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POINTS TO REMEMBER

Aircraft -- Sentencing Procedures Under  
Sec. 36(b), Title 18, U.S.C.--Im-  
parting or Conveying False Information  
Concerning the Destruction of Aircraft  
Facilities

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On March 8, 1972 Judge Thomas R. McMillan, United States district court, N.E. Ill., sentenced Roy Ray King to three years imprisonment following King's guilty plea to a charge of making false reports concerning the destruction of an American Airlines aircraft in January 1972. The maximum penalty for such an offense is five years incarceration and a \$5000 fine.

The recent wave of extortion demands and bomb threats resulted in a Presidential statement of March 9, 1972 promising to "crush" this threat to air commerce, and also prompted Mr. Kleindienst's telegram to all United States Attorneys requesting that air security meetings be held in all United States judicial districts. It is anticipated that an increased number of cases under 18 U.S.C. 35(b) will result from these bomb threats. The imparting of false information with respect to the destruction of aircraft and aircraft facilities falls under 18 U.S.C. 35(b) while the actual destruction of such aircraft or aircraft facilities is punishable under 18 U.S.C. 32. The Department has always maintained a policy of speedy prosecutions and has advocated substantial sentences with respect to violations under 18 U.S.C. 35(b).

Firearms--Guidelines and Suggestions Regarding  
Firearms Prosecutions Under 18 U.S.C. App.  
1202 in Light of the Bass Case

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The following supplements the guidelines and suggestions contained in the United States Attorneys Bulletin, Volume 19 No. 24, concerning prosecutions affected by the Supreme Court case of United States v. Bass, 404 U.S. 336, 92 S. Ct. 515, 30 L. Ed. 2d 488.

(a) Proof of the Commerce Element

In the Bass case the Supreme Court held that Title 18, Appendix, Section 1202 does not make it a crime for a convicted felon merely to possess a firearm. The Court said that the statute requires the government to allege and prove in each case involving unlawful "possession," "receipt" or "transportation" was "in commerce or affecting commerce." The Court's opinion suggested several relatively easy ways to proving the commerce element. Some of the more obvious modes of proof are reviewed below.

In cases where there is proof that the defendant "possessed" or "transported" a firearm under circumstances affecting commerce as, for example, while traveling on an interstate carrier, such proof will satisfy the commerce element of the offense under Bass. However, experience has shown that in most cases the defendant is found in possession of a firearm under circumstances which, in and of themselves, do not affect commerce; for example, the firearm is found in his home during a search.

In these cases the government can prosecute under the theory that the defendant "received" the firearm in interstate commerce. In its discussion of the "offense of receiving . . . in commerce or affecting commerce" (See p. 14 of the Bass opinion) the Supreme Court said, in pertinent part, "We conclude that the Government meets its burden here if it demonstrates that the firearm received has previously traveled in interstate commerce." It should be noted, however, that the receipt or the possession in commerce must have occurred subsequent to the date of the enactment of the law, June 19, 1968, to avoid raising an ex post facto issue. Several Circuit Courts of Appeal have held that Section 1202 is not ex post facto as applied to transactions occurring subsequent to the date of the Act. Cf. United States v. Crow, 439 F. 2d 1193 (9th Cir., 1971); United States v. Karnes, 437 F. 2d 284 (9th Cir., 1971). Cf. also Cases v. United States, 131 F. 2d 916 (1st Cir., 1942), cert. denied 319 U.S. 777.

Proof that the firearm has moved in interstate commerce can be accomplished by several means as indicated below:

(1) Dealer's records and testimony

When direct testimony as to its interstate movement is not available, the easiest and most convenient mode of proof is the use of dealer's testimony and records in those cases where the gun in question was purchased by the dealer from out-of-state. In those cases where a purchase from another state cannot be shown, the history of the gun must be traced by the investigative agency until its interstate character can be established.

(2) Manufacturer's records

Often the records of the manufacturer whose name is imprinted on the firearm will be the only way to establish that the firearm at some prior time moved in interstate commerce. The manufacturer's records are admissible into evidence under the Federal Records Act, 28 U.S.C. 1732. While this statute obviates the hearsay problems of a business entry, it is deemed necessary to call an employee of the manufacturer as a witness to lay a foundation for the admission of the business record.

(3) Use of expert testimony in connection with the markings on the gun

The commerce element may be proved by a manufacturer's markings on the gun as explained and interpreted by testimony of firearms experts from the Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms Division of the Internal Revenue Service. The serial number, name of the manufacturer or his symbol, and place of manufacture have been required by law to be placed on all firearms since the enactment of the Gun Control Act of 1968. Cf. 26 C.F.R. 178.92 and 178.123. Prior to that time serial number and place of manufacture were required on all firearms except shotguns and .22 caliber rifles. 26 C.F.R. 177.50. Firearms experts available through the ATF regional offices may be called upon to identify weapons, testify as to the place of the manufacture, and offer their opinion as to the authenticity of the manufacturer's markings. In cases where the gun contains no markings an ATF expert may be able to identify the firearm by its characteristics and testify as to its place of manufacture. In any event United States Attorneys should consult with ATF regional officials and establish procedures and understandings regarding the availability and acquisition of expert witnesses.

(4) Stipulations

It is considered likely that if investigative reports show clearly that the commerce element can be proved by one of the means indicated above, the defense may be willing to enter into a stipulation of expected testimony thus avoiding the necessity of calling out-of-state witnesses. This possibility should be explored by the prosecution in every instance, especially where the calling of out-of-state manufacturers or dealers is contemplated.

