Mercer Law Review

Volume 56 Number 4 Eleventh Circuit Survey

Article 22

7-2005

United States v. Patane: The Supreme Court's Continued Assault on Miranda

David Bosworth

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.law.mercer.edu/jour_mlr



Part of the Criminal Procedure Commons

Recommended Citation

Bosworth, David (2005) "United States v. Patane: The Supreme Court's Continued Assault on Miranda," Mercer Law Review: Vol. 56: No. 4, Article 22.

Available at: https://digitalcommons.law.mercer.edu/jour_mlr/vol56/iss4/22

This Casenote is brought to you for free and open access by the Journals at Mercer Law School Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Mercer Law Review by an authorized editor of Mercer Law School Digital Commons. For more information, please contact repository@law.mercer.edu.

CASENOTE

United States v. Patane: The Supreme Court's Continued Assault on Miranda

I. INTRODUCTION

In *United States v. Patane*, ¹ the United States Supreme Court ruled on the issue of whether a police officer's failure to give a suspect the complete *Miranda* warnings required the court to suppress a gun found as a result of the suspect's voluntary statements. ² In a 5-4 decision, the Court held that failure to give such warnings does not require suppression of physical evidence gained from unwarned voluntary statements. ³ The dissenting justices were concerned about the negative effects this ruling would have on police procedures, judicial inquiries, and suspect's rights. ⁴ This decision creates another exception to the *Miranda* rule and could have the effect of weakening the rule in its entirety.

^{1. 124} S. Ct. 2620 (2004) (plurality opinion).

^{2.} Id. at 2624 (plurality opinion).

^{3.} Id. at 2630 (plurality opinion).

^{4.} Id. at 2631-32 (plurality opinion).

II. FACTUAL BACKGROUND

In 2001 Samuel Francis Patane violated a restraining order by attempting to telephone his ex-girlfriend, Linda O'Donnell. In June of that year, Colorado Springs Police Officer Tracy Fox began to investigate the matter. Around the same time, another detective, Josh Benner, received information that Patane, a convicted felon, illegally possessed a .40 caliber Glock pistol. Fox and Benner proceeded to Patane's residence together.⁵

After reaching the residence, Officer Fox inquired into Patane's attempts to contact O'Donnell and found sufficient cause to make an arrest for violation of a restraining order. After the arrest, Detective Benner attempted to advise Patane of his rights under Miranda v. Arizona, but Patane interrupted, asserting that he knew his rights. Neither officer attempted to complete the Miranda warnings. Benner then proceeded to ask Patane about the Glock. Patane was initially hesitant to discuss the matter, saying that he was not sure he should tell Benner anything because he did not want Benner to take the gun away. After Benner persisted, Patane told him that the pistol was in his bedroom and gave the detective permission to retrieve the gun. 7

Patane was charged with, and later indicted by a grand jury for, possession of a firearm by a convicted felon. The United States District Court for the District of Colorado granted Patane's motion to suppress the pistol on the grounds that the officers lacked probable cause to arrest him. Although the Tenth Circuit Court of Appeals reversed the probable cause ruling, the Court affirmed the suppression order on an alternate theory that the gun was the fruit of an unwarned statement.⁸ On a grant of certiorari, the Supreme Court reversed and remanded the case in a 5-4 decision.⁹

III. LEGAL BACKGROUND

A. Miranda: A Solution to Coercive Police Tactics

The Self-Incrimination Clause of the Fifth Amendment states: "No person . . . shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness

^{5.} Id. at 2624-25 (plurality opinion).

^{6. 384} U.S. 436 (1966).

^{7.} Patane, 124 S. Ct. at 2625 (plurality opinion).

^{8.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{9.} Id. at 2630 (plurality opinion).

against himself." The Supreme Court has long recognized that the Fifth Amendment, in concert with the Fourteenth Amendment's due process clause, prohibits the use of coerced confessions in both state and federal courts. 11 In the early twentieth century, the Court based its determination of whether a confession was coerced or voluntary on the evaluation of the "totality of the circumstances" surrounding the interrogation. 12 A confession was deemed voluntary, and therefore admissible, if it was not "extracted by any sort of threats or violence. nor obtained by any direct or implied promises, however slight, nor by the exertion of any improper influence." While the "totality of the circumstances" test proved to be effective at deterring physical coercion by police during custodial interrogations, the test had less of an effect on deterring the increasingly psychological tactics used by police towards the middle of the twentieth century. 14 These psychological tactics made the voluntariness of a statement harder to determine and the "totality of the circumstances" test more difficult to apply. 15

Recognizing that the modern practice of custodial interrogation was becoming more psychological in nature, the Warren Court attempted to set concrete guidelines for law enforcement agencies to follow.¹⁶ In

^{10.} U.S. CONST. amend. V.

