

A legal and historical review of criminal prosecutorial authority in Canada

A study conducted for the LAW REFORM COMMISSION OF CANADA

by

PHILIP C. STENNING B.A., LL.M., S.J.D. Senior Research Associate and Co-ordinator of Graduate Studies, Centre of Criminology, University of Toronto.



C.P. 180 COWANSVILLE (QUÉ.) J2K 3H6

TABLE OF CONTENTS

GENERAL INTRODUCTION	
PART I : HISTORICAL ROOTS	
CHAPTER 1: ENGLISH ORIGINS - Earliest beginnings - Early criminal procedures - The offices of Attorney General and Solicitor General of England 1 - The role of the English Law Officers in the prosecution process 1 (i) Ex officio informations 1 (ii) The right to a trial at bar, and to select venue 2 (iii) The right to the last word 2 (iv) Precedence as head of the bar 2 (v) Control over appeals in criminal cases 2 (vi) Nolle prosequi 2	17
CHAPTER 2 : EARLY ESTABLISHMENT OF PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY IN CANADA	3 7 0 1
CHAPTER 3: THE IMPACT OF CONFEDERATION 63 - The Union Act 65 - The British North America Act 68 - Creation of a federal Minister of Justice and Attorney General 72 - Early federal legislation re criminal procedure 75 - Criminal prosecutions in Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territories 77	3 8 2 5
CHAPTER 4 : PROVINCIAL LEGISLATION CONCERNING THE LAW OFFICERS OF THE CROWN 79 - Manitoba 79 - Quebec 80 - Newfoundland 82 - British Columbia 83 - Nova Scotia 83 - Alberta and Saskatchewan 83	9 3 3 3

- Prince Edward Island	84
- Ontario	85 86
- New Brunswick	
CHAPTER 5: THE OFFICE OF SOLICITOR GENERAL - Modern transformations of the office of Solicitor General	89 97
CHAPTER 6 : DEPUTY ATTORNEYS GENERAL AND DEPUTY	
MINISTERS OF JUSTICE	101
CHAPTER 7: THE ESTABLISHMENT OF CROWN PROSECUTORS	109
- Crown Attorneys in Upper Canada and Ontario	114
- Crown Attorneys in Manitoba	121 124
- Prosecuting Officers in Nova Scotia	127
- Crown Prosecutors in New Brunswick Attorney General's Prosecutors in Quebec	128
- Federal Prosecutors and Provincial Prosecutors in British Columbia,	
Alberta, Saskatchewan, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland	130
CHAPTER 8: THE CRIMINAL CODE OF 1892	133
- Summary conviction procedure	134
- Indictable cases - jury trials	137
- Indictable cases - "speedy trials" without a jury	146
- Indictable cases - "summary" trials without a jury	151
- Other relevant provisions	152
PART II : MODERN PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY UNDER THE	
CRIMINAL CODE	155
CHAPTER 9: THE CURRENT PUBLIC PROSECUTORIAL	
ESTABLISHMENT IN CANADA - SUMMARY	157
- The federal Department of Justice	157
- British Columbia	158
- Alberta	158
- Saskatchewan	159 160
- Manitoba	160
- Ontario	161
- New Brunswick	161
- Nova Scotia	162
	102
- Prince Edward Island	162
- Prince Edward Island	162 162
- Prince Edward Island	162
- Newfoundland	162 162 163
- Newfoundland	162 162 163
- Newfoundland - The Yukon and Northwest Territories CHAPTER 10 - THE CONSTITUTIONAL ISSUE - WHO DEFINES CRIMINAL PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY? - The first constitutional challenges	162 162 163 165 169
- Newfoundland - The Yukon and Northwest Territories CHAPTER 10 - THE CONSTITUTIONAL ISSUE - WHO DEFINES CRIMINAL PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY? - The first constitutional challenges - The interpretive options	162 162 163 165 169 172
- Newfoundland - The Yukon and Northwest Territories CHAPTER 10 - THE CONSTITUTIONAL ISSUE - WHO DEFINES CRIMINAL PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY? - The first constitutional challenges	162 162 163 165 169

