

SENTENCING CHECKLIST

JUDGE DINA YEHIA SC

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ABORIGINALITY

- Also see **Fernando** below under DEPRIVED BACKGROUND.
- In **Bugmy v The Queen** [2013] HCA 37; 249 CLR 571 French CJ, Hayne, Crennan, Kiefel, Bell and Keane JJ said at [36]:

[36] There is no warrant, in sentencing an Aboriginal offender in New South Wales, to apply a method of analysis different from that which applies in sentencing a non-Aboriginal offender. Nor is there a warrant to take into account the high rate of incarceration of Aboriginal people when sentencing an Aboriginal offender. Were this a consideration, the sentencing of Aboriginal offenders would cease to involve individualised justice.

- In **Munda v Western Australia** [2013] HCA 38 French CJ, Hayne, Crennan, Kiefel, Gageler and Keane JJ said at [53]:

[53] Mitigating factors must be given appropriate weight, but they must not be allowed 'to lead to the imposition of a penalty which is disproportionate to the gravity of the instant offence.' It would be contrary to the principle stated by Brennan J in Neal to accept that Aboriginal offending is to be viewed systemically as less serious than offending by persons of other ethnicities. To accept that Aboriginal offenders are in general less responsible for their actions than other persons would be to deny Aboriginal people their full measure of human dignity. It would be quite inconsistent with the statement of principle in Neal to act upon a kind of racial stereotyping which diminishes the dignity of individual offenders by consigning them, by reason of their race and place of residence, to a category of persons who are less capable than others of decent behaviour. Further, it would be wrong to accept that a victim of violence by an Aboriginal offender is somehow less in need, or deserving, of such protection and vindication as the criminal law can provide.

- The reference to the "principle stated by Brennan J" is a reference to what his Honour said in **Neal v The Queen** (1982) 149 CLR 305 at 326:

The same sentencing principles are to be applied ... in every case, irrespective of the identity of a particular offender or his membership of an ethnic or other group. But in imposing sentences courts are bound to take into account, in accordance with those principles, all material facts including those facts which exist only by reason of the offender's membership of an ethnic or other group. So much is essential to the even administration of criminal justice. That done, however, the weight to be attributed to the factors material in a particular case, whether of aggravation or mitigation, is ordinarily a matter for the court exercising the sentencing discretion of first instance or for the Court of Criminal Appeal.

- Similar sentiments were articulated by Wood J in **R v Fernando** (1992) 76 A Crim R 58 at 63:

[63] In sentencing persons of Aboriginal descent the court must avoid any hint of racism, paternalism or collective guilt yet must nevertheless assess realistically the objective seriousness of the crime within its local setting and by reference to the particular subjective circumstances of the offender.

- This passage was referred to with approval in **Munda v Western Australia** at [51].
- In **Bugmy v The Queen** [2013] HCA 37; 249 CLR 571 the joint reasons at [37] commended the observations of Simpson J in **Kennedy v The Queen** [2010] NSWCCA 260 at [53]

[53] Properly understood, Fernando is a decision, not about sentencing Aboriginals, but about the recognition, in sentencing decisions, of social disadvantage that frequently (no matter what the ethnicity of the offender) precedes the commission of crime.

- The High Court in **Bugmy** also stated at [37]:

[37] An Aboriginal offender's deprived background may mitigate the sentence that would otherwise be appropriate for the offence in the same way that the

deprived background of a non-Aboriginal offender may mitigate that offender's sentence.

- After referring to the judgment of Woods J in **Fernando** (see below), the High Court in **Bugmy** said at [40]:

[40] Of course, not all Aboriginal offenders come from backgrounds characterised by the abuse of alcohol and alcohol-fuelled violence. However, Wood J was right to recognise both that those problems are endemic in some Aboriginal communities, and the reasons which tend to perpetuate them. The circumstance that an offender has been raised in a community surrounded by alcohol abuse and violence may mitigate the sentence because his or her moral culpability is likely to be less than the culpability of an offender whose formative years have not been marred in that way.

...

[43]... The experience of growing up in an environment surrounded by alcohol abuse and violence may leave its mark on a person throughout life. Among other things, a background of that kind may compromise the person's capacity to mature and to learn from experience. It is a feature of the person's make-up and remains relevant to the determination of the appropriate sentence, notwithstanding that the person has a long history of offending.

[44] Because the effects of profound childhood deprivation do not diminish with the passage of time and repeated offending, it is right to speak of giving "full weight" to an offender's deprived background in every sentencing decision.

- **Kentwell v R (No 2)** [2015] NSWCCA 96:

In **Kentwell (No 2)** [2015] NSWCCA 96 the applicant was sentenced for rape and violence offences. The applicant was born to Aboriginal parents and at 12 months adopted by a non-Aboriginal family. He grew up ignorant of his Aboriginal cultural heritage, drank alcohol because he felt out of place at school and was asked to leave his adoptive parents' home at 17. He suffered mental health issues.

Rothman J (Bathurst CJ and McCallum J agreeing) noted studies showing that social exclusion can cause high levels of aggression, self-defeating behaviours, poor performance and impaired self-regulation (citing *Lewis* [2014] NSWSC 1127). A person, such as the appellant, who has suffered extreme social exclusion on account of race, even from the family who adopted him, is likely to engage in self-defeating behaviours. Such circumstances are akin to a systemic background of

deprivation that may compromise the person's capacity to mature and learn; and will explain the "offender's recourse to violence...such that ... moral culpability for the inability to control that impulse may be substantially reduced": *Bugmy* (2013) 249 CLR 571 at [41]-[44]. There must be evidence to suggest the application of these principles and the effect of the exclusion. The evidence here is substantial: at [90]-[94].

Bathurst CJ accepted at [13] that the removal of the applicant from his natural parents and his difficulty adjusting to a "white fella's world" (as noted in the Pre-Sentence Report) is evidence of a deprived background and social disadvantage which may mitigate the sentence (*Kennedy* [2010] NSWCCA 260 at [53]; *Bugmy* (2013) 249 CLR 571 at [37]-[44]).

[86] There are two aspects to the statement of approach by the sentencing judge that require comment. First, it is not "Aboriginality" that is relevant to sentence as a mitigating factor. That which is relevant is the personal circumstances of the appellant to which his Aboriginal descent may be relevant.

[87] Secondly, as Wood J in Fernando, Simpson J in Kennedy and the High Court in Bugmy, all make clear the factors adumbrated by Wood J are a non-exclusive set of factors, derived from previous judgments and learned papers. Fundamentally, they describe circumstances of social deprivation, violence and the like that ameliorate the moral culpability of an offender and allow the Court to understand the circumstances that gave rise to the criminal offending. Those circumstances include reasons for an offender's recourse to violence and anti-social behaviour.

[88] In Fernando, the circumstance that was stressed was a family environment of alcohol abuse and violence. That is not a circumstance that pertains to the appellant. The appellant was, as has been set out, adopted by non-Aboriginal family and was denied knowledge of his culture and was denied an environment that supported him as Baarkindgi.

[89] In R v Lewis [2014] NSWSC 1127, I dealt with the sentencing of a person of Aboriginal descent who had been adopted by Caucasian parents and the social exclusion and discrimination occasioned by that factor or as a result of it. Not every person in that situation will suffer in the same way. Mr Lewis did. The appellant did. During the course of the sentencing of Mr Lewis, I said:

"[37] The offender (or more accurately his counsel) seeks to rely on the principles summarised by the Court ... in R v Fernando (1992) 76 A Crim R 58. See the High Court judgment in R v Bugmy [2013] HCA 37 ;

(2013) 249 CLR 571 at [18] and [36]–[43]. This is not a traditional Fernando case. Those principles are well known and I will not now repeat them. They largely deal with persons, whether Aboriginal or otherwise, from a deprived background where abuse of alcohol and physical abuse are accepted norms of conduct.

[38] The offender’s exposure to such an environment really results, as earlier stated, from his attempt to find a peer group arising from his exclusion from social groups at school and in his neighbourhood. It does not reflect his home environment. Nevertheless, there are analogies.”

[90] I proceeded in Lewis to rely upon studies in the United States of America relating to the effect on behaviour of social exclusion and discrimination. It is unnecessary to reiterate those comments or refer in detail again to the studies.

[91] Those studies disclose, somewhat counter-intuitively, that social exclusion from the prevailing group has a direct impact and causes high levels of aggression, self-defeating behaviours, and reduced pro-social contributions to society as a whole, poor performance in intellectual spheres and impaired self-regulation. While intuitively, for those who have not themselves suffered such extreme social exclusion, the response to exclusion would be greater efforts to secure acceptance, the above studies make clear that the opposite occurs.

[92] Thus, a person, such as the appellant, who has suffered extreme social exclusion on account of his race, even from the family who had adopted him, is likely to engage in self-defeating behaviours and suffer the effects to which earlier reference has been made. This is how the appellant has been affected.

[93] Circumstances such as that are akin to a systemic background of deprivation and are a background of a kind that may compromise the person’s capacity to mature and to learn from experience: Bugmy at [41] and [43]. As a consequence, this background of social exclusion will, on the studies to which detailed reference has been made in Lewis, explain an “offender’s recourse to violence...such that the offender’s moral culpability for the inability to control that impulse may be substantially reduced”: Bugmy at [44].

[94] The studies by Professor Baumeister, reference to which is contained in the judgment in Lewis, make clear that such extreme social exclusion will likely

result in anti-social behaviour and most likely result in criminal offending. However, in each case, there must be evidence to suggest the application of these principles and the effect of the exclusion. In this case, the evidence in relation to the appellant of that factor is substantial.

- **Ingrey v R [2016] NSWCCA 31:**

[34] It is true, as the Crown submitted, that in Bugmy v The Queen the plurality said:

“40 ... The circumstance that an offender has been raised in a community surrounded by alcohol abuse and violence may mitigate the sentence because his or her moral culpability is likely to be less than the culpability of an offender whose formative years have not been marred in that way.” (emphasis added)

[35] My understanding of that statement is that it refers to the ultimate effect of that factor. The plurality were not saying that a consideration of this factor was optional. What the plurality clearly had in mind was that even when that factor is taken into account, there may be countervailing factors (such as the protection of the community) which might reduce or eliminate its effect. In other words, this factor where it is present should be taken into account in the exercise of the sentencing discretion. That is something which his Honour did not do.

[39] It follows that although the applicant’s background was marked by exposure to regular criminal activity, it was not of the kind (regrettably found all too often in such cases) where the abuse of alcohol and alcohol-fuelled violence were endemic. The applicant’s background was considerably better than that described in Bugmy, Fernando and a number of similar cases which have come before the courts. Nevertheless, the applicant’s exposure to crime at an early age would still have “compromise[d] the person’s capacity to mature and learn from experience” (Bugmy at [43]).

- **Churnside v The State of Western Australia [2016] WASCA 146:**

[1] The gross over-representation of Aboriginal people in the criminal justice system of Australia has attracted the attention of courts, governments, the legal profession and the international and domestic community, the latter including, of course, the Aboriginal community, for many years. The objective

of reducing the number of Aboriginal people in Australia's prisons was the focus of many of the recommendations made in the final report of the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody. Regrettably, despite the efforts of governments at national, State and Territory level since those recommendations were made in 1991, the disproportionate over-representation of Aboriginal people in Australia's prisons has increased, rather than decreased.

...

[3] The Aboriginality of an offender is not, of itself, a characteristic which is relevant to the sentencing process. However, the fact that an offender has experienced a traumatic childhood, deprivation and social disadvantage is relevant to the sentencing process, and it is the long experience of the courts of this State that Aboriginal offenders are over-represented amongst those who have suffered such life experiences. Similarly, although foetal alcohol spectrum disorder, which this appellant suffers, is not a condition which is in any way peculiar to Aboriginal people, such limited evidence as there is suggests that Aboriginal people are over-represented amongst those who suffer from this condition.

...

[5] The courts are not in a position to address the social disadvantage in remote Aboriginal communities which cultivates the offending behaviour that produces unacceptably high rates of Aboriginal imprisonment. Nor do the courts control the allocation of government funding which may seek to address that social disadvantage. The challenges facing even well-resourced programs are not to be under-estimated. There will be cases where the seriousness of the offences or the pattern of offending committed by persons in the appellant's position is such as to demand the imposition of a term of imprisonment to be immediately served. Ultimately, community protection may require the removal of an offender from the community.

[6] However, the present case is not one which, having regard to the nature of the offence and the circumstances of the offender, required the imposition of an immediate term of imprisonment. The appellant's cognitive deficits, which are no fault of his, limit the deterrent effect of imprisonment, both at a general

and personal level. The community protection which his imprisonment offers is entirely short-term, as time spent in custody will do nothing to address the prospect of the appellant resuming a cycle of offending and imprisonment on release. Further, the appellant is still a very young man for whom the specialist reports indicate hope for rehabilitation if support can be provided in the community...

[7] The circumstances of this case demonstrate that the courts of this State must make every possible effort and take every step consistent with the interests of justice to engage the services of governmental and non-governmental agencies to assist offenders to change their living circumstances and behaviour in a way which will reduce the risk of reoffending, particularly in relation to offenders who suffer from cognitive deficits of the kind associated with foetal alcohol spectrum disorder. Without those efforts being made, the repetitive cycle of offending followed by ineffective punishment is likely to continue indefinitely to the detriment of both the relevant offender and to the safety of the community. The circumstances of this case also demonstrate the practical difficulties of providing appropriate support and assistance to offenders who reside in regional and remote parts of our State. As Aboriginal people are over-represented amongst those who have suffered childhood trauma, deprivation and social disadvantage, and amongst those who suffer foetal alcohol spectrum disorder, and amongst those who reside in regional and remote Western Australia, assiduous effort by the courts of this State to engage and facilitate whatever support and services may be available to offenders with these characteristics is an essential component of any effective strategy to reduce disproportionate Aboriginal imprisonment.

Kelly v R [2016] NSWCCA 246, per Rothman J (with Hoeben CJ at CL and R A Hulme J agreeing):

46 The Court is thus required to re-sentence. As the Crown correctly notes, the provisions of s 21A(5AA) of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* precluded the use self-induced intoxication of an offender at the time of an offence as a mitigating factor in determining the appropriate sentence.

- 47 Even before the introduction of that relatively new sub-section, the intoxication by alcohol or drugs ordinarily did not mitigate the penalty to be imposed on a particular offender: *Bourke v R* [2010] NSWCCA 22; 199 A Crim R 38 at [26].
- 48 Nevertheless, as McClellan CJ at CL in *Bourke* said, that ordinary rule does not apply where the intoxication is the result of an addiction and the original addiction did not involve a free choice. His Honour's comments were that offenders could not expect reductions in sentence merely on account of the offence being committed while the offender was intoxicated.
- 49 The Crown submits that the effect of s 21A(5AA) of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act* 1999 is also "to abolish" that part of *R v Fernando* (1992) 76 A Crim R 58 that the High Court approved in *Bugmy v The Queen* [2013] HCA 37; (2013) 249 CLR 571. I do not agree with that last mentioned submission.
- 50 The effect of *Fernando* and of *Bugmy* is to recognise that, in certain communities to which the circumstances in *Fernando* and *Bugmy* applied, the abuse of alcohol and drugs is so prevalent and accompanied by violence that the intoxication no longer fits the description of being "self-induced". In that way, the intoxication fits the description to which McClellan CJ at CL referred in *Bourke*.

ACCUMULATION AND CONCURRENCY

- **Hutchen v R** [2015] NSWCCA 101 Hoeben CJ at CL at [36]:

[36] It is incorrect to characterise the time spent in custody, as a result of the revocation of parole, as “any time for which the offender has been held in custody in relation to the offence” as referred to in s47 of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999. Section 47(3) is directed to incarceration directly relating to the offence in respect of which the offender is being sentenced. The period in custody, as a result of the revocation of parole, was directly referable to the previous offending not this offending.

[37] A sentencing judge when considering a sentence of imprisonment is to take into account any time for which the offender was in custody in relation to the offence, i.e. the offence for which the offender is being sentenced (s24(a) of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act. If the sentencing judge orders that a sentence of imprisonment commence on a date before the date of sentence, the court is to take into account time held in custody for the offence (s47(2)).

[38] There is no doubt, as the applicant submitted, that his Honour had a discretion to backdate the commencement date of this sentence so that it would be concurrent with or partly concurrent with the balance of parole (**R v Kitchener** [2003] NSWCCA 134; **Callaghan v R** [2006] NSWCCA 58; 160 A Crim R 145). This does not mean that his Honour was obliged to exercise his discretion in that way. When parole is revoked as a consequence of the commission of a subsequent offence, whether the sentence for the subsequent offence should be backdated in that way is a matter for the sentencing judge.

[39] The relevant principles were set out by Simpson J in **Callaghan**. There Simpson J (with whom James and Hall JJ agreed) said:

*“21 That the matter is discretionary appears to be the prevailing view of members of this Court. Even in **Andrews** and **Kelly**, the court accepted that a judge might backdate a sentence where parole had been revoked by reason of the offence for which the offender is then to be sentenced.*

22 I maintain the view that a discretion exists. There is no clear rule which will govern all cases. The circumstances that bring an offender

before a court for sentence after parole has been revoked are far too varied to permit a single absolute rule.

23 It would, in my opinion, in some cases be unfair not to backdate to some point (not necessarily the date of revocation of parole) before the expiration of the earlier parole period. It is always open to an offender to seek and be granted parole even after a revocation; to sentence in such a way as to commence the subsequent sentence only on the date of expiration of the whole of the previously imposed head sentence is to assume that, absent the subsequent offences, the offender would not have been granted a second chance at parole.

24 However, I am also of the view that, particularly where, as here, the re-offending has occurred within a very short time of release on parole, and the balance of term to which the offender is exposed is quite short, it may be appropriate to proceed on the hypothesis that the whole of the period spent in custody up to the expiration of the parole period is, as Hunt CJ at CL said, referable to the earlier offences and not to the subsequent offences.”

- Questions of the degree of accumulation and concurrency are matters that fall squarely within the discretionary judgment of the sentencing Judge: see for example **R v Hammoud** (2000) 118 A Crim R 66 per Simpson J at [7].
- The High Court said in **Johnson v The Queen** [2004] HCA 15; 205 ALR 346; (2004) 78 ALJR 616:

“Judges at first instance should be afforded as much flexibility in sentencing as is consonant with consistency of approach and as accords with the statutory regime under which the sentencing is effected”.

- It is accepted that when sentencing an offender for more than one offence, a sentencing judge must fix an appropriate sentence for each offence and then consider questions of accumulation or concurrence, as well, of course, as questions of totality. See **Pearce v The Queen** [1998] HCA 57; 194 CLR 610 at [45].
- **R v XX** [2009] NSWCCA 115 at [52]:

[52] There is no general rule that determines whether sentences ought to be imposed concurrently or consecutively: see **Cahyadi v Regina** (2007) 168 A Crim R 41 per Howie J at 47. However, a number of propositions relevant to the consideration of that issue may be derived from the case law. They include the following:-

(1) It is well established that questions of accumulation are, subject to the application of established principle, discretionary. What is important is that, firstly, an appropriate sentence is imposed in respect of each offence; and, secondly, that the total sentence imposed properly reflects the totality of the criminality: **Regina v Wilson** [2005] NSWCCA 219 at [38] per Simpson, Barr and Latham JJ agreeing.

(2) In **Regina v Weldon; Regina v Carberry** (2002) 136 A Crim R 55, Ipp JA at [48] stated that it is "*not infrequent that, where the offences arise out of one criminal enterprise, concurrent sentences will be imposed*" but his Honour observed that "*this is not an inflexible rule*" and "*[t]he practice should not be followed where wholly concurrent sentences would fail to take account of differences in conduct*".

(3) The question as to whether sentences in respect of two or more offences committed in the course of a single episode or a criminal enterprise or on a particular day should be concurrent or at least partly accumulated is to be determined by the principle of totality and the relevant factors to be taken into account in the application of that principle. See observations in this respect of Howie J in **Nguyen v Regina** [2007] NSWCCA 14 at [12].

(4) In applying the principle of totality, the question to be posed is whether the sentence for one offence can comprehend and reflect the criminality of the other offence. See generally **Regina v MMK** [2006] NSWCCA 272 at [11] and [13], **Cahyadi**(supra) at [12] and [27] and **Vaovasa v Regina** [2007] NSWCCA 253.

(5) If the sentence for one offence can comprehend and reflect the criminality of the other, then the sentences ought to be concurrent,

otherwise there is a risk that the combined sentences will exceed that which is warranted to reflect the totality of the two offences: **Cayhadi** (supra) per Howie J at [27].

(6) If not, the sentence should be at least partially cumulative otherwise there is a risk that the total sentence will fail to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. This is so regardless of whether the two offences represent two discrete acts of criminality or can be regarded as part of a single episode of criminality: **Cayhadi** (supra) per Howie J at [27].

(7) Whether the sentence for one offence can comprehend and reflect the criminality of the other calls for the identification and an evaluation of relevant factors pertaining to the offences. These will include the nature and seriousness of each offence.

(8) In cases involving assault with violence where the offences involve two or more attacks of considerable violence and are distinct and separate (eg, see **Regina v Dunn** [2004] NSWCCA 41 at [50]) or in cases where there are separate victims of the attacks as in **Wilson** (supra), the closeness in time and proximity of the two offences will often not be determinative factors. See also **Regina v KM** [2004] NSWCCA 65. In **Wilson** (supra), having regard to the purposes of sentencing set out in s.3A of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act*, Simpson J observed at [38] that "*... to fail to accumulate, at least partially, may well be seen as a failure to acknowledge the harm done to those individual victims ...*"

In **Dunn** (supra), the respondent to the Crown appeal had entered a guilty plea to an offence under s.51A of the *Crimes Act 1900* of breaking and entering the dwelling house of a female, being armed with an offensive weapon, namely a knife with which he wounded the victim by inflicting three shallow lacerations to her neck. He also pleaded guilty to the offence of assaulting a male thereby occasioning actual bodily harm, that crime also occurring in the female's home when the male victim attempted to protect her from the respondent.

On the appeal, the Crown submitted that the sentences should have been partially accumulated. Adams J (with whom Ipp JA and Sully J agreed) stated at [50] that there should have been some accumulation in the sentences to

reflect the fact that the respondent had persisted in his violence when the male victim attempted, justifiably and lawfully, to restrain him:-

"... there is a distinct difference between assaulting one victim and assaulting two. Each was intentionally injured with the knife. The learned sentencing judge did not articulate his reasons for making the sentences wholly concurrent. Merely that the offences occurred in the course of a single extended episode does not justify such a conclusion. In my view the two attacks were distinct and separate instances of considerable violence and required distinct punishment, although they were so closely related in time and proximity as to require a significant degree of concurrency. Of course, it is also important to ensure that the effective sentence thus derived does not exceed the respondent's criminality considered as a whole."

(9) Where two offences committed during the course of a single episode are of a completely different nature and each individually involved significant or extreme gravity, it is likely that some accumulation will be necessary to address the criminality of the two: **Nguyen** (supra) per Howie J at [13].

(10) Possession of two different kinds of drugs may not be regarded as one episode of criminality in a case of "deemed" supply: **Luu v Regina** [2008] NSWCCA 285 at [32].

(11) The fact that the evidence of two offences (eg, documentary evidence or the presence of drugs) are located by police at or in the one place is not a relevant factor in favour of concurrent sentences:-

"... The fact that the evidence of a number of discrete offences is located in the one place is completely irrelevant to any question of how the sentences for those offences should be imposed." (**Cahaydi** (supra) at [26])

- **Bobbin v R [2016] NSWCCA 38**

49 It should be recognised at the outset that the level of concurrency or accumulation between two or more sentences imposed upon an offender is a matter which falls within the broad discretion of the sentencing judge: **R v Hammoud** [2000] NSWCCA 540; (2000) 118 A Crim R 66; **LG v R** [2012]

NSWCCA 249 at [24] – [26]; *Franklin v R* [2013] NSWCCA 122 at [42] – [44]; *Mato v R*; *Rusu v R* [2015] NSWCCA 328 at [115] – [117].

50 The exercise of the discretion is circumscribed by the application of principle, most relevantly that of totality: *R v Pearce* [1998] HCA 57; (1998) 194 CLR 610; *MMK v R* [2006] NSWCCA 272; (2006) 164 A Crim R 481 at [13].

51 When imposing sentence for two or more offences, a sentencing judge is required to consider each offence separately and determine the appropriate sentence for each. The question of accumulation or concurrency of the individual sentences follows, with that question articulated by Howie J in *Cahyadi v R* [2007] NSWCCA 1; (2007) 168 A Crim R 41, at [27] as,

“[...] can the sentence for one offence comprehend and reflect the criminality for the other offence?”

52 Howie J continued, at [27],

“If it can, the sentences ought to be concurrent otherwise there is a risk that the combined sentences will exceed that which is warranted to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. If not, the sentences should be at least partly cumulative otherwise there is a risk that the total sentence will fail to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. This is so regardless of whether the two offences represent two discrete acts of criminality or can be regarded as part of a single episode of criminality.”

53 There is no general rule or formula that determines whether sentences ought to be imposed concurrently or cumulatively. The assessment to be made by the sentencing judge in that regard is very much a matter for judgment and, although minds might reasonably differ on the extent of any concurrency or accumulation of sentence, establishing error in the exercise of the discretion requires more than a difference of opinion. It must be demonstrated that an error of the type enunciated in *House v The King* [1936] HCA 40; (1936) 55 CLR 499 has occurred.

54 Where sentences are imposed, as here, for drug offences, there will be a number of features that may be relevant to the assessment of the criminality involved: any commonality in the elements of each of the individual offences; the nature of the drug involved; the nature of the enterprise and how it was enacted; the question of any profit from the offences; and the period of time in which the crimes occurred, are some considerations that may arise.

- **Grills v R [2016] NSWCCA 46**

39 The principles to be applied with respect to accumulation and concurrency were set out by Hall J (Tobias JA and Kirby J agreeing) in *R v XX* [2009] NSWCCA 115; (2009) 195 A Crim R 38 at [52]. Those principles make clear that when applying the principle of totality the question to be posed is whether the sentence for one offence can comprehend and reflect the criminality of the other offence. If it can then the sentences ought to be concurrent but if it cannot the sentence should be at least partially cumulative, and that is so “regardless of whether the two offences represent two discrete acts of criminality or can be regarded as part of a single episode of criminality”.

40 In *JT v R* [2012] NSWCCA 133 Rothman J (with whom Whealy JA and Davies J agreed) said:

[71] The exercise involved in determining accumulation and concurrence and the application of the principles of totality are inconsistent with the proposition that one single correct answer will be derived in every circumstance by every judge. The application of the principle of totality is an exercise of discretion, intuitive or instinctive synthesis, and cannot be conducted arithmetically: *Pearce* at [46]; *Markarian v The Queen* [2005] HCA 25; (2005) 228 CLR 357. The principle assumes that each individual sentence imposed will reflect the criminality of that offence and that the combination of the sentences shall reflect the total criminality of all of the crimes committed: *Pearce*.

...

[73] Generally, in the application of the principle of totality, it is difficult, if not impossible, for a sentencing judge to do more than state and apply the principle on the facts as found. Greater transparency is extremely difficult. The process is at the essence of intuitive or instinctive synthesis. As a consequence, once a sentencing judge notes that the principle is being applied (or plainly, by an examination of the process involved, has applied the principle), assuming the facts are correctly stated, in order for an appeal court to intervene, the result must manifest an incorrect application of the principle. Otherwise, interference with the result is impermissible.

41. In *Ayshow v R* [2011] NSWCCA 240 Johnson J (with whom Bathurst CJ and James J agreed) said:

The Applicant's possession of a loaded pistol required some separate and identifiable penalty for that crime. The sentence on the drug supply offences could not comprehend and reflect the criminality for the firearm offence. The offences involved discrete and independent criminal acts so that a significant measure of accumulation was appropriate for the s.7(1) offence: *R v AZ* at 235-236 [85].

- **R v Caldwell [2016] NSWCCA 55**

46 A recent summary of the correct approach to the assessment of sentence for multiple offences so as to have proper regard to the totality of criminality appeared in *R v Van Ryn* [2016] NSWCCA 1:

“[228] Street CJ described the principle of totality in sentencing in *R v Holder; R v Johnston* [1983] 3 NSWLR 245 at 260 as follows:

'The principle of totality is a convenient phrase, descriptive of the significant practical consideration confronting a sentencing judge when

sentencing for two or more offences. Not infrequently a straightforward arithmetical addition of sentences appropriate for each individual offence considered separately will arrive at an ultimate aggregate that exceeds what is called for in the whole of the circumstances. In such a situation the sentencing judge will evaluate, in a broad sense, the overall criminality involved in all of the offences and, having done so, will determine what, if any, downward adjustment is necessary, whether by telescoping or otherwise, in the aggregate sentences in order to achieve an appropriate relativity between the totality of the criminality and the totality of the sentences.'

[229] In *R v Harris* [2007] NSWCCA 130; 171 A Crim R 267 at [46], the Court (McClellan CJ at CL, Hulme and Hislop JJ) emphasised the need to maintain public confidence in the administration of justice when sentencing for multiple offences by endorsing the remarks of Sully J in the two-judge bench decision in *R v Wheeler* [2000] NSWCCA 34 at [36]-[37]:

'... (There) is the need to ensure public confidence in the administration of criminal justice; and, in particular, to ensure that there does not emerge in the community at large a perception that there is not all that much to choose between the person who commits one or two offences, and the person who commits six or seven offences, for the reason that somehow or other they all manage to finish up with effective sentences between or among which there is hardly anything in practical terms to choose.

It needs to be clearly understood by all concerned that a person who commits a deliberate series of discrete offences, - and the present applicant's case, is a good example of the kind, - he must not be left with the idea that by intoning references to the principle of totality as though it were some magic mantra, he can escape effective punishment for the offences which follow successively one upon another throughout the whole course of a studied and deliberate course of criminal behaviour.'

[230] In *R v XX* (2009) 195 A Crim R 38 at [52], Hall J set out a number of propositions derived from the case law concerning the discretionary exercise of ordering sentences to be served concurrently or cumulatively in accordance with the principle of totality. They included reference to the following passage in the judgment of Howie J in *R v Cahyadi* [2007] NSWCCA 1; 168 A Crim R 41 at [27]:

'... [T]here is no general rule that determines whether sentences ought to be imposed concurrently or consecutively. The issue is determined by the application of the principle of totality of criminality: can the sentence for one offence comprehend and reflect the criminality for the other offence? If it can, the sentences ought to be concurrent otherwise there is a risk that the combined sentences will exceed that which is warranted to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. If not, the sentences should be at least partly cumulative otherwise there is a risk that the total sentence will fail to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. This is so regardless of whether the two offences represent two discrete acts of criminality or can be regarded as part of a single episode of criminality. Of course it is more likely that, where the offences are discrete and independent criminal acts, the sentence for one offence cannot comprehend the criminality of the other. Similarly, where they are part of a single episode of criminality with common factors, it is more likely that the sentence for one of the offences will reflect the criminality of both.' (Emphasis added)"

- **R v Hollaway [2016] NSWCCA 166**

[28] Simpson J referred to earlier cases in this Court in which the issue had been considered. She continued:

"[21] That the matter is discretionary appears to be the prevailing view of members of this Court. Even in *Andrews* and *Kelly*, the court accepted that a judge might backdate a sentence where parole had been revoked by reason of the offence for which the offender is then to be sentenced.

[22] I maintain the view that a discretion exists. There is no clear rule which will govern all cases. The circumstances that bring an offender before a court for sentence after parole has been revoked are far too varied to permit a single absolute rule.