^{11.} See, e.g., Ashcraft v. Tennessee, 322 U.S. 143, 154 n.9 (1944) (overturning the conviction of a man who confessed after 36 straight hours of police interrogation without sleep or rest by experienced investigators and highly trained lawyers).

^{12.} Fikes v. Alabama, 352 U.S. 191, 197 (1957) (holding that the admission into evidence of the confession of an uneducated African-American, who was taken to the state prison far from his home, repeatedly questioned in isolation, and denied the presence of his father and lawyer, was a violation of his due process rights).

^{13.} Bram v. United States, 168 U.S. 532, 542-43 (1897) (quoting 3 RUSSELL ON CRIMES 478 (6th ed. 1896)) (finding a detective's testimony regarding confessionary statements made by the accused to him in a previous interview to be inadmissible due to the fact that they were not given voluntarily by the accused).

^{14.} Police began developing psychological interrogation tactics such as good cop/bad cop (one police officer being extremely friendly and understanding while the other acted in an overly harsh and antagonizing manner), false line-ups (in which the suspect was put in a line-up and identified by a coached witness before interrogation), blame shifting (where the interrogating officer would downplay the seriousness of the crime and blame the victim or society), and false legal advice (for example, officers telling suspects that their crimes only constituted self-defense in order to gain confessions). Interrogators also developed canned responses to discourage witnesses from following through on requests to consult an attorney. Miranda v. Arizona, 384 U.S. 436, 455 (1966) (citing FRED E. INBAU & JOHN E. REID, CRIMINAL INTERROGATION AND CONFESSIONS (1962)).

^{15.} Spano v. New York, 360 U.S. 315, 321 (1959) (holding a conviction based on the confession of a suspect invalid when police officers denied a suspect that turned himself in the right to see his previously retained attorney and continued to question him for eight more hours).

^{16.} Miranda, 384 U.S. at 441-42.

Miranda v. Arizona, the Court first developed a specific set of preinterrogation warnings that must be given to suspects under custodial interrogations.¹⁷ According to the Court, custodial interrogation is "questioning initiated by law enforcement officers after a person has been taken into custody or otherwise deprived of his freedom of action in any significant way."18 Before police interrogate a suspect in custody, the suspect must be informed that (1) they have the right to remain silent, (2) that any statement they do make may be used against them, and (3) that they have a right to an attorney, either retained or appointed. 19 Waiver of these rights is only effective if made voluntarily, knowingly, and intelligently after the warnings have been given.²⁰ In addition to the warning, the Court also established procedural safeguards to protect a suspect's Fifth Amendment right against selfincrimination. Once a suspect has invoked their Fifth Amendment right to remain silent, the police must stop the interrogation, and the prosecution may not use the suspect's refusal to cooperate against the suspect at tial.21

The Court implemented the *Miranda* warnings and their procedural safeguards based on the reasoning that confessions gained in a coercive atmosphere could never truly be the product of free choice.²² The Court based this conclusion on cases in which the defendants' statements may have been voluntary in the traditional sense, but their admissions were nonetheless violations of the Fifth Amendment right against self-incrimination.²³ The Court made it clear that a statement would not be admissible without both the proper warnings and adequate waiver.²⁴

^{17.} Id. at 444.

^{18.} Id.

^{19.} Id.

^{20.} Id. at 444, 470.

^{21.} Id. at 468, 473-74.

^{22.} Id. at 458.

^{23.} Id. at 456. The Court was referring to Townsend v. Sain, 372 U.S. 293, 303 (1963) (holding inadmissible the confession of a 19-year-old heroine addict who was described as a "near mental defective"); Lynumn v. Illinois, 372 U.S. 578 (1963) (reversing the conviction of a woman who confessed after being told that her children would be removed by the authorities if she did not cooperate); and Haynes v. Washington, 373 U.S. 503 (1963) (reversing the conviction of a man who repeatedly asked to speak with either his wife or attorney during police interrogation and was refused until he gave a written confession).