- The "C.N./C.P." Case	180
- The "Kripps Pharmacy" Case	186
- Conclusions	188
	100
CHAPTER 11 : PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY UNDER THE MODERN	
CRIMINAL CODE	197
- Introduction - the context of the Code	197
- Defining the "prosecutor"	197
- Initiating a criminal prosecution	201
(i) Prosecutions requiring prior consent	201
(ii) Initiating a prosecution by laying an information	204
(iii) Preferring an indictment	204
(iv) Special powers of the federal Minister of Justice	214
(v) Recommencing stayed proceedings	215
- Selecting the mode of trial	216
(i) "Dual" offences - the Crown's right to elect	216
(ii) Control over the accused's rights to elect the mode of trial	218
- Pre-trial prosecutorial authority	220
(i) Bail hearings	220
(ii) Discovery	222
(iii) The preliminary inquiry	224
(iv) Proceedings before a grand jury	224
(v) Plea bargaining	225
- Prosecutorial authority at trial	
(i) Prosecutors and juries	225
	226
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	226
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	226
Commence of the commence of th	227
- The power to stay proceedings	227
- Prosecutorial authority with respect to appeals	233
- Common law prosecutorial authority recognized by the courts	239
(i) General common law conceptions of the prosecutorial role - the	
prosecutor as a "minister of justice" and an "officer of the court".	239
(ii) Prosecutorial discretion with respect to the initiation of criminal	
proceedings and the granting of immunity	243
(iii) The power to withdraw charges	245
(iv) "Plea bargaining".	249
(v) Discovery at trial	251
(vi) Control over the calling of prosecution witnesses	254
(vii) Introducing evidence of the accused's insanity	255
(viii) The prosecutor and the jury	258
(ix) The prosecutor's role at sentencing	259
CHAPTER 12 : PRIVATE PROSECUTORS AND THE POLICE	263
- Prosecutorial authority of private prosecutors	263
(i) Summary conviction cases	264
Comment	265

.

(ii) Indictable cases - summary trials	266
Comment	266
(iii) Indictable cases - pre-trial prosecutorial authority	267
Comment	267
(iv) Indictable cases - trial by judge alone	267
Comment	267
(v) Indictable cases - jury trials	268
Comment	268
(vi) Indictable cases - appeals	271
- Prosecutorial authority of the police	271
PART III: THE ACCOUNTABILITY AND CONTROL OF	
PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY	283
INTRODUCTION	285
CHAPTER 13 : THE POLITICAL ACCOUNTABILITY AND CONTROL OF	
PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY	287
- The Law Officers and the Cabinet.	287
- The Law Officers and the Legislature	301
	501
CHAPTER 14: THE ADMINISTRATIVE ACCOUNTABILITY AND	
CONTROL OF PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY	307
CHAPTER 15 : THE LEGAL ACCOUNTABILITY AND CONTROL OF	
PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY	321
- Control of prosecutorial authority by the courts	324
(i) Judicial review and the application of principles of	
administrative law	325
(ii) The doctrine of abuse of process	329
(iii) Judicial control over plea bargaining	339
(iv) Judicial control over the preferring of indictments	341
(v) Control over the conduct of prosecutors at trial	345
(vi) Control through the civil action of malicious prosecution	347
CHAPTER 16: PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY AND THE CANADIAN	
CHARTER OF RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS - A NOTE	351
- Conclusions	361
CONCLUSIONS: SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR REFORM	363
- Suggestions for the mechanically-minded	363
- Suggestions for the more structurally-oriented reformer	364
- Some broader issues for consideration	367
APPENDIX : PROVISIONS OF THE CURRENT CRIMINAL CODE WHICH	271
DEAL EXPLICITLY WITH PROSECUTORIAL AUTHORITY	371
BIBLIOGRAPHY	385
TABLE OF CASES	397
TABLE OF STATUTES	407
INDEX	413

(ii) Prosecutorial discretion with respect to the initiation of criminal proceedings and the granting of immunity

The preceding review of the provisions of the Criminal Code concerning prosecutorial authority will have made it abundantly clear that implicit in those provisions, and more particularly in the permissive language used in many of them, is a high degree of prosecutorial discretion. In general, however, the courts have recognised that prosecutorial discretion derives from the common law, rather than solely from statutory provisions. Judicial expression of the common law origins of prosecutorial discretion is most clearly to be found in the reasons for judgment of the Chief Justice of the Ontario High Court in R. v. Smythe (1971), 3 C.C.C. (2d) 97 (subsequently affirmed by the Ontario Court of Appeal (ibid., at 122), and the Supreme Court of Canada: (1971) 3 C.C.C. (2d) 366). After reviewing the origins of the Attorney General's office in Canada and, before that, in England, Wells, C.J.H.C. observed (at p.103) that "since the criminal law of England came into effect, its enforcement has been in the hands of an Attorney General". He went on (at p.104):