[23] It would, in my opinion, in some cases be unfair not to backdate to some point (not necessarily the date of revocation of parole) before the expiration of the earlier parole period. It is always open to an offender to seek and be granted parole even after a revocation; *to sentence in such a way as to commence the subsequent sentence only on the date of expiration of the whole of the previously imposed head sentence is to assume that, absent the subsequent offences, the offender would not have been granted a second chance at parole.*

[24] However, I am also of the view that, particularly where, as here, the re-offending has occurred within a very short time of release on parole, and the balance of term to which the offender is exposed is quite short, it may be appropriate to proceed on the hypothesis that the whole of the period spent in custody up to the expiration of the parole period is, as Hunt CJ at CL said, referable to the earlier offences and not to the subsequent offences.

[25] Thus, I am of the view that the sentencing judge did have a discretion to make the sentences wholly or partly cumulative upon the sentence to which the applicant was, as a consequence of the revocation of parole, serving. That allowed her a period of six months. She could have specified the current sentences to commence at any time during that period." (Emphasis added)

[29] The clear point is that the issue is one of discretion. It must, of course, be exercised in a principled way: *Barnes v R* [2014] NSWCCA 224 at [28].

- **Silvestri v R [2016] NSWCCA 245**

"[50] In considering the question of accumulation, his Honour referred to *R v Janceski* [2005] NSWCCA 288. That was a case involving two counts of dangerous driving causing grievous bodily harm arising out of the same accident, in which Hunt AJA (with whom Spigelman CJ and Howie J agreed) considered the issue of concurrency and accumulation in cases of this kind. His Honour considered cases in which one incident gives rise to different charges with different victims. He divided that category of case into two sub-categories. An example of the first was where an offender repeatedly fires a gun, injuring a number of different people in the same incident, where it would be appropriate "to take into account the fact that the offences were substantially contemporaneous and connected ...". The second was where "the one action by the offender causes a number of people to be injured and where separate charges are laid in respect of each victim": [21].

[51] Hunt AJA continued at [23]:

“In a case falling within the second sub-category, separate sentences should usually be fixed which are made partly concurrent and partly cumulative, each such sentence being appropriate to the existence of only one victim and the aggregate of the sentences reflecting the fact that there are multiple victims resulting from the same action by the offender. The extent to which there should be an overlap in the partial accumulation will depend on what is required to represent the totality of the criminality involved in the one act of the offender. This, it seems to me, follows naturally from *Pearce* at [45]–[48] — and cases such as *Regina v Weldon* (2002) 136 A Crim R 55 at [46]–[53] and *Regina v Price* [2004] NSWCCA 186 at [38], [49] — when applying the general principles relating to the aggregation of sentences to this particular sub-category.”

[52] ... Of course, courts have a wide discretion in dealing with questions of accumulation and concurrence, and totality is an important consideration. Total, or near total, accumulation in sentencing for multiple counts in cases such as this arising from the same accident are not unknown: see, for example, *AB (No 2)* (supra). However, consistently with the view expressed by Hunt AJA in the quoted passage, partly accumulative sentences are the normal practice.”

- **R v Jeremiah [2016] NSWCCA 241**

“[6]... The principle of totality requires the Court to consider whether an aggregation of sentences to be imposed is a “just and appropriate measure of the total criminality involved”: *Postiglione v The Queen* (1997) 189 CLR 295 at 307 – 308; [1997] HCA 26; *Mill v The Queen* (1988) 166 CLR 59 at 63; [1988] HCA 70; *R v MAK; R v MSK* [2006] NSWCCA 381; (2006) 167 A Crim R 159 at [15]. The imposition of an entirely concurrent term by the learned sentencing judge produced an outcome which is unjust and inappropriate. It fails to recognise or to reflect that the circumstances in which this assault against a fellow inmate took place were different from and unconnected with the circumstances of the prior offences. The Remarks on Sentence do not reconcile the concurrence of the sentences with the disparate character and occasion of the respective offences. The Remarks are silent as to any justification his Honour may have seen for concurrency and backdating.

...

[9] Accompanying the need to reflect total criminality is the Court’s concern to maintain public confidence in the administration of criminal justice. The concurrence ordered by his Honour, if allowed to stand, would undermine that confidence and give rise instead to a perception that a person who has committed a serious offence has escaped effective punishment: *Regina v Wheeler* [2000] NSWCCA 34 at [36] – [37]; *Pannowitz v R* [2016] NSWCCA 13 at [40]. A case such as the present involves an especially important factor relevant to general deterrence which must be taken into account in determining whether concurrence of any degree (and, if so, what degree) will be consistent with the imposition of a sufficient penalty overall. Namely, the sentence must effect sufficient general deterrence to demonstrate that violence and disorder between prisoners in custody will not be tolerated by the courts: *R v Fyffe* [2002] NSWSC 751 at [33]; *R v Hoskins* [2004] NSWCCA 236 at [62] – [63]; *R v Windle* [2012] NSWCCA 222 at [56].

[10] This consideration was stated in these terms by Barr J in *R v Fyffe* at [33]:

“It is particularly important that courts impose sentences calculated to deter the commission of offences in prison. Officers who administer prison communities are entitled to expect that inmates will be deterred from offending. Equally, inmates

... serving their sentences as best they may are entitled to as much protection as the courts can afford them.

...

[12] Full accumulation of the sentence in this case would be consistent with the legislative policy underlying s 56(2) of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* (NSW). That section provides that where a convicted inmate commits an offence against the person while serving a sentence of imprisonment yet to expire, his sentence for the offence committed in custody is to be consecutive upon the pre-existing term, unless otherwise ordered. The respondent was not a “convicted inmate” at the time of the assault. Section 56 does not apply to him. But the full accumulation which the Court on this appeal considers appropriate is certainly not in tension with the objectives of s 56.

[13] The respondent argued that the sentence his Honour imposed had a “sensible structure” because the State Parole Authority would have to consider his release to parole under the sentence for the assault sometime before 31 January 2017. It was said the Authority would be able at that time to take into account the relationship between the concurrent sentences and the seriousness of the underlying offending. It is not apparent to what end the Authority might apply that consideration. The short answer to the submission is that the possibility of the Parole Authority considering the matter is irrelevant. The objectives of specific and general deterrence had to be achieved by the sentencing judge’s decision, through denunciation of the crime reflected in an appropriately measured punishment. A decision of the State Parole Authority in exercise of its discretion at a later time is no substitute for a proper sentence.

...

[27] The objective seriousness of an assault committed by stomping on a victim’s head has been remarked upon in this Court: *AM v R* [2012] NSWCCA 203; (2012) 225 A Crim R 481; *Wainwright v R* [2016] NSWCCA 19.”

- **R v Dashti [2016] NSWCCA 251**

108. The question whether the punishment imposed for two or more offences should be concurrent or cumulative arises in the context where, in accordance with settled principle, a court is required to pass or indicate a sentence in respect of each offence. In *Pearce v The Queen* [1998] HCA 57; 194 CLR 610, the plurality, McHugh, Hayne and Callinan JJ, observed at [47] that, if proper principle was not applied in fixing the appropriate sentence for each offence, “*orders made for cumulation or concurrence will be made on an imperfect foundation*”. At [48], their Honours held:

“... the need to ensure proper sentencing on each count is reinforced when it is recalled that a failure to do so may give rise to artificial claims of disparity between co-offenders or otherwise distort general sentencing practices in relation to particular offences.” (citation omitted)

109. The underlying principle is one of totality. In *Cahyadi v R* [2007] NSWCCA 1; 168 A Crim R 41. Howie J, with whom Adams and Price JJ relevantly agreed, explained, at [27]:

“[T]here is no general rule that determines whether sentences ought to be imposed concurrently or consecutively. The issue is determined by the application of the principle of

totality of criminality: can the sentence for one offence comprehend and reflect the criminality for the other offence? If it can, the sentences ought to be concurrent otherwise there is a risk that the combined sentences will exceed that which is warranted to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. If not, the sentences should be at least partly cumulative otherwise there is a risk that the total sentence will fail to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. This is so regardless of whether the two offences represent two discrete acts of criminality or can be regarded as part of a single episode of criminality. Of course it is more likely that, where the offences are discrete and independent criminal acts, the sentence for one offence cannot comprehend the criminality of the other. Similarly, where they are part of a single episode of criminality with common factors, it is more likely that the sentence for one of the offences will reflect the criminality of both.”

110. Questions of concurrence or accumulation are relevant to the imposition of an aggregate sentence, notwithstanding that a single sentence is imposed in respect of all charges of which the offender has been convicted. That this is so is apparent from the terms of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act*, s 53A(2) which requires the court to specify the indicative sentence that would have been imposed if the offender were sentenced in respect of each offence. As McClellan CJ at CL observed in *R v Nykolyn* [2012] NSWCCA 219 at [32], a sentencing judge is accordingly required:

“... to give consideration to the criminality involved in each offence and, where appropriate, have regard to any matters on a Form 1 when defining the sentence that would have been imposed for an individual offence.”

ADDICTION

- **Henry v R** (1999) 46 NSWLR 346; (1999) 106 A Crim R 149:

[273] *In my view the relevant principles are as follows:*

- (a) **the need to acquire funds to support a drug habit, even a severe habit, is not an excuse** to commit an armed robbery or any similar offence, and of itself is not a matter of mitigation;
- (b) *however the fact that an offence is motivated by such a need may be taken into account as a factor relevant to the objective criminality of the offence in so far as it **may throw light on** matters such as:*
 - i. *the impulsivity of the offence and the extent of any planning for it; (cf Bouchard (1996) 84 A Crim R 499 at 501-2); and Nolan (1988) VSCA 135 (2 December 1998);*
 - ii. *the existence or non existence of any alternative reason that may have operated in aggravation of the offence, eg that it was motivated to fund some other serious criminal venture or to support a campaign of terrorism;*
 - iii. **the state of mind or capacity of the offender to exercise judgment**, eg if he or she was in the grips of an extreme state of withdrawal of the kind that may have led to a frank disorder of thought processes or to the act being other than a willed act;
- (c) **It may also be relevant as a subjective circumstance**, in so far as the origin or extent of the addiction, and any attempts to overcome it, might:
 - i. **impact upon the prospects of recidivism/rehabilitation**, in which respect it may on occasions prove to be a two-edged sword (eg Lewis Court of Criminal Appeal New South Wales 1 July 1992);
 - ii. **suggest that the addiction was not a matter of personal choice** but was attributable to some other event for which the offender was not primarily responsible, for example where it arose as the result of the medical prescription of potentially addictive drugs following injury, illness, or surgery (cf Hodge Court of Criminal Appeal New South Wales 2 November 1993;

and Talbot); or where it occurred at a very young age, or in a person whose mental or intellectual capacity was impaired, so that their ability to exercise appropriate judgment or choice was incomplete;

- iii. ***justify special consideration in the case of offenders judged to be at the "cross roads":*** Osenkowski(19882) 5 A Crim R 394.

[274] To go further, and to accept the fact of drug addiction as a mitigating factor generally, would not be justified in principle.

- Simpson J agreed with Wood CJ at CL on this issue and added some observations of her own. At [336] (410), her Honour noted that in some cases drug addiction may have its origins *"in arrogance, in an antipathetical attitude to the laws of society, or in weakness of character."* She continued:

"In other cases, I have no doubt, it has its origins in social disadvantage, poverty, emotional, financial, or social deprivation, poor educational achievement, unemployment, and the despair and loss of self-worth that can result from these circumstances or any combination of them. In this court one sometimes sees cases in which drug taking stems from sexual assault or exploitation, sometimes committed when the person who turns to drugs, and who comes before the court, is very young, and sometimes the precipitating events have occurred many years before. Drug addiction is not always the disease; it is, as often as not, a symptom of social disease."

- Later in her judgment, her Honour said at [344] (412):

"Where circumstances such as those I have mentioned (or others equally deserving of compassion) have been the foundation for the drug addiction, and part of the causal chain leading to the commission of crime, then it would be appropriate, in my view, for the rehabilitative aspects of sentencing to assume a more significant role than might otherwise be the case. In an appropriate case, rehabilitation might outweigh other sentencing factors. In order for those circumstances to provide a reason for reduction of sentence, however, there would need to be strong evidence of real progress towards

actual rehabilitation. I would not wish to be understood to be saying other than that leniency of the kind to which I refer depends heavily upon demonstrated (as distinct from theoretical) rehabilitative prospects."

- The above remarks were referred to in the case of **Leigh Brown v R** [2014] NSWCCA 335 by Hidden J:

[28] These observations are apposite to the present case. True it is, as the Crown prosecutor in this court pointed out, that the applicant stood for sentence for a persistent course of criminal activity, against the background of an unfavourable criminal history. Further offences were taken into account when he was sentenced for both of the principal offences. Nevertheless, there was force in the submissions of counsel appearing for him in the sentence proceedings that he was "a classic product" of his childhood and, at the time of sentence, was "at a cross-roads."

[29] It does not appear from his remarks on sentence that his Honour approached the matter in this way. This is a case in which the applicant was entitled to a measure of leniency for the reasons articulated by Simpson J in the passage from her judgment in Henry which I have quoted in [27] above. Equally, it is a case in which, to adopt her Honour's words in the passage last cited, it was "appropriate...for the rehabilitative aspects of sentencing to assume a more significant role than might otherwise be the case." There was also "strong evidence of real progress towards actual rehabilitation." That said, while I myself might assess his prospects of rehabilitation as better than "somewhat guarded", it is important that a sentence be structured so as to afford him the opportunity of a lengthy period of conditional liberty, subject to supervision and the sanction of parole. To that end, like his Honour, I would find special circumstances.

*[30] While taking these matters into account, it remains necessary to pass a sentence which adequately reflects the applicant's criminality. **However, the non-parole period, while also meeting the need for an appropriate measure of punishment and retribution, must recognise the progress he has made towards defeating his drug addiction and encourage him to remain on that rehabilitative path.** The balance of term I propose would*

provide for a lengthy period of supervision and maintain the sanction of parole for a further period thereafter.

- RS Hulme J further said at [36]:

[36] For someone who was in the applicant's situation, his achievements are remarkable. They lessen greatly the weight needing to be given to personal deterrence, rehabilitation and the protection of the community in determining the length of the applicant's non parole period. No doubt his reform has its own rewards but it enables the Court also to provide some reward.

- **Dang v R** [2013] NSWCCA 246 Basten JA from [23] – [30]:

*[23] First, the most detailed discussion in the authorities in this State is to be found in the guideline judgment of **R v Henry** [1999] NSWCCA 111; 46 NSWLR 346 at [174]-[204] (Spigelman CJ), [215]-[277] (Wood CJ at CL, RS Hulme J agreeing) and [335]-[356] (Simpson J). The significance of addiction as a factor affecting the deterrent operation of a sentence may be different in a case of manufacturing a drug for private use, as compared with offences of armed robbery where the proceeds of crime are destined to feed the addiction.*

[24] Secondly, if addiction is an explanation (in part) for criminal behaviour, it is necessary to identify why it is not "in part" an excuse, though not a justification. Thirdly, the distinction involves ideas of moral culpability, which invites a question as to the extent to which a sentencing court is required to assess levels of moral culpability.

*[25] In this context, **"moral culpability"** engages two broad considerations, namely **harm to others and freedom of the offender to choose another course. The law recognises the inappropriateness of convicting a person unable to distinguish right from wrong and, indeed, a person who is unable adequately to understand the process of a plea and trial. Further, even where the criminal law has run its course, the law recognises the relevance of mental illness in diminishing culpability for the purpose of assessing an appropriate sentence. But the distinction between mental illness and mental health is not a bright line, nor is the assessment of moral culpability based on freedom of choice transparent. One problem is***

that the assessment of a factor such as addiction to "ice" is largely beyond the capacity of the Court, at least on the evidence available on this case.

[26] Furthermore, "moral culpability" implies a choice between courses of conduct, some of which are criminal, others of which are not. The classification of that which is criminal and that which is not is a matter for the legislature and is not entirely dependent upon a calculus of harm to others, or even the cost of treatment, borne by the economy as a whole. It is also a matter for the legislature to indicate, by prescription of penalties, the seriousness of contravention.

...

[28] Within the parameters fixed by the legislature, the exercise of discretion by the court will reflect various purposes of the criminal law, including, perhaps primarily, general and personal deterrence. Punishment may involve an element of public retribution, although the role of the courts in that regard should be tempered so as to discriminate between expression of enduring values and the ill-considered emotive responses of the moment. Further, deterrence is not promoted by a sentence which is seen to be arbitrary, nor one which interferes with an expectation of rehabilitation. General deterrence is a large element of a condign punishment and will reflect a range of values. Drug use which causes limited harm to others should not attract as heavy a punishment as would actual supply to others...

*[29] The circumstance of addiction is also accepted as potentially relevant to moral culpability. A person in the grip of an addiction has less freedom of choice than would otherwise be the case. Moral culpability is a function of perceived freedom of choice. In *Cicciarello v Regina* [2009] NSWCCA 272 Allsop P, Fullerton and McCallum JJ noted at [15] that in *Bowden* at [55]-[60] "a distinction was drawn between selling drugs for commercial gain and for feeding a habit." The reasons continued at [17]:*

"Whilst one should be careful about generalising in relation to such factors outside the circumstances of any particular case, here, quite clearly, when one understands the background of this young man and what he was doing, he was not selling for greed or for financial gain, he was selling to feed a drug habit that he

had acquired. This does not detract from the fact that he committed a serious offence, but what it does mean is that it was an error, and an important one, to characterise this as selling for financial gain and thus to characterise it as an offence falling within the mid-range.”

- In **Toole v R; Toole v R** [2014] NSWCCA 318, on appeal, the applicant, in part, contended that the sentencing judge had failed to give proper weight to the evidence of the applicant’s mental health problems. Per Basten JA AT [2] - [3]:

[2] That raised questions, as Hulme AJ has noted, with respect to the strength of the evidence, the manner in which it was taken into account on sentencing and, objectively, its relevance as a factor in mitigation. I agree with that analysis. However, some caution must be exercised in dismissing the evidence as to the applicant's use of anabolic steroids and the consequences as being, in a lay person's terms, a drug addiction and therefore not a factor in mitigation.

*[3] A mental illness which is not "self-induced" is treated as a disability or, in morally neutral terms, a misfortune, which may be a material mitigating factor in sentencing. **However, to treat a drug addiction as a self-inflicted condition for which the offender must bear full moral responsibility is a less nuanced approach than the law requires.** To qualify the absolute position by reference to an exception based on "unusual circumstances" certainly reflects the possibility of consideration, although the circumstances are not identified.*

- **Cicciarello v R** [2009] NSWCCA 272:

[17] whilst one should be careful about generalising in relation to such factors outside the circumstances of any particular case, here, quite clearly, when one understands the background of this young man and what he was doing, he was not selling for greed or for financial gain, he was selling to feed a drug habit that he had acquired. This does not detract from the fact that he committed a serious offence, but what it does mean is that it was an error, and an important one, to characterise this as selling for financial gain and thus to characterise it as an offence falling within the mid-range. In our view, that latter conclusion must clearly have been affected by the

finding of financial gain because no other basis in the facts could found such a conclusion.

AGGREGATE SENTENCING

- In *Hamid v R* [2006] NSWCCA 302, the court of criminal appeal said that a paramount principle of the law of sentencing is that the aggregate sentence should fairly and justly reflect the total criminality of the offenders conduct. In determining the degree of accumulation, I have taken into account the principle of totality, which requires me to impose an overall sentence that is proportionate having regard to the objective seriousness of the offences and the subjective case put on behalf of the offender.
- I have had regard to the decision in *JB v R* [2015] NSWCCA 93, which provides a helpful summary of the correct approach to this aspect of the sentence.
- **JM v R** [2014] NSWCCA 297 – propositions set out at [39]
- **McIntosh v R** [2015] NSWCCA 184: Basten JA (Wilson J agreeing; Hidden J dissenting on this point) held that a court can indicate a fixed term (a mandatory period of custody) for an offence that is not subject to a SNPP: at [166]-[167]; following *Dunn* [2004] NSWCCA 346. *Dunn* held that for offences not subject to an SNPP, it is open to a court when accumulating sentences to impose a sentence which constitutes the intended period of mandatory custody (or fixed term).
- **Dimian v R** [2016] NSWCCA 223 – **indicative sentence reflects head sentence**

“[46]: Section 53A of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* (NSW) enables the Court to impose an aggregate sentence with respect to all or any two or more offences. Sub-section (2) says that the Court must indicate “the sentence that would have been imposed for each offence”. On any proper construction of s 53A seen in the context of the whole of the *Sentencing Act*, the sentence that would have been imposed (called the indicative sentence) must be a reference to the overall sentence. The Sentencing Act does not contemplate two sentences for any one offence. It contemplates a sentence and in many cases a non-parole period and a balance of the term.”

- **R v Faalooii, Schaafhausen & Tuala [2016] NSWCCA 263**

“[82] ... it is well to bear in mind the remarks of Sully J endorsed by this Court in *R v Harris* [2007] NSWCCA 130 at [46]:

... (there) is the need to ensure public confidence in the administration of criminal justice; and, in particular, to ensure that there does not emerge in the community at large a perception that there is not all that much to choose between the person who commits one or two offences, and the person who commits six or seven offences, for the reason that somehow or other they all manage to finish up with effective sentences between or among which there is hardly anything in practical terms to choose.

It needs to be clearly understood by all concerned that a person who commits a deliberate series of discrete offences, - and the present applicant's case, is a good example of this kind, - he must not be left with the idea that by intoning references to the principle of totality as though it were some magic mantra, he can escape effective punishment for the offences which follow successively one upon another throughout the whole course of a studied and deliberate course of criminal behaviour.”

ASSISTANCE TO AUTHORITIES

- In **LB** [2013] NSWCCA 70 Button J (Bathurst CJ and Hidden J agreeing) stated that where a discount is given for a guilty plea, past assistance and then future assistance, in most cases the court will be required to indicate the discount for all three to comply with s 23(4): at [44]. **LB** was followed in **GD** [2013] NSWCCA 212 at [18] where Button J (Leeming JA and RA Hulme J agreeing) said that pursuant to s 23(4) a judge is now required to quantify the discounts for past and future assistance.
- In **C v R** [2013] NSWCCA 81 it was an error by the sentencing judge to ignore the fact that the prisoner was serving his sentence in protection for his assistance to authorities. However in the absence of any further evidence, the weight to be given to that fact could only be modest: at [42]-[43].

[41] The better view, in my opinion, is that an offender in the position of the applicant during a sentence hearing, if he or she wishes to gain some benefit in the sentencing process because of the conditions under which the sentence is likely to be served, should adduce evidence as to those conditions. If the Crown disputes that evidence, it can call its own evidence, otherwise the evidence of the offender should be given appropriate weight.

- The discount should apply to all the sentences (rather than by partially accumulating the individual sentences and applying the discount to the final sentence only): **CM** [2013] NSWCCA 341.
- **Hamzy v R** [2014] NSWCCA 223:

[72] It should be noted that s23(4) does not prescribe a method or manner in which the discounting is to be achieved. In **R v Gallagher** [1991] 23 NSWLR 220 Gleeson CJ (with whom Meagher JA and Hunt J agreed) said:

"It is essential to bear in mind that what is involved is not a rigid or mathematical exercise, to be governed by "tariffs" derived from other and different cases but, rather, one of a number of matters to be taken into account in a discretionary exercise that must display due sensitivity

towards all the considerations of policy which govern sentencing as an aspect of the administration of justice."

Those remarks of Gleeson CJ are, of course, qualified by s23(4).

Nevertheless, as Basten JA observed in *R v Ehrlich v R* [2012] NSWCCA 38 at [7] their "tenor is not diminished".

[73] As was further explained by Basten JA in *Ehrlich* at [11], such an approach is not erroneous because s23(4) "says nothing as to the manner in which the discounting is to be achieved. Indeed, on one view, the manner in which it is achieved is irrelevant: the selected reduction can be expressed in a number of different ways, none of which is prohibited." The real issue with respect to the allowance of a discount on two bases is to avoid double counting of a particular element.

[74] In most cases it is also not helpful to speak of a level of discount as being generally available. Such an approach makes assumptions about the matters to which the court must have regard in s23(2) and runs the risk of selective reliance on some authorities to the exclusion of others. In *R v Z* [2006] NSWCCA 342 Beazley JA said at [88]:

"88 ... the focus should not be so much upon the precise numerical value of the discount but rather upon the question whether after all relevant matters have been taken into account, the sentence imposed is appropriate."

- Also see **Hutchinson v R** [2014] NSWCCA 317 – combined discount for plea and assistance
- Also see **Z v R** [2014] NSWCCA 323 for a review of authorities. At [33]:

[33] The applicant's submissions have persuaded me that the sentencing judge acted upon a wrong principle in that respect. His Honour was not constrained by the fact that the applicant had not pleaded guilty to stop at 25 per cent discount for assistance to authorities. The only constraint was that imposed by s 23(3) which, as has been observed by this Court, will not generally be met by allowing a combined discount of more than 50 per cent.

[34] In reaching this conclusion I intend no criticism of the sentencing judge, whose careful and anxious attention to this issue is manifest from the remarks on sentence. His Honour may have been concerned, as I have been, by the prospect of unequal justice. On the authority of SZ, it may appear at first glance that an offender who pleads not guilty but provides assistance of the highest order is eligible to have his penalty reduced by the same amount as an offender who provides assistance of the same high order but also pleads guilty at the earliest opportunity. That of course is an entirely hypothetical comparison. To the extent that there is at least a theoretical possibility of unequal justice being occasioned on that account, it is resolved by s 23(3). As explained by Howie J in SZ, that provision reflects the common law principle that there is "a bottom line beneath which a sentence cannot legitimately be set". It is recognised that the bottom line ordinarily sits at 50 per cent of the sentence that would have been imposed but for the discounts allowed by the statute. But it does not follow that the Act must be construed with an implied algorithm (flowing from the premise established by Thompson and Houlton) that a discount for assistance cannot exceed 25 per cent. To construe the Act with that level of mathematical rigidity would come close to punishing some offenders who offer assistance for not pleading guilty."

- **Isaac v R** [2012] NSWCCA 195 [46] – [49]:

[46] The reasons which underpin the giving of the discount include:

(a) it is in the public interest that criminals with information about the activities of other criminals with whom they are associated should be encouraged to give information to the police: R v Lowe (1977) 66 Cr App R 122; R v Perez-Vargas (1986) 6 NSWLR 559 at 562 per Street CJ with whom Hunt and Allen JJ agreed;

(b) it is in the public interest that criminals should be persuaded not to trust one another and discounting the sentence of a person who provides such assistance facilitates such distrust: R v James and Sharman (1913) 9 Cr App R 142; R v Golding (1980) 24 SASR 161 at 162 per Wells J;

(c) leniency through a discount for assistance to police marks, or rewards, the good inherent in the conduct of the provider of the assistance: Golding at 172-173 per Wells J;

(d) a person who has provided assistance will often, but not always, whilst a prisoner, be confined for his or her own protection in much harsher conditions than the general prison population. Hardship may also be occasioned to a prisoner upon their release into the community: R v Cartwright (1989) 17 NSWLR 243 at 250 per Hunt and Badgery-Parker JJ; R v Gallagher (1991) 23 NSWLR 220 at 227 per Gleeson CJ; R v Sukkar [2006] NSWCCA 92; (2006) 172 A Crim R 151 at [55] per Latham J.

[47] However, two cautionary matters need to be kept in mind. The first is that it is no longer regarded as axiomatic that a person who has provided assistance to authorities will serve the sentence under harsher and more onerous conditions when compared to an ordinary prisoner: R v Sukkar at [4]-[5] per Howie J; FS v R [2009] NSWCCA 301; (2009) 198 A Crim R 383 at [21] per Rothman J.

[48] The second matter which calls for caution is that the application of a discount for assistance should not result in the imposition of a sentence which is so lenient that it would be: "... disproportionate to the objective gravity of a particular offence and the circumstances of a particular offender". Ss. 23 C(SP) Act 1999: R v Sukkar at [54] per Latham J.

[49] In considering the assessment of a discount for assistance to authorities it is also necessary to keep in mind that there may be overlap with other mitigating factors, including a plea of guilty, and an expression of remorse or contrition, as these matters are often part of a "... complex of inter-related considerations": R v Gallagher at 228 per Gleeson CJ.

- **SL v R** [2015] NSWCCA 30 –

[8]...Thus, in the present case, the discussion focused upon whether it was possible to exceed a discount of 50%. In my view, that approach is incorrect. The disproportion is to be assessed by undertaking a comparison between the proposed penalty as reduced for assistance to the authorities and the penalty

which would otherwise have been imposed. For example, in a case where a person has pleaded guilty at the earliest opportunity and thus attracted a discount of 25% on that account, and a further 25% for assistance to authorities, the reduction to be assessed for proportionality is not the reduction from (say) a 10 year term to 5 years, but the reduction from 7.5 years (after reduction for a guilty plea) to 5 years. That follows from the language of the section itself: subs (1) refers to the court imposing "a lesser penalty than it would otherwise impose ... having regard to the degree to which the offender has assisted or undertaken to assist law enforcement authorities", while subs (3) refers to the "lesser penalty that is imposed under this section".

[9]...A similar exercise is required under s 22 with respect to a lesser penalty imposed on account of a plea of guilty. The statutory language makes clear that in each case these are separate exercises.

...

[12] As this reasoning suggests, the sentencing court will be mindful of the combined effect of the two discounts; nevertheless, even where a discount is required for a plea, the terms of s 23(3) should be separately applied with respect to the discount for assistance, as they are when there is no separate discount for a plea.

- **Whiley v R** [2014] NSWCCA 164 at [35] – where offender a victim:

*[35] Section 23(1) does not exclude offenders who were themselves the victims of earlier sexual abuse from obtaining a discount where they are prepared to assist authorities in the detection and investigation of such offences: **RJT v R** (2012) 218 A Crim R 490. It does not appear from the Senior Constable's statement that the applicant had agreed to give evidence against the perpetrator, although it is fair to observe that this appears to have been the officer's assumption. The clear public policy behind s 23(1) is to encourage persons to assist authorities where otherwise they might not do so. Sexual assault is an area in which many victims are, for a variety of reasons, somewhat reluctant to come forward, let alone to give evidence. However, in every case it is necessary to assess the significance of the assistance, given that the discount serves a utilitarian purpose.*

- **Damoun v R [2015] NSWCCA 109** per Simpson J at [51] – assistance by shortening the trial:

[51] A willingness (unfulfilled for reasons not attributable to the offender) to facilitate the course of justice by cooperating with a view to shortening proceedings may, in appropriate circumstances, be a relevant sentencing consideration. It is not, however, a consideration that bears upon the selection of sentences in all cases. A sentencing judge is best placed to know how to deal with such an unfulfilled willingness. Here the sentencing judge was not obliged to place any weight upon the appellant's offer. There was no error in the sentencing procedure.

- **R v Saleh, Haissan [2016] NSWCCA 216:**

Excessive discount for assistance

17. On the appeal the Crown has contended that the discount allowed was excessive. The Court has reviewed the confidential exhibits on sentence, D and F, which record the nature of the assistance provided. By reference to the criteria in s 23(2), the respondent's assistance may be evaluated as very limited. Because he remains in custody and because any degree of assistance to authorities may expose him to retribution, it would be inappropriate to refer in detail in these reasons to the nature and extent of the information the respondent has disclosed or the evidence he is willing to give. It is sufficient to say that his disclosure has been partial, selective and far short of the full extent of the knowledge which the respondent must necessarily have gained, from his own involvement in relevant events. There is no indication that assistance provided by the respondent was significant to the furtherance of police investigations or that it contributed to the police being in a position to apprehend any additional offender.