^{24.} Miranda, 384 U.S. at 476.

B. A Changing Court's Distaste for Miranda as Evidenced by a Systematic Erosion of the Ruling

The Warren Court decided Miranda in 1966, but soon after, beginning in 1970, the Burger Court started to weaken the precedent Miranda set forth. With the addition of Chief Justice Burger in 1969, followed by Blackmun in 1970, and later Powell and Rehnquist in 1972, the Court began to back away from the rationale adopted in Miranda. Instead of classifying Miranda warnings as a constitutional right in and of themselves, the newly structured Court chose to view the warnings prescribed by Miranda as prophylactic in nature. Characterizing the Miranda decision as prophylactic instead of constitutional allowed the Court much more discretion in determining how Miranda should be applied. The newly aligned Court used this distinction to systematically weaken the rule instead of overruling their brethren on a decision with which they did not agree.

Evidence of this strategy can first be seen in Harris v. New York. 25 A mere five years after the Miranda decision, the Court held that while statements gained from a suspect in violation of Miranda could not be used in the prosecution's case-in-chief, they were admissible for impeaching a witness's testimony at trial. 26 In Harris a suspected drug dealer was arrested and then questioned without being advised of his right to counsel. 27 At trial, the prosecution used the transcript of this questioning to impeach Harris's testimony. 28 Chief Justice Burger stated that "the shield of Miranda" could not be used to prevent the prosecution from admitting into evidence prior inconsistent utterances the defendant made voluntarily. 29 The Court was not concerned about weakening the deterrence effects of Miranda, reasoning that inappropriate police conduct was sufficiently discouraged by the exclusion of evidence from the prosecutions case-in-chief. 30

Using similar reasoning, the Court in *Michigan v. Tucker*³¹ approved the use of testimony from a man that police located only as a result of the suspect's comments during unwarned questioning.³² In *Tucker* the Court reiterated the proposition that statements taken in violation of

^{25. 401} U.S. 222 (1971).

^{26.} Id. at 226.

^{27.} Id. at 224.

^{28.} Id. at 223.

^{29.} Id. at 226.

^{30.} Id.

^{31. 417} U.S. 433 (1974).

^{32.} Id. at 452.

Miranda principles cannot be used by the prosecution to prove its case at trial.³³ However, the court reasoned that because Tucker's statements were only used to locate a witness and were not used by the prosecution in its case-in-chief, there was no violation of Tucker's constitutional rights under the Fifth Amendment.³⁴ The Court concluded that the police did not violate the suspect's right against self-incrimination, but only infringed upon the prophylactic rules put in place by Miranda to protect that right.³⁵ Again, the Court was not swayed by the need to deter inappropriate police conduct, stating that this rationale loses much of its force when the police acted in good faith.³⁶

The Supreme Court developed another exception to the Miranda rule in New York v. Quarles. 37 In Quarles a police officer pursued Benjamin Quarles, an armed rape suspect, into a grocery store. After apprehending Quarles, the officer noticed that Quarles was wearing an empty shoulder holster and asked him where he hid the gun. Quarles indicated that the gun was hidden in some empty cartons, and the officer retrieved the weapon.³⁸ The Supreme Court of Queens County, New York held that the gun was inadmissible because the suspect was not given Miranda warnings before his confession about the whereabouts of the weapon.³⁹ This decision was affirmed on appeal through the New York Court of Appeals.⁴⁰ On a grant of certiorari, the Supreme Court reversed.41 In an opinion written by Justice Rehnquist, the Court introduced a "public safety" exception to the Miranda rule. 42 Once again, the Court viewed Miranda warnings as prophylactic, saying that the warnings themselves are not rights, but simply a means to protect the actual right against self-incrimination. 43 The Court reasoned that the need for answers from a suspect when public safety is concerned outweighed the need for a prophylactic rule protecting the constitutional right against self-incrimination.44

^{33.} Id. at 445.

^{34.} Id.

^{35.} Id. at 445-46.

^{36.} Id. at 447.

^{37. 467} U.S. 649 (1984).

^{38.} Id. at 652.

^{39.} Id. at 652-53.

^{40.} Id. at 653.

^{41.} Id. at 660.

^{42.} Id. at 655-56.

^{43.} Id. at 654.

^{44.} Id. at 657.

