# Uncooperative Victims/Witnesses

HONORABLE JUDGE TIMOTHY QUICK

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### General Considerations

- JDRC: Witnesses victims are frequently uncooperative
- Commonwealth may decide to proceed with charges, irrespective of victim/witness's request to drop them how does this type of a prosecution work?
- Overview of this CLE
  - ▶ 5<sup>th</sup> Amendment
    - ▶ What constitutes a proper invocation
    - ▶ Immunity
  - Relevant Rules of Evidence
    - ► Refreshing Recollection
    - Past Recollection Recorded
    - ▶ Impeachment/Adverse Witnesses
    - Hearsay

Fifth
Amendment/
Immunity

### Fifth Amendment

▶ 5th Amendment to U.S. Constitution: "No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation."

## Fifth Amendment (cont.)

- "The privilege can be claimed in any proceeding, be it criminal or civil, administrative or judicial, investigatory or adjudicatory. In re Gault, 387 U.S. 1(1966).
- Common examples in Juvenile Domestic Relations Court
  - ▶ Domestic Violence Cases: Victim invokes the 5th amendment on the stand. The idea is that the testimony regarding the domestic violence incident could incriminate the victim.
    - ▶ If the victim recants their statement or admits that they lied to the police, they could be charged with filing a false police report (Va. Code Section 18.2-461).
    - ▶ If the victim testifies that they were the primary aggressor in the incident, they could be charged with domestic violence.
  - ▶ **Divorce**: If a person admits they had sexual relations outside their marriage, they could be charged with adultery, a class 4 misdemeanor (Va. Code Section 18.2-365)

## Fifth Amendment (cont.)

- Only protects a witness from testifying to information that would be incriminating.
- Does not provide a blanket right to refuse to answer any questions -- Once a witness asserts his fifth amendment right, some investigative questioning must be allowed. Carter v. Commonwealth, 39 Va. App. 735(2003)
  - Ex: "Why do you believe the proposed testimony would be incriminating?"
- The party offering a witness's statements has the right to **pose individual questions** and the Court must determine whether the answer to each question is incriminating. Worrells v. Commonwealth, 212 Va. 270 (1971).
- Point of Debate: What is defense counsel's role in the colloquy between the prosecutor, the witness, and the court?

### **Immunity**

- The Fifth Amendment may only be invoked if a witness's testimony would incriminate them. If there is no threat of prosecution based on the witness's statements, the Fifth Amendment does not apply.
- Three Types of Immunity
  - <u>Use Immunity</u> Prohibits the use of the specific testimony provided by witness
  - Derivative Use Immunity Prohibits use of evidence indirectly obtained from testimony provided by witness
  - <u>Transactional Immunity</u> Complete bar to prosecution for offenses related to testimony
- A witness must be granted use and derivative use immunity to preserve the 5th Amendment privilege

## Immunity (cont.)

- Does the Commonwealth have the authority to compel a witness to testify by granting immunity?
- ▶ Defense Perspective: NO. A prosecutor's power to grant immunity must be granted via statute, and no such statute exists in Virginia for domestic violence cases. A witness may voluntarily waive their 5<sup>th</sup> Amendment right or agree to waive in exchange for immunity. But immunity cannot be unilaterally granted without consent by the victim.

## Immunity (cont.)

- Does the Commonwealth have the authority to compel a witness to testify by granting immunity?
- Commonwealth Perspective: YES.
  - ▶ The government has always had the power to compel citizens to testify on the stand. See, e.g., Kastigar v. United States, 406 U.S. 441 (1972)
  - Even though the legislature has not passed a statute allowing the Commonwealth to grant immunity, this authority is <u>inherent</u>
    - ▶ Commonwealth's authority to prosecute cases ex: charging decisions
    - Authority in cooperation agreements recognized by courts Commonwealth v. Sluss, 14 Va. App. 601 (1992)
  - ▶ Virginia Beach Circuit Court affirmed this authority in Commonwealth v. Sa'Quan Ward (August 2025)

## Relevant Rules of Evidence

## Victim: "I don't remember" Refreshing Recollection (Rule 2:612)

▶ Rule 2:612: "If while testifying, a witness uses a writing or object to refresh his memory, an adverse party is entitled to have the writing or object produced at the trial, hearing, or deposition in which the witness is testifying."

# Victim: "I don't remember" Refreshing Recollection (Rule 2:612) Loont.)

### ▶ How to:

- Ask the witness the question.
- ▶ If the witness states they do not remember, ask them if reviewing a writing/object/document might refresh their recollection.
- ▶ If they say yes, give them the writing/object/document and instruct them to review it without reading it out loud.
- Ask the witness if their recollection has been refreshed.
- ▶ If they say YES, ask the original question again. If they say NO, move on.

# Victim: "I don't remember" Past Recollection Recorded (Rule 2:803(5))

- ▶ Rule 2:803(5): "Except as provided by statute, a memorandum or record concerning a matter about which a witness once had firsthand knowledge made or adopted by the witness at or near the time of the event and while the witness had a clear and accurate memory of it, if the witness lacks a present recollection of the event, and the witness vouches for the accuracy of the written memorandum. If admitted, the memorandum or record may be read into evidence but may not itself be received as an exhibit unless offered by an adverse party."
- \*Exception to hearsay

# Victim: "I don't remember" Past Recollection Recorded (Rule 2:803(5) (cont.)

- Requirements (Bailey v. Commonwealth, 20 Va. App. 236(1995)):
  - Witness must have firsthand knowledge of the event and have created record while memory was clear and accurate
    - Memorandum by third party admissible as long as it is vouched for by the witness who supplied the information
  - Record was made/adopted "at or near time of the event"
    - ▶ Depends in part on nature of the event and the likelihood a witness would remember such an event after time has passed Ex: Abney v. Commonwealth, 51 Va. App. 337, 347-348 (2008) (affidavit made 10 months after event admissible)
  - Witness cannot currently recall event
  - Witness must vouch for accuracy of the record
- If admitted, record may be read into evidence, but not received as an exhibit, unless offered by opposing party

## Victim: "Nothing happened." Adverse Witnesses

- Generally, a party may not impeach their own witness
- Two ways that a witness may be treated as adverse
  - ► Proving Adverse
  - ► Adverse Interest

## Victim: "Nothing happened." Proving Adverse(Rule 2:607(c))

▶ Rule 2:607(c)(i): "If a witness proves adverse, the party who called the witness may, subject to the discretion of the court, prove that the witness has made at other times a statement inconsistent with the present testimony as provided in Rule 2:613."

## Victim: "Nothing happened." Proving Adverse(Rule 2:607(c))(cont.)

- Where a party's own witness has surprised the party by changing stories/becoming hostile, the party may show that the witness has made a prior inconsistent statement. Everett v. Commonwealth, No. 0857-15-1, 2016 WL 1572352 (Va. Ct. App. Apr. 19, 2016)
- Proper procedure
  - ➤ Witness must be properly confronted with the prior statement (See Rule 2:613 regarding prior inconsistent **oral statements** versus prior inconsistent **written statements**)
  - Prior inconsistent statement does not come in as substantive evidence – only admitted for impeachment purposes

## Victim: "Nothing happened." Adverse Interest – Rule 2:607(b)

- ▶ Rule 2:607(b): "A witness having an adverse interest may be examined with leading questions by the party calling the witness. After such an adverse direct examination, the witness is subject to cross-examination."
- ▶ An adverse witness is an "opposing party or a nonparty witness who has a financial or other personal interest in the outcome of the case." Maxey v. Commonwealth, 26 Va. App. 514, 520 (1998) (holding that defendant's mother was an adverse witness Commonwealth could impeach her with prior inconsistent statements).

### Relevant Hearsay Exceptions

- ▶ Rule 2:803(1) Present Sense Impression. "A spontaneous statement describing or explaining an event or condition made contemporaneously with, or while, the declarant was perceiving the event or condition."
- Most likely to come up in the context of 911 calls.

- ▶ Rule 2:803(2) Excited Utterance. "A spontaneous or impulsive statement prompted by a startling event or condition and made by a declarant with firsthand knowledge at a time and under circumstances negating deliberation."
- Likely to come up in the context of 911 calls or when officers first respond to a scene.
- Statements "prompted by a startling event, and not the product of premeditation, reflection, or design." Bowling v. Commonwealth, 12 Va. App. 166, 174 (1991)
- Four factors identified in Bowling
  - ▶ Lapse of time between the event and the declaration
  - Whether the statement was spontaneous or in response to questions, especially leading or suggestive questions
  - ▶ Whether the statement is self-serving or against the person's interest
  - Whether the facts are talking through the party or the party is talking about facts.

▶ Rule 2:803(3) "Then existing mental, emotional or physical condition. A statement of the declarant's then existing state of mind, emotion, sensation, or physical condition (such as intent, plan, motive, design, mental feeling, pain, and bodily health), but not including a statement of memory or belief to prove the fact remembered or believed unless it relates to the execution, revocation, identification, or terms of the declarant's will."

- ▶ 2:803(4). "Statements for purposes of medical treatment. Statements made for purposes of medical diagnosis or treatment and describing medical history, or past or present symptoms, pain, or sensations, or the inception or general character of the cause or external source thereof insofar as reasonably pertinent to diagnosis or treatment."
- Could come up in the context of a victim's statements to EMS or to medical staff at the hospital following the alleged incident.

- Don't forget the Sixth Amendment's Confrontation Clause.
- Applies to testimonial statements (purpose of statement is to establish or prove past events potential relevant to later criminal prosecution)
- For a testimonial statement to be admissible, either
  - The witness must appear at trial and be available for crossexamination
  - The witness is unavailable and the defendant must have had a prior opportunity to cross-examine the witness

Crawford v. Washington, 541 U.S. 60 (2004)

## QUESTIONS?

419 S.E.2d 263

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Distinguished by Commonwealth v. Stewart, Va.Cir.Ct., October 22, 2004

14 Va.App. 601 Court of Appeals of Virginia.

COMMONWEALTH of Virginia

Scott Ray SLUSS.

Record No. 0017–92–3.

June 8, 1992.