18. Having regard to these considerations I accept that Crown submission that a 20% discount was excessive. The combined discount for the plea and assistance on count 1 was 45%. That is near to the figure of 50% which this Court has said should not normally be exceeded: *SZ v R* [2007] NSWCCA 19; (2007) 168 A Crim R 249 at [3], [53]; *AAT v R* [2011] NSWCCA 17 at [31]; *R v AZ* [2011] NSWCCA 43 at [94]; (2011) 205 A Crim R 222; *R v Holland* [2011] NSWCCA 65 at [42]; (2011) 205 A Crim R 429. The Court considers that an allowance of 10% for the limited assistance provided by the respondent would have been appropriate and that two thirds of this should be regarded as attributable to future assistance.

BREACH OF TRUST

- **Suleman v R** [2009] NSWCCA 70 at [26]:

Where an offence involves a breach of trust, the court regards it as a significant aggravating factor. For a breach of trust to exist there must be a special relationship between the victim and offender at the time of offending.

- **R v Overall** (1993) 71 A Crim R 170.
- **R v Stanbouli** (2003) 141 A Crim R 531 at [34]:

“The cases where, traditionally, breach of trust has been regarded as exacerbating criminality are where it is the victim of the offence who has imposed that trust — an employer defrauded by his employee, a solicitor who appropriates trust funds to his own use — or where the criminality involves a breach of that which the offender was engaged or undertook to do, eg a teacher or baby-sitter who indecently deals with the subject of his or her charge. Another example is afforded by the case of R v McLean (unreported, CCA, 31 March 1989) where a customs officer employed in the investigations section of the department had conspired to import heroin and cannabis. The offence there was in direct contravention of what the offender had been employed to do.”

- **Lu v R** [2014] NSWCCA 307 – fraud offences.
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CHILD PORNOGRAPHY

- **Vincenzo Jon Fedele v R [2015] NSWCCA 286**

53. In this line of authority general deterrence is sometimes described as “paramount” or “the primary sentencing consideration.” It is said that, absent exceptional circumstances, a sentence of imprisonment involving full time custody is “ordinarily” warranted. It is also said that less weight is given than in other cases to the fact that an offender has prior good character and favourable prospects of rehabilitation.

54. These pronouncements are a guide to the exercise of discretion in child pornography cases; but, of course, are not prescriptive of the result in a particular case, which must turn on its facts and circumstances. In *EF v R* [2015] NSWCCA 36, Simpson J (as she then was) referred to the line of authority that, in the absence of exceptional circumstances, a full time custodial sentence should be imposed upon an offender who has been substantially involved in the supply of prohibited drugs. Her Honour said at [10]:

“Nothing in any of those decisions obviates the need for sentencing judges to consider the circumstances of each case individually, including the availability (in a practical sense) of alternatives to full-time custody.”

At [11], her Honour cited a passage in the judgment of Priestley JA in *R v Cacciola* (1988) 104 A Crim R 178 at 183-4. His Honour referred to the proposition that drug dealing to a substantial degree calls for the imposition of a prison sentence as something which the Court continues to consider as “the proper approach to sentencing, always bearing in mind the need to consider every convicted person’s case on its own merits and in its own circumstances.”

- **R v Porte [2015] NSWCCA 174**

In *Porte* at [63] the CCA reaffirmed the sentencing principles with respect to child pornography offences as set out in *Minehan* [2010] NSWCCA 140; 201 A Crim R 243 at [94]-[95].

59. At the same time as maximum penalties for these offences have been increased, the courts have made clear that the ready availability of material of this type has warranted substantial penalties with general deterrence and denunciation being paramount considerations.

60. The comity principle has been applied in establishing sentencing principles with respect to child pornography offences: *R v Gent* at 36 [29]. In *Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v D’Alessandro* (“D’Alessandro”) [2010] VSCA 60;

26 VR 477, Harper JA (Redlich JA and Williams AJA agreeing) said at 483-484 [21] (references omitted):

“When construing and applying Commonwealth legislation, this Court follows principles of comity in according respect to the decisions of intermediate appellate courts of other jurisdictions concerning the same legislation. It is therefore worth recording that there seems to be unanimous support across the jurisdictions for a number of propositions. First, that the problem of child pornography is an international one. Secondly, that the prevalence and ready availability of pornographic material involving children, particularly on the internet, demands that general deterrence must be a paramount consideration. Thirdly, that those inclined to exploit children by involving them in the production of child pornography are encouraged by the fact that there is a market for it. Fourthly, that those who make up that market cannot escape responsibility for such exploitation. Fifthly, that limited weight must be given to an offender’s prior good character. Sixthly, that a range of factors bear upon the objective seriousness of the offences to which the respondent in this case pleaded guilty. They include:

(a) the nature and content of the pornographic material - including the age of the children and the gravity of the sexual activity portrayed;

(b) the number of images or items of material possessed by the offender;

(c) whether the possession or importation is for the purpose of sale or further distribution;

(d) whether the offender will profit from the offence.”

61. These principles have been frequently repeated since *D’Alessandro: Minehan v R* [2010] NSWCCA 140; 201 A Crim R 243 at 261-262 [96]-[101]; *Director of Public Prosecutions v Smith* [2010] VSCA 215 at [23]; *Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v Guest* [2014] VSCA 29 at [25]; *Heathcote (A Pseudonym) v R* [2014] VSCA 37 at [40]; *R v Linardon* [2014] NSWCCA 247 at [58]; *R v Martin* [2014] NSWCCA 283 at [37].

62. A helpful 2010 publication, issued by the Judicial Commission of New South Wales, observed that intermediate appellate courts had recognised that the prevalence of child pornography offences justified strongly deterrent sentences, and that the Internet accounts for the increase in offending: Mizzi, Gotsis and Poletti, *“Sentencing Offenders Convicted of Child Pornography and Child Abuse Material Offences”*, Judicial Commission of New South Wales, Monograph 34, September 2010, paragraph 2.2.

63. After a thorough examination of authorities in *Minehan v R* (a case dealing with Commonwealth and State offences, including dissemination and grooming charges as well as access and possession offences), RA Hulme J (Macfarlan JA and myself agreeing) said at 260-261 [94]-[95]:

“94 Drawing primarily from the authorities to which I have referred, the following matters may be relevant to an assessment of the objective seriousness of offences involving the possession or dissemination/transmission of child pornography:

- 1. Whether actual children were used in the creation of the material.**
- 2. The nature and content of the material, including the age of the children and the gravity of the sexual activity portrayed.**
- 3. The extent of any cruelty or physical harm occasioned to the children that may be discernible from the material.**
- 4. The number of images or items of material – in a case of possession, the significance lying more in the number of different children depicted.**
- 5. In a case of possession, the offender’s purpose, whether for his/her own use or for sale or dissemination. In this regard, care is needed to avoid any infringement of the principle in The Queen v De Simoni (1981) 147 CLR 383.**
- 6. In a case of dissemination/transmission, the number of persons to whom the material was disseminated/transmitted.**
- 7. Whether any payment or other material benefit (including the exchange of child pornographic material) was made, provided or received for the acquisition or dissemination/transmission.**
- 8. The proximity of the offender’s activities to those responsible for bringing the material into existence.**
- 9. The degree of planning, organisation or sophistication employed by the offender in acquiring, storing, disseminating or transmitting the material.**
- 10. Whether the offender acted alone or in a collaborative network of like-minded persons.**
- 11. Any risk of the material being seen or acquired by vulnerable persons, particularly children.**
- 12. Any risk of the material being seen or acquired by persons susceptible to act in the manner described or depicted.**
- 13. Any other matter in s 21A(2) or (3) Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act (for State offences) or s 16A Crimes Act 1914 (for Commonwealth offences) bearing upon the objective seriousness of the offence.**

95 This list of factors is, of course, not closed. Individual cases may always produce further matters relevant to the assessment of their objective seriousness.”

64. The *Minehan v R* factors have been applied in a number of later decisions: *R v Linardon* at [53]; *R v Martin* at [34]; *James v R* [2015] NSWCCA 97 at [23].

65. A number of additional propositions should be kept in mind.

66. In this case, the Respondent was to be sentenced for accessing child pornography material and possession of child abuse material. **He was not charged with sale, distribution or dissemination of material. The absence**

of features of this type do not operate to mitigate penalty for a

possession offence: *Saddler v R* [2009] NSWCCA 83; 194 A Crim R 452 at 464-465 [49]-[50]; *R v Booth* [2009] NSWCCA 89 at [46]; Warner, “*Sentencing for Child Pornography*” (2010) 84 ALJ 384 at 385.

67. The possession of child pornography material creates a market for the continued corruption and exploitation of children: *R v Coffey* [2003] VSCA 155; 6 VR 543 at 552 [30]; *R v Cook*; *Ex parte Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth)* [2004] QCA 469 at [21]; *R v Jongasma* [2004] VSCA 218; 150 A Crim R 386 at 395 [14]; *Heathcote (A Pseudonym) v R* at [40].

68. The courts have stressed that **possession of child pornography is not a victimless crime**: *R v Jones* [1999] WASCA 24; 108 A Crim R 50 at 52 [9]; *R v Gent* at 38 [33]; *D’Alessandro* at 484 [23]; *R v Martin* at [43].

69. An additional feature of harm done to victims of child pornography offences was referred to by Professor Kate Warner (as her Excellency then was) in “*Sentencing for Child Pornography*” (2010) 84 ALJ 384 at 385 (references omitted):

“The damage done to the children so abused can be, and undoubtedly often is, profound. In addition to the physical and psychological harm from the abuse itself, the New South Wales Sentencing Council has explained that harm may also result from the knowledge, as they grow older, that the material may remain in circulation, heightening the shame and distress associated with being exploited when young and vulnerable.”

70. In an extract cited frequently in later decisions, Simpson J (as her Honour then was) (with the agreement of McClellan CJ at CL and Howie J), encapsulated in *R v Booth* at [39]-[44], the particular vice of child pornography offences and the sentencing principles which have been deployed as a response by the Courts:

“39 A number of previous decisions of this and other appellate courts have found that, in respect of offences of child pornography, general deterrence is, at least, a significant element of the sentencing process: R v Gent; Assheton v R [2002] WASCA 209; 132 A Crim R 237; Mouscas v R [2008] NSWCCA 181. In Assheton, indeed, general deterrence was said to be ‘the paramount consideration’. This view was endorsed in Gent.

40 I would add my further endorsement to that view. It seems to me that possession of child pornography is an offence which is particularly one to which notions of general deterrence apply. Possession of child pornography is a callous and predatory crime.

41 In sentencing for such a crime, it is well to bear firmly in mind that the material in question cannot come into existence without exploitation and abuse of children somewhere in the world. Often this is in underdeveloped or disadvantaged countries that lack the resources to provide adequate child protection mechanisms. The damage done to the children may be, and undoubtedly often is, profound. Those who make

use of the product feed upon that exploitation and abuse, and upon the poverty of the children the subject of the material.

42 *What makes the crime callous is not just that it exploits and abuses children; it is callous because, each time the material is viewed, the offender is reminded of and confronted with obvious pictorial evidence of that exploitation and abuse, and the degradation it causes.*

43 *And every occasion on which an internet child pornography site is accessed (or when such material is accessed by any means at all) provides further encouragement to expand their activities to those who create and purvey the material.*

44 *It is for that reason that this is a crime in respect of which general deterrence is of particular significance.”*

71. A common feature on sentence for this class of offence is the tender of material (and often substantial material) concerning steps taken with respect to counselling and treatment in aid of rehabilitation. Evidence of this type is important to the exercise of the sentencing discretion: s.16A(2)(n) *Crimes Act 1914 (Cth)*; s.21A(3)(h) *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999 (NSW)*. However, it is important to keep in mind the further observations of Simpson J in *R v Booth* at [47]:

“Examination of the Remarks on Sentence satisfies me that undue focus was placed upon the respondent’s need for counselling at the expense of other legitimate and important sentencing considerations. While I do not dissent from the importance of achieving prevention of further offences by such means, it is not the only matter to be considered. As I have made clear, the need to deter others from involving themselves in child pornography by signalling that such behaviour will be met by significant penalties is an important consideration. So also is denunciation of those who engage in this callous and predatory crime.”

72. Citing this passage from *R v Booth*, it has been said that, **given the predominance of general deterrence and denunciation in the sentencing process for offences of this type, rehabilitation may have reduced significance, with the weight to be attributed to rehabilitation depending upon the seriousness of the particular offence:** Mizzi, Gotsis and Poletti, “*Sentencing Offenders Convicted of Child Pornography and Child Abuse Material Offences*”, paragraph 2.4.

...

126. The Respondent had a number of factors operating in his favour on the subjective side of the case, including his health. His **prior good character was to be afforded limited weight:** *R v Gent* at 40-44 [48]-[69]; *D’Alessandro* at 483-484 [21] cited at [60] above. **Prior good character is not unusual in this area of offending. Positive personal antecedents and a reduced or absent need for personal deterrence are relatively commonplace amongst offenders in possession of child pornography:** *Hill v State of Western Australia* [2009] WASCA 4 at [28]. **Significant weight is to be given to general deterrence and**

- **Fitzgerald v R [2015] NSWCCA 266**

33. As his Honour recognised, general deterrence is of paramount importance when sentencing for these kinds of offences. This kind of offending primarily requires the imposition of sentences that will both deter others in the community from committing similar offences and which will punish and denounce the conduct of the offender. The ease and relative anonymity of the internet, the use by like-minded people of peer to peer file sharing technology to form networks exchanging such material and the difficulties of detection demonstrate the importance of general deterrence.

34. In *R v Lee* [2013] WASCA 216 McLure P (with whom Mazza JA and Hall J agreed) noted that with offences of this kind a term of imprisonment was ordinarily the only appropriate sentencing option:

“In relation to those offences in which a term of immediate imprisonment is ordinarily the only appropriate sentencing option, significant weight is given to general deterrence with the consequence that mitigating circumstances personal to the offender, including age and good character, are accorded less weight ...” (at [31])

“... The application of these principles by this Court has the effect that a sentence other than immediate imprisonment for offences within this category is, as a matter of fact, exceptional ...” (at [33])

Child pornography – nature of harm discernible from CETS classification

- **Fitzgerald v R [2015] NSWCCA 266**

Dismissing the appeal, the CCA said it was not necessary for the judge to view all or even most of the images and videos. It was sufficient to have regard to the fact that 294 (25%) of the images and videos were within categories 4 (penetrative sexual activity between adults and children) and 5 (children subjected to sadism, humiliation or bestiality). Such activity involving children cannot occur without manifest inherent cruelty, harm and injury. The nature of the harm is readily discernible from the CETS classification. No further evidence of the depiction of actual cruelty or harm was necessary: at [36].

COMMENCEMENT DATE

- **Callaghan v R** [2006] NSWCCA 58
- **DW** [2012] NSWCCA 66 at [79]:

[79] There is no doubt that the decision as when, within a period of revoked parole, another sentence should commence is a matter of discretion - see Callaghan v R (2006) 160 A Crim R 145. It may be at the beginning; it may be at the end; it may be somewhere in between. A number of matters are liable to inform the exercise of that discretion. Without attempting to be exhaustive, one is the fact that imprisonment for the period of revoked parole is, in its origins, due to the sentence pursuant to which the period when the offender was eligible for parole was granted. Revocation may have occurred because it has been demonstrated that an offender has been unable to adapt to normal community life. A second, although there will commonly be overlapping with the first, may be as in this case, that the revocation arises in consequence of a new offence for which a fresh sentence is being imposed, rather than for some unconnected cause. A third and fourth are likely to be the period served with apparent adherence to the terms of parole and the periods of revocation and for which the revocation is liable to continue.

- **Barnes v R** [2014] NSWCCA 224. Commencement remains an exercise of discretion.
 - **Hutchen v R** [2015] NSWCCA 101 – when parole revoked.
-

COMMONWEALTH OFFENCES

PURPOSES OF SENTENCING

- Section 16A(1) of the Commonwealth Crimes Act provides that “a court must impose a sentence or make an order that is of a severity appropriate in all the circumstances”.
- S 16A(2) Crimes Act 1914 (Cth). Although general deterrence is not specifically referred to, it is a factor a sentencing court must consider when sentencing Commonwealth offences: **Putland v The Queen** (2004) 218 CLR 174 at [12]; DPP (Cth) v El Karhani (1990) 21 NSWLR 370 at 377; R v Paull (1990) 20 NSWLR 427 at 434.
- Unlikelihood of the offender to re-offend, his excellent prospects of rehabilitation and significant assistance, warrant little weight to be afforded to personal deterrence in formulating the appropriate sentence (see **RCW v R** [2014] NSWCCA 190 per RA Hulme J at 57-58.
- Count 1 is a Commonwealth offence. I must have regard to the principles of sentencing relevant to Commonwealth offences including the provisions in Division 2 Part 1B of the **Crimes Act 1914** (Cth). In particular I have had regard to the matters set out in section 16A.

PLEA OF GUILTY

- **The offender pleaded guilty** - I note that I am not required to specify a quantifiable discount for his plea of guilty in relation to the Commonwealth offence however to be clear, I will be taking into account the offender’s plea of guilty as demonstrating his willingness to facilitate the course of justice.

COMPARATIVE CASES

- In **Hili v The Queen** (2010) 242 CLR 520, the High Court criticised the idea that past sentences can establish an appropriate range for future sentences in Commonwealth matters and emphasised that the sentencing task should focus on the factors set out in Pt 1B of the Crimes Act 1914 (Cth). The plurality¹⁹ stated at [54] (footnotes have been omitted):

[54] In **Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v De La Rosa**, Simpson J accurately identified the proper use of information about sentences that have been passed in other cases. As her Honour pointed out, a history of sentencing can establish a range of sentences that have in fact been imposed. That history does not establish that the range is the correct range, or that the upper or lower limits to the range are the correct upper and lower limits. As her Honour said: "Sentencing patterns are, of course, of considerable significance in that they result from the application of the accumulated experience and wisdom of first instance judges and of appellate courts." But the range of sentences that have been imposed in the past does not fix "the boundaries within which future judges must, or even ought, to sentence". **Past sentences "are no more than historical statements of what has happened in the past. They can, and should, provide guidance to sentencing judges, and to appellate courts, and stand as a yardstick against which to examine a proposed sentence"** (emphasis added). When considering past sentences, "it is only by examination of the whole of the circumstances that have given rise to the sentence that 'unifying principles' may be discerned".

- **The Queen v Pham** [2015] HCA 39:

[26]...As was explained in *Hili*, the point of sentencing judges and intermediate appellate courts having regard to what has been done in other comparable cases throughout the Commonwealth is twofold: first, it can and should provide guidance as to the identification and application of relevant sentencing principles^[15]; and, secondly, the analysis of comparable cases may yield discernible sentencing patterns and possibly a range of sentences against which to examine a proposed or impugned sentence.

[27] It does not mean that the range of sentences so disclosed is necessarily the correct range or otherwise determinative of the upper and lower limits of sentencing discretion. As was emphasised in *Hili*[17], and again more recently in *Barbaro v The Queen*[18], the sentencing task is inherently and inevitably more complex than that. But it does mean that to prefer one State's sentencing practices to sentencing practices elsewhere in the Commonwealth, or at least to prefer them for no more reason than that they are different, is

contrary to principle, tends to exacerbate inconsistency and so ultimately is unfair.

SENTENCING OPTIONS

- Section **20 AB** of the Crimes Act 1914 (Cth) provides that State sentence alternatives (such as intensive corrections orders) can be imposed in Commonwealth cases.
- **Zaky v R [2015] NSWCCA 161:**

SENTENCING ALTERNATIVES FOR COMMONWEALTH CRIMES

[21] A matter that received little attention either at first instance or on the hearing of the appeal was the fact that the sentencing options available to the District Court were not determined, directly at least, by the provisions of the *Sentencing Act*. In spite of the prominence that the matter took on appeal, a “suspended sentence” under s 12 of the *Sentencing Act* was not (in terms) an available sentencing option. Because the District Court was exercising federal jurisdiction in relation to offences committed contrary to a Commonwealth statute, the sentencing options were governed by Part 1B of the *Crimes Act*. Section 20AB(1) of the *Crimes Act* provides:

“Where under the law of a participating State or a participating Territory a court is empowered in particular cases to pass a sentence or make an order known as a community service order, a work order, a sentence of periodic detention, an attendance centre order, a sentence of weekend detention or an attendance order, or to pass or make a similar sentence or order or a sentence or order that is prescribed for the purposes of this section, in respect of a State or Territory offender, such a sentence or order may in corresponding cases be passed or made by that court or any federal court in respect of a person convicted before that first-mentioned court, or before that federal court in that State or Territory, of a federal offence.”

[22] The sentences or orders “prescribed for the purposes of this section” are found in clause 6 of the Crimes Regulations 1990 (Cth). The table in clause 6 does not include a suspended sentence.

[23] However, this distinction has no bearing on the outcome of the present appeal. A “suspended sentence” effectively exists under another name in the *Crimes Act*. Section 20(1)(b) provides:

“(1) Where a person is convicted of a federal offence or federal offences, the court before which he or she is convicted may, if it thinks fit:

(a) ...

(b) sentence the person to imprisonment in respect of the offence or each offence but direct, by order, that the person be released, upon giving security of the kind referred to in paragraph (a) either forthwith or after he or she has served a specified period of imprisonment in respect of that offence or those offences that is calculated in accordance with subsection 19AF(1).”

[24] I propose to deal with the grounds of appeal on the basis that the views expressed by the Sentencing Judge applied equally to an order under s 20(1)(b) as they did to a suspended sentence.

COULD THE MATTER HAVE BEEN DEALT WITH

SUMMARILY?

- See **R v Crombie** [1999] NSWCCA 297 at [15] - [16] (Wood CJ at 66, Simpson J, Hunt AJA and Hulme J agreeing), and **R v Palmer** [2005] NSWCCA 349 at [84] – [85].

“Depending upon the objective and the subjective criminality of the offender, it may properly be regarded as calling for some mitigation of the sentence that would otherwise be imposed in the District Court for an offence presented upon indictment.” The sentencing judge should at least mention this issue, if it arises, to ensure it is obvious to others he/she has taken it into account: see **R v Palmer** [2005] NSWCCA 349; **Bonwick v The Queen** [2010] NSWCCA 177 at [37]-[43].

- **EI-Masri** [2005] NSWCCA 167:

[29] It is a well-established sentencing principle that a court dealing on indictment with a matter which was capable of summary disposal may have regard to that fact on sentence: R v Sandford (1994) 72 A Crim R 160 at 195; R v Griggs (1999) 109 A Crim R 484 at 485-6; Crombie, at paragraph 16; Doan, at 123ff (paragraph 35ff); R v LPY (2002) 135 A Crim R 237 at 240. But it is not a universal rule (Sandford, at 195) nor a factor which operates universally to reduce sentence (Doan, at 124). In some circumstances, the Court may conclude that the offender’s criminality was too serious to be dealt with in the Local Court and that the matter was properly before the District Court: R v Hanslow [2004] NSWCCA 163 at paragraph 21. The significance of the loss of a chance to be dealt with in the Local Court will vary from case to case: R v Depoma [2003] NSWCCA 382 at paragraph 13.

- Also see **Clinton v R** [2014] NSWCCA 320
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DELAY

- Sentence for stale crime calls for a measure of understanding and flexibility of approach: **R v Hathaway** [2005] NSWCCA 368 at [41] – [43]:

[41] The circumstances in which delay may be relevant when sentencing are well understood (see R v Todd [1982] 2 NSWLR 517 at 519; Mill v The Queen (1988) 166 CLR 59 at 64-66; R v Niass [2004] NSWCCA 149 at [16]

[42] There are three relevant matters:

- *Suspense or uncertainty in which a person has been left following intervention by authorities such as arrest;*
- *Whether the offender has shown progress through rehabilitation in intervening period;*
- *Sentence for stale crime calls for a measure of understanding and flexibility of approach: **R v Hathaway** [2005] NSWCCA 368 at [41] – [43] (McLellan CJ at 66; Spigelman CJ, Hall J, agreeing)*

- **R v Todd** [1982] 1 NSWLR 517:

“Moreover, where there has been a lengthy postponement, whether due to an interstate sentence or otherwise, fairness to the prisoner requires weight to be given to the progress of his rehabilitation during the term of his earlier sentence, to the circumstance that he has been left in a state of G uncertain suspense as to what will happen to him when in due course he comes up for sentence on the subsequent occasion, and to the fact that sentencing for a stale crime, long after the committing of the offences, calls for a considerable measure of understanding and flexibility of approach — passage of time between offence and sentence, when lengthy, will often lead to considerations of fairness to the prisoner in his present situation playing a dominant role in the determination of what should be done in the matter of A sentence; at times this can require what might otherwise be a quite undue degree of leniency being extended to the prisoner.”

- **DS v R** [2014] NSWCCA 267
- **Sabra** [2015] NSWCCA 38:

The CCA held delay can operate to mitigate sentence in the absence of evidence that it caused a particular change in an offender's circumstances: *Blanco* (1999) 106 A Crim R 303; *Giourtalis* [2013] NSWCCA 216.

Thus delay will ordinarily be a mitigating factor where:

1. it has resulted in significant stress for the offender, or left him or her, to a significant degree, in uncertain suspense; or
1. during the period of delay, the offender has adopted a reasonable expectation that he or she would not be charged, or that a pending prosecution would not proceed, and the offender has ordered his or her affairs based on the faith of that expectation." *Giourtalis* citing *Scook* [2008] WASCA 114 at [57]-[65].

In this case, the sentencing judge found an 18 month delay between execution of a search warrant and fraud charges being laid caused the applicant to become "anxious and concerned": at [21]. The CCA held that the judge, having found the delay caused anxiety and concern, erred by not having regard to it and by finding the applicant failed to establish the delay was to his detriment. The anxiety and concern must have been detrimental to the applicant to some degree: at [41]-[42].

Note: see also **Omar** [2015] NSWCCA 67 below, where total rehabilitation from drug addiction during a period of delay was of great significance.

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DENUNCIATION

- Kirby J said in **Ryan v The Queen** (2001) 206 CLR 267 at [118]:

[118] Denunciation and impartiality: A fundamental purpose of the criminal law, and of the sentencing of convicted offenders, is to denounce publicly the unlawful conduct of an offender. This objective requires that a sentence should also communicate society's condemnation of the particular offender's conduct. The sentence represents 'a symbolic, collective statement that the offender's conduct should be punished for encroaching on our society's basic code of values as enshrined within our substantive criminal law'. In the case of offences against children, which involve derogations from the fundamental human rights of immature, dependent and vulnerable persons, punishment also has an obvious purpose of reinforcing the standards which society expects of its members."

DEPRIVED BACKGROUND

- **Kennedy v R** [2010] NSWCCA 260, Simpson J:

[50] In **Fernando**, Wood J set out a series of sentencing propositions that have too often been taken to have been designed specifically for Aboriginal offenders. So to approach that decision is to misunderstand Wood J's intention.

[51] Indeed, Wood J stated this expressly. Proposition (A) and (B) read:

"(A) The same sentencing principles are to be applied in every case irrespective of the identity of a particular offender or his membership of an ethnic or other group but that does not mean that the sentencing court should ignore those facts which exist only by reason of the offenders' membership of such a group.

(B) The relevance of the Aboriginality of an offender is not necessarily to mitigate punishment but rather to explain or throw light on the particular offence and the circumstances of the offender."

[52] That the **Fernando** propositions were intended to apply generally was stated in **R v Hickey** (NSWCCA, 27 September 1994, unreported) and re-stated by Wood J in **R v Morgan** [2003] NSWCCA 230; 57 NSWLR 533 at [20] and [21].

[53] Properly understood, **Fernando** is a decision, not about sentencing Aboriginals, but about the recognition, in sentencing decisions, of social disadvantage that frequently (no matter what the ethnicity of the offender) precedes the commission of crime. Particularly relevant, in the circumstances of that case (and this) is the impact of alcohol addiction or dependence. In the proposition lettered (E), Wood J said:

"(E) While drunkenness is not normally an excuse or mitigating factor, where the abuse of alcohol by the person standing for sentence reflects the socio-economic circumstances and environment in which the

offender has grown up, that can and should be taken into account as a mitigating factor. This involves the realistic recognition by the court of the endemic presence of alcohol within Aboriginal communities, and the grave social difficulties faced by those communities where poor self-image, absence of education and work opportunity and other demoralising factors have placed heavy stresses on them, reinforcing their resort to alcohol and compounding its worst effects."

- In **Munda v Western Australia** (2013) 87 ALJR 1035 at [54], the High Court acknowledged that general deterrence may have limited utility in some circumstances:

[54] It may be argued that general deterrence has little rational claim upon the sentencing discretion in relation to crimes which are not premeditated. That argument has special force where prolonged and widespread social disadvantage has produced communities so demoralised or alienated that it is unreasonable to expect the conduct of individuals within those communities to be controlled by rational calculation of the consequences of misconduct. In such cases it may be said that heavy sentences are likely to be of little utility in reducing the general incidence of crimes, especially crimes of passion. That having been said, there are three points to be made in response. First, the proper role of the criminal law is not limited to the utilitarian value of general deterrence. The criminal law is more than a mode of social engineering which operates by providing disincentives directed to reducing unacceptably deviant behaviour within the community. To view the criminal law exclusively, or even principally, as a mechanism for the regulation of the risks of deviant behaviour is to fail to recognise the long-standing obligation of the state to vindicate the dignity of each victim of violence, to express the community's disapproval of that offending, and to afford such protection as can be afforded by the state to the vulnerable against repetition of violence ..."

- **Bugmy v The Queen** (2013) 87 ALJR 1022; 249 CLR 571

[43]... The experience of growing up in an environment surrounded by alcohol abuse and violence may leave its mark on a person throughout life. Among other things, a background of that kind may compromise the person's capacity to mature and to learn from experience. It is a feature of the person's make-up and remains relevant to the determination of the appropriate sentence, notwithstanding that the person has a long history of offending.

[44] Because the effects of profound childhood deprivation do not diminish with the passage of time and repeated offending, it is right to speak of giving "full weight" to an offender's deprived background in every sentencing decision.

- In the decision of **R v Millwood** [2012] NSWCCA 2 Justice Simpson explained the relevance of evidence of an offender's background of deprivation. She said:

*[69]...I am not prepared to accept that an offender who has had the starting life the respondent had bears equal moral responsibility with one who has had what might be termed a normal or advantaged upbringing. Common sense and common humanity dictate that such a person will have fewer emotional resources to guide his or her behavioural decisions.. I should not be taken as implying that such a person bears no moral responsibility, but I consider that the DPP's submission significantly underestimates the impact of a dysfunctional childhood. Indeed, it sits uneasily with the immediately preceding acknowledgement that his upbringing has been tragic and dysfunctional. That his background is relevant consideration affording some of a limited mitigation is entirely consistent with the approach taken by Justice Wood in **Fernando**, a decision which has repeatedly been followed in this Court. If that were not so there would be no purpose in sentencing courts receiving, as they invariably do, evidence concerning the personal background of offenders.*

- **Gardener v R** [2015] NSWCCA 170:

[51] This case presented a number of difficult and conflicting issues. On the one hand there was a serious example of the offence of armed robbery committed by an offender who had just been released on parole for similar

offences and who had an extensive criminal record. On the other hand, the offender had derived from a most unfortunate, deprived and dysfunctional background who had mental health and substance abuse problems and who had become institutionalised from a very early age.

...

[55] True it is that the judge said that "there is no clear causal connection established between the offender's issues and the commission of the offences". But I have earlier referred (at [36]) to her acceptance that the applicant's intellectual and psychological problems rendered him less able to exercise the judgment and self-discipline that other people might exercise. This was recognition by her Honour that there were factors relating to the mental condition of the applicant that were relevant to his commission of the offences.

[56] This was an approach that was well open to her Honour in her assessment of the evidence that was before her.