(b) Affidavits for search warrants; probable cause

The Criminal Division has consulted with the ATF national headquarters in the development of a suggested form for affidavits demonstrating probable cause in support of applications for search warrants which will be issued to field agents through ATF channels. In assisting ATF agents to prepare legally sufficient affidavits in support of search warrants and in reviewing such documents, the following suggestions are appropriate in addition to the suggestions in the Department's Search and Seizure Manual. To satisfy the probable cause requirement the affiant must have a reasonable and reliable basis to believe that the defendant's possession of the gun or guns in question constitutes a violation of federal law. For example, the affiant must have reason to believe that the defendant (1) received the firearm after June 19, 1968, and (2) that the weapon moved interstate at some prior time; or (3) the agent must have reason to believe that the firearm was otherwise possessed by the defendant in commerce, such as possession on an interstate carrier. Since all manufacturers are required by law to imprint firearms

with place of manufacture and serial number and record this information, knowledge on the part of the agent that the firearm has a manufacturer's identification indicating out-of-state manufacture should suffice to establish probable cause for arrest for receipt in interstate commerce or for a search warrant. According to ATF officials, undercover agents and informants will be instructed to develop this information.

(c) Double Jeopardy

With regard to convictions which were overturned by the Bass decision, many of these cases can be reindicted without violating the double jeopardy clause of the Constitution. In most cases where a conviction was obtained, reindictment can be sought if the commerce element can be proved. However, if the defendant was acquitted at the first trial, he should not be reindicted. See United States v. Ball, 163 U.S. 662.

In cases where the defendant was convicted under an indictment which merely charged him with possession of a firearm and which did not contain the words "in commerce or affecting commerce," and the conviction was reversed after Bass, it would appear that reindictment would be possible since the first indictment failed to allege an essential element of the crime. Cf. United States v. Ball, supra, Bryan v. United States, 338 U.S. 522, and United v. Tateo, 373 U.S. 463. Note, however, that if the trial court declared a mistrial over the objection, or without concurrence, of the defense in a case which was being tried when Bass was decided, retrial is most likely not possible since the defendant was denied his opportunity to have an acquittal on the merits. Cf. United States v. Jorn, 400 U.S. 475. In those few cases where the government alleged in the indictment that the possession was "in commerce or affecting commerce" but failed to offer proof of the commerce element at trial, reindictment should not be sought.

(d) Collateral attack by defendant on the underlying felony conviction

In general, if a person falls within one of the classifications enumerated in 18 U.S.C. App. 1202(a), he is subject to prosecution for violation of the statute unless he has obtained relief pursuant to 18 U.S.C. 925(c). Collateral attack on an underlying conviction or indictment will be resisted except as noted below with respect to the Second and Seventh Circuits. (See United States v. Files, 432 F. 2d 18 (9th Cir., 1970) and United States v. DePugh, 393 F. 2d 367 (8th Cir., 1968) which support this position).

In explanation of the exceptions applicable to the Second and Seventh Circuits, the United States Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit recently held in a case under 18 U.S.C. App. 1202 (United States v. Lufman, No. 71-1418, Feb-

ruary 4, 1972) that the underlying prior conviction is void ab initio in cases where the defendant was not represented by counsel at the trial which resulted in such underlying prior conviction. Previously the Second Circuit rendered a similar decision in a case under 18 U.S.C. 922 (United States v. DeShane, 435 F. 2d 187 (2d Cir., 1970) and thus would probably follow the Seventh Circuit's holding in Lufman. The Criminal Division believes that these cases were wrongly decided. In the event you should be confronted with this question the General Crimes Section will, upon request, provide you with a copy of its brief in the Lufman case and such other assistance as you may need.

- (e) The Bass Case does not affect Title I of the Gun Control Act of 1968 (18 U.S.C. 922) or Title II (26 U.S.C. 5861) firearms prosecutions

The Supreme Court decided the Bass case on a matter of statutory construction of Title 18, Appendix, Section 1202. The Court specifically did not decide the constitutional issue. The Court simply held that interstate commerce must be proved since the words "in commerce" were in the statute and the legislative history was ambiguous as to whether or not Congress intended to require the government to prove a commerce connection in each case. Under the strict construction principles of criminal law the Court resolved the ambiguity against the government. It has come to our attention that some trial courts have raised questions as to whether or not the holding in the Bass case requires the government to prove that the firearms involved in 18 U.S.C. 922(a)(1) (engaging in business without a license) and 18 U.S.C. 922(a)(6) (Making a false statement in the acquisition of a firearm) actually moved across state lines. Such proof is not required. The constitutional predicate relating to interstate commerce was satisfied in the lengthy congressional hearings and findings by Congress that the firearms trade affects commerce and that the problem can only be properly dealt with by federal regulation and control. (See 82 Stat. 225, sec. 901(a)(1) and (3); United States v. Gross, 313 F. Supp. 1330 (S.D. Ind., 1970); aff'd 451 F. 2d 1335 (7th Cir., 1971); United States v. Fancher, 323 F. Supp. 1969 (D.C.S.D. 1971). See also United States v. Crandell, (1st Cir., No. 71-1212, January 17, 1972) (a post-Bass case); United States v. Nelson (5th Cir., No. 71-3030 March 16, 1972) (a post-Bass case); United v. Menna, 451 F. 2d 982, 9th Cir., 1971; United States v. Trioli, 308 F. Supp. 358 (D. Mass., 1970)).

