crime of violence under 18 U.S.C. § 16.

***Schriro v. Summerlin*, 542 U.S. 348 (2004).**

The Supreme Court held that *Ring v. Arizona*, 536 U.S. 584 (2002), did not apply retroactively to death penalty cases already final on direct review, because it was a procedural rule rather than a substantive rule and because *Ring* did not announce a watershed rule of criminal procedure. When the Supreme Court announced *Ring*, it established a new rule that applied to all criminal cases still pending on direct review. The Court held that *Ring* established a procedural rule because it allocated decisionmaking authority by demanding that a jury rather than a judge make findings regarding aggravating factors in death penalty cases. However, new rules of procedure generally do not apply retroactively to cases already final on direct review. The exception is that “watershed rules of criminal procedure” that implicate the fundamental fairness and accuracy of the criminal proceeding

will be applied retroactively. The Court did not find that this was a watershed rule because judicial factfinding did not so seriously diminish the accuracy of the proceeding so as to create an impermissibly large risk of punishing conduct inappropriately.

Justice Breyer filed a dissenting opinion joined by Justices Stevens, Souter, and Ginsberg. The dissenters view the right to have jury sentencing in the capital context as both a “fundamental aspect of constitutional liberty and also significantly more likely to produce an accurate assessment of whether death is the appropriate sentence.” Justice Breyer states that juries are more capable of making community-based value judgments that are important in death penalty cases, that retroactivity assures more uniformity among similarly situated defendants, that death is different so greater accuracy is needed, and that giving this rule retroactive effect would not inordinately burden the criminal justice system because of the small number of prisoners affected (approximately 110 persons on death row).

***Harris v. United States*, 536 U.S. 545 (2002) (overruled by *Alleyne v. United States*, 570 U.S. 99 (2013)).**

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 decision, held that as a matter of statutory construction, that “brandishing” is a sentencing factor to be determined by the judge. This case represents the Court’s continued effort in distinguishing between offense elements and sentencing enhancements. In reaching its holding, the Court reiterated that the rule announced in *Apprendi v. New Jersey*, 530 U.S. 466 (2000), accords with its prior decision in *McMillan v. Pennsylvania*, 477 U.S. 79 (1986). In *Apprendi*, the Court stated that any fact, other than a prior conviction, that increases the penalty for a crime beyond the prescribed statutory maximum must be submitted to a jury and proved beyond a reasonable doubt. *Apprendi*, 530 U.S. at 490. *McMillan* established that statutory provisions that subject defendants to increased mandatory minimum penalties are sentencing factors that may be determined by the sentencing judge through a preponderance of the evidence.

Harris was arrested for selling illegal narcotics out of his pawnshop with an uncoiled semiautomatic pistol at his side. He was charged with violating federal drug and firearm laws, including 18 U.S.C. § 924(c). In drafting the indictment, the Government proceeded on the assumption that section 924(c)(1)(A) sets forth a single crime and that brandishing is a sentencing factor, to be determined by the judge. Thus, brandishing was not charged in the indictment. Harris was found guilty after a bench trial. The presentence report recommended a seven-year minimum sentence because he had brandished the firearm. The district court agreed and sentenced Harris accordingly and the Fourth Circuit affirmed.

The Supreme Court first considered the statutory construction of 18 U.S.C. § 924(c) which begins with a principal paragraph listing the basic elements of the offense of carrying or using a gun during and in relation to a violent crime or drug offense. The statute then lists subsections that explain how the defendant shall be sentenced. Finding that this struc-

ture sufficiently delineates between the offense elements and sentencing factors (which traditionally involve special features of the manner in which the basic crime was perpetrated), the Court held that Congress did not intend brandishing to be an offense element.

After examining several important recent decisions, the Court ultimately concluded that subjecting defendants to increased mandatory minimum penalties via preponderance of the evidence does not violate *Apprendi*. The Court noted that *Apprendi* said that “any fact that would extend a defendant’s sentence beyond the maximum authorized by the jury’s verdict would have been considered an aggravated crime . . . by those who framed the Bill of Rights.” The Court concluded that facts increasing the mandatory minimum (but not extending the sentence beyond the statutory maximum) are different in that “the jury has authorized the judge to impose the minimum with or without the [fact] finding” at sentencing.

***Ring v. Arizona*, 536 U.S. 584 (2002).**

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 decision, held that the Sixth Amendment entitles defendants in capital cases to a jury determination of any aggravating factors that increase their maximum punishment from life imprisonment to death. The Court overruled its prior decision in *Walton v. Arizona*, 497 U.S. 639 (1990), which had upheld the Arizona state capital sentencing scheme. In *Ring*, the jury found the defendant guilty of first-degree felony murder. The sentencing judge then conducted a sentencing hearing and found the existence of aggravating factors beyond a reasonable doubt, and sentenced the defendant to death. The Supreme Court noted that the defendant could not receive the death penalty unless the court found the existence of at least one aggravating factor beyond a reasonable doubt; therefore, such a finding increases the maximum punishment from life imprisonment to death. The Court held that, because Arizona’s enumerated aggravating factors operate as the “functional equivalent of an element of a greater offense,” the Sixth Amendment requires that they be found by a jury.

Justice Scalia filed a concurring opinion, joined by Justice Thomas. Justice Scalia noted that he never agreed with the line of cases beginning with *Furman v. Georgia*, 408 U.S. 238 (1972), that invalidated the death penalty and caused states to enact death penalty schemes with aggravating factors. His concurrence in this case was based on the holding of *Apprendi* that the jury must find facts that are used to increase the sentence beyond what is authorized by the jury’s verdict.