"There is no suggestion that the decision of an Attorney General as to how to prosecute was at any time looked on as an act of discrimination. Instead, it was his duty to perform such an act in a judicial manner without any suggestion of fear or favour for anyone".

Noting that the preamble to the *British North America Act* of 1867 spoke of "a constitution similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom", Wells, C.J.H.C., concluded (at pp.104-105) that:

"The result is that our constitution is the same in principle as that which existed in the United Kingdom in 1867. It had been the same so far as the criminal law is concerned since shortly after the middle of the 18th century. The Attorney-General's discretion springs from the Royal Prerogative of the Justice and its enforcement in maintaining the King's Peace".

The abiding influence of this conclusion¹⁴⁹ as to the origins of an Attorney General's discretion in criminal prosecutions over the attitude of the courts with respect to the control of prosecutorial discretion, will be evident from the discussion of the accountability of prosecutorial authorities in Part III below. It appears as a constant theme throughout the case law on this topic.

In R. v. Catagas (1978), 38 C.C.C. (2d) 296, however, the Manitoba Court of Appeal recognized some limits to prosecutorial discretion with respect to the initiation of criminal proceedings. In that case, a native Indian was accused of illegally hunting on unoccupied Crown land, contrary to the federal Migratory Birds Convention Act, R.S.C. 1970, c.M-12. He applied to the trial court to stay the prosecution as an abuse of the process of the court on the ground that it was in direct violation of an explicit policy of non-prosecution of native Indians for such offences in the province of Manitoba, which had been promulgated internally by Departments of both the federal and the provincial governments. The trial court accepted this argument and dismissed the case. In allowing an appeal by the Crown from this decision, the Manitoba Court of Appeal, in a unanimous judgment, held (at p.301) that "what we have here is a clear case of the exercise of a purported dispensing

^{149.} A similar conclusion was reached in the case of Re Baldwin and Bauer and the Queen (1981) 54 C.C.C. (2d) 85 (Ont.H.C.).

power by executive action in favour of a particular group". The Court held that: "Such a power does not exist. The dispensation which it sought to create was, in the words of Halsbury, "void and of no effect" (*Ibid*). In disposing of the case, the Court said that two points had to be noted. The first was that the fact that "the attempted dispensation was no doubt benevolent in purpose" could not affect its illegality:

"The purported dispensation would have given legal validity to the judgment of the minority and negated the judgment of the majority. And that of course cannot legally be done, no matter how sympathetic one may be towards the Indians and his hunting rights" (*Ibid*).

The court concluded its analysis of the nature of prosecutorial authority in this regard with the following important statement of legal principle:

"The other point is that nothing here stated is intended to curtail or affect the matter of prosecutorial discretion. Not every infraction of the law, as everybody knows, results in the institution of criminal proceedings. A wise discretion may be exercised against the setting in motion of the criminal process. A policeman, confronting a motorist who had been driving slightly in excess of the speed limit, may elect to give him a warning rather than a ticket. An Attorney General, faced with circumstances indicating only technical guilt of a serious offence but actual guilt of a less serious offence, may decide to prosecute on the latter and not on the former. And the Attorney-General may in his discretion stay proceedings on any pending charge, a right that is given statutory recognition in s.508 [am. 1972 c.13, s.43(1)] and s.732.1 [enacted idem, s.62] of the Criminal Code. But in all these instances the prosecutorial discretion is exercised in relation to a specific case. It is the particular facts of a given case that call that discretion into play. But that is a far different thing from the granting of a blanket dispensation in favour of a particular group or race. Today the dispensing power may be exercised in favour of Indians. Tomorrow it may be exercised in favour of Protestants, and the next day in favour of Jews. Our laws cannot be so treated. The Crown may not by Executive action dispense with laws. The matter is as simple as that, and nearly three centuries of legal and constitutional history stand as the foundation for that principle" (Ibid).

