

INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINAL LAW IN NSW

2nd Edition

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with

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INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINAL LAW IN NEW SOUTH WALES

SECOND EDITION

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Preface to the Second Edition

When I wrote the first edition I indicated that I believed that most students, confronted with criminal law early in their legal studies, needed supplementary guidance to that obtainable from the standard textbooks on criminal law. I still do. This edition remains an introduction and is not intended as a complete substitute for other references.

However, with the rapidly accelerating differences between English and Australian criminal law and the increasing divergences of criminal law in each of the Australian States, I see a continuing and growing need for a specific State focus, without becoming unnecessarily parochial. The Code States may remain relatively homogeneous, but for the others the chances are diminishing rapidly, despite moves for uniformity and the labours of Law Reform Commissions (or their equivalent) in each State and the Commonwealth of Australia.

I remain mindful not only of the needs and interests of law students coming new to the study of law but also of many others who are required to attain a knowledge and appreciation of the elements and reach of the criminal law. I am grateful to them all for their response to, and support of, the first edition, without which the book would have sunk mercifully without trace.

It became apparent to me, and my publishers, that the rapid and undiminished flow of case law and statute law had wrought such changes in the criminal law that a new edition was necessary. Unfortunately, at that time, due to illness and many other factors, it was obvious to me I could not complete the task in a reasonable time alone. I therefore called upon some of my colleagues who were at the time also teaching criminal law, for help. They agreed and I am grateful to them.

John Oxley-Oxland, John White and Greg Woods have assisted me in an unusual co-operative effort of reorganizing, rewriting and revising in varying ways and varying degrees much of the complete text. Their efforts, constructive criticism and generous contribution of time have made this a better and a truer work. I hope the reader finds it so. Nevertheless, in the end, I must take responsibility for the sins of omission and commission, the mistakes, the errors and the inaccuracies that experience has taught me are bound to be there.

Substantial new material has been added, particularly on the development of criminal law, corporations, vicarious liability and sequential crimes and the number of chapters has been extended and their sequence altered.

Thanks are due to Ethel Bohnhoff who, once again, has converted a messy draft into a coherent manuscript, Mary Elliot and Gordon Elkington for proof reading, the publishers for their patience and assistance and my wife for her forbearance and restraint.

We have attempted to state the law as at June 1979.

R P ROULSTON

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CHAPTER 1

History, Sources and Classification

HISTORY OF CRIMINAL LAW

Introduction

[101] Section 24 of the Australian Courts Act 1828 (UK) (9 Geo IV c83) provided in part that "all laws and statutes in force within the realm of England at the time of the passing of this Act [25 July 1828] shall be applied in the administration of justice in the courts of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land respectively, so far as the same can be applied within the said colonies". As a result of this provision, a large proportion of the then existing English criminal law became common to both England and New South Wales.

During the ensuing 150 years, this common core has been added to, subtracted from, and otherwise varied by the legislatures and judiciaries of the two countries. Sometimes the same result has been achieved; on other occasions that has not been the case. The law relating to intoxication, for example, as laid down by the House of Lords in *DPP v Majewski* [1976] 2 All ER 142, has been accepted as the law for New South Wales by the High Court of Australia in *Viro* (1978) 18 ALR 257. On the other hand, the law relating to excessive self defence, as laid down by the High Court in both *Howe* [1958] ALR 753 and *Viro* has been rejected as the law for England by the Criminal Division of the Court of Appeal in *McInnes* [1971] 3 All ER 295. And such rejection seems to have the approval of the House of Lords: *Reference under s* 48 A of the Criminal Appeal (Northern Ireland) Act 1968 (No 1 of 1975) [1976] 2 All ER 937.

For all the changes that have been made since 1828, the fact remains that the criminal law of New South Wales is still essentially similar to English criminal law. This is true not only of the substantive law, but of the adjective law as well.

In order properly to understand English criminal law, and therefore also the criminal law of New South Wales, it is necessary to have at least a basic appreciation of its history. For this purpose, one must go back almost a millennium.

Late Danish and Anglo-Saxon periods

[102] During the half century preceding the Norman Conquest, England was divided into shires, each shire into hundreds (or wapentakes), and each hundred into townships. Every hundred had a court of its own, as did every shire. A hundred court usually sat once a month, while a shire court did so only two or three times a year. A hundred court was presided over by the shire reeve, or sheriff,

who was also a judge in the shire court presided over by the local earl and bishop.

Wrongs were generally adjudicated upon by the shire courts. An alleged criminal would be brought before a shire court either by the person he had supposedly injured or by that person's kinsman. The judges would then decide which of the two parties should prove his case and how he should do so. The accused might, for example, be put to the ordeal of fire. This involved carrying a red-hot iron a distance of nine feet. If the resulting burns did not heal in three days, the accused would be guilty, and would be sentenced by the court. The penalty would be exacted by the sheriff.