Justice Kennedy filed a brief concurrence noting that he still believed *Apprendi* was wrongly decided, but that *Apprendi* and *Walton* cannot stand together. Justice Breyer filed an opinion concurring in the judgment but not the opinion of the majority because he believes that jury sentencing in capital cases is mandated by the Eighth Amendment and not by the Sixth Amendment analysis of the majority (Justice Breyer dissented in *Apprendi*). Justice Breyer discussed the continued difficulty of justifying capital punishment and concluded that the “danger of unwarranted imposition of the penalty cannot be avoided” unless a jury makes the determination.

Justice O'Connor, joined by Chief Justice Rehnquist, filed a dissenting opinion. Justice O'Connor stated that the decision in *Apprendi* "was a serious mistake." Justice O'Connor did not agree that the Constitution requires that any fact that increases the maximum penalty must be treated as an element and found by a jury. Justice O'Connor also discussed the increase in habeas filings and the disruption of the criminal justice system caused by *Apprendi*.

United States v. Cotton, 535 U.S. 625 (2002).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, held that defects in an indictment do not automatically require reversal of a conviction or sentence. The respondents were charged with conspiring to distribute and to possess with intent to distribute a "detectable" amount of powder and cocaine base. The respondents were later convicted and received a sentence based on the district court's drug quantity finding of at least 50 grams of cocaine base. The district court did not sentence the defendants under 21 U.S.C. § 841(b)(1)(C), which would have provided a statutory maximum penalty of 20 years, but instead implicated the enhanced penalties of 21 U.S.C. § 841(b) which provided a sentence up to life imprisonment. Two of the respondents were sentenced to 30 years of imprisonment, while those remaining received life imprisonment.

The respondents argued on appeal that the court was deprived of jurisdiction because the indictment was defective due to the omission of a fact that enhanced the statutory maximum. They further argued that their sentences were invalid under *Apprendi* because the issue of drug quantity was neither alleged in the indictment nor before the jury. The Fourth Circuit reviewed for plain error and held that the district court had no jurisdiction to sentence based on information not contained in the indictment. The Supreme Court reversed the holding of the Fourth Circuit and noted that the reasoning of the Fourth Circuit was based on *Ex parte Bain*, 121 U.S. 1 (1887), a nineteenth century case that addresses the jurisdiction of the courts to interpret a revised indictment.

The Court here overruled *Bain* and held that (1) a defective indictment does not by its nature deprive a court of jurisdiction, and (2) the omission from a federal indictment of a fact that enhances the statutory maximum sentence does not justify a Court of Appeals' vacating the enhanced sentence, even though the defendant did not object in the trial court.

Buford v. United States, 532 U.S. 59 (2001).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, held that the appellate court properly reviewed the district's court's "functional consolidation" decision deferentially in light of the fact-bound nature of the decision, the comparatively greater expertise of the district court, and the limited value of uniform Court of Appeals precedent. The Court reviewed the standard of review that applies when determining whether an offender's prior convictions are

consolidated, thus “related,” for the purposes of sentencing. The defendant pleaded guilty to armed bank robbery, a crime of violence, but he also had five prior state convictions, four of which were robberies. The four bank robberies were considered related because the court found that the robberies had been the subject of a single criminal indictment and the defendant had pleaded guilty to all four at the same time in the same court. The fifth conviction was for a drug crime. The defendant argued that all five priors, including the drug crime, were related because they were “functionally consolidated,” without the entry of a formal order of consolidation, because the sentencing judge was the same, and all five cases were sentenced at the same time in a single proceeding. The government disagreed, stating that the drug offense was handled by a different judge, a different state prosecutor, and with a separate judgement. The district court ruled against the defendant and held that the drug case was unrelated to the robbery cases and had not been consolidated for sentencing, either formally or functionally. The Seventh Circuit stated that in this case “the standard of appellate review may be dispositive” and elected to review the district court’s decision “deferentially” rather than “de novo.”

Apprendi v. New Jersey, 530 U.S. 466 (2000).

In a 5-4 decision, the Supreme Court found unconstitutional a New Jersey statute that increased the maximum penalty of the defendant’s weapon possession offense from 10 to 20 years based on the trial court’s finding by a preponderance of evidence that the defendant committed a “hate crime.” “Other than the fact of a prior conviction, any fact that increases the penalty for a crime beyond the prescribed statutory maximum must be submitted to a jury, and proved beyond a reasonable doubt.”

The Court addressed the issue of whether constitutional protections of due process and rights to notice and jury trial entitled the defendant to have a jury, not a judge, decide bias beyond a reasonable doubt. The Court rejected the State’s three primary arguments that (1) the biased purpose was a traditional sentencing factor of motive; (2) *McMillan* authorizes a court to find a traditional sentencing factor by a preponderance of evidence; and (3) under *Almendarez-Torres*, a judge may sentence beyond the maximum. Merely labeling a provision a sentencing factor is not dispositive: “The defendant’s intent in committing a crime is perhaps as close as one might hope to come to a core criminal offense ‘element.’” Recognizing that application of the statute could potentially double the defendant’s sentence, the Court rejected the State’s reliance on *McMillan*: “When a judge’s finding based on a mere preponderance of the evidence authorizes an increase in the maximum punishment, it is appropriately characterized as ‘a tail which wags the dog of the substantive offense.’” In rejecting the State’s reliance on *Almendarez-Torres*, the Court distinguished the recidivist provision from the “biased purpose inquiry, [which] goes precisely to what happened in commission of the offense.” The Court further asserted that “there is a vast difference between accepting the validity of a prior judgment of conviction entered in a proceeding in which the defendant had . . . the right to require the prosecutor to prove guilt beyond a reasonable doubt, and allowing the judge to find the required fact under a lesser standard of

proof.” The Court also noted that “it is arguable that *Almendarez-Torres* was incorrectly decided, and that a logical application of our reasoning today should apply if the recidivist issue were contested,” but that revisiting that decision was not necessary to resolve the case.

In a concurring opinion, Justice Thomas, joined by Justice Scalia, asserted that “the Constitution requires a broader rule than the Court adopts If a fact is by law the basis for imposing or increasing punishment—for establishing or increasing the prosecution’s entitlement—it is an element.”