It should be noted with regard to prosecutions under 26 U.S.C. 5861 that the taxing power of Congress and not the commerce power is the basis of the statute. Cf. United States v. Matthews, 438 F. 2d 715 (5th Cir., 1971) United States v. Giannini, No. 26,819, 9th Cir., January 27, 1972.

Prosecutorial Policy Regarding 18 U.S.C. App. 1202

Prior authorization will still be required to prosecute under 18 U.S.C. App. 1202. Telephone authorization as well as advice and assistance may be obtained by calling the General Crimes Section (FTS 202-739-2745). It may be helpful in considering matters for prosecution, especially in consulting with investigative agents, for you to know that, in general, prosecution is not authorized as to persons whose felony conviction(s) occurred in the distant past and did not involve violence, or the defendant's background does not involve an extensive course of criminal conduct. It has been the experience of the Department that matters involving individuals whose underlying conviction occurred more than 10 years prior to the present offense and those which did not involve a crime of violence or the carrying of a weapon or an extensive criminal record can be handled adequately in most cases by local prosecution, and/or the administrative forfeiture of the firearm and in appropriate cases by informing the individual of his right to apply for relief from disability under 18 U.S.C. 925.

(Criminal Division)

Section 11(b)(5) of the Water Quality Improvement Act of 1970, 33 U.S.C. §1161(b)(5), provides that the Secretary of the department in which the Coast Guard is operating may assess a civil penalty of not more than \$10,000 for the knowing discharge of oil. United States Attorneys should refrain from initiating actions under the Refuse Act while the Coast Guard has under consideration the imposition of a civil penalty. It is the policy of the Land and Natural Resources Division that no criminal actions for the discharge of oil may be brought by United States Attorneys pursuant to the Refuse Act, in the event the Coast Guard has assessed and collected a civil penalty from the party or parties responsible, without prior approval from the Lands Division.

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Pursuant to the "Guidelines for Litigation Under the Refuse Act Permit Program" all United States Attorneys should advise the Land and Natural Resources Division, Pollution Control Section (202-739-2707), prior to the filing of civil complaints or criminal informations, or the return of indictments in Refuse Act cases.

(Land and Natural Resources Division)

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ANTITRUST DIVISION

Acting Assistant Attorney General Walker B. Comegys

DISTRICT COURTCLAYTON ACTSUPREME COURT AFFIRMS AND ORDERS DIVESTITURE IN FORD MOTOR CO. v. UNITED STATES.

Ford Motor Co. v. United States et al. (S. Ct., O. T. 1971, No. 71-113; March 29, 1972; DJ 60-0-37-562)

With seven Justices sitting, the Supreme Court, per Mr. Justice Douglas, affirmed a judgment of the district court for the Eastern District of Michigan which (1) held that the Ford Motor Company violated Section 7 of the Clayton Act by acquiring certain assets from Electric Autolite Company and (2) ordered divestiture and certain other injunctive relief.

Ford, the second largest automobile manufacturer, acquired from Autolite, an independent manufacturer of spark plugs and other automotive parts, the Autolite trade name, Autolite's only domestic spark plug plant, and extensive rights to its nationwide distribution organization for spark plugs and batteries. The brand used in the spark plug replacement market ("aftermarket") has historically been the same as the original equipment (OE) brand. Autolite and other independents has furnished manufacturers with OE plugs at or below cost, seeking to recoup their losses by profitable aftermarket sales. Ford, which previously had bought all its spark plugs from independents and was the largest purchaser from that source, made the Autolite acquisition in 1961 for the purpose of participating in the aftermarket. At about that time General Motors (GM) had about 30% of the domestic spark plug market. Autolite had 15%, and Champion, the only other major independent, had 50% (which declined to 40% in 1964, and 33% in 1966).

The district court found that the industry's oligopolistic structure encouraged maintenance of the OE tie and that spark plug manufacturers, to the extent that they are not owned by auto makers, will compete more vigorously for private brand sales in the aftermarket. The court held that the acquisition of Autolite violated §7 since its effect "may be substantially to lessen competition" in automotive spark plugs because: (1) "as both a prime candidate to manufacture and the major customer of the dominant member of the oligopoly," Ford's preacquisition position was a moderating influence on the independent companies, and (2) the acquisition significantly foreclosed to independent spark plug manufacturers access to the purchaser of a substantial share of the total industry output.

After hearings, the court ordered the divestiture of the Autolite plant and trade name because of the industry's oligopolistic structure which encouraged maintenance of the OE tie. The court stressed that it was in the self-interest of the OE spark plug manufacturers to discourage private-brand sales but noted that changes in market methods indicated a substantial growth in the private brand sector of the spark plug market, which, if allowed to develop without unlawful restraint, may account for 17% of the total aftermarket by 1980. The district court ordered divestiture of the Autolite plant and trade name. Additionally, the court enjoined Ford for 10 years from manufacturing spark plugs; order it for five years to buy one-half its annual requirements from the divested plant under the "Autolite" name, during which time it was prohibited from using its own name on spark plugs; and for 10 years ordered it to continue its policy of selling to its dealers at prices no less than its prevailing minimum suggested jobbers' selling price.