Wrongs were either major wrongs or minor wrongs, the rough equivalents of what today would be regarded as crimes and torts respectively. For a minor wrong a wrongdoer would have to pay only a bot (monetary compensation) to his victim. For a major wrong, he would normally have to pay not only a bot, but also a wite (fine) to the king. There were some major wrongs, however, which were "botless", and for which the penalty was not simply a wite, but rather either death or mutilation combined with forfeiture of the criminal's property to the king. Examples are to be found in the laws of Canute (1017–35): housebreaking, ambush, the receiving of outlaws, and (a definite sign of the times) neglect of the summons to the army.

Norman period

[103] After the conquest of England, William I was recognized as the sole owner of all the land. As such, he granted large portions of it to his leading barons for them to hold (Latin tenere) for as long as they were prepared to perform certain services, usually of a military nature. (So, for example, he granted most of Kent to his half-brother Odo, the Bishop of Bayeux, who commissioned the great Bayeux Tapestry.) The barons became known as tenants-in-chief (Latin tenentes-in-capite). Each portion held by a baron was called a fee (Latin feudum), a word which, of course, is still used today to describe a reward for services rendered, and from which the adjective "feudal" is derived to describe the social system introduced by the Conqueror.

Two or three times a year, many of the tenants-in-chief would meet with the king for the purpose of legislation. During the rest of the year, a select number would be at his side for the day to day governance of the realm. Both the occasional large grouping and the permanent small grouping were called the Curia Regis, or Court of the King.

Besides doing executive work, the small Curia also did judicial work. This was of both a civil and a criminal nature, involving essentially the determination of land disputes between tenants-in-chief, and the adjudication of any major wrongs they might commit. Thus, for example, in about 1072, the small Curia decided a land dispute between Odo and Lanfranc, the Archbishop of Canterbury, in favour of Lanfranc. Again, in 1082, the small Curia found Odo guilty, in effect, of treason, and he was imprisoned in the castle of Rouen in Normandy until William I's death.

During the ensuing reigns of William II (1087–1100), Henry I (1100–35), and Stephen (1135–54), major wrongs, or "Pleas of the Crown", were greatly increased in number. In addition, many more of them came to be "unemendable"; ie botless, to use the old Anglo-Saxon term.

At the same time, earls and bishops were removed from the shire courts, now

known as county courts. As a result, the office of sheriff greatly increased in importance.

Early Plantagenet period

[104] In 1166, the large Curia Regis sat with Henry II (1154–89) at Clarendon and passed a revolutionary statute subsequently named after the session itself. This statute, the Assize of Clarendon, together with a supplementary statute passed ten years later, the Assize of Northampton, introduced the system of public, as opposed to private, prosecutions. Instead of an alleged criminal being brought to court either by his supposed victim or by that person's kinsman [102], he was to be presented by a jury of presentment. This jury was to be made up of 12 representatives from each hundred in the county, as well as four representatives from each township therein. It was to present the suspect in the first instance to a special session of the hundred court known as the sheriff's "tourn". If the crime charged was emendable, the sheriff could deal with the case himself. If it was unemendable, then the suspect had to be kept in custody until the arrival of a judge from the small Curia Regis, who would constitute a new local criminal court known as an assize court.

During the rest of the reign of Henry II and throughout the reigns of Richard I (1189–99) and John (1199–1216), the judge would put the accused to the ordeal of water. This involved binding the accused and lowering him into a pool. If he sank a certain distance, he was guilty; if he did not do so, he was innocent. Then, however, as a result of the condemnation of ordeals by Pope Innocent III at the Lateran Council of 1215, the ordeal by water was rapidly abandoned. In its place, a second jury began to be used for the purpose of determining the guilt or innocence of the accused.

Middle Plantagenet period

[105] During the reigns of Henry III, the first three Edwards, and Richard II, spanning almost two centuries from 1216 to 1399, the situation thus far established became much more complex. The developments which took place were in essence as follows.

The large Curia Regis changed gradually into the English Parliament through the increasingly regular addition of knights and burgesses, whose consent to taxation became more and more necessary. At the same time, the small Curia split up into the Royal Council, or government, on the one hand, and the royal courts on the other.

The royal courts were three in number; viz the Court of Exchequer, the Court of Common Pleas, and the Court of King's Bench. The first and second courts handled most of the civil disputes in the realm. The third was pre-eminent, controlling not only those courts, but also the local criminal courts.

The latter courts continued to be the sheriff's tourn and the assize court until just after the middle of the fourteenth century, when influential laymen, called justices of the peace, began to supplant the sheriffs in the counties. They were directed to sit four times a year, and the courts they constituted consequently became known as courts of quarter sessions. The justices were commissioned to deal not only with emendable crimes (now known as trespasses), but also with all unemendable crimes (now known as felonies), except those of the most serious or difficult kind, which could be dealt with only by the itinerant judges of the assize courts. These

judges were predominantly drawn from the courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas and operated under royal commissions referred to as "oyer and terminer" (hear and determine) and "gaol delivery". Both they and the justices had accused persons presented to them by juries of presentment, and adjudged guilty or innocent before them by trial juries.

Late Plantagenet and Tudor periods

[106] Although the English Parliament and the Royal Council formed primarily the legislature and the executive of the realm, this did not mean that they retained no judicial powers from the days when they and the royal courts were all essentially one body referred to as the Curia Regis [103] Indeed, not only did such powers exist, but also they were exercised to such a degree between 1399 and 1603 that a number of separate courts came into being.