Justice O’Connor, joined by the Chief Justice, Justice Kennedy, and Justice Breyer dissented, finding that the majority’s “increase in maximum penalty rule” is “unsupported by history and case law” and rests on a “meaningless formalism.” The dissent asserted that the majority was overruling *McMillan*, and that as a result there will be a significant impact on state and federal determinate sentencing schemes. “The actual principle underlying the Court’s decision may be that any fact (other than prior conviction) that has the effect, in real terms, of increasing the maximum punishment beyond an otherwise applicable range must be submitted to a jury and proved beyond a reasonable doubt. The principle would thus apply not only to schemes . . . under which a factual determination exposes the defendant to a sentence beyond the prescribed statutory maximum, but also to all determinate-sentencing schemes in which the length of a defendant’s sentence within the statutory range turns on specific factual determinations.”

***Castillo v. United States*, 530 U.S. 120 (2000).**

The Supreme Court, in an 8-1 decision, held that a statute prohibiting the use or carrying of a “firearm” in relation to a crime of violence that subsequently increased the penalty when the weapon used or carried was a “machinegun,” used the word “machinegun” and similar words to state an element of a separate, aggravated crime. The Court stated that the statute’s structure strongly favored the “new crime” interpretation. The Court further stated that the structure of the statute seems to suggest that the difference between the act of using or carrying a “firearm” and the act of using or carrying a “machinegun” is both substantive and substantial—a conclusion that supports a “separate crime” interpretation. Finally, the Court determined that the length and severity of an added mandatory sentence that turns on the presence or absence of a “machinegun” (or any of the other listed firearm types) weighs in favor of treating such offense-related words as referring to an element. The Court noted that these considerations make this a stronger “separate crime” case than either *Jones v. United States* or *United States v. Almendarez-Torres*—cases in which the Court was closely divided as to Congress’s likely intent. The Court concluded that Congress intended the firearm type-related words used in section 924(c)(1) to refer to an element of a separate, aggravated crime.

United States v. Johnson, 529 U.S. 53 (2000).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, held that under 18 U.S.C. § 3624(e), a supervised release term does not commence until an individual “is released from imprisonment.” Therefore, the length of supervised release is not reduced by excess time served in prison. The defendant had two of his convictions declared invalid, pursuant to *Bailey v. United States*, 516 U.S. 137 (1995), and had served 24 months extra prison time. The defendant was released from prison, but a three-year term of supervised release was yet to be served on the remaining convictions. The defendant filed a motion to reduce his supervised release term by the amount of extra prison time he served. The district court denied the relief, explaining that supervised release commenced upon respondent’s actual release from incarceration, not before. The Sixth Circuit reversed and held that his supervised release term commenced not on the day he left prison, but when his lawful term of imprisonment expired. The Supreme Court, in its decision to reverse the Sixth Circuit, resolved a circuit split over whether the excess prison time should be credited to the supervised release term. Compare *United States v. Blake*, 88 F.3d 824 (9th Cir. 1996) (supervised release commences on date defendants should have been released, not dates of actual release) with *United States v. Jeanes*, 150 F.3d 483 (5th Cir. 1998) (supervised release cannot run during any period of imprisonment); *United States v. Joseph*, 109 F.3d 34 (1st Cir. 1997) (same); *United States v. Douglas*, 88 F.3d 533 (8th Cir. 1996) (same). The Supreme Court examined the text of section 3624(e) which states: “[t]he term of supervised release commences on the day the person is released from imprisonment.” The Court concluded that the ordinary commonsense meaning of release is to be freed from confinement. The Court found additional support in 18 U.S.C. § 3583(a) which authorizes the imposition of a “term of supervised release after imprisonment.” Furthermore, the objectives of supervised release would be unfulfilled if excess prison time were to offset and reduce terms of supervised release. Congress intended supervised release to assist individuals in their transition to community life.

United States v. Johnson, 529 U.S. 694 (2000).

The Supreme Court resolved a split in the circuits by holding that post-revocation penalties relate to the original offense, and under the Ex Post Facto Clause, a law “burdening private interests” cannot be applied to a defendant whose original offense occurred before the effective date of the statute. Absent a clear indication by Congress that a statute applies retroactively, a statute takes effect the day it is enacted.

In the case below, the Sixth Circuit held that application of section 3583(h) (explicitly authorizing reimposition of supervised release upon revocation of supervised release) did not violate the Ex Post Facto Clause even though the defendant’s original offense occurred in 1993, a year before the statute was enacted. The lower court held that revocation penalties punish a defendant for the conduct leading to the revocation, not the original offense. Thus, because the statute was enacted before the defendant violated his supervised release, there was no ex post facto violation. *United States v. Johnson*, 181 F.3d 105 (6th Cir. 1999). The government disavowed the position taken by the lower court of appeal, and “wisely so” opined the Supreme Court “in view of the serious constitutional questions

that would be raised by construing revocation and reimprisonment as punishment for the violation of the conditions of supervised release.”

In addition to making the determination that ex post facto analysis for revocation conduct relates to the date of the original offense, the Supreme Court found that no ex post facto analysis was necessary in the defendant’s case because Congress gave no indication that section 3583(h) applied retroactively. The statute could not be applied to the defendant because it did not become effective until after the defendant committed the original offense. Nevertheless, the version of section 3583(e)(3) in effect at the time of the original offense authorized a court to reimpose a term of supervised release upon revocation. Congress’s unconventional use of the term “revoke” rather than “terminate” would not preclude additional supervised release, and this reading is consistent with congressional sentencing policy.