- **Regina v K [2000] NSWCCA 24:**

[16]... The respondent's personal history was, by any reasonable reckoning, appalling. It was a history of cruelty, of gross neglect; of every kind of personal, social and familial dysfunction. One is reminded of the stinging observation of Holmes JA in Ex parte Corbishley; Re Locke [1967] 2 NSWLR 547 at 549: "The picture is one which shows how the poor, sick and friendless are still oppressed by the machinery of justice in ways which need a Fielding or a Dickens to describe in words and a Hogarth to portray pictorially."

[17] If one deletes the words "machinery of justice" and inserts the words "inadequacies of the machinery of child welfare", then what Holmes JA had to say about Mr. Corbishley is entirely appropriate to be said about the present respondent.

SENTENCING DISCRETION

- **R v Jurisic** (1998) 45 NSWLR 209, at [221]:

"The preservation of a broad sentencing discretion is central to the ability of the criminal courts to ensure justice is done in all the extraordinary variety of circumstances of individual offences and individual offenders."

- **Eugene Edward Osenkowski**, Court of Criminal Appeal, SA (1982) 5 A Crim R 394, at [394] his Honour King CJ:

"There must always be a place for the exercise of mercy where a judge's sympathies are reasonable excited by the circumstance of the case. There must always be a place for the leniency which has traditionally been extended even to offenders with bad records when a judge forms the view, almost intuitively in the case of experienced judges, that leniency at that particular stage of the offender's life might lead to reform."

- In **Muldrock v R** [2011] HCA 39 (5 October 2011) the High Court has recently re-emphasized the approach to sentencing advocated by McHugh J in **Markarian v The Queen** (2005) 228 CLR 357 at 378:

"The judge identified all the factors that are relevant to the sentence, discussed their significance and then makes a value judgment as to what is the appropriate sentence given all the factors of the case."

DOUBLE COUNTING

- *Pearce v R* [1998] HCA 57; (1998) 194 CLR 610.
 - *Portolesi v R* [2012] NSWCCA 157, At [45]
-

DRUGS

PARITY

- As the plurality observed in **Olbrich** at [19], care must be taken in using labels such as "principal" to describe the role of offenders in relation to drug offences: the labels must not obscure the necessary assessment of what the offender did.
- Simpson J in **Nguyen v R** (2011) 208 ACrim R 432 said that the definition of a principal involves, among other indicators "having some hand in management of the operation (although it is well recognised that principals will, so far as possible, distance themselves from the day to day operation, they nevertheless maintain considerable control over the enterprise)".
- *It is not uncommon that principal offenders in a drug enterprise have separate but equally serious roles to play: Kemp v R* [2014] NSWCCA 153 at [8]-[14], [27]-[36] per McCallum J.
- In **Kemp v R** [2014] NSWCCA 153 at [33] McCullum J repeated a caution with respect to what has been referred to as the "hypnotic" effect of the "chain" - that metaphor frequently adopted in cases of drug supply. Her honour said: "it is often assumed, without analysis, that the supply of drugs involves a vertical or linear hierarchy from manufacturer to end buyer in which the seriousness of the role of any individual participant is necessarily greater the closer that person is to the ultimate supplier. That may in fact be the case in some instances but the experience of other cases cannot be elevated to the status of a legal principle or presumption. Each case must be assessed on its own facts according to the material before the court."
- **Lam v R; Lam v R** [2015] NSWCCA 87 at [27] "*Disparity in sentencing is not simply the imposition of different sentences for the same offence, but a question of disproportion between them. Parity must be determined by having regard to the circumstances of the co-offenders and their respective degrees of culpability for their offending (see Postiglione v The Queen [1997] HAC 26)*"
- At [67] Further, his Honour had to bear in mind, as discussed in *R v Shi* [2004] NSWCCA 135, Wood CJ at CL, at [34] the importance of giving consideration to:

“... the well-recognised principle that the culpability of those who engage, at any level, in drug supply networks is significant, and that deterrent sentences are necessary, since absent the involvement of couriers, warehousemen and so on, these networks, whether established for the purposes of importation or subsequent distribution, would simply collapse: *R v Le Cerf* (1975) 13 SASR 237 and *R v Laurentiu and Becheru* (1962) 63 A Crim R 402”.

OBJECTIVE SERIOUSNESS

- The High Court in **Wong v The Queen; Leung v The Queen** (2001) 207 CLR 584 was critical of an approach that placed reliance upon the quantity of the drug as the chief factor relevant to determining the appropriate sentence. However, the weight of the drug remains a relevant factor to which I can have regard.

INVOLVEMENT OF AUTHORITIES

- RS Hulme J in the decision of **R v DW** [2012] NSWCCA 66 at [171]:

[171] I have no difficulty in accepting that, absent circumstances where criminality has been exacerbated by or at the instigation of authorities, the circumstance the authorities have been complicit in offending or have prevented drugs from being disseminated into the community, in no way mitigates this objective criminality of the offender. However, if the involvement of the authorities prevents the transaction from resulting in harm, it is illogical not to afford that fact appropriate weight just as in the converse situation one would take account of any damage that was a consequence of the offending. In so far as the authorities to which I have referred suggest the contrary or that the significance of the absence of dissemination into the community is slight or “very minor”, they are in my view wrong. Of course, in any comparison with sentences in past cases, it must be recognised that most of those are also cases where there has been no, or no significant, dissemination of drugs.”

SECTION 25A ONGOING SUPPLY

- An offence under section 25A is generally considered to be more serious than an offence under s25(1). In **Fayd’herbe** [2007] NSWCCA 20, Adams J reviewed the authorities regarding this section and cited with approval a passage from an earlier decision of the court of criminal appeal in CBK:

“An offender charged with a s 25 A offence cannot rely upon an argument that the act of supply was an isolated event. Nor can he expect to receive a

sentence of the kind which may be appropriate for a single offence of supply. Significant sentences must be imposed in such cases in order to give effect to the clear legislative intention to discourage the ongoing trade in drugs, which depends entirely upon the availability of a person such as the present applicant.

- In **Mirza v R** [2007] NSWCCA, the court dealt with an offence under s 25A involving what was considered to be unusually large amounts of drugs for this type of offence. In that case the offender had supplied cocaine on three occasions to an undercover operative. The quantities ranged from 28.4 g to 29.8 g, with a purity of 49%. In that case the offender had pleaded guilty to one count of ongoing supply of cocaine. He was sentenced to a term of imprisonment of six years with a non-parole period of 3 ½ years.

- Howie J stated:

“It may well be the case that the seriousness of this type of offence will not be diminished simply because the overall amount of drugs supplied is small. But it does not follow that the amount of drugs supplied is an irrelevant matter in determining the seriousness of the particular offence”.

GENERAL DETERRENCE – DRUGS

- In **R v Wong** (1999) 48 NSWLR 340, Spigelman CJ at CL observed that there are significant differences of opinion as to the deterrent effect of sentences. Nevertheless, the fact that penalties operate as a deterrent is a structural assumption of our criminal justice system. Legislation would be required to change the traditional approach of the courts to this matter.

SENTENCING OPTIONS

- Whether the line of principle emanating from the decision of the Court in **R v Clark** (CCA 15 March 1990) warrants reconsideration in the light of remarks of the High Court in **Hili v R** [2010] HCA 45 at [36] & [38], is a matter that was recently raised by her Honour McCallum J in **Youssef v Regina** [2014] NSWCCA 285 at [32]:

The proposition approved by the majority in Clark, asserting as it does the existence of a constraint devised by the Court of Criminal Appeal on the

exercise of the sentencing discretion of judges, may warrant reconsideration in light of the remarks of the High Court (in a different context) in Hili v R; Jones v R [2010] HCA 45 at [36] to [38]. However, the correctness of the decision in Clark was not raised in the present appeal and in any event need not be determined.

- **EF v R** [2015] NSWCCA 36 – Judge errs in failing to consider alternatives to full-time custody. Schmidt J:

[57] The same conclusion is not available in respect of the question of an ICO. In this case, in my view, considerations of justice require that this important oversight be addressed on appeal. This was not a case where it was apparent that an applicant would not be found suitable, if assessed for an ICO. To the contrary, EF's offending, his circumstances and his ongoing record of compliance with conditions of bail, all matters relevant to an assessment of his suitability for an ICO, suggested that there were real prospects that he would be found suitable, if assessed.

TRAFFICKING TO A SUBSTANTIAL DEGREE

Supply drugs – “exceptional circumstances”

- Drug trafficking or supply to a substantial degree will receive a full-time custodial sentence unless there are exceptional circumstances: *Clark* (unreported, 15/3/90, NSWCCA). There is no exhaustive definition of “exceptional circumstances”: *Saba* [2006] NSWCCA 214.
- In ***Polley*** [2015] NSWCCA 247 at [37]-[40] the CCA upheld the judge's finding that the applicant's subjective circumstances and rehabilitation did not constitute exceptional circumstances. The Court discussed those cases offering some guidance regarding exceptional circumstances (*Cacciola* (1998) 104 A Crim R 178 at 181; *Carrion* (2000) 49 NSWLR 149 at 153)). The CCA at [40] cited *Smaragdis* [2010] NSWCCA 276 per Fullerton J:

“While the Court has not undertaken an exhaustive definition of what does and does not constitute exceptional circumstances there are nevertheless some clear guidelines that have emerged. In particular, the authorities have made it clear that a plea of guilty, remorse, an intention not to re-offend and proven rehabilitation in relation to an offender's drug use, even where such circumstances can in combination be described as strong, are not matters of mitigation constituting an exceptional reason for departing from the general principle unless the aggregate of the circumstances point to the case being one of real difference from the general run of cases ...”

Drug supply - trafficking to a ‘substantial degree’ – decision not based solely on quantity of drugs but other indicia of supply

- In **Pak** [2015] NSWCCA 45 the appellant was convicted of supply drugs. The quantities of drug were slightly more than indictable quantity and about twice the trafficable quantity. The judge said that if it were merely quantity, he would not be able to find beyond reasonable doubt the offender was involved in trafficking to a substantial degree. However, when drugs and other indicia of supply (scales, empty resealable bags, plastic bags containing foil) found at the scene were taken into account with the quantity, there was trafficking to a substantial degree: at [16]-[18].
- The CCA dismissed the appeal. A determination of whether an offender is substantially involved in supply is ultimately a question of fact: at [27]. There were three different drugs and a number of indicia of supply. It cannot be said the finding was not open to the judge: at [29].
- *Note 1:* Compare this with the case of **Youssef** [2014] NSWCCA 285 where the appellant had 29.86g of cocaine (over an ounce or nearly 10 times the trafficable quantity) concealed in 4 plastic bags in two places in his car. There were no indicia of supply and the NSWCCA found that it was not open to the sentencing judge to find that the appellant was substantially involved in trafficking.
- *Note 2:* see also the case of **EF** [2015] NSWCCA 36, above, in relation to the *Clark* principles and the availability of an ICO.

DEFINITION OF MANUFACTURE & KNOWINGLY TAKING PART

- **R v Bucic [2016] NSWCCA 297**

[26]: I accept that the process of separating the cocaine from the paper within which it was contained is a process of extraction for the purpose of the *DMTA*, as the Crown argued. Accordingly, to knowingly take part in that process was to knowingly take part in the manufacture of the prohibited drug cocaine.

...

[42] ... To be guilty of an offence under s 24, it is not necessary that the person charged is responsible for all necessary steps in the manufacture of the drug from acquisition of raw materials to realisation of the drug as a “marketable commodity”. Participation in *any* one of the various steps along the continuum of a process of manufacture that may be required to realise the drug as a marketable commodity is sufficient.

[43] To like effect is the dictum of Doyle CJ in *R v Randylle* at 582:

“In my opinion... a step in the process of manufacture can be taken by someone who does not have all of the equipment or chemicals required to complete the process. Such a step could be taken before any chemical reaction is produced by the use or treatment of consumables. The process of production can be broken into stages, that might be conducted at different places and by different people and on different days. If the evidence establishes that that is what was intended, an act or event which in isolation might not appear to be a step in the process of production may, properly understood, be found to be such a step. All of these things have to be considered.”

EXPERT EVIDENCE

Voice identification – ad hoc expert

- **Nasrallah v R; R v Nasrallah [2015] NSWCCA 188**

“[21] On the present state of the law, it is accepted that, for the purpose of s 79 of the *Evidence Act*, an expert witness can be one who has acquired his or her specialised knowledge ad hoc (that is, for the very purpose of the legal proceedings in which the opinion evidence is relied upon): *R v Leung & Wong*[1999] NSWCCA 287; 47 NSWLR 405 at [40] per Simpson J (as her Honour then was); Spigelman CJ and Sperling J agreeing at [1] and [67] respectively. The correctness of that view was accepted in *Irani v R* [2008] NSWCCA 217 at [14] per Hoeben J (as his Honour then was) at [14]; McClellan CJ at CL and Harrison J agreeing at [1] and [34] respectively.

...

[26] It is important to be clear about the circumstances in which the witnesses in *Leung* and *Irani* were accepted as having ad hoc specialised knowledge (within the meaning of s 79) so as to warrant admitting evidence of their opinions concerning the voices in question.

[27] In *Leung*, police had covertly recorded conversations between three men while they opened packages imported from Bangkok. Parts of the conversations were in foreign languages. At the trial, the recordings of the conversations (referred to as the DAT tapes) were admitted, together with a transcript of a translation prepared by a qualified interpreter. During the preparation of the transcript, the interpreter had discerned three different male voices, which he called M1, M2 and M3. His basis for distinguishing the three different voices was described in the judgment of Simpson J at [18] as follows:

He reached this conclusion by evaluating the pitch and the volume of the voices, and the speed of the language used. He said the speaker he nominated as “M1” was a Cantonese speaking person with a medium to high pitched voice and spoke relatively quickly. [In the evidence he gave before the jury, he described this voice of as medium pitch]. “M2” was a person who spoke accented Cantonese as though that language was not his mother tongue, also in a medium to high pitched voice, but at a relatively low volume. This speaker spoke some sentences in Mandarin. “M3” was a Cantonese speaker with a relatively high pitched voice.

[28] At a later point in time (a week before the trial), the interpreter was asked to listen to tape recordings of conversations between each of the three appellants and Federal police and to compare the voices on those tapes with those on the DAT tapes in order to express an opinion as to the identity of the voices on the DAT tapes. The interpreter concluded that the voice he had nominated as “M1” was the voice of Leung and the voice he had nominated as “M3” was the voice of Wong.

[29] Justice Simpson’s conclusion that the interpreter could give evidence as an ad hoc voice identification expert was subject to an important qualification expressed at [44] to [45] of her Honour’s judgment, as follows:

44. Voice comparison is not necessarily a question for expert evidence, although it may be. If the two sets of tape recordings in the present case had been in English, it would have been open to the Crown to have left it to the jury to make their own comparison and assessment of whether the voices on the DAT tapes (or any of them) corresponded to either of the voices on the police tapes. That course theoretically remained open but would have left the jury with a task immeasurably more difficult, given the reasonable assumption that no member of the jury understood either of the Chinese languages involved. The jury would, truly, have been comparing voices only, without the intrusion of language and speech patterns that are part of voice identification.

45. There is another aspect to the task undertaken by Mr Fung that should be mentioned. He was not asked to compare the voices until a few days before the commencement of the trial. There was no specific evidence as to the instruction he was given, but it is an obvious inference that he would have approached his task on the assumption that the two voices on the police tapes were in fact the same as two of the voices on the DAT tapes, and that his role was to determine which voice on the police tapes corresponded to voices identified as M1, M2 or M3 on the DAT tapes. This is a quite different task to determining whether either of the voices so corresponded. If there were any real basis to doubt the assumption, the manner in which Mr Fung was asked to perform the comparison might raise real questions of propriety. The situation is analogous to physical identification by photographs or by a police lineup, in which care must be taken not to suggest that a particular person is the suspect. However, for reasons which will appear below, I am satisfied that in this case the assumption was a valid one. It was therefore proper for Mr Fung to approach his task on the basis that two of the voices on the DAT tapes did in fact correspond to the two voices on the police tapes, and his function was to determine which was which.

[30] Although the decision in *Leung* stands as authority for the proposition that a person who has repeatedly listened to voice recordings can give evidence as an ad hoc voice identification expert, that conclusion was heavily qualified by those remarks. Further, as explained at [42] of the judgment, the task undertaken by the interpreter in that case was highly specialised, invoking the interpreter's considerable specialised knowledge in foreign language and accent.

[31] The judgment of Simpson J provides a helpful analysis of the provenance of the notion of an "ad hoc expert" which Her Honour noted appears to have originated in the New Zealand decision of *R v Menzies* [1982] 1 NZLR 40. No question of voice identification arose in that case. Evidence had been admitted in the trial of tapes undoubtedly recording the voice of the appellant. The issue with which the relevant ground of appeal was concerned was the admissibility of a transcript of those tapes prepared by a police officer. The trial judge had initially refused to admit the transcript. However, after listening to two tapes, the judge changed his ruling because, on being listened to only once or twice, the tapes were unintelligible. The police officer, who had listened to the tapes "over and over again", was accepted by the trial judge to have acquired "a special expertise in their interpretation". The judge allowed the jury to have the transcript. The Court of Appeal upheld that ruling. A premise of the Court's decision was that, in the case of a recording in a foreign language or where deficiencies in the recording "make it necessary to play tapes more than once to enable a better understanding", while there should normally be at

least one playing of the tapes to the jury, “the evidence of an expert should be admissible as an aid”. It was on that premise that the Court said “he may be a temporary expert in the sense that by repeated listening to the tapes he has qualified himself ad hoc.”

[32] Justice Simpson noted that the idea of an ad hoc expert was subsequently endorsed by the High Court in *Butera v DPP* [1987] HCA 58; (1987) 164 CLR 180. Again, that was a case concerned with the admissibility of a transcript of a recording rather than with voice identification evidence. The appellant was convicted of conspiracy to traffic heroin. The Crown case included a tape recording of a conversation among some of the alleged co-conspirators which was mostly in Punjabi but partly in English and partly in Thai or Malay. Parts of the conversation were muffled and could only be made out after being listened to repeatedly by a person familiar with those languages. Applying *Menzies*, the High Court held that the transcript was admissible as a means of assisting the jury to understand the tape: at 187 per Mason CJ, Brennan and Deane JJ. In a separate judgment, Dawson J also cited *Menzies* as authority for the proposition that “an ad hoc expertise may be acquired by a witness by playing and replaying a tape so as to become more familiar with its contents than could be done by playing it only once or twice.”

...

[42] As already noted, the Crown acknowledged at the pre-trial directions hearing that the comparison of the 21 disputed DHL calls and the calls from the gaol was a task the jury could (“would have to”) make themselves. Indeed, it appears at that point that the Crown did not consider Federal Agent Succar to have any relevant expertise. Leaving aside his putative specialised knowledge acquired as “an Australian with a Lebanese background”, his assertion of identity was founded on material no different from the material available to the jury. To that extent, his evidence was irrelevant and should not have been received for the reasons explained by the High Court in *Smith v R* [2001] HCA 50; 206 CLR 650 at [10] to [12].”

EXTRA CURIAL PUNISHMENT

- Where the conditions of bail have been onerous or stringent, a sentencing judge may determine that the time spent on bail should be taken into account upon sentence, as a form of pre-sentence punishment: **R v Cartwright** (1989) 17 NSWLR 243; **R v Fowler** (2003) 151 A Crim R 166; **R v Webb** (2004) 149 A Crim R167.

- **Clinton v R [2009] NSWCCA 276:**

*[31] This Court has held that extra-curial punishment is a matter that can be taken into account in determining the appropriate sentence to be imposed upon an offender. It can be in the form of retribution meted out by members of the public or injuries suffered by the offender as a result of the commission of the offence: see **Silvano v R [2008] NSWCCA 118; 184 A Crim R 593**. The issue was most recently considered by this Court in **Whybrow v R [2008] NSWCCA 270** where it was held that “multiple serious injuries” suffered by the applicant were relevant to an assessment of the sentence to be imposed upon him for three offences of dangerous driving causing death or grievous bodily harm arising from the motor vehicle accident in which he suffered the injuries.*

*[32] However, when the injuries are inflicted by the victim against whom the offence is being committed, the court is entitled to take into account whether the act that caused the injuries was an unreasonable reaction by the victim to the acts of the offender and the degree of the injury inflicted: **Sharpe v R [2006] NSWCCA 255** at [61] to [67], see also **Alameddine v R [2006] NSWCCA 317**. Another relevant factor may be the seriousness of the offending when compared with the punishment inflicted: see the discussion in **R v Davidson ex parte A-G (Qld) [2009] QCA 283**.”*

FACT FINDING AT SENTENCE

- **R v MacDonell** (unrep, 8/12/95, NSWCCA) at 1.

“The sentencing procedures in the criminal justice system depend upon sentencers making findings as to what the relevant facts are, accepting the principles of law laid down by the Legislature and by the courts, and exercising a discretion as to what sentence should be imposed by applying those principles to the facts found.”

- **GAS v The Queen** (2004) 217 CLR 198 at 30 – 31 acknowledged Olbrich.

- **The Queen v Olbrich** (1999) 199 CLR 270:

“Unless the legislature has limited the sentencing discretion, a judge passing sentence on an offender must decide not only what type of penalty will be exacted but also how large that penalty should be. Those decisions will be very much affected by the factual basis from which the judge proceeds. In particular, the judge’s conclusions about what the offender did and about the history and other personal circumstances of the offender will be very important.”

- **Cheung v The Queen** (2001) 209 CLR 1 at 8.

- **Leach v The Queen** (2007) 230 CLR 1 confirming Olbrich:

“ [41] The majority of the Court held that the accused bore the burden of proving the matters submitted in mitigation but had failed to do so. The majority also concluded that a sentencing judge may not take disputed facts into account in a way that is adverse to the interests of an accused unless those facts were established beyond reasonable doubt.

[45]... questions about the offender’s likely conduct, if he or she were to be released into the community, may tender issues of fact for decision by the Court. Consistent with Olbrich, any disputed question of fact which is to be taken into account in a way that is adverse to the offender’s interests would have to be resolved according to the criminal standard of proof. But once the relevant facts have been found, a judgment would remain to be made about the level of culpability thus revealed and what the community interest in the specified matters then required.”

- It is well known that any factor aggravating to an offender's case or adverse to an offender must be proven by the Crown beyond reasonable doubt. Conversely, any mitigating factor or factor favourable to the offender must be proven by the offender on the balance of probabilities.
- The principles in relation to the task I am to undertake were recently emphasised in the High Court decision of **Filippou v The Queen** [2015] HCA 29. That decision, in part, concerned findings of a sentencing judge following a judge-alone guilty verdict as to whether or not the judge could be satisfied either way whether it was the appellant or the deceased who brought the weapon to the scene.
- In that case the appellant advanced the argument that where a finding adverse to the appellant, namely that he brought the gun to the scene, had not been established beyond reasonable doubt and where a version of events favourable to the accused had not been proven on the balance of probabilities, namely that it was one of the deceased who brought the weapon, in circumstances where those are the only two logical possible findings, then the judge must sentence on the basis most favourable to the appellant.
- The High Court rejected that argument. In a joint judgment French CJ, Bell, Keane & Nettle JJ, said at [64]:

But, as was established in R v Olbrich¹, a sentencing judge may not take facts into account in a way that is adverse to an offender unless those facts have been established beyond reasonable doubt and, contrastingly, the offender bears the burden of proving on the balance of probabilities matters which are submitted in his or her favour.

Where, therefore, the prosecution fails to prove a fact or circumstance which is adverse to the offender, but the judge is not satisfied on the balance of probabilities of an alternative version more favourable to the offender, the judge is not bound to sentence the offender on a basis which accepts the accuracy of

¹ (1999) 199 CLR 270 at 281 [25]-[27] per Gleeson CJ, Gaudron, Hayne and Callinan JJ; [1999] HCA 54, adopting *R v Storey* [1998] 1 VR 359 at 369 per Winneke P, Brooking and Hayne JJA and Southwell AJA.

the more favourable version. *If the prosecution fails to prove beyond reasonable doubt a possible circumstance of the offending which, if proved, would be adverse to the offender but the offender fails to establish on the balance of probabilities a competing possibility which, if proved, would be favourable to the offender, **the judge may proceed to sentence the offender on the basis that neither of the competing possibilities is known.***

FACT FINDING FOLLOWING A guilty verdict

- **Savvas v The Queen** (1995) 183 CLR 1 at 8.
- **Cheung v The Queen** (2001) 209 CLR 1

FACT FINDING FOLLOWING A guilty PLEA

- **R v O'Neill** [1979] 2 NSWLR 582 at 588.
- **Duffy v R** [2009] NSWCCA 304 at 21.
- **GAS v The Queen** (2004) 217 CLR 198 at 30.

Fact finding - disputed facts - importance of identifying facts that are agreed

- In **Porter** [2015] NSWCCA 59, the CCA stated:

It is desirable the Statement of Agreed Facts be signed by or on behalf of the offender and the Crown.

Any disputed facts should be described with precision so that it can be recorded on the transcript or document. Evidence relating to the disputed factual issue can then be adduced and the issue determined, if required, by the judge in remarks: at [39].

Even if negotiations about facts are continuing until the hearing, a draft brought to Court should be amended so as not to delay proceedings. The sentencing judge, and this Court, are thus in a position to know the extent of the agreement as to the facts: at [40].

FIREARMS

- **Raniga v R [2016] NSWCCA 36 at [41]**

41 In *Thalari* matters that were said to be relevant to be taken into account on the present offence were the connection with drug supply (at [86] and [89]), whether the firearm was loaded and whether the offender possessed other ammunition (at [88]) and whether the serial number had been obliterated (at [89]). Whether a loaded firearm was possessed for an offender's own protection was not a matter of significance (at [88]). The Court emphasised that general and specific deterrence were particularly relevant matters for such offences (at [92] and [93]).

- A schedule of “comparable” cases was provided to the Court in **Alrubae v R [2016] NSWCCA 142**. The sentence appeal related to convictions of possessing unauthorised pistol and prohibited firearm. See references made to the cases in that schedule at [41]-[43].

- **Sutton v R [2016] NSWCCA 249**

“[55] First, compact firearms are particularly dangerous because of their capacity for concealment: *R v Brown* [2006] NSWCCA 249 at [23] (Spigelman CJ; Howie and Rothman JJ agreeing). This makes them suited for serious criminal activity...

[56] ... There could be no legitimate purpose for the possession of a silencer. A silencer “is quintessentially a feature of weapons used in violent crimes”: *R v Howard* at [66] (Spigelman CJ). It has been said that the possession of a silencer and pistol in relation to a drug supply business “adds a more serious connotation” to the firearm offence (*R v XX* [2009] NSWCCA 115 at [56] (Hall J, Tobias JA and Kirby J agreeing).”

FOREIGN NATIONALS

- **Moss v R [2016] NSWCCA 242**

[66]... Some limited weight is to be given to the applicant's submission that incarceration is particularly onerous for him because he is a foreign national without family in Australia. However his ability to speak English fluently and to have telephone contact with his family overseas limits the impact of this consideration (compare *R v Huang* (2000) 113 A Crim R 386; [2000] NSWCCA 238 at [18]-[19] and see *Yang v R* [2007] NSWCCA 37 at [24]-[26]). The applicant complains that his telephone calls are timed and recorded. Whilst the position in this respect has not been suggested to be any different for other persons in custody, the applicant's reliance upon telephone calls is great because of the absence of persons able to visit him.

FORM 1 OFFENCES

- Where Form 1 offences include serious offences, they must be taken into account at sentence. This includes taking into account the totality of the offender's criminality. However, the penalty imposed should be significantly less than which would have been imposed had the Form 1 been prosecuted separately: **R v Bavadra** (2000) 115 A Crim R 152 at [31]; **R v Harris** (2001) 125 A Crim R 27.

- In imposing sentence I take into account the matters on the Form One and I remind myself of the principles set out in **Attorney General's Application Under s. 37 of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999** (No. 1 of 2002) (2002) 56 NSWLR 146, 77. The sentence I impose must reflect the need for personal deterrence and retribution arising from the additional criminality involved in Form 1 offences.

- In **Marshall** [2013] NSWCCA 16 the Court said that there is no statutory inhibition upon taking in account a Form 1 offence punishable by a fine when imposing a custodial sentence: at [11]-[13].

- **R v Mueller** [2015] NSWCCA 292:

[25] The leading authorities as to the significance to be given to offences taken into account are *Attorney-General's Application under s 37 Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999 (No 1 of 2002) (2002) 56 NSWLR 146; 137 A Crim R 180; [2002] NSWCCA 518* and *Abbas, Bodiotis, Taleb and Amoun v R* [2013] NSWCCA 115. In the first of these the Court observed (at [42]):-

42. *The position, in my opinion, is that, although a court is sentencing for a particular offence, it takes into account the matters for which guilt has been admitted, with a view to increasing the penalty that would otherwise be appropriate for the particular offence. The Court does so by giving greater weight to two elements which are always material in the sentencing process. The first is the need for personal deterrence, which the commission of the other offences will frequently indicate, ought to be given greater weight by reason of the course of conduct in which the accused has engaged. The second is the community's entitlement to extract retribution for serious offences which there are offences for which no punishment has in fact been imposed. These elements are entitled to greater weight than they may otherwise be given when sentencing for the primary offence. There are matters which limit the extent to which this is so. The express provision in s33(3) referring to the maximum penalty for the primary offence is one. The principle of totality is another.*

[26] Although the taking into account further offences may be with a view to increasing the penalty that would otherwise be appropriate, the authorities make it clear that there will be occasions when the taking of offences into account may add little or nothing to the sentence that would otherwise be imposed. Thus in *Abbas, Bodiotis, Taleb and Amoun v R*, at [22] and [23] the Chief Justice observed that “The existence of these additional offences **may** demonstrate the greater need for personal deterrence and retribution in respect of the offence charged” and taking offences into account “**would generally, but not universally**, lead to the imposition of a sentence longer, and in some cases significantly longer, than would otherwise be required if the Form 1 offences were not taken into account”. (My emphasis) See also *Abbas, Bodiotis, Taleb and Amoun v R* at [258].

[27] In this case the mental state that inspired or at least substantially contributed to the Respondent's offending provided plenty of justification for the conclusion that personal deterrence required no increase in punishment. Furthermore the same reason that leads to an offender with a mental disorder or abnormality being an inappropriate medium for making an example to others and thus diminishes, perhaps greatly, the weight to be given to general deterrence – see *Muldrock v The Queen* [2011] HCA 39; 244 CLR 120 at [53]; *DPP v De La Rosa* (2010) 79 NSWLR 1; argues in the same direction so far as retribution is concerned.

[28] In the circumstances I am not persuaded that it was not within the legitimate range of her Honour's sentencing discretion to decline to increase the Applicant's sentence because of the offences on the Form 1. While the Crown is correct in submitting that victim 1's rejection of the Respondent's advances the subject of

the first indecent assault, placed him on notice prior to his subsequent assault, her Honour was fairly entitled to take the view that the offences on the Form 1 were but incidents of the one course of criminality that culminated in the second indecent assault and merited no increase in punishment.

- **R v Dashti [2016] NSWCCA 251**

[119] The proper approach to Form 1 offences in sentencing was considered by Spigelman CJ, with whom Wood CJ at CL and Grove, Sully and James JJ agreed, in the guideline judgment *Attorney General's Application Under s 37 of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999 No 1 of 2002* [2002] NSWCCA 518; 56 NSWLR 146. His Honour summarised the position as follows:

“42 The position, in my opinion, is that, although a court is sentencing for a particular offence, it takes into account the matters for which guilt has been admitted, with a view to increasing the penalty that would otherwise be appropriate for the particular offence. The Court does so by giving greater weight to two elements which are always material in the sentencing process. The first is the need for personal deterrence, which the commission of the other offences will frequently indicate, ought to be given greater weight by reason of the course of conduct in which the accused has engaged. The second is the community's entitlement to extract retribution for serious offences which there are offences for which no punishment has in fact been imposed. These elements are entitled to greater weight than they may otherwise be given when sentencing for the primary offence. There are matters which limit the extent to which this is so. The express provision in s 33(3) [of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act* referring to the maximum penalty for the primary offence is one. The principle of totality is another.