On appeal to the Supreme Court, Ford contested both the liability and the relief. In contesting liability and the relief. In contesting liability, Ford argued that under its ownership Autolite became a more effective competitor against Champion and GM than it had been as an independent and that other benefits resulted from the acquisition.

The Supreme Court affirmed on the liability issue on the grounds advanced by the district court. The court also ruled that the alleged beneficial effects of the merger did not save it from illegality, citing United States v. Philadelphia National Bank, 374 U. S. 321, 371, and pointing out that the acquisition (1) aggravated an already oligopolistic market, and (2) made it more likely that the OE tie would be strengthened because Ford as an automobile manufacturer would have a greater incentive to perpetuate it than Autolite.

The Court also upheld the relief prescribed by the district court. It ruled that the relief must be effective to redress the violation and to restore competition, even if those goals require in a particular case that the relief go beyond the restoration of the status quo ante. Thus, the district court has broad discretion to tailor the decree to accomplish these goals. In this case, it made a reasonable judgment on the means needed to restore and encourage the competition adversely affected by the acquisition.

Divestiture was a necessary start toward restoring the pre-acquisition market structure, in which Ford was the leading purchaser from independent sources and in which a substantial segment of the market was open to competitive selling. After the divestiture, with Ford again as a purchaser of spark plugs, competitive pressures for its

business will again be generated and the anticompetitive consequences in the aftermarket, resulting from the second largest automobile manufacturer's entry into the spark plug manufacturing business will be eliminated.

The ancillary injunctive provisions were necessary to give the divested plant an opportunity to re-establish its competitive position and to nurture the competitive forces at work in the market place to correct for Ford's illegal acquisition.

To Ford's argument that the 10-year prohibition on its manufacture of spark plugs will lessen competition because it will remove a potential competitor, the Court replied that the ban was merely a step towards the restoration of the status quo ante and was, moreover, necessary for Autolite to establish itself.

To Ford's point that the 5-year ban against the use of its own name is impermissible especially where the use is not deceptive, the Court said that this was not an unfair competition case. The Court also said that even constitutionally protected property rights, such as patents, may not be used as levers for obtaining objectives proscribed by the antitrust laws. Here, the use of the Ford name would perpetuate the OE tie and would have the prohibited effect of hindering re-entry of Autolite as a viable competitor.

Mr. Justice Stewart concurred on the ground that the finding of the violation and the remedy prescribed may be better supported in terms of probable future trends in the spark plug market, visible at the time of the acquisition. He reasoned that because the growth of service centers operated by mass merchandisers carrying private label brands might eventually loosen the OE tie and the tight oligopoly that it had fostered, the acquisition had the probable effect of indefinitely putting off the day when existing market forces could produce a measurable deconcentration in the market. The district court's "prediction of future trends in the spark plug industry is an adequate basis to support the remedy ordered."

Mr. Justice Blackman concurred on liability and divestiture but was of the view that the injunction against Ford's manufacture for 10 years and against the use of its own name for 5 years was "confiscatory and punitive."

The Chief Justice "would remain for further consideration of the remedial aspects" of the decree. He reasoned that the district court did not find "that the weakness of Autolite's competitive position resulted

from Ford's acquisition. . . [but rather] from pre-existing forces in the market. Therefore, the drastic measures employed to strengthen Autolite's position at Ford's expense cannot be justified as a remedy for any wrong done by Ford." Secondly, he felt that "the remedy will perpetuate for a time the very evils upon which the district court based a finding of an antitrust violation." "Third, the court's own findings indicate that the remedy is not likely to secure Autolite's competitive position beyond the termination of the restrictions. Therefore there is no assurance that the judicial remedy will have the desired impact on long-run competition in the spark plug market."

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CIVIL DIVISION

Assistant Attorney General L. Patrick Gray, III

COURTS OF APPEALSARMED FORCES

ARMY REGULATION PERMITTING COMMANDING OFFICER TO BAR FROM MILITARY BASE PUBLICATION WHICH PRESENTS A CLEAR DANGER TO MILITARY LOYALTY, DISCIPLINE, OR MORALE IS CONSTITUTIONAL, AND WAS PROPERLY APPLIED TO UNDERGROUND NEWSPAPER ADVOCATING SERVICEMEN'S RIGHT TO DISOBEY ILLEGAL ORDERS AND ELECT OFFICERS.

David Noland v. William R. Desobry, Commanding General  
(C. A. 6, No. 71-1661; April 24, 1972; D. J. 145-4-1935)

The plaintiffs, enlisted men assigned to Fort Knox, Kentucky, sought permission pursuant to AR 210-10 to distribute copies of a mimeographed newspaper, IN FORMATION, on the post. That regulation permits the banning on base of publications which present a "clear danger to military loyalty, discipline, or morale." The base commander permitted the distribution of two issues under certain restrictions as to time and place, but denied permission to distribute Issue No. 2. That issue contained an article supporting the goals of the American Serviceman's Union, which include the right to disobey illegal orders, to elect officers, and to refuse to salute. The district court entered summary judgment on the issues of the regulation's constitutionality per se and its application to Issue No. 2, and after a trial rejected plaintiffs' contentions that the restrictions on distribution of the permitted issues and the treatment of the plaintiffs were unconstitutional.