***Jones v. United States*, 526 U.S. 227 (1999).**

The Supreme Court held that 18 U.S.C. § 2119, the federal carjacking statute, establishes three separate offenses, each of which must be charged in the indictment, proven beyond a reasonable doubt, and submitted to a jury for its verdict. The Court’s decision emphasizes the features of the carjacking statute that distinguish it from the illegal re-entry statute that was the focus of *Almendarez-Torres v. United States*, 523 U.S. 224 (1998). According to the Supreme Court, the structure of the statute and the legislative history indicate that Congress intended that the jury determine the facts which control the statutory sentencing range. To hold otherwise would raise serious constitutional issues.

***Mitchell v. United States*, 526 U.S. 314 (1999).**

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 decision, held that a defendant could plead guilty, assert the privilege against self-incrimination at the sentencing hearing, and not have a judge draw an adverse inference from the defendant’s sentence. The defendant had refused to testify at a sentencing hearing about her involvement in a cocaine conspiracy. The judge sentenced the defendant to ten years’ imprisonment, stating that he drew a negative inference from the defendant’s refusal to discuss the details of the crime. The Third Circuit affirmed the district court’s decision, but the Supreme Court reversed. The Supreme Court held that neither the defendant’s guilty plea nor her statements at a plea colloquy functioned as a waiver of her right to remain silent at sentencing. Furthermore, the Court held that the defendant should have been allowed to remain silent without it being held against her. The Court relied on *Griffin v. California*, 380 U.S. 609 (1995), in which the Court held that it was constitutionally impermissible for the prosecutor or judge to comment on a criminal defendant’s refusal to testify. The majority concluded that there is no reason not to apply this rule to sentencing hearings.

Almendarez-Torres v. United States, 523 U.S. 224 (1998).

In a 5-4 decision, the Supreme Court resolved a circuit conflict, affirming the Fifth Circuit’s opinion holding that 8 U.S.C. § 1326(b)(2) is a penalty provision which authorizes an enhanced penalty for a recidivist; it does not define a separate crime. The Fifth Circuit had joined the First, Third, Fourth, Seventh, Eighth, Tenth, and Eleventh Circuits in holding that subsection (b)(2) is a penalty provision, in opposition to the Ninth Circuit’s opinion that the subsection constituted a separate crime. Subsection (a) of section 1326 prohibits an alien who once was deported to return to the United States without special permission, and it authorizes a prison term of up to two years. Subsection (b)(2) authorizes a prison term of up to 20 years for a deported alien under subsection (a) whose initial deportation “was subsequent to a conviction for commission of an aggravated felony.” The petitioner pleaded guilty to violating section 1326, admitting that he had unlawfully returned to the United States following deportation, and that such initial deportation was subsequent to three convictions for aggravated felonies. Inasmuch as subsection (b)(2) is a penalty provision, the Government is not required by the Constitution or the statute to charge the earlier aggravated felony convictions in the indictment.

Edwards v. United States, 523 U.S. 511 (1998).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, affirmed the Seventh Circuit’s opinion that the sentencing guidelines require the sentencing judge, not the jury, to determine both the amount and kind of drugs at issue in a drug conspiracy. The defendant had been charged under 18 U.S.C. §§ 841 and 846 with conspiracy to possess with intent to distribute mixtures containing cocaine and cocaine base (“crack”), and the jury had returned a general verdict which did not specify the object of the conspiracy. The petitioners argued that the drug statutes and the Constitution required the judge to assume that the jury had convicted them of a conspiracy involving the lesser object, cocaine. The Supreme Court stated that it was of no consequence whether the conviction was based solely on cocaine, because the Guidelines instruct the sentencing judge to sentence a drug conspiracy based on the offender’s relevant conduct, under USSG §1B1.3. Relevant conduct requires the sentencing court to base the sentence on not only the conduct which constitutes the offense of conviction, but also conduct that is “part of the same course of conduct or common scheme or plan as the offense of conviction.” *See* USSG §1B1.3(a)(2). The Court noted that the statutory and constitutional claims were not implicated in this case, inasmuch as the sentences imposed were “within the statutory limits of a cocaine-only conspiracy.”

Muscarello v. United States, 524 U.S. 125 (1998).

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 decision, held that the phrase “carries a firearm” in 18 U.S.C. § 924(c) applies to a person who knowingly possesses and conveys a firearm in a vehicle—including in a locked glove compartment or in the trunk of the car—in relation to a drug trafficking offense. In affirming the decisions of the First and Fifth Circuits, the Court

noted that the Federal Circuit Courts of Appeals have unanimously concluded that the word “carry” “is not limited to the carrying of weapons directly on the person but can include their carriage in a car.” The Court examined the legal question of whether Congress intended to limit the scope of the word “carry” to instances in which a gun is carried “on the person,” and concluded that “neither the statute’s basic purpose nor its legislative history support circumscribing the scope of the word ‘carry’ by applying an ‘on the person’ limitation.” The Court addressed the dissent’s argument that the rule of lenity should be applied because there is ambiguity in the statute. In disagreeing with the dissent, the majority noted that for the rule of lenity to apply, a court must conclude that there is “grievous ambiguity or uncertainty” in the statute, such that the court could make “no more than a guess as to what Congress intended.”

United States v. Gonzales, 520 U.S. 1 (1997).

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 decision, held that the provisions of 18 U.S.C. § 924(c) mandating an additional five-year term of imprisonment that “shall [not] . . . run concurrently with any other term of imprisonment” means any other term of imprisonment, whether it be state or federal. The Court reversed the decision of the Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit, which had delved into legislative history to support its conclusion that the statute must have been limited to cases involving prior federal sentences. The Tenth Circuit had split from other circuit courts of appeals which had addressed the issue. The Supreme Court held that there was no ambiguity in the text of the statute, and “no basis in the text for limiting section 924(c) to federal sentences.”

United States v. LaBonte, 520 U.S. 751 (1997).