43 ... The important point is that the focus throughout must be on sentencing for the primary offence.”

- **PB v R [2016] NSWCCA 258, per Davies J:**

[55]: This Court has on more than one occasion expressed strong views about the approach taken to the inclusion of offences on a Form 1 in cases where a separate victim is involved and where the offences carry standard non-parole periods: *SGJ v R*; *KU v R* [2008] NSWCCA 258 at [24]-[29] and *Karel Eedens v R* [2009] NSWCCA 254 at [17]-[19].

[56]: In the present case it was inappropriate for four offences of aggravated indecent assault against a different victim to have been placed on a Form 1 when the offence to which that Form 1 was attached charged one count of aggravated indecent assault against the principal victim. The second victim was younger than the principal victim being aged 10 or 11. The principal victim was aged 15. The age of the second victim was a matter of some significance and made the offences on the Form 1 objectively more serious than the principal offence charged: *Shannon v R* [2006] NSWCCA 39 at

[28]; *Eedens* at [17]. Further, the offences against her were committed at a different time and in different circumstances from the offence against the principal victim.

[57]: In respect of counts 3 and 5 charging sexual intercourse with a child aged between 14 and 16, an offence which does not carry a standard non-parole period, each such count had a Form 1 which charged (inter alia) aggravated indecent assault which carries a standard non-parole period. As the Court said in *SGJ* at [26] it is illogical to include crimes relating to one victim on a Form 1 where the offence to which it attached was charged against another victim, and it made it difficult for the sentencing judge to give such offences any real weight when sentencing on the count relevant to the Form 1. Further, as the Court made clear in *Eedens* at [19] the significance of the standard non-parole provisions loses its impact when the offence is placed on a Form 1.

- **Le v R [2017] NSWCCA 26**

37. The fact of the admitted offence and the circumstances surrounding it cannot be disregarded. It clearly played a significant part in his Honour's exercise of the sentencing discretion. This can be seen from the detailed description given by his Honour of the actions taken by the applicant in relation to this offence. In that regard, the oft quoted passages from *Attorney General's Application under s 37 of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999 No 1 of 2002* [2002] NSWCCA 518; 56 NSWLR 146 in the judgment of Spigelman CJ (with whom Wood CJ at CL, Grove, Sully and James JJ agreed) remain pertinent:

"18 A number of propositions with respect to the process of taking into account matters on a Form 1 are well established and are uncontroversial. First, the entire point of the process is to impose a longer sentence (or to alter the nature of the sentence) than would have been imposed if the primary offence had stood alone. Secondly, it is wrong to suggest that the additional penalty should be small. Sometimes it will be substantial. (See e.g. *The Queen v White* (1981) 28 SASR 9 at 13; *Murrell v The Queen* (1985) 4 FCR 168 at 179 per Blackburn J; *R v Vougdis* (1989) 41 A Crim R 125 at 128-129; *R v Morgan* (1993) 70 A Crim R 368 at 371-372.)

...

42 The position, in my opinion, is that, although a court is sentencing for a particular offence, it takes into account the matters for which guilt has been admitted, with a view to increasing the penalty that would otherwise be appropriate for the particular offence. The Court does so by giving greater weight to two elements which are always material in the sentencing process. The first is the need for personal deterrence, which the commission of the other offences will frequently indicate, ought to be given greater weight by reason of the course of conduct in which the accused has engaged. The second is the community's entitlement to extract retribution for serious offences which there are offences for which no punishment has in fact been imposed. These elements are entitled to greater weight than they may otherwise be given when sentencing for the primary offence. There are

matters which limit the extent to which this is so. The express provision in s 33(3) referring to the maximum penalty for the primary offence is one. The principle of totality is another.”

38. More recently in *Abbas, Bodiotis, Taleb and Amoun v R* [2013] NSWCCA 115 Bathurst CJ (with whom Hoeben CJ at CL, Garling and Campbell JJ agreed) said:

“22 In my respectful opinion, the approach suggested by Adams J is incorrect if it is interpreted as meaning that a sentence cannot be increased to take into account an additional need for deterrence and retribution in respect of the offences charged by virtue of the Form 1 offences being taken into account. Such an interpretation is contrary, in my opinion, to the meaning of s 33 properly construed and to what was said by Spigelman CJ in *Attorney General's Reference*. Section 33(1) empowers the Court to take the further offences into account where the preconditions in that section and s 32 are met. It is clear from the provisions of s 33(3) that that could lead to an increase in penalty up to the maximum penalty for the principal offence. The existence of these additional offences may demonstrate the greater need for personal deterrence and retribution in respect of the offence charged. This does not mean the Court is imposing a separate penalty for the Form 1 offences. Rather, as part of the instinctive synthesis approach to sentencing explained by McHugh J in *Markarian v The Queen* [2005] HCA 25; (228 CLR 357 at [51]-[54], it takes these matters into account as required by the statute in determining the appropriate penalty for the offence for which the offender is convicted.

23 That approach would generally, but not universally, lead to the imposition of a sentence longer, and in some cases significantly longer, than would otherwise be required if the Form 1 offences were not taken into account: *R v Barton* [2001] NSWCCA 63; (2001) 121 A Crim R 185. That does not mean that the principle of proportionality referred to by the High Court in cases such as *Hoare v The Queen* [1989] HCA 33; (1989) 167 CLR 348 at 354; *Veen v The Queen (No 2)* supra at 472 and 477; *Markarian* supra at [83], is offended. Rather, the fact that the sentence is to be determined by reference to the additional need for personal deterrence and retribution for the offence for which the offender is being sentenced as a result of the Form 1 charges means that the principle of proportionality falls to be assessed by reference to matters which include those additional factors. That does not involve any injustice to the offender who has chosen to avail him or herself of the s 33 procedure. Nor does it mean that the offender is being sentenced for offences for which he or she has not been convicted. This is because the sentence is imposed by reference to the offence for which the offender has been convicted, by contrast to the "top down" approach rejected in *Attorney General's Reference*.”

39. The fact of the admitted offence goes further than explaining why in the case of the applicant the sentence for the primary offence should be substantially increased. It also provided an insight into the part played by the applicant in this drug supply enterprise. It made it clear that the applicant's involvement extended from 29 June until 27 July 2012 when he was arrested. That contrasted starkly with the period of the involvement of Ms Nguyen which was in the order of two days.

GENERAL DETERRENCE

- **R v Karnib** [2015] NSWDC 84:

[109] As in any sentencing exercise, at least whilst it continues to have statutory recognition, appropriate account must be given to the object of general deterrence, along with the other, some countervailing, objects of sentencing.

[110] Without any apparent foundation in evidence, whether in the form of academic research or otherwise, in respect of offences of this character (and other offences which might involve a risk to public safety, or be considered abhorrent on some other ground) courts have sometimes said that general deterrence should be a predominant consideration. Frankly, absent an evidence base, it does not appear to me that there is a sufficient basis in principle or policy for the object at all, much less a basis to give that object any prominence in the synthesis over and above the other objects which are given statutory recognition in the sentencing exercise. Bald statements to the effect that it is a "cogent fact that the fear of punishment does, and will, prevent the commission of any many [crimes] that would have been committed if it was thought that the offender could escape punishment", or incur only a light punishment, (*R v Rushby* [1977] 1 NSWLR 594 at 598 per Street CJ, cited at para [64] of the Crown's written submissions) cannot rationally be elevated to expressions of principle without some objective demonstration of the asserted cogent fact. If the notions of individualised justice, which substantially underpin the exercise of the sentencing discretion, are to be given any more than mere lip service, then the various objects of sentencing must be balanced according to the particular circumstances and features of individual cases.

[111] To dictate in advance that predominance be given to one object over another divorced from a consideration of the circumstances of any particular case, for example merely by reason of the character of the offence, is to fetter the discretion in a way that skews the balancing exercise which must necessarily be undertaken in each individual case. So to skew the exercise neither serves the interests of justice, so far as those interests are comprehended by serving the best interests of the community, nor serves the interests of justice so far as an individual offender is concerned. Indeed to give predominance to general deterrence, without any evidence base to support the proposition that there is any relevant deterrent effect achieved by sentences heavier than they might otherwise be, seems to me to run the significant risk of creating a positive injustice, particularly if other features of a case provide rational support for the proposition that the interests of justice and the community are better served by giving a preponderance of weight to other objects, such as an appropriate mix of

rehabilitation and specific deterrence for example. It may be, in due course, there should be reconsideration of the statutory recognition of some of the presently recognised objects of sentencing, so as to reflect an appropriate evidence base.

...

- The utility of general deterrence has been questioned. Spigelman CJ said in **R v Wong** (1999) 48 NSWLR 340 at [127]-[128] that:

“there are significant differences of opinion as to the deterrent effect of sentences, particularly, the deterrent effect of marginal changes in sentence. Nevertheless, the fact that penalties operate as a deterrent is a structural assumption of our criminal justice system. Legislation would be required to change the traditional approach of the courts to this matter.”

- The High Court in **Munda v Western Australia** (2013) 87 ALJR 1035 at [54] affirmed the place of general and specific deterrence in sentencing law.

[54] It may be argued that general deterrence has little rational claim upon the sentencing discretion in relation to crimes which are not premeditated. That argument has special force where prolonged and widespread social disadvantage has produced communities so demoralised or alienated that it is unreasonable to expect the conduct of individuals within those communities to be controlled by rational calculation of the consequences of misconduct. In such cases it may be said that heavy sentences are likely to be of little utility in reducing the general incidence of crimes, especially crimes of passion. That having been said, there are three points to be made in response. First, the proper role of the criminal law is not limited to the utilitarian value of general deterrence. The criminal law is more than a mode of social engineering which operates by providing disincentives directed to reducing unacceptably deviant behaviour within the community. To view the criminal law exclusively, or even principally, as a mechanism for the regulation of the risks of deviant behaviour is to fail to recognise the long-standing obligation of the state to vindicate the dignity of each victim of violence, to express the community's disapproval of that offending, and to afford such protection as can be afforded by the state to the vulnerable against repetition of violence. Further, one of the historical functions of the criminal law has been to discourage victims and their friends and families from resorting to self-help, and the consequent escalation of violent vendettas between members of the community.

- **R v MF** [2015] NSWCCA 283:

[55] ... Punishment and deterrence were considered but not at the expense of other, competing purposes for which a court may impose a sentence.

[56] **As recently noted by another judge of the same Court in a different context, whilst consideration must be given to the object of general deterrence recognised in the statute (along with the other objects of sentencing), the proposition that general deterrence must have some**

determined predominance or a fixed weight in the sentencing exercise is inimical to “the notions of individualised justice, which substantially underpin the exercise of the sentencing discretion”: *R v Stockbridge* [2015] NSWDC 162 per Whitford SC DCJ at [108] to [110].

[57] Rehabilitation was clearly an important focus of the reasoning of the sentencing judge in the present case. In light of the fact that the respondent was aged 17 years at the time of the offence, that was an appropriate focus for the reasons stated by his Honour. I am not persuaded that rehabilitation was erroneously given undue weight at the expense of the considerations of punishment or deterrence.

- **Re. general deterrence & mental illness: R v Mueller** [2015] NSWCCA 292:

[39] The authorities make it clear that “general deterrence should often be given very little weight in the case of an offender suffering from a mental disorder or abnormality because such an offender is not an appropriate medium for making an example to others” – Muldrock v The Queen [2011] HCA 39; 244 CLR 120 at [53] although that is not to suggest the topic of general or indeed personal deterrence is to be entirely disregarded – Palijan v R [2010] NSWCCA 142 at 27. However in this case the extent to which the Respondent’s mental abnormality contributed to his offending and her Honour’s conclusions as to the likelihood of the Respondent re-offending well justified her in taking the stance which she took.

- In the decision of **R v Loveridge** [2013] NSWCCA 120, the court emphasised that the presence of violence on the streets, especially by young men in company and under the influence of alcohol and drugs, is all too common and needs to be addressed by sentences that carry a very significant degree of general deterrence.

- **Muggleton v R** [2015] NSWCCA 62 Adamson J at [50]:

*[50] The second difficulty is that although general deterrence was a factor that her Honour took into account, one cannot reliably discern what weight was given to it or what impact it had on the length of the sentence. The reason for this is that sentencing is a process of “instinctive synthesis” (*Wong v The Queen* [2001] HCA 64; 207 CLR 584 at [75]) of several relevant factors, which may point in different directions.*

- **RL v R** [2015] NSWCCA 106 per Basten JA, Simpson and Adamson JJ at [68]:

[68] Given that the offending was largely limited to the primary victim and involved a course of conduct over a significant period of time, and taking into account the principle of totality, it is necessary to determine the degree of accumulation and concurrency appropriate in the circumstances. In that exercise, significant weight should be given to the subjective circumstances of the offender and the absence of any need for specific deterrence. Further, limited weight should be given to general deterrence in the circumstances of the case; whilst that factor is not to be entirely disregarded, the individual circumstances of the mature offender require that it should be given limited weight. As Howie J noted in Moon, [30] a case involving offending by an adult against his step-daughter:

“In a case such as this where there has been such a lengthy delay between offence and sentence and where the offender is rehabilitated, it is the fact of imprisonment rather than the length of the sentence which will be of greatest significance to punish the offender and denounce his conduct. Although general deterrence is important it can never be allowed to dictate a sentence which is not proportionate to the offence committed or appropriate to punish the particular offender before the court.”

GOOD CHARACTER

- The offender having prior good character should be entitled to draw upon his antecedents to his benefit: **Postiglione v The Queen** (1997) 189 CLR 295.
- In **R v Ryan** (2001) 206 CLR 267, the High Court said:

"In the sentencing context being of good character may in some circumstances suggest that the offender's actions in committing the offence were out of character and that the offender is unlikely to re-offend. For that purpose, the absence of previous convictions is usually regarded as evidence of good character and may suggest that the offence was an uncharacteristic aberration of that good character".

- There are certain categories of offences where it has been held that limited weight may be given to good character including, for example, child pornography and white collar crime. The category of offence is not closed: **Gent** (2005) 162 A Crim R 29 at [64]. Possession of firearms is not one of those categories: **Athos** [2013] NSWCCA 205.
- **Remember the application of s 21A(5A) with respect to child sexual offences.**

(5A) Special rules for child sexual offences In determining the appropriate sentence for a child sexual offence, the good character or lack of previous convictions of an offender is not to be taken into account as a mitigating factor if the court is satisfied that the factor concerned was of assistance to the offender in the commission of the offence.

Section 21A(5A) of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* states:

"(5A) In determining the appropriate sentence for a child sexual offence, the good character or lack of previous convictions of an offender is not to be taken into account as a mitigating factor if the court is satisfied that the factor concerned was of assistance to the offender in the commission of the offence."

Victim daughter of applicant's de facto partner. In **AH** [2015] NSWCCA 51 the applicant sexually assaulted the daughter of his de facto partner. The CCA held the judge erred in applying s.21A(5A). The applicant's good character played no part in obtaining access to the victim. He was not exercising a community role which might have given access to children, such as teacher, sports coach or pastor: at [21]; (**O'Brien** [2013] NSWCCA 197). The applicant's relationship with the victim's mother and the trust which that engendered created an environment in which the offences could be committed: [25].

Offender childcare worker. In **Stoupe** [2015] NSWCCA 175 the offender was a childcare worker. The offender's prior good character assisted him to hold that position, which he abused to commit the offences, and the case fell squarely within s 21A(5A). The judge erred in taking into account prior good character and lack of prior convictions as a mitigating factor: at [86]-[87].

Child sexual offences are defined in s 21A(6).

GUIDELINE JUDGMENTS

- The use of a guideline is not a tramline: **Legge v R** [2007] NSWCCA 244. It is to be used as a check, a guide, an indicator or a sounding board: **Legge v R** [2007] NSWCCA 244; **R v II** [2008] NSWSC 325.
- In **Ponfield** [1999] NSWCCA 435 the Court declined to issue a guideline expressed in quantitative terms, by way of a starting point or sentencing range, principally because of the great diversity of circumstances in which the offence is committed. The Court noted that the overwhelming majority of cases of break, enter and steal are prosecuted in the Local Court where the maximum penalty available is two years imprisonment, extending to three years (now 5 years) where cumulative sentences for multiple offences are imposed. Thus, a guideline which indicated the relevant sentencing considerations without establishing a starting point or developing a range was considered the most appropriate.
- **Marshall v R** [2007] NSWCCA 24:

*“Therefore, in determining whether the offence falls within the mid-range of seriousness, the court has to have regard to the nature of the offence committed in the premises, including its seriousness as against offences of its type generally. Where that offence is larceny, the guideline judgment in **R v Ponfield** [1999] NSWCCA 435; (1999) 48 NSWLR 327 might assist in determining the relevant factors to be considered in the evaluation of the seriousness of the offence. So the type of premises entered, the nature and value of the property taken, and whether there is substantial damage to, or ransacking of, the contents of the premises will be relevant considerations.”*

- **Faleafga v R** [2016] NSWCCA 178 at [44]:

“On my reading of his Honour’s reasons with respect to the application of the *Henry* guideline, I am persuaded that his Honour failed to distinguish that guideline on the basis of the applicant’s early plea, remorse and hardship. As Spigelman CJ said in *Legge v R* [2007] NSWCCA 244 at [59], “...a guideline is not a tramline.” Exceptional circumstances need not be shown before a sentence less than the guideline may be imposed: *Legge* at [44] per Simpson J (as her Honour then was).”

- In **Dickinson v R [2016] NSWCCA 301**:

“[15] *Ponfield* was decided before the enactment of s 21A of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act*, dealing with aggravating and mitigating factors on sentence, and before the examination by this Court of the relevance to sentence of a prior criminal history in *R v McNaughton* (2006) 66 NSWLR 566, [2006] NSWCCA 242...

[16] More recently this Court had occasion to consider *Ponfield* in *Mapp v R* (2010) 206 A Crim R 497, [2010] NSWCCA 269. In that case Simpson J (as she then was) observed at [10] (502):

“10 *Ponfield* is, in my respectful opinion, of limited utility. Although that matter came before the Court by way of an application by the Attorney General for sentencing guidelines in respect of offences against s 112(1) of the Crimes Act 1900, the Court declined to specify a numerical guideline, instead listing factors that “enhanced” (“aggravated”) the seriousness of an offence against s 112(1). This was, in my view, little (if anything) more than a statement of the general sentencing principles that applied at the time. *Ponfield* was decided before the insertion into the Sentencing Procedure Act of s 21A, which, in statutory form, and somewhat more comprehensively, does the same thing (with general application to all offences, not only offences against s 112(1)). In my opinion, therefore, *Ponfield* has been largely overtaken by statute.”

WHYTE GUIDELINE JUDGMENT

- **Silvestri v R [2016] NSWCCA 245**

[17] Relevantly, the guideline is that where an offender’s moral culpability is high, a full time custodial sentence for an offence involving grievous bodily harm of less than 2 years would not generally be appropriate: *Whyte* at [229] (287). The typical offender in cases such as this was described in *Whyte* at [204] (284) as follows:

“A frequently recurring case of an offence under s 52A has the following characteristics.

- (i) Young offender.
- (ii) Of good character with no or limited prior convictions.
- (iii) Death or permanent injury to a single person.
- (iv) The victim is a stranger.
- (v) No or limited injury to the driver or the driver's intimates.
- (vi) Genuine remorse.
- (vii) Plea of guilty of limited utilitarian value.”

...

[19] In *Whyte* at [216]-[218] (286), Spigelman CJ reviewed and revised the aggravating factors described in *Jurisc* which may indicate that an offender has abandoned responsibility for his or her conduct. These are:

- (i) extent and nature of the injuries inflicted;
- (ii) number of people put at risk;
- (iii) degree of speed;
- (iv) degree of intoxication or of substance abuse;
- (v) erratic or aggressive driving;
- (vi) competitive driving or showing off;
- (vii) length of the journey during which others were exposed to risk;
- (viii) ignoring of warnings;
- (ix) escaping police pursuit;
- (x) degree of sleep deprivation;
- (xi) failing to stop.

...

[41] As to the examination of the features of the present case in the light of the guideline judgment in *Whyte*, the Crown prosecutor reminded us of the following passage from the judgment of Johnson J in the original judgment in *AB*, referred to above, at [103]:

“It is important that the guideline judgment in *R v Whyte* does not become the undue focus of attention on the part of a sentencing Judge, with less attention being paid to the maximum penalty for each offence (in this case imprisonment for seven years). The guideline is a “guide” or “check” with the sentence to be imposed to be determined by the exercise of a broad discretion taking into account all relevant factors, including the maximum penalty: *R v Whyte* at 288 [232]. As Spigelman CJ said in *Legge v R* [2007] NSWCCA 244 at [59], “a guideline is not a tramline.”

...

[43] As to those cases and the statistics, the limitations on the use of material of that kind, spelled out in *Hili and Jones v The Queen* (2010) 242 CLR 520, [2010] HCA 45, are familiar and have been recognised in numerous decisions of this Court before and after that High Court decision. The limited use of statistics, saying “nothing about why sentences were fixed as they were”, was referred to by the High Court in *Hili* at [48] (535). As to other cases involving a sentence for the offence at hand, the High Court at [54] (537) cited with approval the judgment of Simpson J (as she then was) in *Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v De La Rosa* (2010) 79 NSWLR 1, at [303]-[305] (70-71), [2010] NSWCCA 194. The High Court summarised her Honour’s observations as follows:

“... As her Honour pointed out, a history of sentencing can establish a range of sentences that have in fact been imposed. That history does not establish that the range is the correct range, or that the upper or lower limits to the range are the

correct upper and lower limits. As her Honour said: 'Sentencing patterns are, of course, of considerable significance in that they result from the application of the accumulated experience and wisdom of first instance judges and of appellate courts.' But the range of sentences that have been imposed in the past does not fix 'the boundaries within which future judges must, or even ought, to sentence.' Past sentences 'are no more than historical statements of what has happened in the past. They can, and should, provide guidance to sentencing judges, and to appellate courts, *and stand as a yardstick against which to examine a proposed sentence*' (emphasis added). When considering past sentences, 'it is only by examination of the whole of the circumstances that have given rise to the sentence that 'unifying principles' may be discerned'."

[Footnotes omitted]

HENRY GUIDELINE JUDGMENT

- Armed robbery is not simply a crime against property, it is a crime against people. Fear engendered by crimes of this type has continued, adverse affects on victims. Armed robbery, particularly with a knife, is clearly a serious crime and requires severe punishment. The courts of this State have said on many occasions, not the least in the guideline judgment of ***R v Henry*** (1999) 46 NSWLR 346 that an offender convicted of an armed robbery offence should expect to receive a full time custodial sentence, save in the "*most exceptional circumstances*". The impetus for the decision in Henry was said to be, "*the inconsistency in sentencing practice and systematic excessive leniency in the level of sentences*", for offences of a similar type to the one committed here.

- The guideline describes a category of case, which is unfortunately relatively common. That is one involving:
 1. a young offender with no or little history;
 2. a weapon like a knife, capable of killing or inflicting serious injury;
 3. limited degree of planning;
 4. limited, if any, actual violence but a real threat thereof;
 5. victim in a vulnerable position, such as a storekeeper;
 6. small amount taken; and
 7. plea of guilty, the significance of which is limited by a strong Crown case.

- In such circumstances, the Court in ***R v Henry*** noted that sentences should generally fall between four and five years for a full term. Those figures were based upon a late plea of guilty.

- Sentencing however, is not a strictly mathematical exercise. The guidance offered by the Court of Criminal Appeal does not prevent the proper exercise of an individual judge’s sentencing discretion. The guideline acts as a guide or check.
 - **R v Hopoi** [2014] NSWCCA 263 - Henry is also the appropriate guideline in respect of offences contrary to s.96 (Robbery with wounding) (**R v Thomas** [2007] NSWCCA 269 at [22] and [91]). Exceptional circumstances need to be shown for the imposition of other than fulltime custodial penalty.
-

- **Faleafga v R** [2016] NSWCCA 178 at [44]:

“On my reading of his Honour’s reasons with respect to the application of the *Henry* guideline, I am persuaded that his Honour failed to distinguish that guideline on the basis of the applicant’s early plea, remorse and hardship. As Spigelman CJ said in *Legge v R* [2007] NSWCCA 244 at [59], “...a guideline is not a tramline.” Exceptional circumstances need not be shown before a sentence less than the guideline may be imposed: *Legge* at [44] per Simpson J (as her Honour then was).”

HARDSHIP TO DEPENDANTS & FAMILY MEMBERS

- Hardship to dependents and family members of offenders is unfortunately an unavoidable consequence of any custodial sentence. Courts are frequently faced with such circumstances. However, the law provides that it is not a mitigating factor on the sentence of an offender unless that hardship is “wholly”, “highly” or “truly” exceptional: **R v Edwards** (1996) 90 A Crim R 510 at 516.
- As a matter of logic or even mercy, hardship to a member of an offender’s family does not have a lesser claim upon a court’s attention than hardship to a person for whom the offender was a paid carer. A case does not become “wholly exceptional” simply because the person affected by the hardship was not a member of the offender’s family: **R v Edwards** (1996) 90 A Crim R 510 at 516 per Gleeson CJ; **R v Chan** [1999] NSWCCA 103 at [39].
- While any such separation is a matter for concern, it is not of the exceptional nature described in the authorities. However it can be taken into account as part of the offender’s subjective case: **Delaney v R** [2013] NSWCCA 150.
- **R v Zerafa** [2013] NSWCCA 222 discusses **Edwards** and other cases from [113] – [117]:

[113] In **R v Edwards** (1996) 90 A Crim R 510 at 516 Gleeson CJ described the following passage from the judgment of Wells J in **R v Wirth** (1976) 14 SASR 291 as the “most frequently cited Australian judgment on [the] subject” of the relevance of the impact of incarceration of an offender on third parties:

“The argument thus presented to us raises the following question: When (if ever), and to what extent (if at all), should the hardship caused, directly or indirectly, by a proposed sentence of imprisonment, to the family of, or to others closely associated with, the offender be taken into account by the Court in mitigation of that sentence?”

... Hardship to spouse, family, and friends, is the tragic, but inevitable, consequence of almost every conviction and penalty recorded in a Criminal Court. ... It seems to me that courts would often do less than their clear duty - especially where the element of retribution, deterrence, or protection of society is the predominant consideration - if they allowed themselves to be *much influenced* by the hardship that prison sentences, which from all other points of view were justified, would be likely to cause to those near and dear to prisoners.

But it has been often remarked that the strength of our law lies in the willingness of judges, when applying a principle, not to carry it past the

point where a sense of mercy or of affronted common sense imperatively demands that they should draw back. So it is proper that I should here add that, in my opinion, *hardship likely to be caused by a sentence of imprisonment under consideration ought to be taken into account where the circumstances are highly exceptional, where it would be, in effect, inhuman to refuse to do so.* For example, if it were demonstrated to the satisfaction of the court that to send a man to prison would, without much doubt, drive his wife to suicide, it would be a steely-hearted judge who did not, however illogically, at least try to meet the situation by suitably framed orders as to penalty. But further than that, in my judgment, courts should not go." (emphasis added)

[114] Although Wells J warns against sentencing judges being "much influenced" by the hardship that would be occasioned to an offender's family by their incarceration, the principle stated by his Honour goes further. It only allows the hardship likely to be caused to families to be taken into account when the circumstances are "highly exceptional" (cf *R v Kertebani* [2010] NSWCCA 221 at [65]). On its face the principle stated by Wells J in *Wirth* does not permit hardship falling short of exceptional to be considered as a factor warranting any consideration as part of the process of "instinctive synthesis" undertaken in sentencing an offender (*Markarian v R* [2005] HCA 25; 228 CLR 357).

[115] *Edwards* was a Crown appeal against a sentence of periodic detention for manslaughter that was imposed because of the hardship the offender's full time custody would cause to a long term patient at an institution who was cared for by the offender. This sentence was set aside on the basis that those circumstances were not properly characterised as "exceptional" (at 516 and 517 per Gleeson CJ). The sentencing judge was found to have "deflect[ed] her[self] from imposing the sentence of full-time imprisonment which she plainly indicated she would otherwise have imposed" (at 518). Thus *Edwards* was a case in which the sentencing judge was found to have wrongly treated the impact on a third party as determinative of the type of sentence that was to be imposed.

[116] Although the limitations on considering hardship to third parties derived from *Edwards* are said to be the subject of "well settled principles" (*FP v R* [2012] NSWCCA 182 at [309] per R.A. Hulme J) they are sometimes stated in different terms. Thus, in *Hay v R* [2013] NSWCCA 22 at [49] *Edwards* was cited for the proposition that "[i]t is well established that the effect on family or others can be taken into account only in exceptional circumstances". That formulation reflects the statement of Wells J in *Wirth* (see also *Waugh (aka Willoughby) v R* [2010] NSWCCA 3 at [16] per Hidden J, McClellan CJ at CL and Simpson J agreeing). Recently, in *R v MacLeod* [2013] NSWCCA 108 at [43] the principle derived from *Edwards* was described as being that "it is only in exceptional circumstances that hardship to third parties can be taken into account *in order to reduce an otherwise appropriate sentence*". This formulation leaves open the possibility that the "otherwise appropriate sentence" is one in which hardship to third parties falling short of exceptional circumstances is considered as part of the process of "instinctive synthesis", even if it cannot be considered as a "distinct matter justifying any substantial modification of an otherwise appropriate penalty" (*Dipangkear v R* [2010] NSWCCA 156 at [41] per Whealy J).

[117] This latter possibility has been explicitly recognised in cases discussing *Edwards* and applying the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* ("*Sentencing Act*"). Thus, for example, in *R v Girard* [2004] NSWCCA 170 at [21] Hodgson JA, with whom Levine and Howie JJ agreed, stated:

"In relation to the children, in my opinion this was not shown to be a case falling within the category of exceptional circumstances as discussed in *Edwards*. It is certainly a matter of concern, *and a matter that can be taken into account as one subjective circumstance in assessing the appropriate penalty, that innocent children will be adversely affected by the imprisonment of their parents*. However, in the absence of exceptional circumstances, this is not to be taken into account as a specific and particular matter resulting in a substantial reduction or elimination of a sentence of imprisonment." (emphasis added)

HISTORICAL SEXUAL ASSAULT OFFENCES

- **Denham v R [2016] NSWCCA 309 at [96]:**

"Particular features of the objective seriousness of this offending we regard as important were as follows:

1. The offences involved systematic exploitation by a man using his guise as a priest, his pretence to be a moral authority in breach of trust and his position of authority;
2. Many of the serious sexual assaults were accompanied by the deliberate infliction of pain, such as sexually assaulting children using the cane as both a disciplinary weapon and an instrument of sexual gratification;
3. There were instances where the applicant was invited into people's homes and the children of Catholic families were instructed to treat him as an honoured guest and then he interfered with the boys when the parents were not looking;
4. The place where the majority of offences were committed is important. The applicant used occasions when he could administer some discipline or pretend to do so to take victims to his room and there sexually assault them. He made brutal threats to the children to keep his activities secret;
5. These offences were not spontaneous or opportunistic. This was a systematic exploitation of his position of trust at the school;
6. Whilst age was not an element of the offences contrary to ss 79 and 81 of the *Crimes Act* (buggery and indecent assault respectively), the very young age of the victims is a matter important to objective seriousness;
7. The applicant targeted the most vulnerable boys. Generally they came from difficult family backgrounds."