The Court's characterization of Miranda as a prophylactic rule continued in Oregon v. Elstad. 45 In Elstad, Michael Elstad was suspected of burglarizing his neighbor's home. Two police officers went to his home with a warrant for his arrest. During an interrogation in his living room. Elstad admitted that he had participated in the burglary, and the officers transported him to the sheriff's headquarters. Approximately one hour later, Elstad was advised of his Miranda rights and proceeded to give a full confession. 46 The Oregon Court of Appeals reversed Elstad's conviction, reasoning that after the earlier confession in the living room the "cat was sufficiently out of the bag to exert a coercive impact on [Elstad's] later admissions."47 On a grant of certiorari, the Supreme Court suppressed Elstad's first unwarned confession but allowed his later confession to be admitted at trial.48 The Court reasoned that a subsequent administration of Miranda warnings would cure the condition that made the previous statement inadmissible.49 If the first statement was voluntary, then the only relevant inquiry is whether the second statement was also voluntary.⁵⁰ Thus, the Court held that a suspect can waive their rights and confess despite previously responding to unwarned questioning.⁵¹

C. Dickerson Demands a Commitment: Miranda as a Prophylactic Rule or a Constitutional Rule?

After three decades and numerous decisions characterizing Miranda as a prophylactic rule, the Supreme Court complicated the issue when it held that Miranda was a constitutional rule in Dickerson v. United States. ⁵² In Dickerson the Court held that because Miranda announced a constitutional rule, Congress could not supercede it legislatively. ⁵³ Miranda's application to state court proceedings was one factor the Court relied upon in its characterization of Miranda as constitutional. ⁵⁴

^{45. 470} U.S. 298 (1985).

^{46.} Id. at 300-01.

^{47.} Id. at 303.

^{48.} Id. at 318.

^{49.} Id. at 310-11.

^{50.} Id. at 318.

^{51.} Id.

^{52. 530} U.S. 428 (2000).

^{53.} Id. at 444. At issue in Dickerson was 18 U.S.C. § 3501, a federal evidentiary statute, which created the rule that the admissibility of a statement made during a custodial interrogation would turn on whether it was voluntarily made. According to the statute, the issue of whether Miranda warnings were given or not would simply be one factor for ascertaining the voluntariness of the statement.

^{54.} Id. at 438.

The Court reasoned that *Miranda* must be a constitutional decision because the Supreme Court has no supervisory authority over state judicial proceedings unless enforcement of the Constitution is involved. The Court also noted that this conclusion was buttressed by the fact that prisoners were allowed to bring *Miranda* violations before the federal courts in habeas corpus proceedings. For a habeas corpus proceeding to be available, the prisoner must allege that they were in custody in violation of either the Constitution, laws, or treaties of the United States. The Court stated that "[s]ince the *Miranda* rule is clearly not based on federal laws or treaties . . ." allowing for review of *Miranda* claims in habeas corpus proceedings assumes that *Miranda*'s origin is constitutional. 58

The Court addressed some of the exceptions previously made to the *Miranda* rule in cases such as *Quarles* and *Harris* by explaining that the earlier decisions illustrated that "no constitutional rule is immutable." The Court stated that it would be impossible for courts to foresee all the circumstances in which counsel could attempt to apply a general rule that had been laid down, and the modifications represented by the earlier cases "are as much a normal part of constitutional law as the original decision." The Court also stated that *Elstad* simply stood for the proposition that "unreasonable searches under the Fourth Amendment are different from unwarned interrogation under the Fifth Amendment."

In holding that *Miranda* announced a constitutional rule, the Court in *Dickerson* moved away from its former view of *Miranda* as a prophylaxis protecting the right against self-incrimination. Although the Court reasoned that the holding in *Dickerson* was reconcilable with its earlier decisions in *Harris, Tucker, Quarles,* and *Elstad* because "no constitutional rule is immutable," the decision created splits in the courts of appeals on the issue. ⁶³ Four years after *Dickerson*, the Court attempted to clarify its position in *Patane*. ⁶⁴

^{55.} Id.

^{56.} Id. at 438 n.3.

^{57.} Id.

^{58.} Id.

^{59.} Id. at 441.

^{60.} Id.

^{61.} Id.

^{62.} Id.

^{63.} United States v. Patane, 124 S. Ct. 2620, 2624 (2004) (plurality opinion).

^{64. 124} S. Ct. 2620 (plurality opinion).