#### Synopsis

Commonwealth appealed from order of Circuit Court of Wise County, J. Robert Stump, J., suppressing statements made by defendant and evidence derived from those statements. The Court of Appeals, Coleman, J., held that, under terms of agreement between defendant and Commonwealth, defendant's statements could not be used against him unless he breached certain conditions of agreement.

Affirmed.

#### Attorneys and Law Firms

\*602 \*\*264 Eugene Murphy, Asst. Atty. Gen. (Mary Sue Terry, Atty. Gen., Leah A. Darron, Asst. Atty. Gen., on brief), for appellant.

David L. Scyphers, Abingdon (Johnson, Scyphers & Austin, P.C., on brief), for appellee.

Present: KOONTZ, C.J., and COLEMAN and MOON, JJ.

#### Opinion

\*603 COLEMAN, Judge.

The Commonwealth appeals, pursuant to Code § 19.2–398, from a trial court order that suppressed statements made by Scott Ray Sluss to agents of the Commonwealth and the evidence derived from those statements. The basis for the trial judge's ruling was that the statements were involuntary because they were induced by a promise of immunity from the Commonwealth's attorney that was later retracted in violation of Sluss's fifth amendment privilege

against self-incrimination. We affirm the decision of the trial judge, but for a reason different than his finding that the defendant's statements were not voluntary. We hold that under the terms of the agreement which Sluss had with the Commonwealth, and pursuant to the due process clause of the fourteenth amendment, his statements could not be used against him unless he breached certain conditions of the agreement. We find that the evidence fails to show that Sluss breached the cooperation/immunity contract and, even if as the Commonwealth contends it had the right unilaterally to cancel the contract, Sluss, who had not breached the agreement, was entitled to the benefit of his bargain prior to the Commonwealth canceling the agreement.

A sovereign may override a person's fifth amendment privilege against self-incrimination and thereby compel the person to testify if the government grants to the person immunity that is coextensive with the scope of the constitutional privilege. Kastigar v. United States, 406 U.S. 441, 449, 92 S.Ct. 1653, 1658, 32 L.Ed.2d 212 (1972). In order for the grant of immunity to be coextensive with the fifth amendment protection, the cloak of immunity \*\*265 must provide that the individual's compelled testimony may not be used directly or indirectly against him. Id. at 453, 92 S.Ct. at 1661. Federal prosecutors, with court approval, are authorized by statute to grant a witness immunity and thereby compel the witness to testify over his assertion of the fifth amendment privilege. See 18 U.S.C. § 6002 et seq. Virginia, however, has no analogous statute by which prosecutors, even with judicial approval, may constitutionally compel a witness to testify. But see, e.g., Code §§ 18.2-262, 18.2-437. We held in Gosling v. Commonwealth, 14 Va.App. 158, 415 S.E.2d 870 (1992), that because Code § 19.2-270 confers only use immunity, and does not confer derivative use immunity, the statute may not be invoked to override a person's assertion of the fifth amendment privilege \*604 against self-incrimination.

In addition to the statutory grant of immunity, federal prosecutors may enter into cooperation/immunity agreements whereby the government promises an individual immunity from prosecution, or from use of, and/or derivative use of, statements the witness makes to the government. These agreements are usually made in consideration for the individual's cooperation in providing information concerning criminal activity. See, e.g., United States v. Brown, 801 F.2d 352 (8th Cir.1986); United States v. Irvine, 756 F.2d 708 (9th Cir.1985).

419 S.E.2d 263

Although no Virginia statutory or case decision has expressly authorized the use of cooperation/immunity agreements, such cooperation/immunity agreements contravene no constitutional or statutory provision. Such agreements are contractual in nature and, thus, are subject to principles of contract law. See Brown, 801 F.2d at 354; Irvine, 756 F.2d at 710. Cf. Holler v. Commonwealth, 220 Va. 961, 265 S.E.2d 715 (1980) (where plea induced by promises by Commonwealth, the promises must be fulfilled); W.A. Jones v. Commonwealth, 217 Va. 248, 227 S.E.2d 701 (1976) (Court held defendant entitled to specific performance where Commonwealth breached plea agreement); Jordan v. Commonwealth, 217 Va. 57, 225 S.E.2d 661 (1976). Furthermore, these agreements, which are analogous to plea agreements, see Brown, 801 F.2d at 354, "must be attended by constitutional safeguards to ensure [that] a defendant receives the performance he is due." United States v. Britt, 917 F.2d 353, 359 (8th Cir.1990) (citing Santobello v. New York, 404 U.S. 257, 262, 92 S.Ct. 495, 498-99, 30 L.Ed.2d 427 (1971)). Thus, unlike commercial contracts, cooperation/ immunity agreements are subject to due process safeguards which require that the government strictly adhere to the terms of its agreement. United States v. Pelletier, 898 F.2d 297, 303 (2d Cir.1990). Thus, to allow the government to receive the benefit of its bargain without providing the reciprocal benefit contracted for by the defendant would do more than violate the private contractual rights of the parties—it would offend all notions of fairness in the related criminal proceedings, which are protected by constitutional due process.

The pertinent terms of the cooperation/immunity agreement were that Sluss was to provide law enforcement authorities a complete and accurate account "concerning any and all drug activity \*605 of which [Sluss had] knowledge or in which [he had] participated." In exchange for Sluss's cooperation, the Commonwealth promised that "[a]ny information, except information about crimes of violence, given by [Sluss] will not be used against [him] unless and until [he] take[s] the witness stand in any proceeding and give[s] testimony, or otherwise, give[s] statements that are contrary to what [Sluss had] related to the government attorney or attorneys or law enforcement officers." The agreement provided that should Sluss fail to adhere to his obligation under the contract, the government's attorney reserved the right to cancel or terminate the agreement and "such information as [Sluss had] related may then be used against [him] without limitation." In addition, the agreement provided that if the government attorneys or law enforcement determined "any instance where [Sluss] ... omitted any information concerning drugs or drug related matters, or [he gave] false or misleading information" or refused to cooperate, the government \*\*266 attorney had the right to terminate the cooperation/immunity agreement. The agreement provided that the determination whether Sluss omitted any information or gave false or misleading information was within the sole discretion of the government attorney or attorneys.

On Sluss's motion to suppress his statements, the trial judge ruled that because Sluss's statements to agents of the Commonwealth were induced by a promise of immunity, they were given in violation of Sluss's fifth amendment rights and must be suppressed. Although the trial court made no express finding that Sluss's statements were not voluntary, apparently the basis for finding that Sluss's fifth amendment privilege against self-incrimination was violated was that the promise of immunity overcame his will and rendered the statements involuntary. While the Commonwealth has the burden of showing that statements given by a suspect in response to a custodial interrogation are voluntary, on this record, we find nothing to indicate otherwise. Consequently, we hold that the trial court erroneously concluded that Sluss involuntarily made the statements to agents of the Commonwealth.

Nevertheless, where the trial court reaches the correct ruling for the wrong reason, we may affirm the ruling on appeal, provided the issue was before the trial court and the facts were resolved by the judge. See Thims v. Commonwealth, 218 Va. 85, 93, 235 S.E.2d 443, 447 (1977). This rule may not be used, however, \*606 where the correct reason for affirming the trial court was not raised in any manner at trial. Eason v. Eason, 204 Va. 347, 352, 131 S.E.2d 280, 283 (1963); Driscoll v. Commonwealth, 14 Va.App. 449, 451–52, 417 S.E.2d 312, 313 (1992).

At trial, the Commonwealth's attorney acknowledged that he had entered into an agreement with Sluss. He also represented to the court that Sluss had breached the agreement by not dealing truthfully with agents of the Commonwealth. Consequently, the issue of whether Sluss had breached the cooperation/immunity agreement was raised at the suppression hearing, and the facts were fully developed and resolved there. The only question remaining is to construe the contract, which an appellate court is as well positioned to do as the trial court. See Fry v. Schwarting, 4 Va.App. 173, 180, 355 S.E.2d 342, 346 (1987).

Notwithstanding that the trial court erred in finding that Sluss involuntarily made the contested statements, the court 419 S.E.2d 263

correctly ruled that the agreement granted Sluss "immunity." The Commonwealth promised that "[a]ny information, except information about crimes of violence, given by [Sluss] will not be used against [him]." Consequently, the government bore the "burden of establishing a breach by the defendant [of the cooperation/immunity agreement] if the agreement is to be considered unenforceable." *United States v. Johnson*, 861 F.2d 510, 513 (8th Cir.1988) (quoting *Brown*, 801 F.2d at 355). In fact, if Sluss did not breach the cooperation/immunity agreement, due process requires that the government provide Sluss with the benefit of his bargain. *See Pelletier*, 898 F.2d at 302.

Generally, the government may not unilaterally determine whether a defendant has breached a cooperation/immunity agreement in order to retract the prophylactic cloak of immunity granted by the agreement. *Brown*, 801 F.2d at 355. Moreover, where the government breaches the terms of a cooperation/immunity agreement, the appropriate remedy is left to the discretion of the trial court. *Johnson*, 861 F.2d at 512. While dismissal of an indictment may be an appropriate remedy for a government's breach of such an agreement in certain circumstances, suppression of the evidence obtained as a result of the agreement may also be an appropriate remedy. *Id.* 

\*607 Accepting the Commonwealth's contention that, under the terms of the agreement with Sluss, the prosecuting attorney had the right to cancel or terminate the agreement if in his "sole discretion" he determined "any instance where [Sluss] ... omitted any information concerning drugs, \*\*267 ... or [gave] ... false or misleading information ... [or] refuse[d] to cooperate," nevertheless, the right to cancel the agreement did not render unenforceable the covenant of the agreement that "[a]ny information ... given ... will not be used against [Sluss] unless and until [he] take[s] the witness stand in any proceeding and give[s] testimony, or otherwise give[s] statements, that are contrary to what [he] ... related to the government attorneys or law

enforcement officers." (emphasis added). This provision of the agreement "immunized" Sluss from having his statements used against him for any purpose unless and until he breached his agreement by giving testimony or statements "contrary to what [he had] related to the government." The Commonwealth has not shown that Sluss violated either of those conditions so as to justify the withdrawal of the promised "immunity." See Johnson, 861 F.2d at 513. While the Commonwealth's attorney represented to the court that Sluss had breached the agreement, he did not appear as a witness to testify at the hearing. Representations by counsel are not evidence that a court may properly consider. Graves v. Graves, 4 Va.App. 326, 332, 357 S.E.2d 554, 558 (1987). No evidence suggests that Sluss testified or gave statements contrary to what he told the police officers. Accordingly, Sluss did not breach the agreement. Since he did not breach the contract, he is entitled to the benefit of his agreement. His statements must be suppressed because under the terms of the agreement, they cannot be used against him unless and until he testifies or otherwise gives contrary statements, neither of which condition has been proven to have occurred. The trial court's ruling that granted Sluss's motion to suppress the evidence was correct based on the provisions in the agreement, Consequently, because the Commonwealth failed to prove that Sluss breached the agreement, he was entitled to the contractual immunity. Based on that immunity, the trial court did not abuse its discretion in ordering suppression of the statements Sluss made to agents of the Commonwealth. See Johnson, 861 F.2d at 512.