Similar reasoning was recently applied in R. v. Wood (1983), 31 C.R. (3d) 374, discussed at pp. 317-318, below.

In R. v. Betesh (1975), 30 C.C.C. (2d) 233 (discussed above at pp. 195-196) the exercise of prosecutorial discretion to grant prosecutorial immunity to a potential accused in a particular case was given judicial recognition. In rendering his decision in that case, Graburn, Co. Ct. J. said (at p. 243):

"The powers of an Attorney-General, whether he be the chief law officer of the Crown for a Province or at the federal level, are those powers long exercised and held by the Attorney-General in England.

It is clear that the Attorney-General in addition to prosecuting someone, has the right to select on what charges that person shall be prosecuted. He has the further right to decide to terminate a prosecution once begun, and the concurrent or analogous right to decide not to prosecute a person at all for offences that that person has allegedly committed."

In response to the argument which had been made that the power to grant immunity from prosecution cannot be recognised in Canadian law because it is not expressly provided for in the *Criminal Code*, Graburn, Co. Ct. J., had this to say (at p.245):

"...while it is true that the Code does not authorise the grant of immunity from prosecution, neither does it exhaust the traditional powers of the chief law officer of the

Crown. For example, the Code does not authorise the withdrawal of a charge, once laid, nor does it authorise plea bargaining as to sentence upon a plea of guilty by a co-accused, so that the latter may give evidence against his co-accused. The latter power was recognised and adopted through his agent, by a former Attorney-General of this Province in a case involving one Rush and Williams in 1969.

Therefore, notwithstanding the lack of any express provision in the *Criminal Code* allowing a grant of immunity by the Attorney-General for Canada, I am satisfied he possesses such a power and that with rare exceptions he can be trusted to exercise it in accordance with the highest traditions of the administration of justice."

(iii) The power to withdraw charges

As Graburn, Co. Ct. J. noted in the passage of his judgment in R. v. Betesh just cited, the Criminal Code nowhere provides expressly for any power to withdraw charges which have been instituted through the laying of any information or the preferring of an indictment. Despite this, the courts have held that prosecutorial authorities have authority to withdraw charges, sometimes without leave, and sometimes with leave of the court.

The power to withdraw a charge with leave of the court has for a long time been recognised as having survived the enactment of the *Criminal Code* in 1892: see e.g. *Fancourt v. Heaven* (1909), 18 O.L.R. 492, and *R. v. Karpinsky*, [1957] S.C.R. 343. Despite this, the power seems to have been the subject of a sort of judicial "rediscovery" in the 1960's. In *R. v. Leonard*, *Ex parte Graham* (1962), 133 C.C.C. 230, Kirby, J., of the Alberta Supreme Court, said (at pp. 233-234):

"There is no provision in the Criminal Code with respect to withdrawal of a charge. I have been unable to find a report of any case dealing specifically with this matter, other than Abbott v. Refuge Assurance Co. referred to below. The Attorney-General in withdrawing the charge was exercising a judicial discretion in his capacity as the Chief Law Enforcement Officer in the Province. The Courts have been most reluctant to interfere with the exercise of this discretion."

Kirby, J., went on to cite with approval the following observations of Salmon, J., in the English case of Abbott v. Refuge Assurance Co., [1961] 3 All E.R. 1074 (at pp. 1084-5):

"It is a long established practice that, if counsel in charge of a prosecution at any stage is convinced that there is no evidence against the defendant, or so little evidence that it would not be safe to leave the case to the jury, it is then the duty of counsel to acquaint the court with his views and to ask for leave to withdraw the prosecution. I certainly have never known such an application to be refused."

Kirby, J., distinguished the power to withdraw charges from the power to stay proceedings under what is now section 508 of the *Criminal Code*, in the following way:

"The terms "stay of proceedings" and "withdraw a charge" are not synonymous. When a charge has been withdrawn, there is no charge on record, and in order to continue the prosecution a new charge would have to be laid. Withdrawing a charge has the effect of ending the proceedings. When a stay has been entered however, the Crown can at any future time continue the proceedings without laying any charge. Entering a stay of proceedings has the effect merely of suspending them."

The existence of the power to withdraw charges was confused in the Leonard case, however, by the fact that on appeal the Alberta Court of Appeal held that in that case