IV. COURT'S RATIONALE

A. The Plurality Opinion (Thomas, Rehnquist, and Scalia)

In the plurality opinion of *United States v. Patane*, ⁶⁵ the Court concluded that failure to give a suspect the warnings proscribed by *Miranda* ⁶⁶ did not require the suppression of physical fruits obtained through a suspect's unwarned but voluntary statements. ⁶⁷ The plurality based this conclusion on the fact that the *Miranda* rule is a prophylaxis used to protect against violations of the Self-Incrimination Clause ("Clause") of the Fifth Amendment. ⁶⁸ Because the admission into evidence of the physical fruit of a voluntary statement does not implicate the Clause, the Court refused to extend the *Miranda* rule to the context of the *Patane* case. ⁶⁹ The Court stated that *Miranda* primarily focuses on the criminal trial and is not a code of police conduct; therefore, police do not violate the Constitution by failing to give suspects *Miranda* warnings. ⁷⁰

The Court stated that the core protection provided by the Clause is against compelling a criminal defendant to testify against themselves at trial. In essence, the Clause "was directed at the employment of the legal process to extract from the person's own lips an admission of guilt, which would thus take the place of other evidence[.]" The Court admitted that it had applied several prophylactic rules, including Miranda, in an effort to protect the privilege against self-incrimination. The Court reasoned that these rules were necessary to address the concern that "an inability to protect the right [against self-incrimination] at one stage of a proceeding may make its invocation useless at a later stage." The Court, however, also realized that these prophylactic rules were necessarily broader than the actual protections of the Clause and that "any further extension of these rules must be justified by its necessity for the protection of the actual right against compelled

^{65. 124} S. Ct. 2620 (2004) (plurality opinion).

^{66.} Miranda v. Arizona, 384 U.S. 436 (1966).

^{67.} Patane, 124 S. Ct. at 2624.

^{68.} Id. at 2626 (plurality opinion); U.S. CONST. amend. V.

^{69.} Patane, 124 S. Ct. at 2626 (plurality opinion).

^{70.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{71.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{72.} Id. (plurality opinion) (quoting 8 J. WIGMORE, EVIDENCE IN TRIALS AT COMMON LAW § 2263, at 378 (J. McNaughton, rev. ed. 1961)).

^{73.} Id. at 2627 (plurality opinion).

^{74.} Id. (plurality opinion) (quoting Michigan v. Tucker, 417 U.S. 433, 440-41 (1974)).

self-incrimination."⁷⁵ For this reason, the Court concluded that the *Miranda* rule does not require that the fruits of unwarned statements be discarded as inherently tainted.⁷⁶

The Court also found a reason not to expand *Miranda* to Patane's situation in the actual text of the Clause. The Court pointed out that the language in the Fifth Amendment stating that no person... shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself contains its own exclusionary rule. Due to this rule, confessions or evidence derived from coercive police tactics are automatically prevented from being used at trial. The Court reasoned that a strong presumption against expanding the *Miranda* rule exists because of this explicit textual protection.

Addressing the characterization of Miranda in Dickerson v. United States⁸² as one laying down a constitutional rule, the Court denied that its ruling in Dickerson changed any of its observations in the present case. 83 The Court based this conclusion on the fact that "nothing in Dickerson call[ed] into question [its] continued insistence that the closest possible fit be maintained between the Self-Incrimination Clause and any rule designed to protect it."84 Although the Court in Dickerson noted that cases since Miranda have reduced its impact on legitimate law enforcement, Miranda's core ruling that unwarned statements cannot be used in the prosecution's case-in-chief was intact.85 The Court stated that its continued reliance on previous cases involving Miranda, including both Michigan v. Tucker⁸⁶ and Oregon v. Elstad, 87 in Dickerson demonstrated the continued validity of these decisions.⁸⁸ The Court reasoned that "Dickerson's characterization of Miranda as a constitutional rule [did] not lessen the need to maintain the closest possible fit between the Self-Incrimination Clause and any judge-made rule to protect it."89 The Court then concluded that there was no such

^{75.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{76.} Id. at 2628 (plurality opinion).

^{77.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{78.} U.S. CONST. amend. V.

^{79.} Patane, 124 S. Ct. at 2628 (plurality opinion).

^{80.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{81.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{82. 530} U.S. 428 (2000).

^{83.} Patane, 124 S. Ct. at 2628 (plurality opinion).

^{84.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{85.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{86. 417} U.S. 433 (1974).