On appeal, the Sixth Circuit affirmed per curiam, one judge dissenting as to the issues decided by the entry of summary judgment. The Court indicated that it accepted the lower court's findings that the Army may constitutionally restrict the material distributed on an Army base, and that reasonable men could not disagree that advocating such demands as refusing to obey orders presented a clear danger to military loyalty, morale, and discipline. In support of the result the Court of Appeals cited Dash v. Commanding General, 307 F. Supp. 849 (D. S. C., 1969), affirmed on opinion below, 429 F. 2d 427 (C. A. 4, 1970), certiorari denied, 401 U.S. 981 (1971); see also Schneider v. Laird, 453 F. 2d 345 (C. A. 10, 1972), petition for certiorari pending; United States v. Flower, 452 F. 2d 80 (C. A. 5, 1971).

Staff: William D. Appler (Civil Division)

FOOD STAMP ACT

RETAIL FOOD STORE DISQUALIFIED FROM PARTICIPATION IN FOOD STAMP PROGRAM MAY OBTAIN JUDICIAL REVIEW ONLY OF MERITS OF DISQUALIFICATION, NOT OF PERIOD OF DISQUALIFICATION.

William L. Martin v. United States (C. A. 6, No. 71-1753; April 21, 1972; D. J. 147-71-2)

Plaintiff's retail food store was disqualified from the Food Stamp Program for six months for admitted violations of the Food Stamp Act of 1964 -- exchanging non-food items for food stamps. Section 11 of the Act authorizes disqualification of a food store from the Food Stamp Program for violations of the Act for such period of time as the Secretary establishes by regulation. The Secretary's regulation provides for disqualification for a reasonable period of time, not to exceed three years, as the Secretary may determine.

Judicial review of a disqualification order is authorized by Section 13 of the Act, which provides for "a trial de novo by the court in which the court shall determine the validity of the questioned administrative action in issue." Proceeding under this provision, the plaintiff urged that the six-month disqualification should be reduced or eliminated as too harsh. The district court reduced the disqualification period to 30 days, and the Government appealed. In the Sixth Circuit, the Government argued that Section 13 limits judicial review to a determination of the validity of the administrative action, *i. e.*, of the contested facts of any violations, not of the period of disqualification (so long as that period is within the three-year maximum established by regulation). The Sixth Circuit agreed (Edwards, J., dissenting), and reversed the district court. The Court of Appeals held that the review provisions were limited to a determination whether the disqualification was valid, and since the violations of the Act were admitted, the district court lacked authority to change a sanction imposed by the Secretary which was within the range of his authority.

Staff: Michael Kimmel (Civil Division)

SOCIAL SECURITY

SECRETARY OF H. E. W. IS NOT BOUND BY STATUS DECISIONS OF LOWER STATE COURTS IN DETERMINING WHETHER A CLAIMANT IS ENTITLED TO SOCIAL SECURITY BENEFITS.

Bertha Cairns v. Elliot L. Richardson (C. A. 10, No. 71-1401;  
April 12, 1972; D. J. 137-29-171)

Mrs. Cairns' award of mother's insurance benefits, based upon the earnings of her deceased first husband, was terminated when she re-married William Tucker in 1962. Unknown to her, Tucker's attempt to divorce his first wife in 1961 was not effective because he did not pay a court fee; it became final in 1964 when the Kansas legislative ratified all such divorces. In 1967 she learned Tucker had not been divorced when they married, and had her ceremonial marriage annulled. She then applied for restoration of her mother's insurance benefits.

The Secretary of H. E. W. denied benefits, finding that although the annulment was effective as to the ceremonial marriage of 1962, her continuing to live with Tucker after his divorce became final in 1964 created a common law marriage under Kansas law which the annulment had not affected. Mrs. Cairns then obtained two nunc pro tunc orders from the state trial court purportedly dissolving her common law marriage as of the date the annulment was entered. The Secretary recognized the second of these as effective prospectively, but refused to award benefits for the period between the annulment and the second nunc pro tunc order. The district court reversed and ordered benefits awarded for that period, holding that the Secretary was bound by the state trial court determination that the common law marriage was dissolved as of the annulment date.

On appeal, the Tenth Circuit reversed. It concluded that the Kansas Supreme Court would not have held the common law marriage dissolved by the purported nunc pro tunc order, because the dissolution of that marriage had not been in issue in the annulment proceeding. Accordingly, the Court held, the Secretary was not bound to follow the lower state court's determination and properly denied benefits for the period at issue.

Staff: Michael Stein, William D. Appler (Civil Division)

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CRIMINAL DIVISION  
Assistant Attorney General Henry E. Petersen

COURT OF APPEALS

CONTEMPT

BNDD AGENT'S OUT OF COURT ADMONITORY REMARKS TO  
LSD OFFENDER PLACED ON PROBATION HELD NOT TO CONSTITUTE  
CRIMINAL CONTEMPT.