\*608 For the foregoing reason, the order of the trial court is affirmed.

Affirmed.

#### All Citations

14 Va.App. 601, 419 S.E.2d 263

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Not Followed on State Law Grounds D'Elia v. Pennsylvania Crime Com'n,
Pa., March 6, 1989

92 S.Ct. 1653 Supreme Court of the United States

Charles Joseph KASTIGAR and Michael Gorean Stewart, Petitioners,

UNITED STATES.

No. 70—117.

I
Argued Jan. 11, 1972.

I
Decided May 22, 1972.

Rehearing Denied June 26, 1972.

See 408 U.S. 931, 92 S.Ct. 2478.

#### Synopsis

Petitioners were ordered to appear before a grand jury and to answer questions under grantof immunity and, on refusal of the petitioners to answer questions, after asserting their privilege against compulsory self-incrimination, the United States District Court for the Central District of California adjudged petitioners to be in civil contempt and ordered them confined. The Court of Appeals, Ninth Circuit, affirmed, 440 F.2d 954. The Supreme Court granted certiorari, and, speaking through Mr. Justice Powell, held that although a grant of immunity must afford protection commensurate with that afforded by the privilege against compulsory selfincrimination, it need not be broader, and immunity from use and derivative use is coextensive with the scope of the privilege and is sufficient to compel testimony over claim of privilege. The Court also held that in any subsequent criminal prosecution of a person who has been granted immunity to testify, the prosecution has the burden of proving affirmatively that evidence proposed to be used is derived from a legitimate source wholly independent of compelled testimony.

#### Affirmed.

Mr. Justice Douglas and Mr. Justice Marshall dissented and filed opinions.

Mr. Justice Brennan and Mr. Justice Rehnquist took no part in consideration or decision.

\*\*1654 \*441 Syllabus \*

The United States can compel testimony from an unwilling witness who invokes the Fifth Amendment privilege against compulsory self-incrimination by conferring immunity, as provided by 18 U.S.C. s 6002, from use of the compelled testimony and evidence derived therefrom in subsequent criminal proceedings, as such immunity from use and derivative use is coextensive with the scope of the privilege and is sufficient to compel testimony over a claim of the privilege. Transactional immunity would afford broader protection than the Fifth Amendment privilege, and is not constitutionally required. In a subsequent criminal prosecution, the prosecution has the burden of proving affirmatively that evidence proposed to be used is derived from a legitimate source wholly independent of the compelled testimony. Pp. 1655—1666.

440 F.2d 954, affirmed.

#### Attorneys and Law Firms

\*\*1655 Hugh R. Manes, Los Angeles, Cal., for petitioners.

Sol. Gen. Erwin N. Griswold, for respondent.

#### Opinion

\*442 Mr. Justice POWELL delivered the opinion of the Court.

This case presents the question whether the United States Government may compel testimony from an unwilling witness, who invokes the Fifth Amendment privilege against compulsory self-incrimination, by conferring on the witness immunity from use of the compelled testimony in subsequent criminal proceedings, as well as immunity from use of evidence derived from the testimony.

Petitioners were subpoenaed to appear before a United States grand jury in the Central District of California on February 4, 1971. The Government believed that petitioners were likely to assert their Fifth Amendment privilege. Prior to the scheduled appearances, the Government applied to the District Court for an order directing petitioners to answer

questions and produce evidence before the grand jury under a grant of immunity conferred pursuant to 18 U.S.C. ss 6002, 6003. Petitioners opposed issuance of the order, contending primarily that the scope of the immunity provided by the statute was not coextensive with the scope of the privilege against self-incrimination, and therefore was not sufficient to supplant the privilege and compel their testimony. The District Court rejected this contention, and ordered petitioners to appear before the grand jury and answer its questions under the grant of immunity.

Petitioners appeared but refused to answer questions, asserting their privilege against compulsory selfincrimination. They were brought before the District Court, and each persisted in his refusal to answer the grand jury's questions, notwithstanding the grant of immunity. The court found both in contempt, and committed them to the custody of the Attorney General until either they answered the grand jury's questions or the term of the grand jury expired. 1 The Court of \*443 Appeals for the Ninth Circuit affirmed. Stewart v. United States, 440 F.2d 954 (CA9 1971). This Court granted certiorari to resolve the important question whether testimony may be compelled by granting immunity from the use of compelled testimony and evidence derived therefrom ('use and derivative use' immunity), or whether it is necessary to grant immunity from prosecution for offenses to which compelled testimony relates ('transactional' immunity). 402 U.S. 971, 91 S.Ct. 1668, 29 L.Ed.2d 135 (1971).

I

The power of government to compel persons to testify in court or before grand juries and other governmental agencies is firmly established in Anglo-American jurisprudence. <sup>2</sup> The power with respect to courts was established by statute in England as early as 1562, 3 and Lord Bacon observed in 1612 that all subjects owed the King their 'knowledge and discovery.' While it is not clear when grand juries first resorted to compulsory process to secure the attendance and testimony of witnesses, the general common-law principle that 'the public has a right to every man's evidence' was considered an 'indubitable certainty' that 'cannot be denied' by 1742. 5 The \*\*1656 power to compel testimony, and the corresponding duty to testify, are recognized in the Sixth Amendment \*444 requirements that an accused be confronted with the witnesses against him, and have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor. The

first Congress recognized the testimonial duty in the Judiciary Act of 1789, which provided for compulsory attendance of witnesses in the federal courts. Mr. Justice White noted the importance of this essential power of government in his concurring opinion in Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S. 52, 93—94, 84 S.Ct. 1594, 1611, 12 L.Ed.2d 678 (1964): 'Among the necessary and most important of the powers of the States as well as the Federal Government to assure the effective functioning of government in an ordered society is the broad power to compel residents to testify in court or before grand juries or agencies. See Blair v. United States, 250 U.S. 273, 39 S.Ct. 468, 63 L.Ed. 979. Such testimony constitutes one of the Government's primary sources of information.'

But the power to compel testimony is not absolute. There are a number of exemptions from the testimonial duty, <sup>7</sup> the most important of which is the Fifth Amendment privilege against compulsory self-incrimination. The privilege reflects a complex of our fundamental values and aspirations, <sup>8</sup> and marks an important advance in the development of our liberty. <sup>9</sup> It can be asserted in any proceeding, civil or criminal, administrative or judicial, investigatory or adjudicatory; <sup>10</sup> and it \*445 protects against any disclosures which the witness reasonably believes could be used in a criminal prosecution or could lead to other evidence that might be so used. <sup>11</sup> This Court has been zealous to safeguard the values which underlie the privilege. <sup>12</sup>

Immunity statutes, which have historical roots deep in Anglo-American jurisprudence, 13 are not incompatible \*446 with \*\*1657 these values. Rather, they seek a rational accommodation between the imperatives of the privilege and the legitimate demands of government to compel citizens to testify. The existence of these statutes reflects the importance of testimony, and the fact that many offenses are of such a character that the only persons capable of giving useful testimony are those implicated in the crime. Indeed, their origins were in the context of such offenses, 14 \*447 and their primary use has been to investigate such offenses. 15 Congress included immunity statutes in many of the regulatory measures adopted in the first half of this century. 16 Indeed, prior to the enactment of the statute under consideration in \*\*1658 this case, there were in force over 50 federal immunity statutes. 17 In addition, every State in the Union, as well as the District of Columbia and Puerto

Rico, has one or more such statutes. <sup>18</sup> The commentators, <sup>19</sup> and this Court on several occasions, <sup>20</sup> have characterized immunity statutes as essential to the effective enforcement of various criminal statutes. As Mr. Justice Frankfurter observed, speaking for the Court in Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S. 422, 76 S.Ct. 497, 100 L.Ed. 511 (1956), such statutes have 'become part of our constitutional fabric.' <sup>21</sup> Id., at 438, 76 S.Ct., at 506.

#### \*448 II

Petitioners contend, first, that the Fifth Amendment's privilege against compulsory self-incrimination, which is that '(n)o person ... shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself,' deprives Congress of power to enact laws that compel self-incrimination, even if complete immunity from prosecution is granted prior to the compulsion of the incriminatory testimony. In other words, petitioners assert that no immunity statute, however drawn, can afford a lawful basis for compelling incriminatory testimony. They ask us to reconsider and overrule Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S. 591, 16 S.Ct. 644, 40 L.Ed. 819 (1896), and Ullmann v. United States, supra, decisions that uphold the constitutionality of immunity statutes. 22

We find no merit to this contention and reaffirm the decisions in Brown and Ullmann.

Ш

Petitioners' second contention is that the scope of immunity provided by the federal witness immunity statute, 18 U.S.C. s 6002, is not coextensive with the scope of the Fifth Amendment privilege against compulsory self-incrimination, and therefore is not sufficient to supplant the privilege and compel testimony over a claim of the privilege. The statute provides that when a witness is compelled by district court order to testify over a claim of the privilege:

'the witness may not refuse to comply with the order on the basis of his privilege against self-incrimination; but no testimony or other information compelled under the order (or any information \*449 directly or indirectly derived from such testimony or other information) may be used against the witness in any criminal case, except a prosecution for perjury, giving a false statement, or otherwise failing to comply with the order.<sup>123</sup> 18 U.S.C. s 6002.