The Supreme Court, in a 6-3 decision, resolved a split among the Courts of Appeals, deciding that Amendment 506, promulgated by the Sentencing Commission, amending commentary to USSG §4B1.1, the career offender guideline, is “at odds with the plain language of [28 U.S.C.] § 994(h).” In 28 U.S.C. § 994(h), Congress directed the Commission to “assure” that prison terms for categories of offenders who commit a third felony drug offense or crime of violence be sentenced “at or near the maximum term authorized” by statute. The Supreme Court held that by the language “maximum term authorized,” Congress meant the maximum term available for the offense of conviction, including any applicable statutory sentencing enhancements. The enhanced penalty, from 20 to 30 years’ imprisonment, is brought before the court by the prosecutor by filing a notice under 21 U.S.C. § 851(a)(1). The amendment to §4B1.1’s commentary at Application Note 2 had provided that the unenhanced statutory maximum should be used, in part because the unenhanced statutory maximum “represents the highest possible sentence applicable to all defendants in the category,” because section 851(a)(1) notices are not filed in every applicable case. The Supreme Court responded that “Congress surely did not establish enhanced penalties for repeat offenders only to have the Commission render them a virtual nullity.” “[T]he phrase ‘at or near the maximum term authorized’ is unambiguous and requires a court to sentence

a career offender ‘at or near’ the ‘maximum’ prison term available once all relevant statutory sentencing enhancements are taken into account.” The judgment of the First Circuit was reversed. The Commission’s amended commentary was at odds with the plain language of statute at 28 U.S.C. § 994(h), and “must give way.” Cf. *Stinson v. United States*, 508 U.S. 36, 38 (1993) (guidelines commentary “is authoritative unless it violates the Constitution or a federal statute”).

***United States v. Watts*, 519 U.S. 148 (1997).**

The Supreme Court ruled that “a jury’s verdict of acquittal does not prevent the sentencing court from considering conduct underlying the acquitted charge, so long as that conduct has been proved by a preponderance of the evidence.” The Court granted the Government’s petition pursuant to Supreme Court Rule 12.4, and issued this per curiam opinion resolving a split in the Circuit Courts of Appeals by reversing the Ninth Circuit’s holding in *United States v. Watts*, 67 F.3d 790 (9th Cir. 1995), and *United States v. Putra*, 78 F.3d 1386 (9th Cir. 1996). Only the Ninth Circuit had refused to permit consideration of acquitted conduct. The Court held that the guidelines did not alter the sentencing court’s discretion granted by statute at 18 U.S.C. § 3661, which provides that “[n]o limitation shall be placed on the information concerning the background, character, and conduct of a person convicted of an offense which a court of the United States may receive and consider for the purpose of imposing an appropriate sentence.” The Court cited *Witte v. United States*, 515 U.S. 389, 402 (1995) (quoting *United States v. Wright*, 873 F.2d 437, 441 (1st Cir. 1989) (Breyer, J.)): “[V]ery roughly speaking, [relevant conduct] corresponds to those actions and circumstances that courts typically took into account when sentencing prior to the Guidelines’ enactment.” The Supreme Court noted that Guideline §1B1.4 “reflects the policy set forth in 18 U.S.C. § 3661” and that the commentary to guideline §1B1.3 also provides that “[c]onduct that is not formally charged or is not an element of the offense of conviction may enter into the determination of the applicable guideline sentencing range,” and that all acts and omissions that were part of the same course of conduct or common scheme or plan as the offense of conviction (relevant conduct) must be considered whether or not the defendant had been convicted of multiple counts. The Ninth Circuit’s opinions also seemed to be based “on erroneous views of our double jeopardy jurisprudence,” in asserting that a jury verdict of acquittal “rejects” facts. See *Dowling v. United States*, 493 U.S. 342, 349 (1990) (“an acquittal in a criminal case does not preclude the Government from relitigating an issue when it is presented in a subsequent action governed by a lower standard of proof”).

***Koon v. United States*, 518 U.S. 81 (1996).**

The Supreme Court unanimously held that an “appellate court should not review the [district court’s] departure decision de novo, but instead should ask whether the sentencing court abused its discretion.” In applying this standard, the Court noted that “[l]ittle turns, however, on whether we label review of this particular question [of whether a factor is a permissible basis for departure] abuse of discretion or de novo, for an abuse of discretion

standard does not mean a mistake of law is beyond appellate correction.” “The abuse of discretion standard includes review to determine that the discretion was not guided by erroneous legal conclusions.” The Court divided, however, in its determination of whether the district court abused its discretion in relying on the particular factors in this case. The majority of the Court held that the Ninth Circuit erroneously rejected three of the five downward departure factors relied upon by the district court. The district court properly based its downward departure on (1) the victim’s misconduct in provoking the defendants’ excessive force, §5K2.10; (2) the defendants’ susceptibility to abuse in prison; and (3) the “significant burden” of a federal conviction following a lengthy state trial which had ended in acquittal based on the same underlying conduct. However, the district court abused its discretion in relying upon the remaining two factors, low likelihood of recidivism, and the defendants’ loss of their law enforcement careers, because these were already adequately considered by the Commission in USSG §§2H1.4 and 4A1.3. The judgment of the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit was affirmed in part and reversed in part, and the case was remanded for further proceedings.

Melendez v. United States, 518 U.S. 120 (1996).

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 decision, held that the district court properly concluded that a Government motion under USSG §5K1.1 requesting a sentence below the applicable guideline range did not authorize the district court to depart below the lower statutory minimum. Justice Thomas was joined by Chief Justice Rehnquist, and Justices Scalia, Kennedy, Souter, and Ginsburg. Justices O’Connor and Breyer joined in Parts I and II of the opinion. Justice Stevens filed an opinion concurring in the judgment. The Court noted that a separate government motion pursuant to 18 U.S.C. § 3553(e) is required in order for a court to depart below a statutory minimum. The Court rejected the argument that the Sentencing Commission had created a “unitary” motion system in promulgating the §5K1.1 policy statement. The Court agreed with the Government that “the relevant parts of the statutes [18 U.S.C. § 3553(e) and 28 U.S.C. § 994(n)] merely charge the Commission with constraining the district court’s discretion in choosing a specific sentence after the Government moves for a departure below the statutory minimum. Congress did not charge the Commission with ‘implementing’ § 3553(e)’s Government motion requirement, beyond adopting provisions constraining the district court’s discretion regarding the particular sentence selected.” Justice Breyer, with whom Justice O’Connor joined, filed an opinion concurring in part and dissenting in part, stating the view that “the Commission had the power to create a ‘unitary motion system.’”