In Re Charles H. Bullock (C. A. 10, No. 71-1654, March 28, 1972,  
D. J. 12-77-113)

On September 10, 1971, in the federal district court in Salt Lake City, Utah, Lynn U. Hunter was placed on probation for five years as a young adult offender after he pleaded guilty to charges of conspiracy and sale of LSD. Hunter, his mother, and his attorney then left the courtroom. As they walked down a hallway toward an elevator the BNDD agent who had investigated Hunter's LSD activities approached. Hunter gestured and said "hello." The agent, noting what he considered to be a "smirk" on Hunter's face, told Hunter that he might have "gotten off" this time but that he (the agent) would "get him" yet. Hunter queried, "You don't really want me, do you?" The agent assured him he did and that he would succeed in this "even if it takes the city police department, and even if you run a stop sign we will get you again." Hunter's lawyer promptly reported the agent's remarks to the sentencing judge. He did not inform the United States Attorney's office or the agent that he had done this. The Clerk of Court, pursuant to the judge's direction, sent a notice to Hunter's lawyer and the United States Attorney's office indicating that a further hearing would be held in the Hunter case on September 14, 1971 regarding "imposition of sentence." The Clerk's office orally informed the agent that he should be present at the hearing. On September 14, testimony was taken from Hunter, his mother, and the BNDD agent regarding the remarks made to Hunter. The agent stated that the remarks were not intended as criticism of the court and that he had no plans to harass Hunter. At the hearing's conclusion, the judge, after finding that the agent's remarks constituted contempt of court, sentenced him to 90 days in jail and also fined him \$250. An appeal to the Tenth Circuit Court of Appeals followed.

The Court of Appeals reversed, after finding that, contrary to F. R. Cr. P. 42(b), the agent had not been afforded procedural due process in that the notice of the hearing did not indicate that contempt was charged or that a trial was to be had on that issue. The Court also found a denial

of due process in that the agent was not given an opportunity to obtain counsel or to prepare a defense. The Court noted further that, since the judge felt "personally aggrieved," he should have referred the contempt charge to another judge, Mayberry v. Pennsylvania, 400 U.S. 455 (1971). Finally, the Court found that the agent's remarks, although "improvident and ill-advised," did "not [rise] to the level of obstruction to the administration of justice or resistance or disobedience of the court's probation order."

Staff: United States Attorney C. Nelson Day  
Assistant United States Attorney James F. Housley  
(D. Utah)

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INTERNAL SECURITY DIVISION  
Acting Assistant Attorney General A. William Olson

FOREIGN AGENTS REGISTRATION ACT

OF 1938, AS AMENDED

The Registration Section of the Internal Security Division administers the Foreign Agents Registration Act of 1938, as amended, (22 USC 611) which requires registration with the Attorney General by certain persons who engage within the United States in defined categories of activity on behalf of foreign principals.

APRIL 1972

During the last half of this month the following new registrations were filed with the Attorney General pursuant to the provisions of the Act:

Korea Tourist Service of San Francisco registered as a United States branch of its parent in Seoul. The registrant will promote tourism to Korea in the United States by individual counselling and the distribution of informational materials. The San Francisco Office is funded by the parent and Yeon Shik Kim filed a short-form registration statement as Manager.

Hermann William Brann of New York City registered as agent of the Government of Venezuela, Caracas. Mr. Brann lists his occupation as Communications Counselor. Registrant will purchase military equipment and will act as consultant on military communications systems for the foreign principal. For these services Mr. Brann is to receive a 5% commission on all purchases plus expenses.

Aruba Information Center of Miami Beach registered as agent of the Executive Council of the Island of Aruba. Registrant will promote tourism to Aruba and is controlled and funded by Hank Meyer Associates, Inc., another registrant under the Act. Stanley H. Johnson is the person in charge of the Miami Beach Office.

Federal Industrial Development Authority of Malaysia, New York City, registered as the North American Office of its parent in Kuala Lumpur. Registrant will promote investment in Malaysia through the dissemination of information on investment opportunities and will assist American investors and corporations in setting up operations in Malaysia. Registrant is funded by its parent and Arthur Karuna-Karan filed a short form registration as Senior Executive of the registrant.

Gurtman & Murtha Associates, Inc., New York City, registered as public relations counsel for the Sierra Leone Consul General in New York. Registrant will gather and disseminate data in the form of news releases and announcements to the various media in connection with the first anniversary as a Republic. Registrant will perform these services for a three month period and will receive a set fee. Colleen M. Kade filed a short-form registration as Account Executive.

Jamaica Tourist Board, Southfield, Michigan, registered as a United States branch of its parent in Kingston. Registrant will promote tourism to Jamaica through the distribution of travel brochures and newsletters, planning and placement of advertisements, personal consultations with travel agents and the general public. Registrant is funded by its parent through the Jamaica Tourist Board, Chicago. Herbert G. Bulifant filed a short-form registration as District Sales Manager.

Malev Hungarian Airlines, New York City, registered as public relations counsel for Malev Hungarian Airlines and Hungarian People's Republic, Budapest. Registrant is a wholly owned subsidiary of the Hungarian People's Republic and will engage in advertising, public relations and sales promotion on behalf of the foreign principals. Registrant is funded by the foreign principals and Tamas Tahy and Kalman L. Kertai filed short-form registrations as officers.

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LAND AND NATURAL RESOURCES DIVISION  
Assistant Attorney General Kent Frizzell

SUPREME COURT

STANDING; ADMINISTRATIVE LAW

ORGANIZATION, NOT ALLEGING INDIVIDUALIZED HARM TO ITSELF OR ITS MEMBERS, LACKS STANDING TO OBTAIN JUDICIAL REVIEW OF ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIONS APPROVING RECREATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NATIONAL FOREST AND PARK; CONSTRUCTION OF APA.