\*\*1659 The constitutional inquiry, rooted in logic and history, as well as in the decisions of this Court, is whether the immunity granted under this statute is coextensive with the scope of the privilege. <sup>24</sup> If so, petitioners' refusals to answer based on the privilege were unjustified, and the judgments of contempt were proper, for the grant of immunity has removed the dangers against which the privilege protects. Brown v. Walker, supra. If, on the other hand, the immunity granted is not as comprehensive as the protection afforded by the privilege, petitioners were justified in refusing to answer, and the judgments of contempt must be vacated. McCarthy v. Arndstein, 266 U.S. 34, 42, 45 S.Ct. 16, 17, 69 L.Ed. 158 (1924).

Petitioners draw a distinction between statutes that provide transactional immunity and those that provide, as does the statute before us, immunity from use and derivative use. 25 They contend that a statute must at a minimum grant full transactional immunity in order to be coextensive with the scope of the privilege. In support of this contention, they rely on Counselman v. Hitchcock, 142 U.S. 547, 12 S.Ct. 195, 35 L.Ed. 1110 (1892), the first case in which this Court considered a constitutional challenge to an immunity statute. The statute, a reenactment of the Immunity Act of 1868, <sup>26</sup> provided that no 'evidence obtained from a party or witness by means of a judicial \*450 proceeding . . . shall be given in evidence, or in any manner used against him . .. in any court of the United States . . . , 27 Notwithstanding a grant of immunity and order to testify under the revised 1868 Act, the witness, asserting his privilege against compulsory self-incrimination, refused to testify before a federal grand jury. He was consequently adjudged in contempt of court. 28 On appeal, this Court construed the statute as affording a witness protection only against the use of the specific testimony compelled from him under the grant of immunity. This construction meant that the statute 'could not, and would not, prevent the use of his testimony to search out other testimony to be used in evidence against him.' 29 Since the revised 1868 Act, as construed by the Court, would permit the use against the immunized witness of evidence derived from his compelled testimony, it did not protect the witness to the same extent that a claim of the privilege would protect him. Accordingly, under the principle that a grant of immunity cannot supplant the privilege, and is not sufficient to compel testimony over a claim of the privilege, unless the scope of the grant of immunity is coextensive with the scope of the

privilege, <sup>30</sup> the witness' refusal to testify was held proper. In the course of its opinion, the Court made the following statement, on which petitioners heavily rely:

'We are clearly of opinion that no statute which leaves the party or witness \*\*1660 subject to prosecution \*451 after he answers the criminating question put to him, can have the effect of supplanting the privilege conferred by the Constitution of the United States. (The immunity statute under consideration) does not supply a complete protection from all the perils against which the constitutional prohibition was designed to guard, and is not a full substitute for that prohibition. In view of the constitutional provision, a statutory enactment, to be valid, must afford absolute immunity against future prosecution for the offence to which the question relates.' 142 U.S., at 585—586, 12 S.Ct., at 206.

Sixteen days after the Counselman decision, a new immunity bill was introduced by Senator Cullom, <sup>31</sup> who urged that enforcement of the Interstate Commerce Act would be impossible in the absence of an effective immunity statute. <sup>32</sup> The bill, which became the Compulsory Testimony Act of 1893, <sup>33</sup> was drafted specifically to meet the broad language in Counselman set forth above. <sup>34</sup> The new Act removed the privilege against self-incrimination in hearings before the Interstate Commerce Commission and provided that:

'no person shall be prosecuted or subjected to any penalty or forfeiture for or on account of any transaction, matter or thing, concerning which he may testify, or produce evidence, documentary or otherwise . . .' Act of Feb. 11, 1893, 27 Stat. 444.

\*452 This transactional immunity statute became the basic form for the numerous federal immunity statutes <sup>35</sup> until 1970, when, after re-examining applicable constitutional principles and the adequacy of existing law, Congress enacted the statute here under consideration. <sup>36</sup> The \*\*1661 new statute, which does not 'afford (the) absolute immunity against future prosecution' referred to in Counselman, was drafted to meet what Congress judged to be the conceptual basis of Counselman, as elaborated in subsequent decisions of the Court, namely, that immunity from the \*453 use of compelled testimony and evidence derived therefrom is coextensive with the scope of the privilege. <sup>37</sup>

The statute's explicit proscription of the use in any criminal case of 'testimony or other information compelled under the order (or any information directly or indirectly derived from such testimony or other information)' is consonant with Fifth

Amendment standards. We hold that such immunity from use and derivative use is coextensive with the scope of the privilege against self-incrimination, and therefore is sufficient to compel testimony over a claim of the privilege. While a grant of immunity must afford protection commensurate with that afforded by the privilege, it need not be broader. Transactional immunity, which accords full immunity from prosecution for the offense to which the compelled testimony relates, affords the witness considerably broader protection than does the Fifth Amendment privilege. The privilege has never been construed to mean that one who invokes it cannot subsequently be prosecuted. Its sole concern is to afford protection against being 'forced to give testimony leading to the infliction of 'penalties affixed to . . . criminal acts." 38 Immunity from the use of compelled testimony, as well as evidence derived directly and indirectly therefrom, affords this protection. It prohibits the prosecutorial authorities from using the compelled testimony in any respect, and it therefore insures that the testimony cannot lead to the infliction of criminal penalties on the witness.

Our holding is consistent with the conceptual basis of Counselman. The Counselman statute, as construed by the Court, was plainly deficient in its failure to \*454 prohibit the use against the immunized witness of evidence derived from his compelled testimony. The Court repeatedly emphasized this deficiency, noting that the statute:

'could not, and would not, prevent the use of his testimony to search out other testimony to be used in evidence against him or his property, in a criminal proceeding . . .' 142 U.S., at 564, 12 S.Ct., at 198—199;

#### that it:

'could not prevent the obtaining and the use of witnesses and evidence which should be attributable directly to the testimony he might give under compulsion and on which he might be convicted, when otherwise, and if he had refused to answer, he could not possibly have been convicted,' ibid.;

#### and that it:

'affords no protection against that use of compelled testimony which consists in gaining therefrom a knowledge of the details of a crime, and of sources of information which may supply other means of convicting the witness or party.' 142 U.S., at 586, 12 S.Ct., at 206.

The basis of the Court's decision was recognized in Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S. 422, 76 S.Ct. 497, 100 L.Ed. 511 (1956), in which the Court reiterated \*\*1662 that the Counselman statute was insufficient:

'because the immunity granted was incomplete, in that it merely forbade the use of the testimony given and failed to protect a witness from future prosecution based on knowledge and sources of information obtained from the compelled testimony.' Id., at 437, 76 S.Ct., at 506. (Emphasis supplied.)

See also Arndstein v. McCarthy, 254 U.S. 71, 73, 41 S.Ct. 26, 27, 65 L.Ed. 138 (1920). The broad language in Counselman relied upon by petitioners \*455 was unnecessary to the Court's decision, and cannot be considered binding authority. 39

In Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S. 52, 84 S.Ct. 1594, 12 L.Ed.2d 678 (1964), the Court carefully considered immunity from use of compelled testimony and evidence derived therefrom. The Murphy petitioners were subpoenaed to testify at a hearing conducted by the Waterfront Commission of New York Harbor. After refusing to answer certain questions on the ground that the answers might tend to incriminate them, petitioners were granted immunity \*456 from prosecution under the laws of New Jersey and New York. 40 They continued to refuse to testify, however, on the ground that their answers might tend to incriminate them under federal law, to which the immunity did not purport to extend. They were adjudged in civil contempt, and that judgment was affirmed by the New Jersey Supreme Court. 41

The issue before the Court in Murphy was whether New Jersey and New York could compel the witnesses, whom these States had immunized from prosecution under their laws, to give testimony that might then be used to convict them of a federal crime. Since New Jersey and New York had not purported to confer immunity from federal prosecution, the Court was faced with the question what \*\*1663 limitations the Fifth Amendment privilege imposed on the prosecutorial powers of the Federal Government, a nonimmunizing sovereign. After undertaking an examination of the policies and purposes of the privilege, the Court overturned the rule that one jurisdiction within our federal structure may compel a witness to give testimony which could be used to convict him of a crime in another jurisdiction. 42

against incrimination under federal as well as state law, and federal witnesses against incrimination \*457 under state as well as federal law. Applying this principle to the state immunity legislation before it, the Court held the constitutional rule to be that:

'(A) state witness may not be compelled to give testimony which may be incriminating under federal law unless the compelled testimony and its fruits cannot be used in any manner by federal officials in connection with a criminal prosecution against him. We conclude, moreover, that in order to implement this constitutional rule and accommodate the interests of the State and Federal Government in investigating and prosecuting crime, the Federal Governments must be prohibited from making any such use of compelled testimony and its fruits.' 43 378 U.S., at 79, 84 S.Ct., at 1609.

The Court emphasized that this rule left the state witness and the Federal Government, against which the witness had immunity only from the use of the compelled testimony and evidence derived therefrom, 'in substantially the same position as if the witness had claimed his privilege in the absence of a state grant of immunity.' Id., at 79, 84 S.Ct., at 1610.