ILL HEALTH

- **Sutton v R [2016] NSWCCA 249**

“[44] ... it is only in a relatively rare case that ill-health will be a factor tending to mitigate punishment: *R v Smith* (1987) 44 SASR 587 at 589 (King CJ), referred to with approval in *R v Badanjak* [2004] NSWCCA 395 (*R v Badanjak*) at [9] (Wood CJ at CL, McClellan AJA and Smart AJ agreeing); *Anastasiou v R* [2010] NSWCCA 100 at [22]-[23] (Rothman J, McClellan CJ at CL and James J agreeing); *Leighton v R* [2010] NSWCCA 280 at [35]-[36] (Price J, Simpson J and Howie AJ agreeing).”

INSTITUTIONALISATION

- A number of cases concerned with this issue were cited by Fullerton J (with whom McClellan CJ at CL and Simpson J agreed) in **Jackson v R** [2010] NSWCCA 162 at [24]. Among those cases was **R v Lemene** [2001] NSWCCA 5, 118 A Crim R 131,
- In **Jackson** at [25], Fullerton J expressed the approach of the court in **Lemene** , and the principle underlying it, in this way:

"The adjustment in the statutory ratio was made in that case expressly to assist in the rehabilitation of the offender who had spent little time out of an institution over the course of his adult life having suffered social, educational, psychological and occupational disadvantages in his youth. Her honour's approach, however, underscores the fact that a risk of institutionalisation, even in the face of entrenched recidivism and serious reoffending, is a factor a sentencing court may regard as a sufficiently special circumstance to warrant an adjustment to the statutory ratio under s 44 of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act."

(In that passage Fullerton J appears to have attributed to Simpson J observations which, in fact, are to be found in the judgment of Dowd J.)

INTENSIVE CORRECTION ORDERS

- While an ICO may reflect a significant degree of leniency, given that an ICO is considered as a form of imprisonment it “must have a significant punitive effect and therefore reflect, in all likelihood, a range of purposes identified in s 3A of the [Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act]”: **R v Tannous (2012) 227 A Crim R 251** per Basten JA at [21].
- The Court of Criminal Appeal in the decision of **R v Pogson (2012) 82 NSWLR 60** said that an intensive corrections order is a substantial punishment which can be utilised an appropriate case.
- Recently, the CCA in **R v Cahill [2015] NSWCCA 53** emphasised that it is important not let to lose sight of the need for an appropriate and proportionate level of punishment in the form of immediate incarceration in cases involving serious offending. The Court on that occasion said that the decision in **Pogson** should not be utilised to pass an entirely inappropriate sentence by reason of the offender being dealt with in a way that is contrary to the principle of reasonable proportionality between the offending conduct and the sentence.
- The High Court has repeatedly emphasised, most recently in **CMB v The Attorney General for NSW (2015) 89 ALJR 407** that the law reposes a wide discretion in the sentencing judge as to the determination of the appropriate sentence for the offender and the offence.
- I am satisfied that the various purposes of sentencing can be fulfilled by imposing a term of imprisonment to be served by way of ICO. The offender will have a term of imprisonment hanging over his head and will be subject to very onerous conditions whilst on the community-based order. This will serve the purposes of deterrence and, having regard to all of the material, also fulfil the purpose of denunciation. Equally, it will facilitate the rehabilitation of the offender ensuring the protection of the community.
- **Boulton v The Queen; Clements v The Queen; Fitzgerald v The Queen [2014] VSCA 342 (22 December 2014)** – guideline judgment with respect to Community Corrections Orders (Victorian equivalent of Intensive Correction Orders):

[2] *The CCO is a flexible sentencing option, enabling punitive and rehabilitative purposes to be served simultaneously. **The CCO can be fashioned to address the particular circumstances of the offender and the causes of the offending, and to minimise the risk of re-offending by promoting the offender's rehabilitation.***

[5] *As explained below, the advent of the CCO calls for a re-consideration of traditional conceptions of imprisonment as the only appropriate punishment for serious offences. This in turn will require a recognition both of the limitations of imprisonment and of the unique advantages which the CCO offers.*

...

[93] *We think, however, that the punitive character of a CCO is most clearly illustrated by the range and nature of the conditions which may be attached to such an order. The available conditions are variously coercive, restrictive and/or prohibitive, and the obligations and limitations which they impose will bind the offender for the entire duration of the order (subject to any contrary order).*

[104] *For so long as imprisonment has appeared to be the only option available for offending of any real seriousness, sentencing courts have had no occasion to reflect either on the severity of imprisonment as a sanction or on its ineffectiveness as a means of rehabilitation. As to the first, imprisonment is uniquely punitive because of that feature which distinguishes it from all other forms of sanction, namely, the complete loss of liberty. But imprisonment has a number of other punitive features, apart from the loss of physical freedom.*

[105] *There is the loss of personal autonomy and of privacy, and the associated loss of control over choice of activities and choice of associates. The prisoner is subject to strict discipline, restriction of movement, forced association with other prisoners and — for a substantial part of each day — confinement in a small cell (in many instances, a cell shared with a cellmate not of the prisoner's choosing). There is, moreover, exposure to the risks associated with the confinement of large numbers of people in a small space — violence, bullying, intimidation.*

[106] *On any view, this is severe punishment.*[70] *As the New South Wales Court of Criminal Appeal said in **Mainwaring v The Queen**:*[71]

Any period of imprisonment must be understood for what it is: onerous, unpleasant, oppressive and burdensome. It is, as it should be, the last available punitive resort in any civilised system of criminal justice. Public discussions about the need to deter crime by the imposition of heavier sentences are not always obviously, or at least apparently, informed by an appreciation of the significance of full-time incarceration upon men and women who receive such sentences.

[107] Importantly for present purposes, these features of the restrictive prison environment also have the consequence that the opportunities, and incentives, for rehabilitation are very limited. *For example, there is no access to sustained treatment for psychological problems or addiction. Access to anger management and sex offender treatment programs is rationed, and such programs are often unavailable to those sentenced to short prison terms.*

[108] *In addition, imprisonment is often seriously detrimental for the prisoner, and hence for the community. The regimented institutional setting induces habits of dependency, which lead over time to institutionalisation and to behaviours which render the prisoner unfit for life in the outside world. Worse still, the forced cohabitation of convicted criminals operates as a catalyst for renewed criminal activity upon release. Self-evidently, such consequences are greatly to the community's disadvantage.*

...

[112] Given the adverse features of imprisonment to which we have referred, the conclusion that imprisonment is the only appropriate punishment amounts to a conclusion that the retributive and deterrent purposes of punishment must take precedence. Put another way, it is a conclusion that the offender's 'just deserts' for the offence in question require imprisonment, even though the court is well aware that the time spent in prison is likely to be unproductive, or counter-productive, for the offender and hence for the community.

[113] The availability of the CCO dramatically changes the sentencing landscape. The sentencing court can now choose a sentencing disposition which enables all of the purposes of punishment to be served simultaneously, in a coherent and balanced way, in preference to an option (imprisonment) which is skewed towards retribution and deterrence.

[114] The CCO option offers the court something which no term of imprisonment can offer,² namely, the ability to impose a sentence which demands of the offender that he/she take personal responsibility for self-management and self-control and (depending on the conditions) that he/she pursue treatment and rehabilitation, refrain from undesirable activities and associations and/or avoid undesirable persons and places. The CCO also enables the offender to maintain the continuity of personal and family relationships, and to benefit from the support they provide.

[115] In short, the CCO offers the sentencing court the best opportunity to promote, simultaneously, the best interests of the community and the best interests of the offender and of those who are dependent on him/her. On this analysis, if defence counsel submits that a CCO would be appropriate, it is no answer for a prosecutor (or a judge) to say, 'How could a CCO be appropriate given that an offence of this seriousness has always received imprisonment?' As we have endeavoured to explain, that question should mark the beginning, not the end, of the court's consideration.

• **Vincenzo Jon Fedele v R [2015] NSWCCA 286**

[62] In this line of authority general deterrence is sometimes described as "paramount" or "the primary sentencing consideration." It is said that, absent exceptional circumstances, a sentence of imprisonment involving full time custody is "ordinarily" warranted. It is also said that less weight is given than in other cases to the fact that an offender has prior good character and favourable prospects of rehabilitation.

[63] These pronouncements are a guide to the exercise of discretion in child pornography cases; but, of course, are not prescriptive of the result in a

² As noted previously, we are not here considering the 'combination' option of a CCO and a term of imprisonment.

particular case, which must turn on its facts and circumstances. In EF v R [2015] NSWCCA 36, Simpson J (as she then was) referred to the line of authority that, in the absence of exceptional circumstances, a full time custodial sentence should be imposed upon an offender who has been substantially involved in the supply of prohibited drugs. Her Honour said at [10]:

“Nothing in any of those decisions obviates the need for sentencing judges to consider the circumstances of each case individually, including the availability (in a practical sense) of alternatives to full-time custody.”

At [11], her Honour cited a passage in the judgment of Priestley JA in R v Cacciola (1988) 104 A Crim R 178 at 183-4. His Honour referred to the proposition that drug dealing to a substantial degree calls for the imposition of a prison sentence as something which the Court continues to consider as “the proper approach to sentencing, always bearing in mind the need to consider every convicted person’s case on its own merits and in its own circumstances.”

- **May-Jordan v The Queen** [2017] VSCA 30, commenting on **Boulton** [2014] VSCA 342:

[44]: In *Boulton*, this Court observed that a CCO can be used to rehabilitate and punish simultaneously and that this ‘significantly diminishes the conflict between sentencing purposes, particularly acute in relation to young offenders.’ So much may be accepted. However, it does not follow that wherever a young offender is concerned, a CCO (either on its own or in combination with a prison term) will be apt. Rather, the circumstances of the offender and the offence and other sentencing considerations control that decision. Importantly, as part of this process, before imposing a term of imprisonment, the sentencing judge will need to consider whether the purposes of sentencing can be achieved by a CCO with conditions attached. In this case, the judge was satisfied that imprisonment was the only option.

Drug supply - failure to consider availability of ICO as alternative to full-time custody - legal representatives did not bring court’s attention to optional alternatives

EF [2015] NSWCCA 36:

In **EF** [2015] NSWCCA 36 the applicant was sentenced to imprisonment for drug supply. His evidence at sentence was that he sold drugs to support his habit. His legal representative at sentence did not submit otherwise than that a full-time custodial sentence had to be considered.

The CCA allowed the appeal.

The judge failed to consider the availability of an ICO in accordance with s 5(1): at [40]-[41]. Although, in cases of drug supply, a custodial sentence will ordinarily be imposed unless there are exceptional circumstances (*Clark* (NSWCCA, 15 March 1990, unreported) this does not obviate the need for sentencers to consider the circumstances of each case, including the availability of alternatives to full-time custody: at [10]-[11]; *Cacciola* (1988) 104 A Crim R 178.

INTOXICATION

- Intoxication may mitigate a crime because the offender has by reason of that intoxication acted 'out of character': **Stanford** [2007] NSWCCA 73 at [53]-[55] applying **Coleman** (1990) 47 A Crim R 306 at 327.
- In **ZZ** [2013] NSWCCA 83 the CCA affirmed that the 'out of character' exception is "acknowledged to exist, but it has almost never been applied": **GWM** [2012] NSWCCA 240 at [78], [80]-[82]; **Hasan v The Queen** [2010] VSCA 352 [21].
- However now see:

s 21A(5AA) *In determining the appropriate sentence for an offence, the self-induced intoxication of the offender at the time the offence was committed is not to be taken into account as a mitigating factor."*

- The offender's intoxication is relevant to an analysis of these three mitigating features but the fact that an offence is fuelled by alcohol is not a mitigating feature and in some circumstances is considered to be an aggravating feature: **R v Loveridge** [2014] NSWCCA 120 at [94]-[101] and see also s 21A(5AA) Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act.

Kelly v R [2016] NSWCCA 246, per Rothman J (with Hoeben CJ at CL and R A Hulme J agreeing):

46 The Court is thus required to re-sentence. As the Crown correctly notes, the provisions of s 21A(5AA) of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* precluded the use self-induced intoxication of an offender at the time of an offence as a mitigating factor in determining the appropriate sentence.

- 47 Even before the introduction of that relatively new sub-section, the intoxication by alcohol or drugs ordinarily did not mitigate the penalty to be imposed on a particular offender: *Bourke v R* [2010] NSWCCA 22; 199 A Crim R 38 at [26].
- 48 Nevertheless, as McClellan CJ at CL in *Bourke* said, that ordinary rule does not apply where the intoxication is the result of an addiction and the original addiction did not involve a free choice. His Honour's comments were that offenders could not expect reductions in sentence merely on account of the offence being committed while the offender was intoxicated.
- 49 The Crown submits that the effect of s 21A(5AA) of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act* 1999 is also "to abolish" that part of *R v Fernando* (1992) 76 A Crim R 58 that the High Court approved in *Bugmy v The Queen* [2013] HCA 37; (2013) 249 CLR 571. I do not agree with that last mentioned submission.
- 50 The effect of *Fernando* and of *Bugmy* is to recognise that, in certain communities to which the circumstances in *Fernando* and *Bugmy* applied, the abuse of alcohol and drugs is so prevalent and accompanied by violence that the intoxication no longer fits the description of being "self-induced". In that way, the intoxication fits the description to which McClellan CJ at CL referred in *Bourke*.

MAXIMUM PENALTY / WORST CASE

- In **Markarian** (2005) 228 CLR 357 the joint judgment of the High Court pointed out that the maximums available are not mere formalities:

*Careful attention to the maximum penalties is required. Not just because the Parliament has legislated for them. Maximum penalties provide a sentencing measure to be balanced with all other relevant factors. They also invite a comparison between the instant case and the worst case, That said it is not appropriate here to look first to a maximum penalty and then proceed by way of making a proportional deduction from it: **Markarian** (2005) 228 CLR 357 at [30] and [31]*

- **R v Campbell** [2014] NSWCCA 102, Simpson J (with whom Hall J agreed):

*[28] A "legislative guide post" is an instrument of measurement. Standing alone, it is meaningless. It is used to measure the relevant features of a particular instance of a crime against (in the case of the maximum penalty) a worst case: see **Markarian**, [30]-[31]; (in the case of the standard non-parole period) an offence in the mid-range of objective seriousness.*

- **The Queen v Kilic** [2016] HCA 48

"[18] What is meant by an offence falling within the "worst category" of the offence is that it is an instance of the offence which is so grave that it warrants the imposition of the maximum prescribed penalty for that offence. Both the nature of the crime and the circumstances of the criminal are considered in determining whether the case is of the worst type. Once it is recognised that an offence falls within the "worst category", it is beside the point that it may be possible to conceive of an even worse instance of the offence. Thus, an offence may be assessed as so grave as to warrant the maximum prescribed penalty notwithstanding that it is possible to imagine an even worse instance of the offence.

[19] Where, however, an offence, although a grave instance of the offence, is not so grave as to warrant the imposition of the maximum prescribed penalty – as the offending was agreed to be here – a sentencing judge is bound to consider where the facts of the particular offence and offender lie on the "spectrum" that extends from

the least serious instances of the offence to the worst category, properly so called. It is potentially confusing, therefore, and likely to lead to error to describe an offence which does not warrant the maximum prescribed penalty as being "within the worst category". It is a practice which should be avoided.

[20] ...lay persons are unlikely to be familiar with the legal signification of the expression and, as a result, might wrongly take it to mean that the judge has underestimated the seriousness or effects of the offence. In order to avoid difficulties of that kind, sentencing judges should avoid using the expression "worst category" and instead, in those cases where it is relevant to do so, state in full whether the offence is or is not so grave as to warrant the maximum prescribed penalty."

- **Drew v R [2016] NSWCCA 310**

"[98] The determination of whether offending falls within the "worst case" category requires an evaluation of the particular features of the offence including any aggravating factors: *De Jong v R*; *Tuimaualuga v R*; *Zechel v R*; *Puru v R* [2015] NSWCCA 32 at [55]...

[99] This Court has recently considered the relevant authorities concerning the assessment of objective seriousness in cases involving wounding in *Kiernan v R*... In that case, Hoeben CJ at CL (with whom Davies and Beech-Jones JJ agreed) observed at [41], referring to the decision of this Court in *McCullough v R* (2009) 194 A Crim R 429; [2009] NSWCCA 94 at [37], that:

"While authorities such as *McCullough v R* make it clear that offences of this kind are result based, they also make it clear that the manner in which the wound was inflicted, the reason for its infliction and the circumstances surrounding the wounding are relevant when assessing the seriousness of the offence (*McCullough v R* at [37])."

[100] His Honour went on to observe at [44] and [45] that:

"Another relevant feature of the offending was the mode of the attack, which involved the production of the Stanley knife, the pulling back of the victim's head and the cutting of the throat in two motions. Even when the victim sought to defend himself, the attack was maintained leading to a further stabbing in the leg...

That such matters are relevant to the seriousness of offences of this kind is clear from *R v Westerman* [2004] NSWCCA 161, *R v Zhang* [2004] NSWCCA 358; *Matzick v R* [2007] NSWCCA 92 and *AM v R* [2012] NSWCCA 203; 225 A Crim R 481."

[101] It was further held in *Kiernan v R* (at [46]) that the location of the wounds inflicted may cause the injuries to be viewed as more serious; for example, a cut to the throat will be viewed as more serious than a cut to the leg.

...

[104] the High Court considered the finding by the Court of Appeal in *The Queen v Kilic* that the principal offence was within "the worst category" of the offence of intentionally causing serious injury and observed the following at [18] – [20] (footnotes omitted):

"[18] What is meant by an offence falling within the "worst category" of the offence is that it is an instance of the offence which is so grave that it warrants the imposition of the maximum prescribed penalty for that offence. Both the nature of the crime and the circumstances of the criminal are considered in determining whether the case is of the worst type. Once it is recognised that an offence falls within the "worst category", **it is beside the point that it may be possible to conceive of an even worse instance of the offence.** Thus, an offence may be assessed as so grave as to warrant the maximum prescribed penalty notwithstanding that it is possible to imagine an even worse instance of the offence.

[19] Where, however, an offence, although a grave instance of the offence, is not so grave as to warrant the imposition of the maximum prescribed penalty – as the offending was agreed to be here – a sentencing judge is bound to consider where the facts of the particular offence and offender lie on the "spectrum" that extends from the least serious instances of the offence to the worst category, properly so called. **It is potentially confusing, therefore, and likely to lead to error to describe an offence which does not warrant the maximum prescribed penalty as being "within the worst category". It is a practice which should be avoided.**

[20] There is also another reason to avoid use of the expression "the worst category" of an offence. Not infrequently where an offence does not warrant the maximum prescribed penalty, a sentencing judge may observe in the course of his or her sentencing remarks that, although the offence is a serious, or perhaps particularly serious, instance of the offence, it is not within the "worst category". To do so is not inaccurate and it may be thought a convenient form of legal shorthand. But lay persons are unlikely to be familiar with the legal signification of the expression and, as a result, might wrongly take it to mean that the judge has underestimated the seriousness or effects of the offence. **In order to avoid difficulties of that kind, sentencing judges should avoid using the expression "worst category" and instead, in those cases where it is relevant to do so, state in full whether the offence is or is not so grave as to warrant the maximum prescribed penalty."**

MENTAL ILLNESS / COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENT

- Also see *DANG* under **ADDICTION** re. moral culpability.
- Principles to be applied when sentencing an offender suffering from a mental illness, intellectual handicap or other mental problem were succinctly summarised by McClellan CJ at CL in **DPP v De La Rosa** [2010] NSWCCA 194, (2010) 205 A Crim R 1; (2010) 79 NSWLR 1, at [177]. Omitting citations they are:
 - *Where the state of a person's mental health contributes to the commission of the offence in a material way, the offender's moral culpability may be reduced. Consequently the need to denounce the crime may be reduced with a reduction in the sentence.*
 - *It may also have the consequence that an offender is an inappropriate vehicle for general deterrence resulting in a reduction in the sentence which would otherwise have been imposed.*
 - *It may mean that a custodial sentence may weigh more heavily on the person. Because the sentence will be more onerous for that person the length of the prison term or the conditions under which it is served may be reduced.*
 - *It may reduce or eliminate the significance of specific deterrence.*
 - *Conversely, it may be that because of a person's mental illness, they present more of a danger to the community. In those circumstances, considerations of specific deterrence may result in an increased sentence. Where a person has been diagnosed with an Antisocial Personality Disorder there may be a particular need to give consideration to the protection of the public.*
- On sentencing, a court should be more concerned with the impact of the offender's impairment on the offence and the offender than with any medical, psychiatric or psychological classification: see **R v Verdins** [2007] VSCA 102 at [3]; **DPP (Cth) v Del la Rosa** [2010] NSWCCA 194 at [177] – [178] and **R v Engert** (1995) 84 A Crim R 67.
- The reference to an offender not being “fully aware of the consequences of his or her actions” in **s 21(3)(j) Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999** does not

comprehend or encompass the extent to which cognitive or mental health impairment³ or mental abnormality (**Veen v The Queen (No. 2)** (1988) 164 CLR 465) can be taken into account on sentencing.

- As with most sentencing principles, the principles and the objectives of sentencing point in different directions. In many cases the conflict between a requirement to take into account retribution or general deterrence or the impact on victims has a direct and counterproductive impact on those objectives which focus on rehabilitation and avoidance of recidivism or on the recognition by the courts that those with cognitive or mental health impairments require a particularly individualised approach.
- A court is not obliged to average out important and competing considerations; sometimes one can be determinative: **R v Hopkins** [2004] NSWCCA 105.
- Ultimately courts recognise that the purpose of sentencing is community protection and to achieve that aim, impose sentences appropriate to the offender and the crimes conscious always of the need to ensure where possible the consistent and proper application of sentencing principles.
- The necessary synthesis features personal to the offender including their mental state are not taken into account when assessing the objective seriousness of the offence: **Muldock v The Queen** (2011) CLR 12; **Williams v R** [2012] NSWCCA 172.

³ See NSWLRC 135

(a) Cognitive impairment is an ongoing impairment in comprehension, reason, adaptive functioning, judgement, learning or memory that is the result of any damage to, dysfunction, developmental delay, or deterioration of the brain or mind.

(b) Such cognitive impairment may arise from, but is not limited to, the following:

- (i) intellectual disability
- (ii) borderline intellectual functioning
- (iii) dementias
- (iv) acquired brain injury
- (v) drug or alcohol related brain damage
- (vi) autism spectrum disorders.

(a) Mental health impairment means a temporary or continuing disturbance of thought, mood, volition, perception, or memory that impairs emotional wellbeing, judgement or behaviour, so as to affect functioning in daily life to a material extent.

(b) Such mental health impairment may arise from but is not limited to the following:

- (i) anxiety disorders
- (ii) affective disorders
- (iii) psychoses
- (iv) severe personality disorders
- (v) substance induced mental disorders.

(c) "Substance induced mental disorders" should include ongoing mental health impairments such as drug-induced psychoses, but exclude substance abuse disorders (addiction to substances) or the temporary effects of ingesting substances.

- Justice Simpson summarised the 3 ways in which an offender’s mental illness may be taken into account on sentence in **Barbieri v R [2016] NSWCCA 295**:

[53]: ... that an offender suffers from a mental illness may be taken into account (in his/her favour) in any or all of three ways. It may be seen (where it is shown to be causally related to the commission of the offence) to reduce the moral culpability of the offender; it may indicate that the offender is an unsuitable vehicle for the application of the principle of general deterrence; and it may mean that a prison sentence will “weigh more heavily” on that offender than it would on others. These are well established principles and were spelled out in *Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v De La Rosa* (2010) 79 NSWLR 1; [2010] NSWCCA 194 at [177]. (In truth, the first and second of these state essentially the same proposition: see the analysis by Wood CJ at CL in *R v Henry* (1999) 46 NSWLR 346; [1999] NSWCCA 111 at [254]. The reason that general deterrence is accorded less weight is because the mental disorder reduces the offender’s moral culpability. This, no doubt, was what the sentencing judge had in mind in [141] of the Remarks when he moved from his assessment of the applicant’s moral culpability to the weight to be given to general deterrence.)

[54]: Conversely, by reason of a mental illness, an offender may present more of a danger to the community, which may, accordingly, call for greater emphasis on the principle of special deterrence.

[55]: Of course, much depends upon the nature and extent of the mental illness. Of particular importance in this case in relation to the assessment of moral culpability is the causal relationship (if any) of the applicant’s mental disorder to the offending. Also of importance in this case is the likely progress in the future of the applicant’s mental illness.”

- There are conflicting CCA decisions on the topic:
 - **Yang v R** [2012] NSWCCA 49 at [28]
 - **GN v R** [2012] NSWCCA 96 at [12] & [18]
 - **Stewart v R** [2012] NSWCCA 183 at [37]
 - **Badans v R** [2012] NSWCCA 97 at [53]
 - **R v Biddle** [2011] NSWSC 1262 at [88]
 - **MDZ v R** [2011] NSWCCA 243 at [67]
 - **R v Cotterill** [2012] NSWSC 89 at [30]
 - **Ayshow v R** [2011] NSWCCA 240 at [39]

- **R v Fahda** [2012] NSWSC 114 at [50] & [38]
- Judicial pragmatism seems to indicate that whatever the correct approach it matters little given the sentencing judge's duty to synthesise all relevant factors and only at the end of the process determine the sentence: **Markarian v The Queen** (2005) 228 CLR 357 at [51] per McHugh J.
- The court in **Muldrock** referred at [53] to the Victorian case of **R v Mooney** (Victorian Court of Appeal 21 June 1978, unreported) which discussed the retributive effect of a deterrent sentence inappropriate to the situation and to the needs of the community. In **BP v R** [2010] NSWCCA 159 at [4], Hodgson JA noted "*considerations of retribution direct attention to what the offender deserves*". See also **Ryan v The Queen** (2001) 206 CLR 267.
- In **MDZ v Regina** [2011] NSWCCA 243 at [67] (Hall J with whom Tobias AJA and Johnson J agreed) said:

*"In my opinion, in light of the High Court's judgment in **Muldrock** (supra), it is open to conclude that the mental condition of the applicant at the time of the offence may bear upon the objective seriousness of the offences: **Muldrock** (supra) at [27] and [29]. Certainly, in the present case, the sentencing judge, on the evidence, was required to expressly determine the moral culpability of the applicant in assessing the seriousness of the offences and in determining the appropriate sentences to be imposed in relation to them. In this case, the evidence required a finding that the applicant's moral culpability was reduced by his mental health issues."*

- In **Martin v R** [2015] NSWCCA 6, Price J referred to MDZ. At [63]:

"It is evident from these opinions that the applicant's mental disorders may have contributed to his offending. Although a specific submission was not made by the applicant's counsel on this issue, the focus of the applicant's case on sentence was his mental health. In my respectful opinion, the judge was obliged to expressly make some assessment as to whether the applicant's moral culpability for the serious crimes that he committed was reduced by his mental condition. In assessing the objective seriousness of the offences, her Honour did not make any reference to the applicant's mental health and erred in not doing so."

- In **R v Wright** (1997) 93 A Crim R 48 at 50, Hunt CJ at CL noted while general deterrence should often be given little weight where an offender suffers a mental disorder or abnormality as they were not an appropriate medium for making an

example to others. The moderation need not be great if the offender acts with knowledge of what he is doing and knowledge of the gravity of his actions. An example, where the offender has chosen to disregard medical advice, (**Clay v R** [2007] NSWCCA 106 at [25] and [26], without good reason (**Carroll v R** [2012] NSWCCA 118 at [62]).

- **Re. acquired brain injury & no causal connection – Aslan v R** [2014] NSWCCA 114
- **Vossos v R** [2016] NSWCCA 262

57. In *Muldrock* the Court (at [53]) cited the principle that general deterrence should often be given very little weight in the case of an offender suffering from a mental disorder or abnormality because such offender is not an appropriate medium for making an example to others. Their Honours went on to say (at [54] citations omitted):

[54] The principle is well recognised. It applies in sentencing offenders suffering from mental illness, and those with an intellectual handicap. A question will often arise as to the causal relation, if any, between an offender's mental illness and the commission of the offence. Such a question is less likely to arise in sentencing a mentally retarded offender because the lack of capacity to reason, as an ordinary person might, as to the wrongfulness of the conduct will, in most cases, substantially lessen the offender's moral culpability for the offence. The retributive effect and denunciatory aspect of a sentence that is appropriate to a person of ordinary capacity will often be inappropriate to the situation of a mentally retarded offender and to the needs of the community.

...

59. Whether an offender's impaired intelligence is relevant to an assessment of moral culpability, and if not, whether it is relevant in some other way to the determination of an appropriate sentence, will depend upon the circumstances of the case. In *Aslan v R* [2014] NSWCCA 114 Simpson J (as her Honour then was) made reference (at [33]) to the principles governing the effect of an offender's mental illness on sentence:

"Over the years, the applicable principles have evolved. They were most recently re-stated by McClellan CJ at CL in *Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v De La Rosa* [2010] NSWCCA 194; 79 NSWLR 1 at [177]. They are as follows:

[Principle 1] Where the state of a person's mental health contributes to the commission of the offence in a material way, the offender's moral culpability *may* be reduced. Consequently the need to denounce the crime may be reduced with a reduction in the sentence ...

[Principle 2] It *may* also have the consequence that an offender is an inappropriate vehicle for general deterrence resulting in a reduction in the sentence which would otherwise have been imposed ...

[Principle 3] It *may mean* that a custodial sentence may weigh more heavily on the person. Because the sentence will be more onerous for that person the length of the prison term or the conditions under which it is served may be reduced ...

[Principle 4] It *may* reduce or eliminate the significance of specific deterrence ...

[Principle 5] Conversely, it *may be* that because of a person's mental illness, they present more of a danger to the community. In those circumstances, considerations of specific deterrence may result in an increased sentence ... Where a person has been diagnosed with an Antisocial Personality Disorder there may be a particular need to give consideration to the protection of the public ..." (emphasis in her Honour's judgment).

60. Her Honour went on to say (commencing at [34]):

34. It will be observed that none of these principles is stated as absolute. What is recognised is the potential effect, in any given case, of a mental disability. **It does not follow that, because an offender suffers from some mental impairment or disability, his or her moral culpability is reduced** (principle 1); nor that he or she is an inappropriate vehicle for general deterrence (principle 2); nor that a custodial sentence will weigh more heavily upon him or her (principle 3); nor that the significance of specific deterrence is reduced or eliminated (principle 4). Nor, on the other hand, does it follow that a person with mental impairment is a danger to the community, indicating a need for community protection (principle 5). Too often, the mere fact of mental illness is advanced to this Court as necessarily calling for a more lenient sentence. What the principles spelled out by McClellan CJ at CL do is direct attention to considerations that experience has shown commonly arise in such cases. There is, however, no presumption. It remains necessary for the sentencing court to examine the relevant facts in order to determine whether, in the specific case, the mental condition has the consequence contended for.

35. A central question (but not the only question) is whether the mental illness or other condition had a causative role to play in the commission of the offence or offences for which the offender is to be sentenced. Counsel who appeared for the applicant accepted that this was the principal issue in this case. **If it is concluded that there was a causal connection, then the offender's moral culpability may be reduced (see principle 1).** That connection **may** also warrant lesser attention being paid to the need for the sentence to reflect considerations of general deterrence (principle 2) (emphasis added in each case).

61. If an offender's moral culpability is to be reduced on the grounds of impaired intelligence, some causal connection between that impairment and the offending must be established...

62. In the absence of such causal connection, an offender's mental state may still be relevant on sentence in the various respects to which Simpson J referred."