Sierra Club v. Morton, et al. (S. Ct., No. 70-34, Apr. 19, 1972; D. J. 90-1-4-191)

Sierra Club, alleging "a special interest in the conservation and sound maintenance of the national parks, game refuges, and forests of the country," brought suit for declaratory judgment and an injunction restraining the Department of Agriculture from approving construction of a skiing and summer recreational facility in the Mineral King Valley in the Sequoia National Forest and the Department of the Interior from allowing the State of California to construct an improved 9.2-mile access road through the adjoining Sequoia National Park. The district court granted a preliminary injunction in favor of the Club. The Ninth Circuit reversed and vacated the injunction. The majority found that the Club lacked standing, i. e., that the Club's alleged interest was insufficient to support the litigation. The Ninth Circuit was unanimous that the Club has not made an adequate showing of irreparable injury and likelihood of success to justify the issuance of a preliminary injunction. 433 F.2d 24.

On certiorari, the Supreme Court, in an opinion by Justice Stewart who was joined by three other members of the Court, affirmed, holding that since the Club has (deliberately) asserted no individualized economic or other harm to itself or to its members, it lacked standing to obtain judicial review of these administrative decisions under Section 10 of the Administrative Procedure Act, 5 U. S. C. sec. 702. The majority stated that while interest in aesthetic and environmental well-being, even though widely shared with others, may amount to the required "injury in fact," a party seeking judicial review still must himself allege to be among the injured. Mere "interest in a problem," the majority reasoned, regardless of how longstanding the interest and no matter how qualified the organization is in evaluating the problem, is not sufficient by itself to render the organization "adversely affected" or "aggrieved" within the meaning of the APA.

The majority, carefully intimating no views on the merits, concluded that its decision was "at least a rough attempt to put the decision as to whether review will be sought in the hands of those who have a direct stake in the outcome. That goal would be undermined were we to construe the APA to authorize judicial review at the behest of organizations or individuals who seek to do no more than vindicate their own value preferences through the judicial process. The principle that the Sierra Club would have us establish in this case would do just that." The decision does not bar the Club from seeking to amend its complaint in the district court. Justices Blackman, Brennan and Douglas dissented.

Staff: Erwin N. Griswold (Solicitor General);  
Walter Kiechel, Jr., and Jacques B. Gelin  
(Land and Natural Resources Division)

## COURT OF APPEALS

### ENVIRONMENT; INJUNCTIONS

PRIVATE CITIZEN OR GROUP MAY NOT ENFORCE REFUSE ACT BY QUI TAM ACTION FOR INJUNCTION OR FOR RECOVERY OF INFORMER'S ONE-HALF INTEREST IN FINE FOR ALLEGED REFUSE ACT VIOLATION; UNITED STATES' DISCRETION TO INSTITUTE CRIMINAL AND CIVIL ACTIONS; UNITED STATES CAN ENFORCE REFUSE ACT BY INJUNCTION.

Connecticut Action Now, Inc., et al. v. Roberts Plating Co., Inc.  
(C. A. 2, No. 71-1674, Mar. 21, 1972; D. J. 90-5-4-0)

A conservation organization and private citizens instituted suit against the defendant, alleging defendant's discharges of waste materials into navigable waters in violation of the Refuse Act and the failure of the United States to prosecute after request. An injunction against further discharges was sought, as well as recovery of one-half interest in the fine to be imposed.

The district court dismissed the action and the Second Circuit affirmed, agreeing with the contentions of the United States as amicus curiae, that neither individual citizens nor organizations alleging a desire to protect the environment may sue for criminal penalties by means of an action qui tam or for injunctive relief under 33 U. S. C. secs. 407, 411, and 413.

In regard to the attempt to enforce the criminal provisions of the statute by means of an action qui tam, the court observed that "Congress

has imposed a criminal penalty to be enforced by the Attorney General, without saying or suggesting that the informer [though he may be entitled to one-half of any fine imposed in the event the Department of Justice institutes a successful prosecution] can proceed on his own against the polluter, before conviction is obtained by federal prosecutors. "

After a lengthy review of the solely statutory nature of qui tam provisions, the failure of the Congress to include such a provision in the Refuse Act, the distinction between a criminal proceeding under a statute such as the Refuse Act, and a civil forfeiture proceeding, and the broad discretion as to the initiation of a criminal prosecution possessed by the Department of Justice, the Court concluded, "we must agree with all prior decisions in point that a private informer's only right under [the Refuse Act] can be to one-half of any fine which has been imposed after conviction in a criminal proceeding brought by the United States. "

In regard to the attempt to obtain an injunction forbidding the defendant from violating the proscription of 33 U. S. C. sec. 407, the Court held that, though it is clear the United States can obtain "injunctive relief against conduct violating" the Refuse Act, the Congress has granted no such right of action, even by implication, to a private litigant. The Court observed that "the clear congressional purpose, it seems to us, was to concentrate at least this type of public and general enforcement in the Department [of Justice]. \* \* \* We doubt the 1899 Congress, when it enacted [the Refuse Act], envisaged that the theory of participatory democracy would be carried so far" as to allow a private injunctive suit, allegedly brought on behalf of the general public, as a substitute for such an action by the United States.

Finally, the Court stated that if any such action is to be allowed, a statutory revision must be made by Congress "which has had before it a number of bills to authorize such actions \* \* \* and can decide if, and to what extent, citizens' suits should be authorized. " (In Jacklovich v. Interlake, Inc. (C. A. 7, No. 71-1382, Apr. 4, 1972) not yet reported, the court reached the same conclusions. )

Staff: Edmund B. Clark and Bernard J. Rothbaum  
(Land and Natural Resources Division)

### ENVIRONMENT; HIGHWAYS

NEPA; SECTION 138 (PARKS), FEDERAL-AID HIGHWAY ACT;  
APPLICABILITY OF NEPA TO ONGOING FEDERAL HIGHWAY PROJECT.