^{87. 470} U.S. 298 (1985).

^{88.} Patane, 124 S. Ct. at 2628 (plurality opinion).

^{89.} Id. at 2629-30 (plurality opinion).

fit in the present case because the admission of nontestimonial fruit of a voluntary statement presented no risk that the suspect's coerced statements would be used against him at trial.⁹⁰

The plurality conceded that if *Dickerson* stood for the proposition that the taking of unwarned statements by police in itself violates a suspect's constitutional rights, as the court of appeals held, then a strong deterrence rationale would exist for suppression of the fruits. The Court, however, reasoned that because potential *Miranda* violations do not occur until the admission of unwarned statements at trial, there was nothing to deter. The Court further stated that it was not its place to impose preferred police practices on law enforcement officials. Therefore, because police cannot violate the Self-Incrimination Clause by taking voluntary statements from suspects that have not been warned according to *Miranda*, extending the rule in the present case could not be justified under a deterrence effect on law enforcement.

B. The Kennedy and O'Connor Concurrence

Justices Kennedy and O'Connor concurred only in judgment with the plurality opinion. 95 They stated that the concerns underlying the Miranda rule must be viewed in light of other objectives of the criminal justice system. 96 They agreed that Dickerson did not undermine earlier Supreme Court precedents regarding Miranda, and noted that the case against Patane presented an even stronger case for admitting the evidence derived from his unwarned statements into evidence because the gun in this case was physical in nature, as opposed to testimonial like the earlier cases of Elstad and Tucker. 97 Accordingly, permitting the gun into evidence "does not run the risk of admitting into trial an accused's coerced incriminating statements against himself."98 concurrence also noted that due to the important probative value of reliable physical evidence, a deterrence rationale could not justify exclusion of the evidence. 99 The concurring justices differed in opinion from the plurality because they determined that it was unnecessary to decide whether the failure to give Patane full Miranda warnings should

^{90.} Id. at 2630 (plurality opinion).

^{91.} Id. at 2629 (plurality opinion).

^{92.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{93.} Id. (plurality opinion).

^{94.} Id. at 2630 (plurality opinion).

^{95.} Id. (Kennedy & O'Connor, JJ., concurring).

^{96.} Id. at 2631 (Kennedy & O'Connor, JJ., concurring).

^{97.} Id. (Kennedy & O'Connor, JJ., concurring).

^{98.} Id. (Kennedy & O'Connor, JJ., concurring).

^{99.} Id. (Kennedy & O'Connor, JJ., concurring).

be deemed a violation of the *Miranda* rule itself.¹⁰⁰ The concurrence also argued that it was unnecessary to determine whether there was anything to deter as long as the unwarned statements were not later used at trial.¹⁰¹

C. The Souter, Stevens, and Ginsburg Dissent

The dissent focused on the deterrence effect of *Miranda*. ¹⁰² Its concern was whether the majority's refusal to suppress physical evidence obtained through unwarned but voluntary statements would create an incentive for police to omit *Miranda* warnings. ¹⁰³ According to the dissent, a *Miranda* violation during a custodial interrogation raises a presumption of coercion. ¹⁰⁴ If the police do not give the warning meant to counter that coercive environment, then the confession is inadmissible. ¹⁰⁵ To turn around and allow tangible evidence to be admitted as evidence would only increase the difficulty of assessing the voluntariness of any information given under custodial interrogation. ¹⁰⁶ The dissent recognized the price involved in some cases when the evidence would be excluded, but determined that protecting the Fifth Amendment was worth the price. ¹⁰⁷

The dissent did not agree with the rest of the Court that this case fell in line with the other exceptions previously on the books. 108 They distinguished *Harris*, arguing that allowing the use of unwarned statements for impeachment purposes was necessary to protect the integrity of the judicial process, a concern not at issue in the present case. 109 The dissent also noted that the police's failure to warn Patane could not be justified by any public safety concerns as was the case in *Quarles*. 110 They also reasoned that *Elstad* was not on point because the issue in *Elstad* involved a second set of statements after the *Miranda* warning was given. 111 The dissent reasoned that the *Elstad* rule did not apply to a gun that was seized "once and for all." 112 Thus,

^{100.} Id. (Kennedy & O'Connor, JJ., concurring).

^{101.} Id. (Kennedy & O'Connor, JJ., concurring).