Neal v. United States, 516 U.S. 284 (1996).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, rejected the defendant’s argument that the Commission’s revised system for calculating LSD sentences under the guidelines (.4 milligrams per dose) requires reconsideration of the method used to determine statutory minimum sentences. As a threshold matter, the Court was doubtful that the Commission

intended its new methodology to displace the actual-weight method required by *Chapman v. United States*, 500 U.S. 453 (1991). According to the Court, “principles of stare decisis require that we adhere to our earlier decision.” The Court expressed concern about overturning an earlier precedent without intervening statutory changes casting doubt on the Chapman interpretation of the statute. While the Commission, entrusted within its sphere to make policy judgments, can abandon one method for what it considers a better approach, the Court does not have the same latitude to forsake prior interpretations of statutes.

United States v. Armstrong, 517 U.S. 456 (1996).

The Supreme Court, in an 8-1 decision, held that Rule 16(a)(1)(C) of the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure “authorizes defendants to examine Government documents material to the preparation of their defense against the Government’s case-in-chief, but not to the preparation of selective prosecution claims.” The defendants moved for discovery or dismissal of the indictment, asserting that they were singled out for prosecution under the much more stringent statutes and sentencing guidelines in Federal Court on crack and firearms violations because they are black. In support of their motion, they offered an affidavit from a paralegal in the Office of the Public Defender stating that the defendant was black in every one of the cases prosecuted to completion during 1991 under 21 U.S.C. §§ 841 and 846. The district court granted the discovery motion, and upon the Government’s notice that it would not comply, dismissed the case. To meet the threshold showing of materiality necessary to obtain such discovery, the defendant must “produce some evidence of differential treatment of similarly situated members of other races or protected classes.” “A selective prosecution claim asks a court to exercise judicial power over a ‘special province’ of the Executive.” *Heckler v. Chaney*, 470 U.S. 821, 832 (1985). Because the Attorney General and United States Attorneys have been designated by statute as the President’s delegates to help him discharge his constitutional duty to see that “the Laws be faithfully executed,” they have broad discretion to enforce federal criminal laws. There is a strong presumption of regularity supporting a prosecutor’s decisions, and a claimant of selective prosecution “must demonstrate that the federal prosecutorial policy ‘had a discriminatory effect and that it was motivated by a discriminatory purpose.’” “The justifications for a rigorous standard for the elements of a selective-prosecution claim thus require a correspondingly rigorous standard for discovery in aid of such claim.”

Bailey v. United States, 516 U.S. 137 (1995).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous opinion, held that 18 U.S.C. § 924(c)(1) “requires evidence sufficient to show an active employment of the firearm by the defendant, a use that makes the firearm an operative factor in relation to the predicate offense.” According to the Court, the term “use” connotes more than mere possession or storage of a firearm by a person who commits a drug offense.

Witte v. United States, 515 U.S. 389 (1995).

The Supreme Court, in an 8-1 decision, held that “because consideration of relevant conduct in determining a petitioner’s sentence within the legislatively authorized punishment range does not constitute punishment for that conduct,” a second prosecution involving that conduct “does not violate the Double Jeopardy Clause’s prohibition against the imposition of multiple punishments for the same offense.” The Court rejected the petitioner’s claim that his indictment for cocaine offenses violated the Double Jeopardy Clause because the cocaine offenses had already been considered as relevant conduct in sentencing for an earlier marijuana offense. The majority relied on the Court’s previous decision in *Williams v. Oklahoma*, 358 U.S. 576 (1959) specifically rejecting the claim that “double jeopardy principles bar a later prosecution or punishment for criminal activity where that criminal activity has been considered at sentencing for a second crime.” The majority further noted that the consideration of relevant conduct punishes the offender “for the fact that the present offense was carried out in a manner that warrants increased punishment, not for a different offense (which that related conduct may or may not constitute).”

Custis v. United States, 511 U.S. 485 (1994).

The Supreme Court, in a 6-3 opinion, held that with the sole exception of convictions obtained in violation of the right to counsel, a defendant in a federal sentencing procedure does not have a right to collaterally attack the validity of previous state convictions that are used to enhance his sentence under the ACCA. The defendant argued that his previous convictions were invalid because of ineffective assistance of counsel, because his guilty plea was not knowing and intelligently made, and because he had not been adequately advised of his rights in opting for a “stipulated facts” trial. According to the Court, “[n]one of these alleged constitutional violations rises to the level of jurisdictional defect resulting from the failure to appoint counsel at all.” The Court refused to extend the right to collaterally attack a prior conviction used for sentencing enhancement beyond the right to counsel established in *Gideon v. Wainwright*, 372 U.S. 335 (1963).

Nichols v. United States, 511 U.S. 738 (1994).