With respect to the English Parliament, it consolidated itself as a bicameral assembly during the reigns of the three Lancastrian Henrys (1399–1461). The tenants-in-chief constituted the House of Lords, the knights and burgesses the House of Commons. At the same time, the House of Lords became the final court of appeal, the penultimate court of criminal appeal being the Court of King's Bench.

So far as the Royal Council was concerned, it eventually gave birth, during the reigns of the two Tudor Henrys (1485–1547), to two entirely new courts. The civil and criminal law hitherto fashioned in the existing courts did not always work justice. Thus, for example, no contract not recorded in a deed under seal or made for valuable consideration was enforceable, and no attempt to commit a crime was punishable. As a result, aggrieved persons would petition the Royal Council for redress. Acting now as a judicial organ, the council would be presided over by the king's Chancellor. An ecclesiastic learned in Roman and Canon law, the Chancellor would not unnaturally enforce ordinary agreements, punish attempts, and otherwise ensure that subjects conducted themselves according to the precepts of the Church. So, for instance, he would punish conspiracies, which often preceded attempts. Eventually, because he dispensed civil and criminal justice in separate rooms of the Palace at Westminster, two courts rather than one came to be recognized as in operation: the Court of Chancery and the Court of Star Chamber. The latter was possibly so-called because the night sky was depicted on the ceiling of the chamber in which hearings were held.

[107] The crimes punished by the Court of Star Chamber were called misdemeanours, a term which came to be applied also to trespasses [105] and to a number of offences created by statute. Where these offences were only minor transgressions, such as swearing or drunkenness, the legislation provided that they should regularly be dealt with by either one or two justices of the peace in a summary fashion. This involved the justice or justices forming a new court (very much later known as a court of petty sessions), and no juries being used for the purpose of presentment or adjudication: the justice or justices did everything.

By two statutes of 1554 and 1555, it was provided that, instead of a person suspected of felony or trespass being presented to an assize court or a court of quarter sessions by a jury of presentment [104], he should be taken before such courts only after a preliminary investigation by a "court of petty sessions" had established a case to answer. The jury of presentment subsequently changed into the grand jury, consisting of 24 persons, which considered the evidence given on

behalf of the Crown at the preliminary investigation, as well as the charges (the indictment) based upon it, and then either approved or disapproved the indictment by endorsing it with the words "true bill" or "ignoramus" (ie "found").

After an indictment had been approved by the grand jury, it would be read out to the accused, who would then be asked to plead to it. This was known as the arraignment. If he pleaded not guilty, the Crown would join issue by replying that the accused was guilty, and that it was ready to prove him so. A trial (or petty) jury of 12 persons, would thereafter be empanelled. The case for the prosecution would be presented against the accused, who could not, however, give any evidence himself or, if charged with felony, call any witnesses on his own behalf. The presiding judge or justice would sum up for the jury, and ask it to consider its verdict. Finally, if the verdict was one of guilty, he would pass judgment on the convicted man.

Proceedings in the Court of Star Chamber, by contrast, were essentially inquisitorial. They were begun by the king's Attorney-General filing an information based upon charges laid before him by a person whose identity might never be revealed. The accused had to put in a written answer, upon which he would be interrogated, sometimes under torture. The evidence of witnesses, meanwhile, would be taken by affidavit, and they, too, might be interrogated under torture. Ultimately, the guilt or innocence of the accused would be decided, not by a jury, but by the court alone.

Stuart and early Hanoverian periods

[108] By the time James I (1603-25) ascended the throne of England, the Royal Council had come to be known as the Privy Council. The change of name did not, however, alter the fact that, although there was now both a Court of Chancery and a Court of Star Chamber derived from it, the council still retained extensive judicial powers. This might not have been of any political consequence had not Charles I (1625-49) ruled England without summoning a parliament for 11 years (1629-40), and used the Court of Star Chamber as an instrument of oppression in the process. When at last the Long Parliament (1640-53) began to sit, it immediately passed statutes not only abolishing the Court of Star Chamber, but also drastically curtailing the judicial powers of the Privy Council over Englishmen.

The Privy Council continued, however, to exercise judicial powers over the inhabitants first of the Channel Islands and then of the colonies in America and the West Indies. It did so as a final court of appeal, the court being constituted by the Committee for "Trade and Foreign Plantations". This committee, staffed mainly by non-lawyers, became more and more inadequate as the Empire expanded. Eventually, by an Act passed in 1833 "for the better administration of justice in His Majesty's Privy Council", a special committee known as the Judicial Committee was set up, consisting essentially of those Privy Councillors who were, or had been, holding high judicial office.

In the meantime, the substantive law developed by the Court of Star Chamber was taken over by the traditional criminal courts. The adjective (also court procedure) law was not, except to the extent that the Court of King's Bench allowed informations for misdemeanours to be filed by the king's Attorney-General. The resulting trials before the court were not inquisitorial, but similar instead to trials before the assize and quarter sessions courts.