It is true that in Murphy the Court was not presented with the precise question presented by this case, whether a jurisdiction seeking to compel testimony may do so by granting only use and derivative-use immunity, for New Jersey and New York had granted petitioners transactional immunity. The Court heretofore has not \*458 squarely confronted this question, 44 because post-Counselman immunity statutes reaching the Court either have followed the pattern of the 1893 Act in providing transactional immunity, 45 or have been found deficient for failure to prohibit the use of all evidence derived from compelled testimony. \*\*1664 46 But both the reasoning of the Court in Murphy and the result reached compel the conclusion that use and derivative-use immunity is constitutionally sufficient to compel testimony over a claim of the privilege. Since the privilege is fully applicable and its scope is the same whether invoked in a state or in a federal jurisdiction, <sup>47</sup> the Murphy conclusion that a prohibition on use and derivative use secures a witness' Fifth Amendment privilege against infringement by the Federal Government demonstrates that immunity from use and derivative use is coextensive with the scope of the privilege. As the Murphy Court noted, immunity from use and derivative use 'leaves the witness and the Federal

Government in substantially the same position \*459 as if the witness had claimed his privilege 48 in the absence of a grant of immunity. The Murphy Court was concerned solely with the danger of incrimination under federal law, and held that immunity from use and derivative use was sufficient to displace the danger. This protection coextensive with the privilege is the degree of protection that the Constitution requires, and is all that the Constitution requires even against the jurisdiction compelling testimony by granting immunity. 49

IV

Although an analysis of prior decisions and the purpose of the Fifth Amendment privilege indicates that use and derivative-use immunity is coextensive with the privilege, we must consider additional arguments advanced by petitioners against the sufficiency of such immunity. We start from the premise, repeatedly affirmed by this Court, that an appropriately broad immunity grant is compatible with the Constitution.

Petitioners argue that use and derivative-use immunity will not adequately protect a witness from various possible incriminating uses of the compelled testimony: for example, the prosecutor or other law enforcement officials may obtain leads, names of witnesses, or other information not otherwise available that might result in a prosecution. It will be difficult and perhaps impossible, the argument goes, to identify, by testimony or cross-examination, the subtle ways in which the compelled testimony may disadvantage a witness, especially in the jurisdiction granting the immunity.

This argument presupposes that the statute's prohibition \*460 will prove impossible to enforce. The statute provides a sweeping proscription of any use, direct or indirect, of the compelled testimony and any information derived therefrom: '(N)o testimony or other information compelled under the order (or any information directly or indirectly derived from such testimony or other information) may be used against the witness in any criminal case . . .' 18 U.S.C. s 6002.

This total prohibition on use provides a comprehensive safeguard, barring the use of compelled testimony as an 'investigatory \*\*1665 lead, 50 and also barring the use of any evidence obtained by focusing investigation on a witness as a result of his compelled disclosures.

A person accorded this immunity under 18 U.S.C. s 6002, and subsequently prosecuted, is not dependent for the preservation of his rights upon the integrity and good faith of the prosecuting authorities. As stated in Murphy:

'Once a defendant demonstrates that he has testified, under a state grant of immunity, to matters related to the federal prosecution, the federal authorities have the burden of showing that their evidence is not tainted by establishing that they had an independent, legitimate source for the disputed evidence.' 378 U.S., at 79 n. 18, 84 S.Ct., at 1609.

This burden of proof, which we reaffirm as appropriate, is not limited to a negation of taint; rather, it imposes on the prosecution the affirmative duty to prove that the evidence it proposes to use is derived from a legitimate source wholly independent of the compelled testimony.

\*461 This is very substantial protection, <sup>51</sup> commensurate with that resulting from invoking the privilege itself. The privilege assures that a citizen is not compelled to incriminate himself by his own testimony. It usually operates to allow a citizen to remain silent when asked a question requiring an incriminatory answer. This statute, which operates after a witness has given incriminatory testiony, affords the same protection by assuring that the compelled testimony can in no way lead to the infliction of criminal penalties. The statute, like the Fifth Amendment, grants neither pardon nor amnesty. Both the statute and the Fifth Amendment allow the government to prosecute using evidence from legitimate independent sources.

The statutory proscription is analogous to the Fifth Amendment requirement in cases of coerced confessions. <sup>52</sup> A coerced confession, as revealing of leads as testimony given in exchange for immunity, <sup>53</sup> is inadmissible in a criminal trial, but it does not bar prosecution. <sup>54</sup> Moreover, a defendant against whom incriminating evidence has been obtained through a grant of immunity may be in a stronger position at trial than a defendant who asserts a Fifth Amendment coerced-confession claim. One raising a claim under this statute need only show that he testified under a grant of immunity in order to shift to the government the heavy burden of proving that all of the evidence it proposes to use was derived from \*462 legitimate independent sources. <sup>55</sup> On the other hand, a defendant raising a coerced-confession claim under the Fifth Amendment must first prevail in a

voluntariness hearing before his confession and evidence derived from it become inadmissible. <sup>56</sup>

\*\*1666 There can be no justification in reason or policy for holding that the Constitution requires an amnesty grant where, acting pursuant to statute and accompanying safeguards, testimony is compelled in exchange for immunity from use and derivative use when no such amnesty is required where the government, acting without colorable right, coerces a defendant into incriminating himself.

We conclude that the immunity provided by 18 U.S.C. s 6002 leaves the witness and the prosecutorial authorities in substantially the same position as if the witness had claimed the Fifth Amendment privilege. The immunity therefore is coextensive with the privilege and suffices to supplant it. The judgment of the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit accordingly is

Affirmed.

Mr. Justice BRENNAN and Mr. Justice REHNQUIST took no part in the consideration or decision of this case.

Mr. Justice DOUGLAS, dissenting.

The Self-Incrimination Clause says: 'No person . . . shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself.' I see no answer to the proposition that he is such a witness when only 'use' immunity is granted.

My views on the question of the scope of immunity that is necessary to force a witness to give up his guarantee \*463 against self-incrimination contained in the Fifth Amendment are so well known, see Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S. 422, 440, 76 S.Ct. 497, 507, 100 L.Ed. 51 (dissenting), and Piccirillo v. New York, 400 U.S. 548, 549, 91 S.Ct. 520, 521, 27 L.Ed.2d 596 (dissenting), that I need not write at length.

In Counselman v. Hitchcock, 142 U.S. 547, 586, 12 S.Ct. 195, 206, 35 L.Ed. 1110, the Court adopted the transactional immunity test: 'In view of the constitutional provision, a statutory enactment, to be valid, must afford absolute immunity against future prosecution for the offense to which the question relates.' Id., at 586, 12 S.Ct., at 206. In Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S. 591, 16 S.Ct. 644, 40 L.Ed. 819, a case involving another federal prosecution, the immunity statute provided that the witness would be protected 'on account of any transaction . . . concerning which he may testify.' Id., at 594, 16 S.Ct., at 645. The Court held that the

immunity offered was coterminous with the privilege and that the witness could therefore be compelled to testify, a ruling that made 'transactional immunity' part of the fabric of our constitutional law. Ullmann v. United States, supra, 350 U.S., at 438, 76 S.Ct., at 50.

This Court, however, apparently believes that Counselman and its progeny were overruled sub silentio in Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S. 52, 84 S.Ct. 1594, 12 L.Ed.2d 678, Murphy involved state witnesses, granted transactional immunity under state law, who refused to testify for fear of subsequent federal prosecution. We held that the testimony in question could be compelled, but that the Federal Government would be barred from using any of the testimony, or its fruits, in a subsequent federal prosecution.

Murphy overruled, not Counselman, but Feldman v. United States, 322 U.S. 487, 64 S.Ct. 1082, 88 L.Ed. 1408, which had held 'that one jurisdiction within our federal structure may compel a witness to give testimony which could be used to convict him of a crime in another jurisdiction.' Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, supra, 378 U.S., at 77, 84 S.Ct., at 1608. But Counselman, \*464 as the Murphy Court recognized, 'said nothing about the problem of incrimination under the law of another sovereign.' Id., at 72, 84 S.Ct., at 1606. That problem is one of federalism, as to require transactional immunity between jurisdictions might

'deprive a state of the right to prosecute a violation of its criminal law on the basis of another state's grant of immunity (a result which) would be gravely in derogation of its sovereignty and obstructive of its administration \*\*1667 of justice.' United States ex rel. Catena v. Elias, 449 F.2d 40, 44 (CA3 1971).

Moreover, as Mr. Justice Brennan has pointed out, the threat of future prosecution

'substantial when a single jurisdiction both compels incriminating testimony and brings a later prosecution, may fade when the jurisdiction bringing the prosecution differs from the jurisdiction that compelled the testimony. Concern over informal and undetected exchange of information is also correspondingly less when two different jurisdictions are involved.' Piccirillo v. New York, 400 U.S., at 568, 91 S.Ct., at 531 (dissenting).

None of these factors apply when the threat of prosecution is from the jurisdiction seeking to compel the testimony, which is the situation we faced in Counselman, and which

we face today. The irrelevance of Murphy to such a situation was made clear in Albertson v. Subversive Activities Control Board, 382 U.S. 70, 86 S.Ct. 194, 15 L.Ed.2d 165, in which the Court struck down an immunity statute because it failed to measure up to the standards set forth in Counselman. Inasmuch as no interjurisdictional problems presented themselves, Murphy was not even cited. That is further proof that Murphy was not thought significantly to \*465 undercut Counselman. See Stevens v. Marks, 383 U.S. 234, 244—245, 86 S.Ct. 788, 793—794, 15 L.Ed.2d 724; id., at 249—250, 86 S.Ct., at 796—797 (Harlan, J., concurring and dissenting); Mansfield, The Albertson Case: Conflict Between the Privilege Against Self-Incrimination and the Government's Need for Information, 1966 Sup.Ct.Rev. 103, 164.

If, as some have thought, the Bill of Rights contained only 'counsels of moderation' from which courts and legislatures could deviate according to their conscience or discretion, then today's contraction of the Self-Incrimination Clause of the Fifth Amendment would be understandable. But that has not been true, starting with Chief Justice Marshall's opinion in \*466 United States v. Burr, 25 F.Cas. p. 38 (No. 14,692e) (CC Va.), where he ruled that the reach of the Fifth Amendment was so broad as to make the privilege applicable when there was a mere possibility of a criminal charge being made.

The Court said in Hale v. Henkel, 201 U.S. 43, 67, 26 S.Ct. 370, 376, 50 L.Ed. 652 that 'if the criminality has already been taken away, the Amendment ceases to apply.' In other words, the immunity granted is adequate if it operates as a complete pardon for the offense. Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S., at 595, 16 S.Ct., at 646. That is the true measure of the Self-Incrimination Clause. As Mr. Justice \*\*1668 Brennan has stated: '(U)se immunity literally misses half the point of the privilege, for it permits the compulsion without removing the criminality.' Piccirillo v. New York, supra, 400 U.S., at 567, 91 S.Ct., at 530 (dissenting).