Arlington Coalition on Transportation, et al. v. John A. Volpe, et al.  
(C. A. 4, No. 71-2109, Apr. 4, 1972; D. J. 90-1-4-287)

This appeal, from a district court order dismissing Arlington Coalition's suit for declaratory and injunctive relief, involves the proposed construction of a six-mile section of interstate highway in suburban Virginia directly adjacent to Washington, D. C. Preliminary location of the highway was completed in 1958. A public hearing on location was held at that time. Federal approval of the location was given in 1959. Shortly thereafter, Virginia began the process of land acquisition. When this litigation commenced, over 84% of all necessary right-of-way in the highway corridor had been acquired and three-quarters of all landowners had been relocated.

After dismissal of its action in the district court, ACT obtained an injunction pending appeal from the Fourth Circuit, thereby halting further land acquisition and federal approval of further plans and surveys. Following accelerated consideration of the appeal, the Fourth Circuit, on April 4, 1972, reversed the district court and ordered the injunction to remain in effect until the federal and state defendants have complied with the following provisions of law:

NEPA: The Court of Appeals held that the Department of Transportation must file an environmental impact statement in accordance with Section 102(2) (C) of the NEPA before taking further steps toward construction of the highway. Although this project was initiated in 1958, the appellate court did not believe its holding amounted to retroactive interpretation of the Act. It declared: "The congressional command that the Act be complied with 'to the fullest extent possible' means, we believe, that an ongoing project was intended to be subject to Section 102 until it has reached that stage of completion [in which, because of the degree of completion, such application would be retroactive] and that doubt about whether the critical stage has been reached must be resolved in favor of applicability." Thus, the Fourth Circuit test of the NEPA's applicability to ongoing projects is that the NEPA is applicable to a project "until it has reached the stage of completion where the costs of abandoning or altering the proposed route would clearly outweigh the benefits therefrom." Accordingly, the Court enjoined all further work on this project until the impact statement is filed because this project had not yet reached the state of completion which would cut off application of the Act.

SECTION 138 OF THE HIGHWAY ACT: This section of the 1968 Federal-Aid Highway Act is virtually identical to Section 4(f) of the Department of Transportation Act of 1966. Both require DOT to ascertain that there is no feasible and prudent alternative to the taking of parklands

by a highway project, and that if such taking is necessary, there has been all possible planning to minimize harm to the parklands. In this case, two parks will be intersected by the highway. The Court held that, although these statutes were enacted subsequent to the initiation of the project, they are applicable because DOT's "approval" has not yet been given and is necessary at several remaining stages. Again, it declared that this project had not yet progressed to the point short of completion that the costs already incurred outweighed the possible benefits of altering or abandoning the project to protect the parklands. It enjoined the project until there has been compliance with these statutes as well.

SECTION 128 OF THE 1968 HIGHWAY ACT: As amended in 1968, this section requires a public hearing to be held on the location of a highway to consider not only economic factors (as did the 1958 hearing on this project), but social environmental and urban planning considerations as well. Applying the "degree of completion" test set forth above, the Court enjoined the project until such a hearing has been held by the State. However, it did reject the need to hold a design hearing, for it found that such a hearing had taken place in 1970.

The State of Virginia has filed a petition for rehearing, and a suggestion for rehearing en banc. The federal defendants also plans to petition for rehearing in the near future.

Staff: Robert S. Lynch and Irwin L. Schroeder  
(Land and Natural Resources Division)

CRITERIA FOR APPLICATION OF NATIONAL ENVIRONMENTAL POLICY ACT TO HIGHWAY PROJECT INITIATED PRIOR TO JANUARY 1, 1970.

Environmental Law Fund, et al. v. John A. Volpe, et al. (N. D. Cal., Civil No. C-72-95 REP, Mar. 22, 1972; D. J. 90-1-4-433)

The highway involved in this case, U. S. 101 By-Pass near Novato, California, received location approval on March 2, 1967, and design approval on December 12, 1968. An environmental statement under the NEPA has not been prepared. At the time of suit, invitations for bids on construction contracts had been opened.

The defendants took the position that, under Federal Highway Administration Policy and Procedure Memorandum 90-1, no environmental statement was required because the date of design approval was prior to the effective date of NEPA. The court relied on the CEQ Guidelines, Section 11, saying that an impact statement was required here only if "practicable."

It indicated that it would clearly be practicable, and a statement would have to be filed, if the planning phase, which culminated with design approval, had not been completed prior to the NEPA. To determine when it is "practicable" for a state highway department to "re-plan" a highway project that received design approval before January 1, 1970, the court adopted a case-by-case application of a four-part test of the status of the project as of the effective date of the Act. The four questions to be asked in this test are as follows:

1. Has the local community been afforded an adequate opportunity to participate in the planning of the project?
2. Has the agency made a substantial effort to take environmental factors into account outside of the environmental statement procedure?
3. What is the likely harm to the environment if the project is constructed as planned?
4. What is the cost of halting construction while an environmental statement is prepared?

Applying these criteria to U. S. 101 By-Pass, the court concluded that an environmental statement was not required.

Staff: Assistant United States Attorney Paul E. Locke  
(N. D. Cal.)

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