The Supreme Court, in a 6-3 decision, held that “consistent with the Sixth and Fourteenth Amendments of the Constitution, an uncounseled misdemeanor conviction, valid under *Scott v. Illinois*, 440 U.S. 367 (1979),] because no prison term was imposed, is also valid when used to enhance punishment at a subsequent conviction.” The case arose when the district court assessed one criminal history point against the defendant for a state misdemeanor conviction—driving under the influence (DUI) — for which the defendant was fined but not imprisoned. The majority of the Court reaffirmed that the Sixth Amendment right to counsel does not attach to criminal proceedings in which imprisonment is not imposed. The logical consequence of that holding is that if the conviction is valid, it can be relied on to enhance a subsequent sentence. According to the Court, reliance on such a conviction is

consistent with traditional sentencing practices of using a lesser standard than that for proving guilt. For example, consistent with due process, the defendant could have been sentenced more severely based simply on evidence of the conduct underlying the DUI. The government would only have to prove the conduct by a preponderance of evidence. Therefore, it must be constitutional to use a prior conviction, where that conduct has been proven beyond a reasonable doubt. In deciding the case, the Court overruled *Baldesar v. Illinois*, 446 U.S. 222 (1980).

United States v. Granderson, 511 U.S. 39 (1994).

The Supreme Court, in a plurality decision (5-1-1-2), interpreted 18 U.S.C. § 3565(a), which provides that if a person on probation possesses illegal drugs “the court shall revoke the sentence of probation and sentence the defendant to not less than one-third of the original sentence.” The Court held that, as that term is used in 18 U.S.C. § 3565(a), “original sentence” refers to the original potential imprisonment range under the guidelines. Accordingly, upon revocation of probation for possession of drugs, the minimum sentence is one-third of the maximum of the original guideline range, and the maximum sentence is the maximum of the original guideline range. Granderson, whose original guideline range was 0–6 months, had received a five-year term of probation. Upon revocation for possession of illegal drugs, the district court sentenced him to one-third of the five years: 20 months’ incarceration. In reversing, the Eleventh Circuit invoked the rule of lenity and held that “original sentence” referred to the original range, which set the maximum term of imprisonment upon revocation at six months and the minimum at two months. The opinion of the Court of Appeals for the Eleventh Circuit was affirmed.

Deal v. United States, 508 U.S. 129 (1993).

The Supreme Court, in a 6-3 decision, upheld the defendant’s sentence under 18 U.S.C. § 924(c) to a five-year prison term for his first conviction, and five 20-year sentences for five additional section 924(c) convictions, to be served consecutively (105 years total). The defendant had committed six bank robberies on six different dates, using a gun each time, but was convicted and sentenced for all of the offenses in one proceeding. The Court was not persuaded by the defendant’s assertion that the language of section 924(c) requiring a 20-year sentence for a “second or subsequent conviction” was ambiguous and should be construed under the rule of lenity in his favor. The court held that the use of the word “conviction” refers to the finding of guilt that necessarily precedes the entry of a final judgment of conviction. Each subsequent conviction carried a 20-year term. This is unlike statutes that have been interpreted to impose an enhanced sentence for “subsequent offenses” only if the subsequent offense was committed after the sentence for the previous offense had become final. Nor could the rule of lenity be invoked based on the total length of the sentence, which the defendant characterized as “glaringly unjust.” Whether the defendant was convicted of six counts in one proceeding, or in six separate trials, the result mandated by the statute would be a 105-year total sentence.

Smith v. United States, 508 U.S. 223 (1993).

The Supreme Court, in a 6-3 decision, held that the exchange or barter of a gun for illegal drugs constitutes “use” of a firearm for purposes of the provisions of 18 U.S.C. § 924(c)(1) which sets penalties for offenses where a defendant “during and in relation to any crime of violence or drug trafficking crime[,] uses or carries a firearm.” The Supreme Court agreed with the opinion of the Court of Appeals for the Eleventh Circuit that the plain language of the statute “imposes no requirement that the firearm be used as a weapon.” Rather, any use of the weapon to in any way facilitate the commission of the offense is sufficient. *United States v. Smith*, 957 F.2d 835, 837 (11th Cir. 1992). In *United States v. Harris*, 959 F.2d 246, 261–62 (D.C. Cir. 1992), the Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia Circuit so held, but the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit in *United States v. Phelps*, 877 F.2d 28 (9th Cir. 1989), held that trading the gun for drugs could not constitute “use,” and the Supreme Court decided this issue to resolve the conflict among the circuits.

Stinson v. United States, 508 U.S. 36 (1993).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, held that “commentary in the Guidelines Manual that interprets or explains a guideline is authoritative unless it violates the Constitution or a federal statute, or is inconsistent with, or a plainly erroneous reading of, that guideline.” Accordingly, the Eleventh Circuit erred in concluding that commentary was not binding and using that as a basis for not applying an amendment to the commentary of §4B1.2 which stated that felon-in-possession is not included in the term “crime of violence.” The Supreme Court concluded that guideline commentary should be treated like an agency’s interpretation of its own legislative rules. “According this measure of controlling authority to the commentary is consistent with the role the Sentencing Reform Act contemplates for the Sentencing Commission. The Commission, after all, drafts the guidelines as well as the commentary interpreting them, so we can presume that the interpretations of the guidelines contained in the commentary represent the most accurate indications of how the Commission deems that the guidelines should be applied to be consistent with the Guidelines Manual as a whole as well as the authorizing statute.” According to the Supreme Court, “Amended Commentary is binding on the federal courts even though it is not reviewed by Congress, and prior judicial constructions of a particular guideline cannot prevent the Commission from adopting a conflicting interpretation that satisfies the standard we set forth today.”

United States v. Dunnigan, 507 U.S. 87 (1993).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, held that a sentence enhancement pursuant to §3C1.1 when there has been a proper determination of perjury “is not in contravention of the privilege of an accused to testify in her own behalf.” According to the Supreme Court, “the arguments made by the [Fourth Circuit] Court of Appeals to distinguish [*United States v.*] *Grayson* are wide of the mark.”

United States v. R.L.C., 503 U.S. 291 (1992).