#### As Mr. Justice Brennan has also said:

'Transactional immunity . . . provides the individual with an assurance that he is not testifying about matters for which he may later be prosecuted. No question arises of tracing the use or non-use of information gleaned from the witness' compelled testimony. The sole question presented to a court is whether the subsequent prosecution is related to the substance of the compelled testimony. Both witness and government know precisely where they stand. Respect for law is furthered when the individual knows his position and is not

left suspicious that a later prosecution was actually the fruit of his compelled testimony.' 400 U.S., at 568—569, 91 S.Ct. at 531 (dissenting).

When we allow the prosecution to offer only 'use' immunity we allow it to grant far less than it has taken away. For while the precise testimony that is compelled may not be used, leads from that testimony may \*467 be pursued and used to convict the witness. My view is that the framers put it beyond the power of Congress to compel anyone to confess his crimes. The Self-Incrimination Clause creates, as I have said before, 'the federally protected right of silence,' making it unconstitutional to use a law 'to pry open one's lips and make him a witness against himself.' Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S., at 446, 76 S.Ct., at 511 (dissenting). That is indeed one of the chief procedural guarantees in our accusatorial system. Government acts in an ignoble way when it stoops to the end which we authorize today.

I would adhere to Counselman v. Hitchcock and hold that this attempt to dilute the Self-Incrimination Clause is unconstitutional.

Mr. Justice MARSHALL, dissenting.

Today the Court holds that the United States may compel a witness to give incriminating testimony, and subsequently prosecute him for crimes to which that testimony relates. I cannot believe the Fifth Amendment permits that result. See Piccirillo v. New York, 400 U.S. 548, 552, 91 S.Ct. 520, 522, 27 L.Ed.2d 596 (1971) (Brennan, J., dissenting from dismissal of certiorari).

The Fifth Amendment gives a witness an absolute right to resist interrogation, if the testimony sought would tend to incriminate him. A grant of immunity \*468 may strip the witness of the right to refuse to testify, but only if it is broad enough to eliminate all possibility that the testimony will in fact operate to incriminate him. It must put him in precisely the same position, vis-a -vis the government that has compelled his testimony, \* as he would have been in had he remained silent in reliance on the privilege. Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S. 422, 76 S.Ct. 497, 100 L.Ed. 511 (1956); McCarthy v. Arndstein, 266 U.S. 34, 45 S.Ct. 16, 69 L.Ed. 158 (1924); Hale v. Henkel, 201 U.S. 43, 26 S.Ct. 370, 50 L.Ed. 652 (1906); \*\*1669 Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S. 591, 16 S.Ct. 644, 40 L.Ed. 819 (1896); Counselman v. Hitchcock, 142 U.S. 547, 12 S.Ct. 195, 35 L.Ed. 1110 (1892).

The Court recognizes that an immunity statute must be tested by that standard, that the relevant inquiry is whether it 'leaves the witness and the prosecutorial authorities in substantially the same position as if the witness had claimed the Fifth Amendment privilege.' Ante, at 1666. I assume, moreover, that in theory that test would be met by a complete ban on the use of the compelled testimony, including all derivative, use, however remote and indirect. But I cannot agree that a ban on use will in practice be total, if it remains open for the government to convict the witness on the basis of evidence derived from a legitimate independent source. The Court asserts that the witness is adequately protected by a rule imposing on the government a heavy burden of proof if it would establish the independent character of evidence to be used against the witness. But in light of the inevitable uncertainties of the fact-finding process, see Speiser v. Randall, 357 U.S. 513, 525, 78 S.Ct. 1332, 1341, 2 L.Ed.2d 1460 (1958), a greater margin of protection is required in order to provide a reliable guarantee that the witness \*469 is in exactly the same position as if he had not testified. That margin can be provided only by immunity from prosecution for the offenses to which the testimony relates, i.e., transactional immunity.

I do not see how it can suffice merely to put the burden of proof on the government. First, contrary to the Court's assertion, the Court's rule does leave the witness 'dependent for the preservation of his rights upon the integrity and good faith of the prosecuting authorities.' Ante, at 1665. For the information relevant to the question of taint is iniquely within the knowledge of the prosecuting authorities. They alone are in a position to trace the chains of information and investigation that lead to the evidence to be used in a criminal prosecution. A witness who suspects that his compelled testimony was used to develop a lead will be hard pressed indeed to ferret out the evidence necessary to prove it. And of course it is no answer to say he need not prove it, for though the Court puts the burden of proof on the government, the government will have no difficulty in meeting its burden by mere assertion if the witness produces no contrary evidence. The good faith of the prosecuting authorities is thus the sole safeguard of the witness' rights. Second, even their good faith is not a sufficient safeguard. For the paths of information through the investigative bureaucracy may well be long and winding, and even a prosecutor acting in the best of faith cannot be certain that somewhere in the depths of his investigative apparatus, often including hundreds of employees, there was not some prohibited use of the compelled testimony. Cf. Giglio v. United States, 405 U.S.

150, 92 S.Ct. 763, 31 L.Ed.2d 104 (1972); Santobello v. New York, 404 U.S. 257, 92 S.Ct. 495, 30 L.Ed.2d 427 (1971). The Court today sets out a loose net to trap tainted evidence and prevent its use against the witness, but it accepts an intolerably great risk that tainted evidence will in fact slip through that net

\*470 In my view the Court turns reason on its head when it compares a statutory grant of immunity to the 'immunity' that is inadvertently conferred by an unconstitutional interrogation. The exclusionary rule of evidence that applies in that situation has nothing whatever to do with this case. Evidence obtained through a coercive interrogation, like evidence obtained through an illegal search, is excluded at trial because the Constitution prohibits such methods of gathering evidence. The exclusionary rules provide a partial and inadequate remedy to some victims of illegal police conduct, and a similarly partial and inadequate deterrent to police officers. An immunity statute, on the other hand, is much more ambitious than any exclusionary rule. It does not merely attempt to provide a remedy for past police misconduct, \*\*1670 which never should have occurred. An immunity statute operates in advance of the event, and it authorizes-even encourages-interrogation that would otherwise be prohibited by the Fifth Amendment. An immunity statute thus differs from an exclusionary rule of evidence in at least two critical respects.

First, because an immunity statute gives constitutional approval to the resulting interrogation, the government is under an obligation here to remove the danger of incrimination completely and absolutely, whereas in the case of the exclusionary rules it may be sufficient to shield the witness from the fruits of the illegal search or interrogation in a partial and reasonably adequate manner. For when illegal police conduct has occurred, the exclusion of evidence does not purport to purge the conduct of its unconstitutional character. The constitutional violation remains, and may provide the basis for other relief, such as a civil action for damages (see 42 U.S.C. s 1983 and Bivens v. Six Unknown Named Agents, 403 U.S. 388, 91 S.Ct. 1999, 29 L.Ed.2d 619 (1971)), or a criminal prosecution of the responsible \*471 officers (see 18 U.S.C. ss 241, 242). The Constitution does not authorize police officers to coerce confessions or to invade privacy without cause, so long as no use is made of the evidence they obtain. But this Court has held that the Constitution does authorize the government to compel a witness to give potentially incriminating testimony, so long as no incriminating use is made of the resulting evidence. Before the government puts its seal of approval on such an

interrogation, it must provide an absolutely reliable guarantee that it will not use the testimony in any way at all in aid of prosecution of the witness. The only way to provide that guarantee is to give the witness immunity from prosecution for crimes to which his testimony relates.

Second, because an immunity statute operates in advance of the interrogation, there is room to require a broad grant of transactional immunity without imperiling large numbers of otherwise valid convictions. An exclusionary rule comes into play after the interrogation or search has occurred; and the decision to question or to search is often made in haste, under pressure, by an officer who is not a lawyer. If an unconstitutional interrogation or search were held to create transactional immunity, that might well be regarded as an excessively high price to pay for the 'constable's blunder.' An

immunity statute, on the other hand, creates a framework in which the prosecuting attorney can make a calm and reasoned decision whether to compel testimony and suffer the resulting ban on prosecution, or to forgo the testimony.

For both these reasons it is clear to me that an immunity statute must be tested by a standard far more demanding than that appropriate for an exclusionary rule fashioned to deal with past constitutional violations. Measured by that standard, the statute approved today by the Court fails miserably. I respectfully dissent.

#### **All Citations**

406 U.S. 441, 92 S.Ct. 1653, 32 L.Ed.2d 212

#### **Footnotes**

- \* The syllabus constitutes no part of the opinion of the Court but has been prepared by the Reporter of Decisions for the convenience of the reader. See United States v. Detroit, Timber & Lumber Co., 200 U.S. 321, 337, 26 S.Ct. 282, 287, 50 L.Ed. 499.
- 1 The contempt order was issued pursuant to 28 U.S.C. s 1826.
- For a concise history of testimonial compulsion prior to the adoption of our Constitution, see 8 J. Wigmore, Evidence s 2190 (J. McNaughton rev. 1961). See Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S. 422, 439 n. 15, 76 S.Ct. 497, 507, 100 L.Ed. 511 (1956); Blair v. United States, 250 U.S. 273, 39 S.Ct. 468, 63 L.Ed. 979 (1919).
- 3 Statute of Elizabeth, 5 Eliz. 1, c. 9, s 12 (1562).
- 4 Countess of Shrewsbury's Case, 2 How.St.Tr. 769, 778 (1612).
- See the parliamentary debate on the Bill to Indemnify Evidence, particularly the remarks of the Duke of Argyle and Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, reported in 12 T. Hansard, Parliamentary History of England 675, 693 (1812). See also Piemonte v. United States, 367 U.S. 556, 559 n. 2, 81 S.Ct. 1720, 1722, 6 L.Ed.2d 1028 (1961); Ullmann v. United States, supra, 350 U.S., at 439 n. 15, 76 S.Ct., at 507; Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S. 591, 600, 16 S.Ct. 644, 648, 40 L.Ed. 819 (1896).
- 6 1 Stat. 73, 88—89.
- 7 See Blair v. United States, supra, 250 U.S., at 281, 39 S.Ct., at 471; 8 Wigmore, supra, n. 2, ss 2192, 2197.
- 8 See Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S. 52, 55, 84 S.Ct. 1594, 1596, 12 L.Ed.2d 678 (1964).
- 9 See Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S., at 426, 76 S.Ct., at 500; E. Griswold, The Fifth Amendment Today 7 (1955).

- Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, supra, 378 U.S., at 94, 84 S.Ct., at 1611 (White, J., concurring); McCarthy v. Arndstein, 266 U.S. 34, 40, 45 S.Ct. 16, 17, 69 L.Ed. 158 (1924); United States v. Saline Bank, 1 Pet. 100, 7 L.Ed. 69 (1828); cf. Gardner v. Broderick, 392 U.S. 273, 88 S.Ct. 1913, 20 L.Ed.2d 1082 (1968).
- Hoffman v. United States, 341 U.S. 479, 486, 71 S.Ct. 814, 818, 95 L.Ed. 1118 (1951); Blau v. United States, 340 U.S. 159, 71 S.Ct. 223, 95 L.Ed. 170 (1950); Mason v. United States, 244 U.S. 362, 365, 37 S.Ct. 621, 622, 61 L.Ed. 1198 (1917).
- See, e.g., Miranda v. Arizona, 384 U.S. 436, 443—444, 86 S.Ct. 1602, 1611—1612, 16 L.Ed.2d 694 (1966); Boyd v. United States, 116 U.S. 616, 635, 6 S.Ct. 524, 534, 29 L.Ed. 746 (1886).
- Soon after the privilege against compulsory self-incrimination became firmly established in law, it was recognized that the privilege did not apply when immunity, or 'indemnity,' in the English usage, had been granted. See L. Levy, Origins of the Fifth Amendment 328, 495 (1968). Parliament enacted in immunity statute in 1710 directed against illegal gambling, 9 Anne, c. 14, ss 3—4, which became the model for an identical immunity statute enacted in 1774 by the Colonial Legislature of New York. Law of Mar. 9, 1774, c. 1651, 5 Colonial Laws of New York 621, 623 (1894). These statutes provided that the loser could sue the winner, who was compelled to answer the loser's charges. After the winner responded and returned his illgotten gains, he was 'acquitted, indemnified (immunized) and discharged from any further or other Punishment, Forfeiture or Penalty, which he . . . may have incurred by the playing for, and winning such Money . . . .' 9 Anne, c. 14, s 4 (1710); Law of Mar. 9, 1774, c. 1651, 5 Colonial Laws of New York, at 623.

Another notable instance of the early use of immunity legislation is the 1725 impeachment trial of Lord Chancellor Macclesfield. The Lord Chancellor was accused by the House of Commons of the sale of public offices and appointments. In order to compel the testimony of Masters in Chancery who had allegedly purchased their offices from the Lord Chancellor, and who could incriminate themselves by so testifying. Parliament enacted a statute granting immunity to persons then holding office as Masters in Chancery. Lord Chancellor Macclesfield's Trial, 16 How.St.Tr. 767, 1147 (1725). See 8 Wigmore, supra, n. 2, s 2281, at 492. See also Bishop Atterbury's Trial, 16 How.St.Tr. 323, 604—605 (1723). The legislatures in colonial Pennsylvania and New York enacted immunity legislation in the 18th century. See, e.g., Resolution of Jan. 6, 1758, in Votes and Proceedings of the House of Representatives of the Province of Pennsylvania (1682 —1776), 6 Pennsylvania Archives (8th series) 4679 (C. Hoban ed. 1935); Law of Mar. 24, 1772, c. 1542, 5 Colonial Laws of New York 351, 353—354; Law of Mar. 9, 1774, c. 1651, id., at 621, 623; Law of Mar. 9, 1774, c. 1655, id., at 639, 641—642. See generally L. Levy, Origins of the Fifth Amendment 359, 384—385, 389, 402—403 (1968). Federal immunity statutes have existed since 1857. Act of Jan. 24, 1857, 11 Stat. 155. For a history of the various federal immunity statutes, see Comment, The Federal Witness Immunity Acts in Theory and Practice: Treading the Constitutional Tightrope, 72 Yale L.J. 1568 (1963); Wendel, Compulsory Immunity Legislation and the Fifth Amendment Privilege: New Developments and New Confusion, 10 St. louis U.L.Rev. 327 (1966); and National Commission on Reform of Federal Criminal Laws, Working Papers, 1406—1411 (1970).

See, e.g., Resolution of Jan. 6, 1758, n. 13, supra, 6 Pennsylvania Archives (8th series) 4679 (C. Hoban ed. 1935); Law of Mar. 24, 1772, c. 1542, 5 Colonial Laws of New York 351, 354; Law of Mar. 9, 1774, c. 1655, id., at 639, 642. Bishop Atterbury's Trial, supra, for which the House of Commons passed immunity legislation, was a prosecution for treasonable conspiracy. See id., at 604—605; 8 Wigmore, supra, n. 2, s 2281, at 492 n. 2. supra, n. 2, s 2281, at 492 n. 2. for which Parliament passed immunity legislation, was a prosecution for political bribery involving the sale of public offices and appointments. See id., at 1147. The first federal immunity statute was enacted to facilitate an investigation of charges of corruption and vote buying in the House of Representatives. See Comment, n. 13, supra, 72 Yale L.J., at 1571.

- See 8 Wigmore, supra, n. 2, s 2281, at 492. Mr. Justice White noted in his concurring opinion in Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S., at 92, 84 S.Ct., at 1610, that immunity statutes 'have for more than a century been resorted to for the investigation of many offenses, chiefly those whose proof and punishment were otherwise impracticable, such as political bribery, extortion, gambling, consumer frauds, liquor violations, commercial larceny, and various forms of racketeering.' Id., at 94—95, 84 S.Ct., at 1611. See n. 14, supra.
- 16 See Comment, n. 13, supra, 72 Yale L.J., at 1576.
- For a listing of these statutes, see National Commission on Reform of Federal Criminal Laws, Working Papers, 1444—1445 (1970).
- For a listing of these statutes, see 8 Wigmore, supra, n. 2, s 2281, at 495 n. 11.
- 19 See, e.g., 8 J. Wigmore, Evidence s 2281, at 501 (3d ed. 1940); 8 Wigmore, supra, n. 2 s 2281, at 496.
- See Hale v. Henkel, 201 U.S. 43, 70, 26 S.Ct. 370, 377, 50 L.Ed. 652 (1906); Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S., at 610, 16 S.Ct., at 652.
- This statement was made with specific reference to the Compulsory Testimony Act of 1893, 27 Stat. 443, the model for almost all federal immunity statutes prior to the enactment of the statute under consideration in this case. See Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S., at 95, 84 S.Ct., at 1612 (White, J., concurring).
- 22 Accord, Gardner v. Broderick, 392 U.S., at 276, 88 S.Ct., at 1915; Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, supra; McCarthy v. Arndstein, 266 U.S., at 42, 45 S.Ct., at 17 (Brandeis, J.); Heike v. United States, 227 U.S. 131, 142, 33 S.Ct. 226, 228, 57 L.Ed. 450 (1913) (Holmes, J.).
- For other provisions of the 1970 Act relative to immunity of witnesses, see 18 U.S.C. ss 6001—6005.
- 24 See, e.g., Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, supra, 378 U.S. at 54, 78, 84 S.Ct., at 1596, 1609, 12 L.Ed.2d 678; Counselman v. Hitchcock, 142 U.S. 547, 585, 12 S.Ct. 195, 206, 35 L.Ed. 1110 (1892).
- 25 See Piccirillo v. New York, 400 U.S. 548, 91 S.Ct. 520, 27 L.Ed.2d 596 (1971).
- 26 15 Stat. 37.
- 27 See Counselman v. Hitchcock, supra, 142 U.S., at 560, 12 S.Ct., at 197.
- 28 In re Counselman, 44 F. 268 (CCND III. 1890).
- 29 Counselman v. Hitchcock, supra, 142 U.S., at 564, 12 S.Ct., at 198—199.
- Precisely, the Court held 'that legislation cannot abridge a constitutional privilege, and that it cannot replace or supply (sic) one, at least unless it is so broad as to have the same extent in scope and effect.' Id., at 585, 12 S.Ct., at 206. See Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, supra, 378 U.S., at 54, 78, 81 S.Ct., at 1596, 1609.
- Counselman was decided Jan. 11, 1892. Senator Cullom introduced the new bill on Jan. 27, 1892. 23 Cong.Rec. 573.
- 32 23 Cong.Rec. 6333.
- 33 Act of February 11, 1893, 27 Stat. 443, repealed by the Organized Crime Control Act of 1970, Pub.L.No. 91 —452, s 245, 84 Stat. 931.

- See the remarks of Senator Cullom, 23 Cong.Rec. 573, 6333, and Congressman Wise, who introduced the bill in the House. 24 Cong.Rec. 503. See Shapiro v. United States, 335 U.S. 1, 28—29 and n. 36, 68 S.Ct. 1375, 1389—1390, 92 L.Ed. 1787 (1948).
- 35 Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S., at 438, 76 S.Ct., at 506; Shapiro v. United States, supra, 335 U.S., at 6, 68 S.Ct., at 1378. There was one minor exception. See Piccirillo v. New York, 400 U.S., at 571 and n. 11, 91 S.Ct., at 532 (Brennan, J., dissenting); Arndstein v. McCarthy, 254 U.S. 71, 73, 41 S.Ct. 26, 27, 65 L.Ed. 138 (1920).
- The statute is a product of careful study and consideration by the National Commission on Reform of Federal Criminal Laws, as well as by Congress. The Commission recommended legislation to reform the federal immunity laws. The recommendation served as the model for this statute. In commenting on its proposal in a special report to the President, the Commission said:

'We are satisfied that our substitution of immunity from use for immunity from prosecution meets constitutional requirements for overcoming the claim of privilege. Immunity from use is the only consequence flowing from a violation of the individual's constitutional right to be protected from unreasonable searches and seizures, his constitutional right to counsel, and his constitutional right not to be coerced into confessing. The proposed immunity is thus of the same scope as that frequently, even though unintentionally, conferred as the result of constitutional violations by law enforcement officers.' Second Interim Report of the National Commission on Reform of Federal Criminal Laws, Mar. 17, 1969, Working Papers of the Commission, 1446 (1970).