^{102.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{103.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{104.} Id. at 2632 (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{105.} Id. at 2631 (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{106.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{107.} Id. at 2631-32 (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{108.} Id. at 2632 (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{109.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{110.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{111.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{112.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

the dissent feared that the case at hand was an invitation to police to ignore *Miranda* when there was incriminating physical evidence to be gained as a result.¹¹³

D. The Breyer Dissent

Justice Breyer wrote a short dissent in which he agreed with Justice Souter's dissent and stated that he would apply the "fruit of the poisonous tree" doctrine to the context of the present case. Breyer advocated an approach that would exclude physical evidence derived from unwarned statements unless the failure to provide the *Miranda* warnings was made in good faith. 115

V. IMPLICATIONS

In United States v. Patane, 116 the Supreme Court faced the difficult task of attempting to interpret the precedent set forth in Miranda v. Arizona 117 in a way that did not infringe upon an individual's Fifth Amendment right against self incrimination, but still allowed the interest of justice to be served when police, acting in good faith, negligently omit Miranda warnings. The Court's ruling that physical evidence obtained from unwarned statements can be admitted at trial if it was gained from voluntary statements will have wide ranging effects on police procedures, judicial inquiries, and suspect's rights.

One important consequence of this decision is that allowing the admission of physical evidence from unwarned, but voluntary, statements, while disallowing the same evidence if gained from coercion, forces judges to decide whether unwarned statements that lead to physical evidence were given voluntarily. This task is inherently difficult. In essence, the majority is revitalizing the old "totality of the circumstances" test with regard to physical evidence. It should not be overlooked that this is the test the Court in *Miranda* sought to clarify. The Court in *Miranda* attempted to do away with the difficult inquiry into voluntariness by assuming a coercive atmosphere unless certain warnings are given to, and effectively waived by, the suspect. The Court's willingness to ignore this assumption and look solely at the

^{113.} Id. (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).

^{114.} Id. (Breyer, J., dissenting).

^{115.} Id. (Breyer, J., dissenting). Justice Breyer expressed the same view in his concurring opinion in *Missouri v. Siebert*, 124 S. Ct. 2601, 2613 (2004) (noting that *Miranda* warnings given to suspect mid-interrogation after confession were insufficient to make another confession post-warning admissible at trial).

^{116. 124} S. Ct. 2620 (2004) (plurality opinion).

^{117. 384} U.S. 436 (1966).

voluntariness of the statements as the determining factor of admissibility of physical evidence effectively weakened the entire *Miranda* rule because physical evidence can be as persuasive as testimonial evidence.

Also, as the dissent noted, this decision will give evidentiary advantages to police that ignore Miranda. 118 Under the Court's judgment, police could decline to give a suspect Miranda warnings before interrogation, and the suspect, not knowing of their right to remain silent, may volunteer incriminating statements that lead to the discovery of equally incriminating physical evidence. While the statements themselves would not be admissible, the evidence would be, so long as the statements were deemed to be voluntary. This result ignores the fact that physical evidence may be equally as damning as testimonial evidence. As in the case at hand, a gun found as the result of such an interrogation may be sufficient alone to convict a defendant at trial. This result has the possibility of undermining the protection against self-incrimination that Miranda was supposed to ensure. The plurality's conclusion that physical evidence is not protected under Miranda ignores the possible testimonial nature of physical evidence. Why should a defendant's unwarned statement that he has a gun be suppressed while the gun itself should not? The incentive that the Court has created for police to build cases in this manner could be a serious consequence overlooked by the plurality.

Taken as a whole, Patane is simply an addition to a long line of exceptions to the Miranda rule implemented by the Supreme Court since the early 1970s. The Court should exercise caution when creating exceptions to Miranda in order to preserve the valuable protection that the Fifth Amendment gives to individuals in harsh custodial atmospheres. At the same time, the Court must not interpret Miranda so strictly that serious injustices result from mistakes made by police acting in good faith. In doing so, the Court seems to be content with a case-by-case approach to Miranda issues for fear that any bright line test offered would simply be perverted to distort the spirit of Miranda. However, with the addition of each new exception, Miranda is weakened a little more. Each exception is one more step down a slippery slope that may eventually lead to the extinction of the protections the Court in Miranda sought to institute.

DAVID BOSWORTH

^{118.} United States v. Patane, 124 S. Ct. 2620, 2631 (2004) (Souter, Stevens & Ginsburg, JJ., dissenting).