DANGEROUSNESS:

- Go first to **Veen No.2.** at [476]. **Potts v R** [2012] NSWCCA 229 reaffirmed protection of society from a potentially dangerous offender was a relevant matter which while it could not lead to a sentence disproportionate to the gravity of the offence could offset potentially mitigating factors. But as Basten JA reminded us in **R v Windle** [2012] NSWCCA 222 the potential for 'unprincipled sentencing'

under the guise of community protection particularly where the mental illness operated to reduce an offender's culpability; reinforcing the principle of proportionality. Basten JA's judgment recognised that the criminal law is not the appropriate mechanism for protecting society where the potential danger is as a result of a mental illness.

- **Re general deterrence: R v Mueller [2015] NSWCCA 292:**

[39] The authorities make it clear that “general deterrence should often be given very little weight in the case of an offender suffering from a mental disorder or abnormality because such an offender is not an appropriate medium for making an example to others” – Muldrock v The Queen [2011] HCA 39; 244 CLR 120 at [53] although that is not to suggest the topic of general or indeed personal deterrence is to be entirely disregarded – Palijan v R [2010] NSWCCA 142 at 27. However in this case the extent to which the Respondent's mental abnormality contributed to his offending and her Honour's conclusions as to the likelihood of the Respondent re-offending well justified her in taking the stance which she took.

- **Re general deterrence: Barbieri v R [2016] NSWCCA 295:**

[77]: General deterrence can be seen to have been given prominence in the sentencing decision. That emerges from the (perfectly proper) emphasis given by the sentencing judge to the authorities concerning attacks on police officers, and the need for the community (through the courts) to recognise the valuable and necessary work police officers do. However, the importance of deterring attacks on police officers does not, and cannot, make suitable as a vehicle for general deterrence, an offender who is otherwise, and plainly, an unsuitable vehicle.

[78]: As I have mentioned above, an important aspect of the consideration of the weight that ought, in sentencing, be given to mental illness is the extent to which the mental illness had a causal relationship to the offence.

- **Re “secondary” or “derivative” mental illness: Barbieri v R [2016] NSWCCA 295:**

[74]: It is difficult to discern any proper basis for differentiating, in the assessment of moral culpability, between causes of mental illness (with a possible exception

where the mental illness is self-inflicted by reason of, for example, drug or alcohol use, a question on which I express no opinion). What is in question is the mental state of the offender at the time of the offending. That, in this case, the applicant's undoubted mental illness was, to use the Crown prosecutor's language, "derivative", or that of the sentencing judge, "secondary", can have no bearing on the extent to which it was relevant to the assessment of moral culpability. Similarly, the fact that, within a relatively short time of separation from Fiona Barbieri, the applicant recovered from the delusional condition and discarded his delusional beliefs says nothing of their existence at the time of the offences.

[75]: In my opinion it was an error to take into account, on the question of mental illness, these two considerations... It was wrong to conclude that the applicant's moral culpability was less than would otherwise be the case "but not to any substantial degree" because the condition was "secondary" and because the applicant had recovered. Indeed, the evidence of recovery pointed to more favourable treatment, because it minimised the need for the sentence to take into account specific deterrence. It was wrong to fail to reduce the weight given to general deterrence.

Mental illness – evidence of mental disability – no specific submission by counsel – obligation of sentencing judge to consider issue notwithstanding absence of submission

- ***Cowan*** [2015] NSWCCA 118

There was considerable evidence before the sentencing judge regarding the applicant's mental state. No submission as to the principles for sentencing of mentally ill offenders was made by counsel.

The CCA allowed the appeal. The sentencing judge was under an obligation to consider and apply those principles if appropriate: at [40]. The judge was obliged to expressly make some assessment as to whether the applicant's moral culpability was reduced by his mental condition. In assessing objective seriousness, it was an error not to refer to the applicant's mental health: at [40]; *Martin* [2015] NSWCCA 6 at [53].

Mental illness and drug addiction – total rehabilitation between commission of offences and arrest several years later – reduced need for both general and specific deterrence

- ***Omar*** [2015] NSWCCA 67

This was a Crown appeal against a sentence of 6 years 10 months, NPP 3 years 11 months for two counts of aggravated sexual assault and one count of armed robbery with wounding. The offences had taken place several years earlier. Evidence at sentence was that the respondent suffered mental illness at the time of the offences and had undergone total rehabilitation from drug use since the offending.

Dismissing the appeal, the CCA said the judge properly found the respondent's mental illness moderated the need for general deterrence. Further, the judge's finding that rehabilitation was total and complete meant that *specific* deterrence was

of less significance than might otherwise have been: at [75]-[79]; *DPP (Cth) v De La Rosa* [2010] NSWCCA 194 at [177].

SPECIAL HEARING SENTENCE

Limiting term - purpose of limiting term is not to punish: Mailes (2004) 62 NSWLR 181 –purposes of sentencing s 3A Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999

AB [2015] NSWCCA 57 was a Crown appeal against a limiting term of 7 years' imprisonment imposed for manslaughter under s 23(1)(b) *Mental Health (Forensic Provisions) Act 1990*.

The provisions of s 3A *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* are applicable: at [41].

The Crown appeal was dismissed. The CCA made these observations regarding the application of s 3A in this case:

s 3A(a) does not apply. The purpose of nominating a limiting term is not to punish: *Mailes* (2004) 62 NSWLR 181 at [32], [42].

ss 3A(b), (c), (d) and (e) have little bearing in this case. By reason of mental disability, the respondent was an unsuitable vehicle for general deterrence. Progressive dementia, and the finding he would not commit another act of violence, mean protection of the community and rehabilitation have little relevance. There is little to be gained by making an offender suffering from progressive dementia accountable for his actions: at [42].

s 3A(f) - An offender, by reason of mental disability, is unsuitable to be the subject of denunciation. The irrelevance results from diminished moral culpability, which results from impaired mental capacity: at [45].

s3A(g) – 'Recognition of the harm done to the victim and community' had a place in the sentencing exercise and was not overlooked: at [45].

NON-PAROLE PERIOD

- **M A [2004]** NSWCCA 92;
- **Bugmy v The Queen** (1990) 169 CLR 525 at 531-2;
- **Power v The Queen** (1973) 131 CLR 623 at 627-629.

- **R v Zolfonoon [2016]** NSWCCA 250

[77]: A non-parole period is correctly to be seen as a mitigation of punishment in favour of rehabilitation through conditional freedom by parole. Ultimately, the non-parole period actually imposed must be the minimum period of custody appropriate to all of the circumstances of the offence: *Bugmy v R* [1990] HCA 18; (1990) 169 CLR 525; *Power v R* [1974] HCA 26; (1974) 131 CLR 623.

OBJECTIVE SERIOUSNESS

- **R v Slack** [2004] NSWCCA 128: “All offences must be seen on a scale of seriousness”:
- **Campbell v R** [2014] NSWCCA 102, Simpson J (with whom Hall J agreed):

[27]... In my opinion, the assessment of objective seriousness is, and has always been, a critical component of the sentencing process: **R v Geddes** (1936) 36 SR (NSW) 554; **R v Dodd** (1991) 57 A Crim R 349; **Markarian v The Queen** [2005] HCA 25; 228 CLR 357; **Khoury v R** [2011] NSWCCA 118; 209 A Crim R 509 at [71]-[72]. These cases were all decided before judgment was given in **Muldrock v The Queen** [2011] HCA 39; 240 CLR 120. There is nothing in that judgment that cuts across the principle stated. Muldrock exposed error in this Court in over emphasising the assessment of objective gravity in offences to which Pt 4 Div 1A of the Sentencing Procedure Act applies, of notional offences in the mid-range of objective seriousness. It does not preclude proper attention being paid to the objective seriousness of the particular offence under consideration: see, for example, **R v Koloamatangi** [2011] NSWCCA 288 per Basten JA. In respect of offences to which Pt 4 Div 1A of the Sentencing Procedure Act applies, two "legislative guide posts" are to be observed - the maximum sentence prescribed, and the standard non-parole period.

[28] A "legislative guide post" is an instrument of measurement. Standing alone, it is meaningless. It is used to measure the relevant features of a particular instance of a crime against (in the case of the maximum penalty) a worst case: see **Markarian**, [30]-[31]; (in the case of the standard non-parole period) an offence in the mid-range of objective seriousness.

[29] **Objective seriousness is a relative concept.** That the legislature has prescribed a maximum penalty of 25 years for an offence against s 112(3) reveals that the legislature sees such offences (measured against other offences) as serious - other than a penalty of life imprisonment, 25 years is the longest maximum sentence contained in the Crimes Act. That is what the sentencing judge referred to in the first of the passages extracted above. For sentencing, it is also necessary that the particular offence be assessed against

other instances of such offences. This is often done instinctively, by sentencing judges with the benefit of experience of other such offences.

- As explained by McClellan CJ at CL in **Sivell v R** [2009] NSWCCA 286 at [5], a distinction is to be drawn between the two modes of expression whereby a sentencing judge may indicate the seriousness of an offence under consideration:

[5] The 'objective seriousness' of an offence is a different concept to the 'seriousness of the offence', the latter expression being commonly used when determining the sentence, both total term and non-parole period (if appropriate) for that offence. Where a standard non-parole period is not provided for an offence, the objective seriousness of the offence does not, of itself, direct attention to any particular type of punishment or term of imprisonment which must both be determined after all of the relevant matters, both objective and subjective, which inform the seriousness of the offence have been considered.

- **R v MF** [2015] NSWCCA 283:

*[41] In the written submissions, the Crown asserted that the judge "did not expressly characterise the objective gravity of the respondent's conduct." It was submitted, "had his Honour undertaken an assessment of, and articulated the extent of the respondent's criminality, his Honour would have determined that the crime merited a sentence greater than that which his Honour imposed". There is a degree of question-begging in that submission (in the formal rhetorical sense of that expression); it assumes the correctness of the Crown's position as one of the premises of the conclusion contended for. To the extent that the submission suggests the proper approach is to articulate a quantitative label for the objective gravity of an offence and to calculate the sentence accordingly, it is contrary to the authority of **Markarian v The Queen** [2005] HCA 25; 228 CLR 357 (a case in which it may be noted the sentencing judge in this case, when a barrister, appeared for the successful appellant), the correctness of which was recently affirmed in **Muldrock v The Queen** [2011] HCA 39; 244 CLR 120.*

PARITY

- The doctrine of parity on sentencing is a norm of equal justice and an essential element of the rule of law: **Green v R; Quinn v R** [2011] HCA 49; (2011) 244 CLR 462 at [28]. The principle of equal justice requires, as far as the law permits, that like be treated alike and that differential treatment be meted out to reflect differences between those that are relevantly different: **Green & Quinn** at [28]; **Wong v R** [2001] HCA 64; (2001) 207 CLR 584 at 608; **Jimmy v R** (2010) 77 NSWLR 540.
- Difficulties comparing sentences imposed on participants in the same criminal enterprise who have been charged with different offences with different maximum penalties see **Green v R; Quinn v R** [2011] HCA 49; (2011) 244 CLR 462 at [30].
- **Wong v R** [2001] HCA 64; (2001) 207 CLR 584 at [65]:

[65] Equal justice requires identity of outcome in cases that are relevantly identical. It requires different outcomes in cases that are different in some relevant respect [original emphasis].

BETWEEN CHILDREN AND ADULTS

- The different sentencing objectives and considerations applicable to sentencing offenders in the Children's Court and adult's court restrict comparison of the sentences handed down to co-offenders under the two regimes: **R v Ho** (unrep, 28/02/1997, NSWCCA).
- The sentence imposed on a person in the Children's Court is not irrelevant as an adult may very well have a justifiable sense of grievance with respect to that very difference of the regimes". **R v Govinden** (1999) 106 A Crim R 314, at [15]
- **R v Wong** [2003] NSWCCA 247 Kirby J said at [35]:

*[35] The principles relating to parity, where the comparison is with a young offender, have been gathered by Wood CJ at CL in **R v Boney** [2001] NSWCCA 432. A number of propositions can be stated:*

- *First, in fashioning a sentence for an adult involved in the same crime, it is relevant to have regard to a sentence imposed by the Children's Court upon a co-offender.*
 - *Second, the worth of that comparison, however, will be limited given the different sentencing objectives and other considerations in the Children's Court.*
 - *Third, in determining whether there is a justifiable sense of grievance, it must be recognised that a stage can be reached where the inadequacy of the sentence imposed upon a co-offender is such that any sense of grievance engendered by it cannot be regarded as legitimate (**R v Diamond** (NSW, CCA, 18.2.93, per Hunt CJ at CL).*
 - *Fourth, at an appellant level, where there is a justifiable sense of grievance in the adult offender, that does not oblige the court to intervene. It has a discretion to intervene. It should not intervene where to do so would produce a sentence which does not reflect the objective gravity of the crime.*
- In **Postiglione v The Queen** (1997) 189 CLR 295, the High Court considered the relationship between the principles of parity and totality. Dawson and Gaudron JJ pointed out that disparity is not simply the imposition of different sentences for the same offence but a question of disproportion between them. Parity is a matter to be determined by having regard to the circumstances of the co-offenders and their respective degrees of culpability. Different criminal histories and custodial patterns may “*justify a real difference in the time each will serve in prison*” and “*like must be compared with like*” when applying the parity principle: at 878. Justice Kirby said that the parity and totality principles are in the nature of checks required out of recognition that the task of sentencing is not mechanical.
 - **Lago v R** [2015] NSWCCA 296, at 54:

The parity principle

*[54] The relevant principles are well known and are conveniently summarised by Johnson J (McClellan CJ at CL and Hidden J agreeing) in **Rae v R** [2011] NSWCCA 211 at [59]-[63]. For the purposes of this appeal it is sufficient to note the following.*

[55] The “parity principle” requires that like offenders should be treated in a like manner. Accordingly the principle allows for different sentences to be imposed upon like offenders to reflect different degrees of culpability and/or different circumstances: **Green v The Queen** [2011] HCA 49; 244 CLR 462 (**Green**) at [28] (French CJ, Crennan and Kiefel JJ).

[56] The test for determining whether there is a justifiable sense of grievance is objective: *Green* at [31]. The question is whether a reasonable mind looking overall at what has happened would see that the applicant’s grievance is justified: **R v Wei Pan** [2005] NSWCCA 114 at [34]; **Dwayhi v R; Bechara v R** [2011] NSWCCA 67; 205 A Crim R 274 (**Dwayhi**) at [21].

[57] What is required to be shown is a marked disparity between sentences giving rise to the appearance of injustice because one offender has been unfairly treated having regard to the sentence passed upon the other offender: **Green** at [31]-[32]. Other descriptors of what is required include gross, glaring or manifest disparity: **England v R; Phanith v R** [2009] NSWCCA 274 at [61]-[67]; **Dwayhi** at [24].

[58] It is also necessary to keep in mind that it is the sentence imposed upon a co-offender which is said to give rise to a sense of injustice, not the sentence imposed upon the offender: **Lewins v R** [2007] NSWCCA 189; 175 A Crim R 40 at [7]; **Dwayhi** at [26].

PLANNING

- **RL v R** [2015] NSWCCA 106 per Basten JA, Simpson and Adamson JJ at [36]:

*[36] This submission should be accepted. In **Williams v R**, [4] McClellan CJ at CL said, in the context of an offence of break, enter and steal:*

“[18] The complement of s 21A(2)(n) is found in s 21A(3)(b). In as much as s 21A(2)(n) provides that it is an aggravating feature of an offence that it was ‘part of a planned or organised criminal activity’ s 21A(3)(b) provides that it is a mitigating factor if the offence was not part of such a planned or organised criminal activity. ...

*[19] Section 21A(2)(n) has been considered by this court on previous occasions. In **Fahs v R** [5] Howie J said that the provision conveyed ‘more than simply that the offence was planned’. His Honour suggested that a street dealer who purchased drugs simply to obtain the cash to purchase drugs for his own use is unlikely to fall within the provision. However, those responsible for maintaining the drug distribution network are likely to be committing offences which form part of planned or organised criminal activity.*

[20] In my opinion the approach adopted to s 21A(2)(n) by Howie J is correct. It is only when the particular offence is part of a more extensive criminal undertaking that the subsection is engaged. The fact that an offence was planned does not of itself bring it within the subsection.”

*[37] As in **Williams**, there was some “planning” of the various offences, but not such as to bring it within s 21A(2)(n). Contrary to the Director’s approach, this was not an immaterial error: nor was the level of “planning” an objective factor which significantly affected the relative seriousness of the offences for the purposes of s 21A(1)(c). The fact that there were several offences revealing some broad pattern of behaviour does not mean there was relevant “planning”. Rather, the fact that the offending, including the matters taken into account, was scattered over a five year period demonstrated that this was opportunistic behaviour.*

- The fact there was a level of planning in the commission of an offence does not necessarily mean that this aggravating factor applies: *R v Yildiz* (2006) 160 A Crim R 218; *Fahs v R* [2007] NSWCCA 26; *Hewitt v R* (2008) 80 A Crim R 306. There needs to be evidence that would permit a finding beyond reasonable doubt that the degree of planning exceeded the planning which would ordinarily be expected in an offence of that kind: *Knight v R* [2010] NSWCCA 51. Similarly, where the particular offence is part of a more extensive criminal undertaking: *Williams v R* [2010] NSWCCA 15.

- **Denham v R [2016] NSWCCA 309 at [72]:**

“... In *Moore v R* [2016] NSWCCA 185 at [75] Basten JA said:

[75] The submissions for the applicant should be accepted in so far as the sentencing judge was in error in identifying the aggravating factor by reference to s 21A(2)(n). However, as also appears from *RL v R* [2015] NSWCCA 106 at [37], planning may nevertheless constitute a factor affecting the relative seriousness of the offence, for the purposes of s 21A(1)(c). Whether an offence is “planned” will involve matters of degree; the comparison is between a level of premeditation of criminal conduct and a response which is spontaneous, ill-considered or opportunistic. In this sense, there was a level of planning; the sentencing judge was satisfied that the attack was not simply a response to an unforeseen confrontation. Thus, although the judge was wrong to identify the statutory basis for his finding of aggravation, what he took into account were the matters set out in the passage quoted above. There was no error in treating those matters as aggravating; the incorrect statutory classification cannot be said to have affected the sentence imposed. The error was immaterial.”

PLEA OF GUILTY

- Section 21 A(3)(k) and section 22 of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999 (NSW) provide that a sentencing judge must take into account the fact that an offender has pleaded guilty to an offence.
- The discount for the utilitarian value of the plea is normally determined largely by the timing of the plea so that the earlier the plea the greater the discount. I have had regard to the relevant principles as set out in **R v Borkowski** (2009) 195 A Crim R 1 at [32]. See also **R v AB** [2011] NSW CCA 229 at [3], where Bathurst CJ said courts “*should generally continue to follow the approach in R v Borkowski... the principles have to be applied by reference to the particular circumstances in any case*”.
- In **Siganto v The Queen** (1998) 194 CLR 656, the High Court said:

"A plea of guilty is ordinarily a matter to be taken into account in mitigation, first, because it is usually evidence of some remorse on the part of an offender and, second, on the pragmatic ground that the community is spared the expense of a contested trial. The extent of the mitigation may vary depending on the circumstances of the case".
- In **R v Thomson and Houlton** (2000) 115 A Crim R 104, the Court of Criminal Appeal promulgated a guideline judgment regarding the discount to be afforded to an offender who has pleaded guilty to an offence as follows:
 1. A sentencing judge should specifically state that a plea of guilty has been taken into account;
 2. A sentencing judge is encouraged to quantify the effect of the plea of guilty on the sentence;
 3. The utilitarian value of the plea of guilty to the criminal justice system should generally be assessed in the range of 10 to 25% discount on sentence, dependent upon the timing of the plea; and
 4. In some cases the plea of the guilty, in combination with other relevant factors, will change the nature of the penalty imposed.

- It is submitted that a plea of guilty should attract a lower penalty where:
 1. The plea of guilty is a manifestation of remorse and/or contrition;
 2. The plea of guilty has a utilitarian value to the efficiency of the criminal justice system; and
 3. There is a particular value in avoiding the need for a hearing and the consequent need for the calling of witnesses, especially victims, to give evidence.

- A plea of guilty also indicates an acceptance of responsibility by the offender and a willingness by the offender to facilitate the administration of justice.

- In **R v Borkowski** [2009] NSWQCA 102, Howie J reiterated the general principles to be considered in relation to the appropriate discount for a plea of guilty:
 1. As a matter of general practice, the maximum discount for the utilitarian value of the plea of guilty should be awarded only to an offender who pleaded guilty in the Local Court and continued that plea of guilty in the District Court or the Supreme Court;
 2. Some allowance may be made in determining the discount where the trial would be particularly complicated or lengthy: **Thomson** [154]
 3. The utilitarian discount does not reflect any other consideration arising from the plea, such as saving witnesses from giving evidence but this is relevant to remorse. Nor is it affected by post-offending conduct: **Perry** [2006] NSWCCA 351.;
 4. The utilitarian discount does not take into account the strength of the prosecution case. That is relevant to contrition: **Sutton** [2004] NSWCCA 225;
 5. There is to be no component in the discount for remorse. The discount can result in a different type of sentence but the resulting sentence should not again be reduced by reason of the discount;
 6. Where there are multiple offences and pleas at different times, the utilitarian value of the plea should be separately considered for each offence: **SY** [2003] NSWCCA 291.

7. There may be offences that are so serious that no discount should be given: **Thomson** at [158]; **Kalache** [2000] NSWCCA 2; where the protection of the public requires a longer sentence: **El-Andouri** [2004] NSWCCA 178.
 8. Generally the reason for the delay in the plea is irrelevant because, if it is not forthcoming, the utilitarian value is reduced: **Stambolis** [2006] NSWCCA 56; **Giac** [2008] NSWCCA 280.
 9. The utilitarian value of a delayed plea is less and consequently the discount is reduced even where there has been a plea bargain: **Dib** [2003] NSWCCA 117; **Ahmad** [2006] NSWCCA 177; or where the offender is waiting to see what charges are ultimately brought by the Crown: **Sullivan and Skillin** [2009] NSWCCA 296; or the offender has delayed the plea to obtain some forensic advantage: **Stambolis** [2006] NSWCCA 56; **Saad** [2007] NSWCCA 98, such as having matters put on a Form 1: **Chiekh and Hoete** [2004] NSWCCA 448.
 10. An offer of a plea that is rejected by the Crown but is consistent with a jury verdict after trial can result in a discount even though there is no utilitarian value: **Oinonen** [1999] NSWCCA 310; **Johnson** [2003] NSWCCA 129.
 11. The discount can result in a different type of sentence but the resulting sentence should not again be reduced by reason of the discount: **Lo** [2003] NSWCCA 313.
 12. The amount of the discount does not depend upon the administrative arrangements or any practice in a particular court or by a particular judge for the management of trials or otherwise. The last of these principles is derived from the present judgment and is included for completeness.
- There are other factors that mitigate the sentence. They are taken into account in the general synthesis to determine the appropriate sentence before the application of a discount. The mitigating factors include remorse.
 - See **ES v R** [2014] NSWCCA 268 re. combined discount of 40% for late plea and assistance.
 - **Lehn v R** [2016] NSWCCA 255
61. ... the sentencing judge expressly noted that the plea was entered at the earliest opportunity but he considered that a 20% discount was appropriate so

as not to reduce the sentence below that which would reflect the Court's assessment of the objective gravity of the offence.

62. In that context, it must be emphasised that the grant of the utilitarian discount of 25% for a plea entered at the earliest possible opportunity is not mandatory. Section 22(1A) of the *Sentencing Procedure Act* provides that a lesser penalty imposed under that section must not be unreasonably disproportionate to the nature and gravity of the offence. Although it is well accepted, consistent with the guideline judgment in *R v Thomson; R v Houlton*(2000) 49 NSWLR 383; [2000] NSWCCA 309 (*Thomson*), that a utilitarian discount of 25% will generally be granted for a plea entered at the earliest possible opportunity, it remains a matter for the discretion of the sentencing judge: *Thomson* at [153]; see also *Marrow* at [39].

...

137. There is no principle or rule of law, and there should be no expectation, that a plea of guilty entered at the earliest opportunity will always result in a discount on sentence of 25%. The conclusions of this Court in *Thomson* at [157] – [158] and [160(iv)] should not be overlooked.

CONFESSION OF GUILT

- **R v Ellis** (1986) 6 NSWLR 603

“Where it is unlikely that guilt would be discovered and established were it not for the disclosure by the person coming forward for sentence, then a considerable element of leniency should properly be extended by the sentencing judge. It is part of the policy of criminal law to encourage a guilty person to come forward and disclose both the fact of an offence having been committed and confession of guilt of that offence

...

...the disclosure of an otherwise unknown guilt of an offence merits a significant added element of leniency, the degree of which will vary according to the degree of likelihood of that guilt being discovered by the law enforcement authorities, as well as guilt being established against the person concerned.”

COMMONWEALTH

- **C v R** [2013] NSWCCA 81 at 32:

[32] A sentencing court is obliged, pursuant to s 16A(2)(g) Crimes Act 1914 (Cth) to take into account that an offender has pleaded guilty. Although there is no requirement to reduce a federal offender's sentence because of the fact of a plea of guilty, it is accepted that the general principles set out in *R v Thomson*; *R v Houlton* apply and that the range of discount should be between 10 percent and 25 percent.

[33] That having been said, it does not necessarily follow that the applicant would have received the maximum discount of 25 percent. As Simpson J (with whom Spigelman CJ and Harrison J agreed) said in ***Tyler v Regina; Regina v Chalmers*** [2007] NSWCCA 247; 173 A Crim R 458 at 114:

"[The sentencing judge] was called upon to sentence Tyler in accordance with the principles stated by the High Court in Cameron. This specifically excludes reference to the utilitarian value of the plea. Since the test is the willingness of the offender to facilitate the course of justice, one relevant consideration, at least in some cases, is the strength of the Crown case: this may cast some light upon the question whether the plea of guilty was truly motivated by a willingness to facilitate the course of justice, or, more pragmatically, for example, by recognition of the inevitable. Nor is there any requirement, in sentencing Commonwealth offenders, for quantification of a discount for the plea of guilty."

PRE-SENTENCE CUSTODY

- See **Martinez v R** [2015] NSWCCA 5
- Backdating a sentence to allow credit for pre-sentence custody is the usual and preferable course: **Wiggins v R** [2010] NSWCCA 30 at [2].
- **R v McHugh** (1985) 1 NSWLR 588 at 590-591:

*It is desirable sentencing practice that, where there has been a period of pre-sentence custody exclusively referable to the offences for which sentence is being passed, the commencement of the sentence (and the non-parole or non-probation period) should be back-dated for an equivalent period. This is to be preferred to a process of assessing the proper sentence (and non-parole or non-probation period) and allowing, as it were, a discount in consequence of the pre-sentence custody. The desirable practice will promote the accuracy of the record, preventing there being a hidden factor affecting the length of the custody involved in consequence of the sentencing order. In addition, this practice will remove inequalities and unfairnesses as between prisoners arising from delays prior to sentencing, in particular in relation to remission or reduction entitlements; recognition of this does not infringe the principle in *R v O'Brien* [1984] 2 NSWLR 449 that remissions and reductions are to be disregarded when determining the length of sentences, non-parole and non-probation periods. A judge departing from this practice could be expected to indicate his reason for so doing.*

- **Brown v R** [2013] NSWCCA 44
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PRIOR CONVICTIONS

- Is as an aggravating factor pursuant to **s 21A(2)(d) Crimes (Sentencing) Procedure Act 1999**.
- However it does not increase the seriousness of an offence. "It does not aggravate the offence but is an aggravating factor in determining the appropriate sentence" **R v McNaughton** (2006) 66 NSWLR 566.
- In **Veen v The Queen (No 2)** (1988) 164 CLR 465, the High Court said;

"The antecedent criminal history is relevant, however, to show whether the instant offence is an uncharacteristic aberration or whether the offender has manifested in his commission of the instant offence a continuing attitude of disobedience of the law. In the latter case, retribution, deterrence and protection of society may all indicate that a more severe penalty is warranted".

- In **Hillier v DPP** [2009] NSWCCA 312, Basten JA said:

"Although antecedent criminal history will not affect the objective seriousness of an offence and thus the upper boundary beyond which a sentence could not properly extend, it may be relevant to determining the appropriate sentence within that range, according to the weight placed on considerations such as personal deterrence and related criteria".

- As Gleeson CJ, McHugh, Gummow and Hayne JJ explained in **Weininger v The Queen** (2003) 212 CLR 629 at [32]:

"A person who has been convicted of, or admits to, the commission of other offences will, all other things being equal, ordinarily receive a heavier sentence than a person who has previously led a blameless life. Imposing a sentence heavier than otherwise would have been passed is not to sentence the first person again for offences of which he or she was earlier convicted or to sentence that offender for the offences admitted but not charged. It is to do no more than give effect to the well-established principle (in this case established by statute) that the character and antecedents of the offender are, to the extent that they are relevant and known to the sentencing court, to be taken into account in fixing the sentence to be passed. Taking all aspects, both positive and negative, of an offender's known character and antecedents into

account in sentencing for an offence is not to punish the offender again for those earlier matters; it is to take proper account of matters which are relevant to fixing the sentence under consideration.”

- It is also a **mitigating factor** pursuant to **s 21A(3)(e) Crimes (Sentencing) Procedure Act 1999**.
- However remember s 21A(5AA) - *In determining the appropriate sentence for a child sexual offence, the good character or lack of previous convictions of an offender is not to be taken into account as a mitigating factor if the court is satisfied that the factor concerned was of assistance to the offender in the commission of the offence.*
- **Cramp v R [2016] NSWCCA 305** at [56] and [57]

[56] The applicant’s antecedent criminal history was a relevant matter for consideration by his Honour. It cannot be given such weight as to lead to the imposition of a sentence disproportionate to the gravity of this offence: *R v McNaughton* (2006) 66 NSWLR 566; [2006] NSWCCA 242. Despite this, as the High Court (Mason CJ, Brennan, Dawson and Toohey JJ) observed in *Veen v The Queen [No 2]* (1988) 164 CLR 465; [1988] HCA 14 at 473:

*“It is one thing to say that the principle of proportionality precludes the imposition of a sentence extended beyond what is appropriate to the crime merely to protect society; it is another thing to say that the protection of society is not a material factor in fixing an appropriate sentence. **The distinction in principle is clear between an extension merely by way of preventative detention, which is impermissible, and an exercise of the sentencing discretion having regard to the protection of society among other factors, which is permissible.**”*

[57] As the High Court went on to observe in *Veen v The Queen [No 2]* (at 477), the applicant’s prior record is relevant:

“... to show whether the instant offence is an uncharacteristic aberration or whether the offender has manifested in his commission of the instant offence a continuing attitude of disobedience of the law. In the latter case, retribution, deterrence and protection of society may all indicate that a more severe penalty is warranted.”

PURPOSES OF SENTENCING

- The purposes of sentencing are set out in section 3A of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999 as follows:

(a) to ensure that the offender is adequately punished for the offence,

(b) to prevent crime by deterring the offender and other persons from committing similar offences, [**see GENERAL AND SPECIFIC DETERRENCE**]

(c) to protect the community from the offender, [**also see REHABILITATION & FUTURE DANGEROUSNESS**]

(d) to promote the rehabilitation of the offender, [**also see REHABILITATION**]

(e) to make the offender accountable for his or her actions,

(f) to denounce the conduct of the offender,

(g) to recognise the harm done to the victim of the crime and the community. [**see VICTIMS**]

- It has been held that this section is largely a codification and elaboration of principles of sentencing at common law: **R v MA** (2004) 145 A Crim R 434.
- The complexities in sentencing were expressed in **Veen v The Queen (No 2)** (1988) 164 CLR 465 where Mason CJ, Brennan, Dawson and Toohey JJ said at 476:

“... sentencing is not a purely logical exercise, and the troublesome nature of the sentencing discretion arises in large measure from unavoidable difficulty in giving weight to each of the purposes of punishment. The purposes of criminal punishment are various: protection of society, deterrence of the offender and of others who might be tempted to offend, retribution and reform. The purposes overlap and none of them can be considered in isolation from the others

when determining what is an appropriate sentence in a particular case. They are guideposts to the appropriate sentence but sometimes they point in different directions.”