The Commission's recommendation was based in large part on a comprehensive study of immunity and the relevant decisions of this Court prepared for the Commission by Prof. Robert G. Dixon, Jr., of the George Washington University Law Center, and transmitted to the President with the recommendations of the Commission. See National Commission on Reform of Federal Criminal Laws, Working Papers, 1405—1444 (1970).

- 37 See S.Rep.No.91—617, pp. 51—56, 145 (1969); H.R.Rep.No.91—1549, p. 42 (1970).
- 38 Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S., at 438—439, 76 S.Ct., at 507, quoting Boyd v. United States, 116 U.S., at 634, 6 S.Ct., at 534. See Knapp v. Schweitzer, 357 U.S. 371, 380, 78 S.Ct. 1302, 1308, 2 L.Ed.2d 1393 (1958).
- Cf. The Supreme Court, 1963 Term, 78 Harv.L.Rev. 179, 230 (1964). Language similar to the Counselman dictum can be found in Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S., at 594—595, 16 S.Ct., at 645—646, and Hale v. Henkel, 201 U.S., at 67, 26 S.Ct., at 376. Brown and Hale, however, involved statutes that were clearly sufficient to supplant the privilege against self-incrimination, as they provided full immunity from prosecution 'for or on account of any transaction, matter or thing concerning which he may testify, or produce evidence . . .' 161 U.S., at 594, 16 S.Ct., at 645; 201 U.S., at 66, 26 S.Ct., at 375. The same is true of Smith v. United States, 337 U.S. 137, 141, 146, 69 S.Ct. 1000, 1002, 1005, 93 L.Ed. 1264 (1949), and United States v. Monia, 317 U.S. 424, 425, 428, 63 S.Ct. 409, 410, 411, 87 L.Ed. 376 (1943). In Albertson v. Subversive Activities Control Board, 382 U.S. 70, 86 S.Ct. 194, 15 L.Ed.2d 165 (1965), some of the Counselman language urged upon us by petitioners was again quoted. But Albertson, like Counselman, involved an immunity statute that was held insufficient for failure to prohibit the use of evidence derived from compelled admissions and the use of compelled admissions as an 'investigatory lead.' Id., at 80, 86 S.Ct., at 199.

In Adams v. Maryland, 347 U.S. 179, 182, 74 S.Ct. 442, 445, 98 L.Ed. 608 (1954), and in United States v. Murdock, 284 U.S. 141, 149, 52 S.Ct. 63, 64, 76 L.Ed. 210 (1931), the Counselman dictum was referred to as the principle of Counselman. The references were in the context of ancillary points not essential to the decisions of the Court. The Adams Court did note, however, that the Fifth Amendment privilege prohibits the

'use' of compelled self-incriminatory testimony. 347 U.S., at 181, 74 S.Ct., at 445. In any event, the Court in Ullmann v. United States, 350 U.S., at 436—437, 76 S.Ct., at 505—506, recognized that the rationale of Counselman was that the Counselman statute was insufficient for failure to prohibit the use of evidence derived from compelled testimony. See also Arndstein v. McCarthy, 254 U.S., at 73, 41 S.Ct., at 27.

- The Waterfront Commission of New York Harbor is a bistate body established under an interstate compact approved by Congress. 67 Stat. 541.
- 41 In re Application of Waterfront Comm'n of N. Y. Harbor, 39 N.J. 436, 189 A.2d 36 (1963).
- Reconsideration of the rule that the Fifth Amendment privilege does not protect a witness in one jurisdiction against being compelled to give testimony that could be used to convict him in another jurisdiction was made necessary by the decision in Malloy v. Hogan, 378 U.S. 1, 84 S.Ct. 1489, 12 L.Ed.2d 653 (1964), in which the Court held the Fifth Amendment privilege applicable to the States through the Fourteenth Amendment. Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S., at 57, 84 S.Ct., at 1597.
- At this point the Court added the following note: 'Once a defendant demonstrates that he has testified, under a state grant of immunity, to matters related to the federal prosecution, the federal authorities have the burden of showing that their evidence is not tainted by establishing that they had an independent, legitimate source for the disputed evidence.' Id., at 79 n. 18, 84 S.Ct., at 1609. If transactional immunity had been deemed to be the 'constitutional rule' there could be no federal prosecution.'
- See, e.g., California v. Byers, 402 U.S. 424, 442, n. 3, 91 S.Ct. 1535, 1545, 29 L.Ed.2d 9 (1971) (Harlan, J., concurring in judgment); United States v. Freed, 401 U.S. 601, 606 n. 11, 91 S.Ct. 1112, 1116, 28 L.Ed.2d 356 (1971); Piccirillo v. New York, 400 U.S. 548, 91 S.Ct. 520, 27 L.Ed.2d 596 (1971); Stevens v. Marks, 383 U.S. 234, 244—245, 86 S.Ct. 788, 793—794 (1966).
- E.g., Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, supra; Ullmann v. United States, supra; Smith v. United States, 337 U.S. 137, 69 S.Ct. 1000, 93 L.Ed. 1264 (1949); United States v. Monia, 317 U.S. 424, 63 S.Ct. 409, 87 L.Ed. 376 (1943); Hale v. Henkel, 201 U.S. 43, 26 S.Ct. 370, 50 L.Ed. 652 (1906); Jack v. Kansas, 199 U.S. 372, 26 S.Ct. 73, 50 L.Ed. 234 (1905); Brown v. Walker, 161 U.S. 591, 16 S.Ct. 644, 40 L.Ed. 819 (1896). See also n. 35, supra.
- 46 E.g., Albertson v. Subversive Activities Control Board, 382 U.S., at 80, 86 S.Ct., at 199; Arndstein v. McCarthy, 254 U.S., at 73, 41 S.Ct., at 27.
- In Malloy v. Hogan, 378 U.S., at 10—11, 84 S.Ct., at 1494—1495 the Court held that the same standards would determine the extent or scope of the privilege in state and in federal proceedings, because the same substantive guarantee of the Bill of Rights is involved. The Murphy Court emphasized that the scope of the privilege is the same in state and in federal proceedings. Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S., at 79, 84 S.Ct., at 1609—1610.
- 48 Ibid.
- As the Court noted in Gardner v. Broderick, 392 U.S., at 276, 88 S.Ct., at 1915, '(a)nswers may be compelled regardless of the privilege if there is immunity from federal and state use of the compelled testimony or its fruits in connection with a criminal prosecution against the person testifying.'
- See, e.g., Albertson v. Subversive Activities Control Board, 382 U.S., at 80, 86 S.Ct., at 199.
- 51 See Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S., at 102—104, 84 S.Ct., at 1615—1617 (White, J., concurring).

- 52 Adams v. Maryland, 347 U.S., at 181, 74 S.Ct., at 444; Bram v. United States, 168 U.S. 532, 542, 18 S.Ct. 183, 186, 42 L.Ed. 568 (1897).
- As Mr. Justice White, concurring in Murphy, pointed out:

'A coerced confession is as revealing of leads as testimony given in exchange for immunity and indeed is excluded in part because it is compelled incrimination in violation of the privilege. Malloy v. Hogan (378 U.S. 1, 7—8, 84 S.Ct. 1489, at 1493—1494, 12 L.Ed.2d 653); Spano v. New York, 360 U.S. 315, 79 S.Ct. 1202, 3 L.Ed.2d 1265; Bram v. United States, 168 U.S. 532, 18 S.Ct. 183, 42 L.Ed. 568.' 378 U.S., at 103, 84 S.Ct., at 1616.

- 54 Jackson v. Denno, 378 U.S. 368, 84 S.Ct. 1774, 12 L.Ed.2d 908 (1964).
- See supra, at 1664; Brief the United States 37; Cf. Chapman v. California, 386 U.S. 18, 87 S.Ct. 824, 17 L.Ed.2d 705 (1967).
- 56 Jackson v. Denno, supra.
- In Albertson v. Subversive Activities Control Board, 382 U.S. 70, 86 S.Ct. 194, 15 L.Ed.2d 165, the Court was faced with a Fifth Amendment challenge to the Communist registration provision of the Subversive Activities Control Act of 1950, 64 Stat. 987. We held that the provision violated the prospective registrant's privilege against self-incrimination, and that the registration provision was not saved by a so-called 'immunity statute' (s 4(f)) which prohibited the introduction into evidence in any criminal prosecution of the fact of registration under the Act. The Court's analysis of this immunity provision rested solely on Counselman:

'In Counselman v. Hitchcock, 142 U.S. 547, 12 S.Ct. 195, 35 L.Ed. 1110, decided in 1892, the Court held 'that no (immunity) statute which leaves the party or witness subject to prosecution after he answers the criminating question put to him, can have the effect of supplanting the privilege . . .,' and that such a statute is valid only if it supplies 'a complete protection from all the perils against which the constitutional prohibition was designed to guard . . .' by affording 'absolute immunity against future prosecution for the offence to which the question relates.' Id., at 585—586, 12 S.Ct., at 206. Measured by these standards, the immunity granted by s 4(f) is not complete.' 382 U.S., at 80, 86 S.Ct., at 199. (Emphasis added.)

Thus, the Albertson Court, which could have struck the statute by employing the test approved today, went well beyond, and measured the statute solely against the more restrictive standards of Counselman.

- As Mr. Justice Marshall points out, post, at 1669, it is futile to expect that a ban on use or derivative use of compelled testimony can be enforced.
  - It is also possible that use immunity might actually have an adverse impact on the administration of justice rather than promote law enforcement. A witness might believe, with good reason, that his 'immunized' testimony will inevitably lead to a felony conviction. Under such circumstances, rather than testify and aid the investigation, the witness might decide he would be better off remaining silent even if he is jailed for contempt.
- \* This case does not, of course, involve the special considerations that come into play when the prosecuting government is different from the government that has compelled the testimony. See Murphy v. Waterfront Comm'n, 378 U.S. 52, 84 S.Ct. 1594, 12 L.Ed.2d 678 (1964).