The Supreme Court, in an 8-1 decision, held that 18 U.S.C. § 5037(c)(1)(B), which limits the sentence of a juvenile to “the maximum term of imprisonment that would be authorized if the juvenile had been tried and convicted as an adult,” refers to the maximum sentence that could be imposed if the juvenile were being sentenced after application of the sentencing guidelines. The Court’s holding does not require plenary application of the guidelines to juvenile proceedings. According to the Supreme Court, “a sentencing court’s concern with the guidelines goes solely to the upper limit of the proper guideline range as setting the maximum term for which a juvenile may be committed to official detention, absent circumstances that which would warrant departure under section 3553(b).” The Court rejected the government’s argument that the term “authorized” in section 5037(c)(1)(B) means the maximum term of imprisonment provided for in the statute defining the offense. Justice O’Connor in the dissenting opinion, joined by Justice Blackmun, stated that the Court should have honored “Congress’ clear intention to leave settled practice in juvenile sentencing undisturbed.” According to the dissent, “we should wait for the Sentencing Commission and Congress to decide whether to fashion appropriate guidelines for juveniles.”

United States v. Wilson, 503 U.S. 329 (1992).

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 decision, held that 18 U.S.C. § 3585(b) authorizes the Attorney General, rather than the district court, to calculate the credit toward the term of imprisonment for any time the defendant spent in official detention prior to the date the sentence commences. According to the majority opinion, the statutory language shows that Congress intended that the computation of the credit occur after the defendant begins his sentence. Thus, a district court judge cannot apply section 3585(b) at the sentencing hearing. Although section 3585(b) does not specifically refer to the Attorney General, the Court found that when Congress rewrote 18 U.S.C. § 3568 and changed it to its present form in section 3585(b) that it was likely “that the former reference to the Attorney General was simply lost in the shuffle.”

Wade v. United States, 504 U.S. 181 (1992).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, held that “federal district courts have authority to review a prosecutor’s refusal to file a substantial-assistance motion and to grant a remedy if they find that the refusal was based on an unconstitutional motive.” According to the Supreme Court, “a claim that the defendant merely provided substantial assistance will not entitle a defendant to a remedy or even discovery or an evidentiary hearing. Nor would additional but generalized allegations of improper motive.” In the instant case, the defendant failed to show or allege that the government refused to file the motion for suspect reasons such as his race or his religion. The Court noted that it did not decide whether §5K1.1 implements and therefore supersedes 18 U.S.C. § 3553(e) or whether the two provisions pose separate obstacles. The defendant also did not claim that the government-motion requirement was itself unconstitutional, or that the requirement was superseded in this case by any plea agreement by the government to file a substantial-assistance motion. According to the Supreme Court, the government-motion requirement in both sections 5K1.1 and 3553(e) limiting the court’s authority “gives the government a power, not a duty, to file a motion when a defendant has substantially assisted.”

Williams v. United States, 503 U.S. 193 (1992).

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 decision, held that the appellate court in reviewing a departure decision based on both proper and improper factors, must conclude that the district court would have imposed the same sentence absent the erroneous factor, before it can affirm the sentence based on its independent assessment that the departure was reasonable pursuant to 18 U.S.C. § 3742(f)(2). According to the Supreme Court, the use of a departure factor which is prohibited by a policy statement can be an incorrect application of the guidelines under 18 U.S.C. § 3742(f)(1). However, a remand is not automatically required under section 3742(f)(1) in order to rectify an incorrect application of the guidelines. The majority opinion disagreed with the dissenters that the reasonableness standard of 18 U.S.C. § 3742(f)(2) was the sole provision governing appellate review of departure decisions.

Braxton v. United States, 500 U.S. 344 (1991).

The Supreme Court, in a unanimous decision, acknowledges that the initial and primary task of eliminating conflicts among the circuit courts with respect to the statutory interpretation of the guidelines lies with the Commission. According to the Supreme Court, “in charging the Commission ‘periodically [to] review and revise’ the guidelines, Congress necessarily contemplated that the Commission would periodically review the work of the courts, and would make whatever clarifying revisions to the guidelines conflicting judicial decisions might suggest.” Since the Commission has the authority to “periodically review and revise” and the “unusual explicit power” to decide whether and to what extent its amendments reducing sentences will be given retroactive effect, Justice Scalia suggests that the court should be more “restrained and circumspect” in using its certiorari power to

resolve circuit conflicts. The Supreme Court decided not to address the first issue presented in the case because the Commission had requested public comment on a change to §1B1.2 which would eliminate the conflict and because the case could be decided on other grounds.

Burns v. United States, 501 U.S. 129 (1991).

The Supreme Court, in a 5-4 decision, held that “before a district court can depart on a ground not identified as a ground for upward departure either in the presentence report or in a prehearing submission by the government, Rule 32 requires that the district court give the parties reasonable notice that it is contemplating such a ruling.” In the instant case, the presentence report concluded that there were no factors warranting a departure. Although neither party objected to the presentence report, the district court judge announced at the end of the sentencing hearing that he was making an upward departure from a guideline range of 30–37 months and imposing a sentence of 60 months. The Supreme Court remanded the case for further proceedings.

Chapman v. United States, 500 U.S. 453 (1991).

The Supreme Court, in a 7-2 decision, held that the statutory construction of 21 U.S.C. § 841(b)(1)(B)(v) requires that the carrier weight be included in determining the lengths of sentences for trafficking in LSD, and that this construction does not violate due process nor is it unconstitutionally vague.

Mistretta v. United States, 488 U.S. 361 (1989).

The Supreme Court, in an 8-1 decision, upheld the SRA, which established the United States Sentencing Commission, against claims that it violated the doctrine of separation of powers and excessively delegated Congress’s legislative authority. The Court upheld Congress’s placement of the Commission in the Judicial Branch of government, and with respect to the composition of the Commission, upheld the requirement that three federal judges serve on the Commission with non-judges. The Court held that the Commission was an essentially “neutral endeavor” in which judicial participation is “peculiarly appropriate.” The Court also found no fault with the power of the President to appoint members of the Commission and remove them for cause, holding that neither power significantly threatened judicial independence.

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