- There is no attempt to rank the overlapping and sometimes conflicting purposes in s 3A: **Muldrock v The Queen** (2011) 244 CLR 120 at 20.

- **Weininger v The Queen** (2003) 211 CLR 629 at [23]:

“[23] Sentencing is ... a synthesis of competing features which attempts to translate the complexity of the human condition and human behaviour to the mathematics of units of punishment usually expressed in time or money.”

- **Engert** (1995) 84 A Crim R 67 at [68]:

" [68] A moment's consideration will show that the interplay of the considerations relevant to sentencing may be complex and on occasion even intricate. In a given case, facts which point in one direction in relation to one of the considerations to be taken into account may point in a different direction in relation to some other consideration. For example, in the case of a particular offender, an aspect of the case which might mean that deterrence of others is of lesser importance, might, at the same time, mean that the protection of society is of greater importance. That was the particular problem being examined by the court in the case of Veen (No 2). Again, in a particular case, a feature which lessens what might otherwise be the importance of general deterrence, might, at the same time increase the importance of deterrence of the offender."

- The Court of Criminal Appeal in the decision of **Mainwaring v The Queen** [2009] NSWCCA 207 [71] said:

“Any period of imprisonment must be understood for what it is: onerous, unpleasant, oppressive and burdensome. It is, as it should be the last available punitive resort in any civilised system of criminal justice. Public discussions about the need to deter crime by the imposition of heavier sentences are not always obviously, or at least apparently, informed by an

appreciation of the significance of full-time incarceration upon men and women who receive such sentences.”

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- **Faleafga v R** [2016] NSWCCA 178 at [54]:

54 As in all sentencing matters there were relevant factors pointing in opposite directions. The purposes of sentencing as set out in s 3A of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act* 1999 require that the applicant is adequately punished for the offence, that he is made accountable for his actions, that his conduct is denounced, that such crime be prevented by both general and specific deterrence and that the harm done to the victim of the crime and the community be recognised. It is also a purpose of sentencing to promote the rehabilitation of the offender. I am satisfied that all of these purposes can be achieved in this case by the sentence I propose.

QUASI CUSTODY

- Time spent in a full time residential program, either in conformity with a conditional bail requirement, or an adjournment pursuant to section 11 of the Act, may constitute a period of quasi-custody, which may be taken into account by a sentencing judge to reduce the sentence eventually imposed upon an offender: **R v Eastway** NSWCCA (19/05/92); **R v Everingham** NSWCCA (04/07/94); **R v Psaroudis** NSWCCA (01/04/96); **R v Campbell** [1999] NSWCCA 76; **R v Thompson** [2000] NSWCCA 362; **R v Perry** [2000] NSWCCA 375; **R v Fowler** (2003) 151 A Crim R 166; **R v Delaney** (2003) 59 NSWLR 1; **R v Sullivan** (2004) 41 MVR 250.
- A failure of a sentencing judge to take account of time actually spent in a full time residential program would constitute an error in the exercise of the sentencing discretion: **Hughes v R** (2008) 185 A Crim R 155; **Renshaw v R** [2012] NSWCCA 91.
- Residential rehabilitation programs that have been held to constitute quasi-custodial conditions include Odyssey House, the Salvation Army's Bridge Program, Guthrie House, Selah House, the Glen Rehabilitation Centre, ONE80TC (a Teen Challenge initiative), the Northside Clinic and Bennelong Haven.

- A reduction in the sentence imposed does not appear to depend on whether the residential program has been productive. The rationale for the allowance is the need to factor into the sentencing exercise the restriction on the offender's liberty during the period of the program: **Truss v R** [2008] NSWCCA 325.
- It would also appear that the offender's motive for undertaking the program is not considered to be a relevant consideration when determining entitlement to some credit as a result of being subjected to quasi-custody: **R v Delaney** (2003) 59 NSWLR 1.
- To qualify for a discount on sentence, the conditions on the program must closely resemble imprisonment and thus impose a form of punishment on the offender.
- The discount given for time spent in a residential program does not need to be quantified: **R v Sullivan** (2004) 41 MVR 250.
- However, a discount of between 50% and 75% has been considered appropriate: **R v Cartwright** (1989) 17 NSWLR 243; **R v Eastway** NSWCCA (19/05/92).
- See **Brown v R** [2013] NSWCCA 44 for a collection of authorities above and summaries of deductions allowed in other cases. In that case, her Honour Fullerton J said at [27]:

“[27] In this case, I am satisfied that the extended period of residential rehabilitation (totalling 257 days) in which the applicant participated without blemish or breach, coupled with the content of the pre-sentence report dated 2 August 2012, both of which confirmed that the applicant successfully completed both residential rehabilitation programs, and his successful transition to a community-based rehabilitation program (including regular attendance at Alcoholics Anonymous meetings) has demonstrated a level of determination to abstain from his illicit drug use. In addressing what he recognised as the motivating cause of his drug offending, the risk of his future offending may be significantly reduced. For these reasons I am satisfied he is entitled to a discounted sentence at the top of the available discretionary range.”

*[28] I am conscious of the need to ensure that in applying a sentence reduction of the time spent in quasi-custody that the resulting sentence does not fail to reflect the objective seriousness of the offence (see **R v Delaney** [2003] NSWCCA 342; 59 NSWLR 1).*

*[29] On re-sentence I am guided by the decision of Street CJ in **R v McHugh** (1985) 1 NSWLR 588, referred to more recently by Grove J in Hughes at [38] as to the approach to best achieve that result. I propose to backdate the commencement date of the sentence imposed against the applicant by a period of 193 days (being 75 per cent of 257 days)."*

REHABILITATION & INDIVIDUALISED JUSTICE

- Rehabilitation is a concept which is broader than merely avoiding reoffending. In **R v Pogson and ors** [2012] NSWCCA 225 in a joint judgment, McClellan CJ at CL and Johnson J stated (at [122] – [123]):

“By contrast to deterrence, rehabilitation has as its purpose the remodelling of a person’s thinking and behaviour so that they will, notwithstanding their past offending, re-establish themselves in the community with a conscious determination to renounce their wrongdoing and establish or re-establish themselves as an honourable law abiding citizen: Vartzokas v Zanker at 279 (King CJ).

In this sense, every offender is in need of rehabilitation. Some may need greater assistance than others. It has been commonplace to speak of “paying your debt” to society. That phrase, in colloquial parlance, captures the essence of rehabilitation, enabling the offender to re-establish him or herself as an honourable member of the community.”

- In **R v Blackman and Walters** [2001] NSWCCA 121 the Court of Criminal Appeal dismissed a Crown appeal against the suspension of a sentence for a serious armed robbery. The Court cited with approval King CJ’s remarks in **Yardley v Betts** (1979) 22 SASR 108 (at para 44):

“The protection of the community is also contributed to by the successful rehabilitation of offenders. This aspect of sentencing should never be lost sight of and it assumes particular importance in the case of first offenders and others who have not developed settled criminal habits. If a sentence had the effect of turning an offender towards a criminal way of life, the protection of the community is to that extent impaired. If the sentence induces or assists an order to avoid offending in the future, the protection of the community is to that extent enhanced. To say that the criminal law exists for the protection of the community is not to say that severity is to be regarded as the sentencing norm...”

- In **R v Osenkowski** (1982) 5 A Crim R694, King CJ said:

“There must always be a place for the exercise of mercy where a sentencing judge’s sympathies are reasonably excited by circumstances of the case.

There must always be a place for the leniency which has traditionally been extended, even to offenders with bad records, almost intuitively in the case of experienced judges, that leniency at the particular stage of the offender's life might lead to reform".

- In **R v Lattouf** NSWCCA (12/12/96), Mahoney ACJ said:

"It is in my opinion necessary that the law allow to the sentencing judge discretion to determine the sentence appropriate for the particular offence, for the particular offender, and for the circumstances of the particular case... General principles must, of their nature, be adjusted to the individual case if justice is to be achieved... Paramount amongst these is the achievement of justice in the individual case. To see the sentencing process as involving no more than stern punishment for each offender is not merely simplistic; it damages the public interest. A sentencing process which is seen by the public merely as draconian and not just will lose the support of those whom it is designed to protect. If a sentencing process does not achieve justice, it should be put aside...If justice is not individual, it is nothing.

But in addition, a sentencing process must be capable of discriminating between cases...There is, as I have said, a public interest in punishment. But if the desire to punish results in a person who would otherwise not become a confirmed criminal becoming such, that sentencing process is inconsistent with the public interest...It is to be recognised that imprisonment may convert a person who will not be a persistent criminal into one who is. Particularly is this so where the person to be sentenced is a first offender of a comparatively young age whose family circumstances are such that he may, with assistance, not become a criminal. It would be wrong to the individual and costly to the community not to attempt the rehabilitation of such a person".

- **R v DH; R v AH** [2014] NSWCCA 326 Button J at [104]:

*"[104] The respect which this Court must pay to the role of a sentencing judge (see *Mulato v R* [2006] NSWCCA 282) extends to respecting the discretion of a sentencing judge to impose a wholly exceptional sentence where the circumstances are suitably exceptional. That is what is meant by "individualised justice".*

- Also see **Brown v R** [2014] NSWCCA 335 – remarkable rehab; drug addiction. Hidden J at [29] – [30]:

“[29] It does not appear from his remarks on sentence that his Honour approached the matter in this way. This is a case in which the applicant was entitled to a measure of leniency for the reasons articulated by Simpson J in the passage from her judgment in Henry which I have quoted in [27] above. Equally, it is a case in which, to adopt her Honour's words in the passage last cited, it was "appropriate...for the rehabilitative aspects of sentencing to assume a more significant role than might otherwise be the case." There was also "strong evidence of real progress towards actual rehabilitation." That said, while I myself might assess his prospects of rehabilitation as better than "somewhat guarded", it is important that a sentence be structured so as to afford him the opportunity of a lengthy period of conditional liberty, subject to supervision and the sanction of parole. To that end, like his Honour, I would find special circumstances.

[30] While taking these matters into account, it remains necessary to pass a sentence which adequately reflects the applicant's criminality. However, the non-parole period, while also meeting the need for an appropriate measure of punishment and retribution, must recognise the progress he has made towards defeating his drug addiction and encourage him to remain on that rehabilitative path. The balance of term I propose would provide for a lengthy period of supervision and maintain the sanction of parole for a further period thereafter.”

- And RS Hulme AJ [36]:

“[36] For someone who was in the applicant's situation, his achievements are remarkable. They lessen greatly the weight needing to be given to personal deterrence, rehabilitation and the protection of the community in determining the length of the applicant's non parole period. No doubt his reform has its own rewards but it enables the Court also to provide some reward.”

- **R v Omar** [2015] NSWCCA 67 – total and complete rehab in intervening period. Strong relationship.
- **R v DH; R v AH** [2014] NSWCCA 326 - Wholly exceptional sentence; children

REHABILITATION AND FUTURE DANGEROUSNESS

- Parliament did not intend by the enactment of s 3A(c) to introduce a system of preventative detention contrary to the principles expressed by the High Court in **Veen v The Queen (No 2)** (1988) 164 CLR 465: **Aslett v R** [2006] NSWCCA 49 at [137].

- In **R v Zamagias** [2002] NSWCCA 17 Howie J said at [32]:

"[32] It is perhaps trite to observe that, although the purpose of punishment is the protection of the community, that purpose can be achieved in an appropriate case by a sentence designed to assist in the rehabilitation of the offender at the expense of deterrence, retribution and denunciation. In such a case a suspended sentence may be particularly effective and appropriate."

- In **Fardon v Attorney General for the State of Queensland** (2004) 223 CLR 575 at [12] Gleeson CJ said:

"[12] The way in which the criminal justice system should respond to the case of the prisoner who represents a serious danger to the community upon release is an almost intractable problem. No doubt, predictions of future danger may be unreliable, but, as the case of Veen shows, they may also be right. Common law sentencing principles, and some legislative regimes, permit or require such predictions at the time of sentencing, which will often be many years before possible release. If, as a matter of policy, the unreliability of such predictions is a significant factor, it is not necessarily surprising to find a legislature attempting to postpone the time for prediction until closer to the point of release."

- Kirby J in the same decision at [124]:

"[124] Experts in law, psychology and criminology have long recognised the unreliability of predictions of criminal dangerousness."

- Findings as to future dangerousness and likelihood of reoffending do not need to be established beyond reasonable doubt: **R v SLD** (2003) 58 NSWLR 589 at [40]:

“[40] A sentencing judge is not bound to disregard the risk that a prisoner would pose for society in the future if he was at liberty merely because he or she cannot find on the criminal onus that the prisoner would re-offend. The view that the risk of future criminality can only be determined on the criminal standard is contrary to all the High Court decisions since Veen (No 1).”

- Also see **R v McNamara** [2004] NSWCCA 42 at [20] – [30].

- In **Wray v R** [2014] NSWCCA 166 at [41]

“[41]...Although the past is not always repeated in the future, it is a guide to what may occur, particularly when past conduct, as in the present case, arises from a mental condition which, when acted on, necessarily results in criminal conduct.”

- In the decision in **Holyoak** (1995) 82 A Crim R 502, Allen J said:

“It is, of course, clear that a sentence imposed upon an offender when he is of such an age that, should him not die in jail, he will have little worthwhile life left after his release is likely to bear more heavily upon the offender than a similar term imposed upon a younger man who can look forward to a worthwhile life after release... The real question, as I see, it is whether the objective gravity of the offences in the present case were such that it is within the proper bounds of judicial discretion for his honour to impose the sentence that he did not withstanding what, having regard to the applicant’s age, the consequences well might be. It simply is not the law that it never can be appropriate to impose a minimum term which will have the effects, because of the advanced age of the offender, that he may well spend the whole of his remaining life in custody”.

- **Cowling v R** [2015] NSWCCA 213 at [36]-[44] re. utility of sex offender risk of re-offending assessment.

Re: Absence of evidence of motive & the dangerousness of the offender

- **Cramp v R** [2016] NSWCCA 305

[25] “... Howie J (McClellan CJ at CL and Grove J agreeing) in *Louizos v R*; *R v Louizos* (2009) 194 A Crim R 223; [2009] NSWCCA 71 at [102]:

“An offence is not mitigated by the fact that no comprehensible motive can be shown. Motive is like any other aspect of the circumstances surrounding the commission of an offence. The Crown is only required to prove the elements of the crime charged. If the Crown wishes to rely upon motive as an aggravating feature, the Crown must prove it beyond reasonable doubt. If the accused contends that the motive is a mitigating factor, the accused is required to prove it on the balance of probabilities. **If the court cannot determine what motivated the offender, it follows that it is not a factor that can be taken into account in determining the objective seriousness of the offence or in any other way relevant to sentencing.**” [Emphasis added.]”

...

[27] The final sentence of the passage from *Louizos v R* quoted at [15] was not intended by the Court to be a general statement, for all cases, that where no specific motive can be proved the subject of motive cannot be relevant to any factor which may bear upon the exercise of the sentencing discretion. If such a meaning had been intended by their Honours it would have been wider than necessary for the determination of the appeal then before the Court.

...

[31] What his Honour appears to have meant by the part of his remarks that is challenged under this ground is no more than that the need for the Court to sentence the applicant on the basis that he posed a danger to the community was confirmed and the degree of risk against which the community was to be protected was heightened by the circumstance that no motive for the murder was apparent. Absent proof of a motive, there was no causal explanation of the crime such as might be taken into account in calculating whether repetition of the circumstances which led to it was likely or whether the applicant’s prospects of rehabilitation were greater or less. We consider that no error is shown in this respect.”

REMORSE

S 21A(3)(i) the remorse shown by the offender for the offence, but only if:

- (i) the offender has provided evidence that he or she has accepted responsibility for his or her actions, and
- (ii) the offender has acknowledged any injury, loss or damage caused by his or her actions or made reparation for such injury, loss or damage (or both)

- In **Butters v R** [2010] NSWCCA 1, Fullerton J said:

"[16] There is no statutory requirement that an offender must give evidence before remorse can be taken into account in the calculation of sentence..."

[17] On a proper construction, section 21A(3)(i) of the Act requires an offender to provide evidence that he or she has accepted responsibility for his or her actions and has acknowledged any injury, loss or damage caused by his or her actions or any reparation for such injury, loss or damage (or both), as a statutory precondition to any reliance on remorse as a mitigating factor. The requirement to provide evidence before remorse can be relied upon does not equate with a requirement that an offender give evidence either of remorse generally or of the matters set out in the section".

- In **Alvarez v R; Farache v R** [2011] NSWCCA 33, Buddin J said:

"[66] It is important to emphasise that the court was not taken to any decision in which it has been authoritatively stated that an offender will only be entitled to the benefit of a finding of remorse in the event that he or she gives sworn evidence to that effect...Indeed it would be surprising if there was any such authority because it is readily apparent that an offender may, in some circumstances, demonstrate remorse by either words or conduct without giving sworn evidence...There are other types of conduct on the part of an offender which may well also be indicative of remorse".

- **Mariam v R; R v Mariam** [2013] NSWCCA 338 Simpson J (Price and RA Hulme JJ agreeing) at [64]:

“[64]...although it is well established that remorse may be taken into account as a mitigating factor in sentencing, some attention needs to be paid to the logic of doing so. Genuine remorse may be an indicator of the unlikelihood of further offending, in which case it may have significant relevance. If it is not indicative of that likelihood, I see little relevance in such evidence.”

- **Stojanovski v R** [2013] NSWCCA 334, Simpson J at [41]: *“In my opinion, remorse is to be seen as a mitigating factor because it is a concomitant of rehabilitation, meaning that future offending is unlikely or less likely.”*
 - A failure to express remorse does not disentitle an offender to a finding that his prospects of rehabilitation are good: **BP v R** [2010] NSWCCA 159 at [84] per Johnson J (Hodgson JA and Rothman J agreeing), citing **Alseedi v R** [2009] NSWCCA 185 at [65] and **Ali v R** [2010] NSWCCA 35 at [48].
 - It is accepted that statements by the offender expressing his or her acceptance of responsibility, contrition and remorse for the commission of the offences to the expert witnesses may have reduced weight in circumstances where the offender has not given sworn evidence: **R v Quatami** [2001] NSWCCA 353; **R v Palu** (2002) 134 A Crim R 174.
 - However, the authorities do not suggest that reliance cannot be placed on what an offender has said to any expert witness.
-

ROLE OF THE OFFENDER

- In **Regina v JW** [2010] NSWCCA 10 Spigelman CJ said that it was always relevant to refer to the particular conduct of each participant to identify the level of culpability for which each offender is to be sentenced (at para [161]). Recently it was said that while each of the offenders is legally responsible for what all acts carried out in furtherance of the enterprise, it is necessary to refer to the particular conduct of each participant to identify the individual culpability: **KR v Regina** [2012] NSWCCA 32 esp at paras [18] to [19].
 - Re. DRUGS – see **Nguyen v The Queen** [2011] NSWCCA 92
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SENTENCING STATISTICS and COMPARABLE CASES

- **Hili v The Queen** [2010] 520 CLR 537

*[54] In Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v De La Rosa, Simpson J accurately identified the proper use of information about sentences that have been passed in other cases. As her Honour pointed out, a history of sentencing can establish a range of sentences that have in fact been imposed. That history does not establish that the range is the correct range, or that the upper or lower limits to the range are the correct upper and lower limits. As her Honour said: “**Sentencing patterns are, of course, of considerable significance in that they result from the application of the accumulated experience and wisdom of first instance judges and of appellate courts**”. But the range of sentences that have been imposed in the past does not fix “the boundaries within which future judges must, or even ought, to sentence”. Past sentences “are no more than historical statements of what has happened in the past. They can, and should, provide guidance to sentencing judges, and to appellate courts, and stand as a yardstick against which to examine a proposed sentence”. [Emphasis added.] When considering past sentences, “it is only by examination of the whole of the circumstances that have given rise to the sentence that ‘unifying principles’ may be discerned”.*

- **Barbaro v The Queen; Zirilli v The Queen** [2014] HCA 2 at [40] referring to **Hili**:

[40] Consistency in sentencing is important, however what is sought is consistency in the application of relevant legal principles, not numerical equivalence.

[41] ...Other cases may establish a range of sentences which have been imposed. But that history does not establish that the sentences which have been imposed mark the outer bounds of the permissible discretion.

- **Gavin v R** [2013] NSWCCA 99

"In the state jurisdiction, section 8 of the Judicial Officers Act 1986 renders information, including reports, about sentencing disseminated by the Judicial

*Commission a relevant consideration to be taken into account in the interests of consistency...But strict limits remain...As Simpson J said in Director of Public Prosecutions (Cth) v. De La Rosa [2010] NSWCCA 194, **sentencing is peculiarly individual**. It must be exercised by the individual judge, in respect of the individual offender and, of course, in respect of the particular offending...Also, as the High Court pointed out in Muldrock v. The Queen [2011] HCA 39, the sentencing task requires the judge to identify fully the facts, matters and circumstances which the judge concludes bear upon the judgment that is reached about the appropriate sentence to be imposed".*

- **Brown v R** [2014] NSWCCA 215

"In offences such as the one with which the Court is here concerned, the statistics from the Judicial Commission are a particularly blunt tool because the injuries which were actually inflicted are not described. Whether the sentences which were imposed upon offender who had a prior criminal history, and what that criminal history was, are not described and, the range of possible factual circumstances involved in an offences such as this is broad."

- **Browning** [2015] NSWCCA 147:

Barbaro is not authority for the proposition that the obligation of a prosecutor to render assistance to the Court has been entirely removed. The Crown has a duty to assist a sentencing court to avoid appealable error: at [144]-[146]; *CMB v AG (NSW)* (2015) 89 ALJR 407 at [38]; [64]. The only submission by the prosecutor was that the judge would fall into appealable error if he imposed a sentence reflecting either of the two proposals by the applicant's lawyer, in accordance with his duty: at [148].

- **Newman** [2015] NSWCCA 270

The CCA allowed the applicant's appeal against sentence for wound with intent to inflict grievous bodily harm (s 33(1)(a) *Crimes Act*). The CCA took into consideration comparable cases. The Court noted:

Consideration of other sentences imposed is essential if consistency is to be achieved: at [19]. The administration of criminal justice should be systematically fair, and that involves, amongst other things, reasonable consistency: at [22]; *Wong* per Gleeson CJ at [6].

Regard must be had to all of the factors before the other sentencing court - objective circumstances, when a plea of guilty was entered, antecedents and personal attributes of the offender, whether a standard non-parole period applied: at [20].

Bare statistics tell very little that is useful without **why** those sentences were fixed: *Wong* (2001) 207 CLR 584 at [59].

Past sentences provide guidance and stand as a yardstick against which to examine a proposed sentence. When considering past sentences, 'it is only by examination of the whole of the circumstances that have given rise to the sentence that 'unifying principles' may be discerned": at [23]; *Hilli* at [54]; *DPP (Cth) v De La Rosa* (2010) 79 NSWLR 1 at [303]-[305], *Green* (2011) 244 CLR 462 at [28]-[29].

The CCA said that, for sentences under s 33(1), severity of the wound or bodily harm and long term effects of the injury are given considerable weight: at [25].

- **Denham v R [2016] NSWCCA 309**

[46]: "Prior to the introduction of the *Sentencing Act*, a system of remissions operated such that the head sentence could be reduced by executive act by up to a half: see *MPB v R* at [26] and *Rosenstrauss v R* [2012] NSWCCA 25 at [11]. It was not until 1984 that the Probation and Parole Regulation 1984 (NSW) provided that remissions were to be applied to the non-parole period as well: *MPB v R* at [27]. It was as a result of the operation of the remissions system prior to 1984 that courts would generally fix the non-parole period as being between a third and a half of the head sentence; if they did not, the prisoner would be released before the expiration of the non-parole period: *R v Maclay* (1990) 19 NSWLR 112 at 117-118; 46 A Crim R 340 at 345 - 346."

[49]: "It is clear from the authorities cited above that sentences imposed during the period with which the present case was concerned involved the imposition of non-parole periods comprising between 35% and 50% of the head sentence: *MPB v R* at [26] and [93]; *Henderson* at [46]."

[109]: "The application of principle, it seems to us, means that while it is necessary to take into account the fact that non-parole periods of between 35-50% of the head sentence were fixed in relation to sentences imposed between 1968 and 1986, no mere mechanical or mathematical transposition of that percentage approach to the task required by the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act* is warranted. It remains critical that the non-parole period fixed by this Court represents the minimum period of imprisonment required to be served by an offender having regard to all of the purposes of justice."

SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES

- **Caristo v R** [2011] NSWCCA 7:

There is no specific or normal ratio of the non-parole period to the total head sentence where a sentencing judge court has made a finding of special circumstances.

- **R v El-Hayek** (2004) 144 A Crim R 90:

The reform of the offender will often be the significant purpose in the sentencing judge making a finding of special circumstances, but not necessarily the sole purpose. The full range of subjective considerations of the offender may be sufficient for a sentencing judge to make a finding of special circumstances.

- **R v Simpson** (2001) 53 NSWLR 704 Spigelman CJ said:

"The words special circumstances appear in numerous statutory provisions. They are words of indeterminate reference and will always take their colour from their surroundings. The non-parole period is to be determined by what the sentencing judge concludes that all of the circumstances of the case, including the need for rehabilitation, indicate ought to be the minimum period of actual incarceration"

- **R v Cramp** [2004] NSWCCA 264 at [31]; **Trad v R** [2009] NSWCCA 56; (2009) 194 A Crim R 20 at [33];

"The degree of departure from the proportions dictated by s 44(1) of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act is a discretionary decision that raises "so many matters of a discretionary character..."

- **R v Tuuta** [2014] NSWCCA 40 at [57]:

"Circumstances which are not properly regarded as being "special" should not be elevated into that category (see R v Simpson (2001) 53 NSWLR 704 per Spigelman CJ at 719; [68]; R v Fidow [2004] NSWCCA 172 per Spigelman CJ at [20]). In order for special circumstances to be made out there must exist significant positive signs

which show that if the offender is allowed a longer period on parole, rehabilitation is likely to be successful, and that this is not merely a possibility (see *R v Carter* [2003] NSWCCA 243 at [20])”

- **Arnold v R** (2011) NSWCCA 150 is support for the proposition that a basis for a finding of special circumstances is the fact that the offender has good prospects of rehabilitation. In *Arnold*, a sentence for serious assault, good prospects of rehabilitation were one of a number of matters seen to *justify* a finding of special circumstances. That finding was supported by evidence of continuous employment of the offender, good family support and support from a victim.
- **Sabongi v R** [2015] NSWCCA 25.
- **MD** [2015] NSWCCA 37

The CCA allowed the applicant’s appeal on the basis the sentence failed to reflect the judge’s finding of special circumstances. Gleeson JA (Johnson and Hall JJ agreeing) collected the authorities relevant to this type of submission:

39. First, the non-parole period is the minimum period of actual incarceration that the offender must spend in custody having regard to all the elements of punishment, including rehabilitation, the objective seriousness of the offence and the offender’s subjective circumstances: *Power v R* [1974] HCA 26; 131 CLR 623 at 627-629; *R v Simpson* [2001] NSWCCA 534; 53 NSWLR 704 at [59]; *R v Cramp* [2004] NSWCCA 264 at [34].
40. Secondly, simply because there are circumstances which are *capable* of constituting special circumstances, does not compel the Court to make such a finding and reduce the non-parole period: *R v Fidow* [2004] NSWCCA 172 at [22]. The decision to find special circumstances is first, one of fact, to identify the circumstances and secondly, one of judgment, to determine that those circumstances justify a lowering of the non-parole period below the statutory ratio: *R v Simpson* at [73]. The degree or extent of any adjustment of the “statutory ratio” is a matter for the discretion of the sentencing judge: *R v Cramp* at [31]; *Trad v R* [2009] NSWCCA 56; 194 A Crim R 20 at [33].
41. Thirdly, in setting an effective a non-parole period for more than one offence the focus should not be solely upon the percentage proportions that the non-parole and parole periods bear to the total term: “the actual

periods involved are equally, and probably more, important” (*Caristo v R* at 42 (R A Hulme J)).

- **R v Dashti [2016] NSWCCA 251**

“[83] In *R v Simpson* [2001] NSWCCA 534; 53 NSWLR 704 at [73], Spigelman CJ described the process involved in finding special circumstances:

“The decision is first one of fact – to identify the circumstances – and, secondly, one of judgment – to determine that those circumstances justify a lower proportionate relationship between the non-parole period and the head sentence.”

...

[86] The Chief Justice accepted, at [58], that consideration of “*the desirability of a longer than computed period of supervision*” so as to assist or promote an offender’s rehabilitation, will be an appropriate approach in many cases. However, it was not the only perspective to be considered in determining whether to make a finding of special circumstances. The Chief Justice pointed out, at [65], that the exercise of the discretion to depart from the statutory ratio is limited both by the need to find “*special circumstances*”, and by:

“... the need to ensure that the time an offender must spend in prison reflects all of the circumstances of the offence and the offender – including the objective gravity of the offence and the need for general deterrence – operates to confine the proper range for the exercise of the discretion.”

...

[89] Thus, a very wide range of factors are capable of constituting special circumstances, although the particular circumstance must be “*sufficiently special*” to justify a departure from the statutory ratio in a particular case: *R v Fidow* [2004] NSWCCA 172 at [22].

[90] In *Collier v R* [2012] NSWCCA 213, McClellan CJ at CL (R A Hulme and Schmidt JJ agreeing) expressed doubt that the fact of being in custody for the first time was capable of constituting special circumstances. As his Honour stated, at [36]:

“The fact that a person has no previous criminal record and, accordingly, has not previously been incarcerated is a matter relevant to the total sentence and non-parole period. However, it is unlikely to be a circumstance warranting further leniency to an offender by a reduction in the term of the non-parole period: *R v Fidow*... at [18] (Spigelman CJ). Many persons who are sentenced will receive a sentence of imprisonment for the first time. That fact alone is unlikely to justify a finding that the offender’s circumstances are special.”

[91] In *R v Van Ryn* [2016] NSWCCA 1 at [200] R A Hulme J (Leeming JA and Johnson J agreeing), after referring to cases raising doubts about the soundness of findings of special circumstances based on the fact that a person will be in custody for the first time, held that there had been no error in the making of such a finding in

circumstances in which there was another more significant basis for it, namely, the need for a lengthier non-parole period for treatment purposes.

[92] The authorities establish, therefore, that a finding of special circumstances based upon it being the offender’s first time in custody will ordinarily bear little if any weight unless the finding of special circumstances can be supported by other factors.”

- **R v Lulham [2016] NSWCCA 287**

Per Bathurst CJ:

[7]: In dealing with the question of special circumstances, Bellew J has stated that, before such a finding can be made, it is necessary for a sentencing judge to be satisfied that there exists significant positive signs which show that if the offender is allowed a longer period on parole, rehabilitation is likely to be successful as opposed to a mere possibility. I agree there must be evidence on which a finding of special circumstances is based. However, in dealing with rehabilitation, it seems to me a judge would be entitled to find special circumstances if there is evidence before him or her that demonstrates that the offender has prospects of rehabilitation and that these prospects would be assisted if a longer parole period was allowed...

Per Beazley J:

[8]: I have had the advantage of reading in draft the reasons of Bathurst CJ and Bellew J and N Adams J. Save for the observations made by Bellew J at [54] that “*a sentencing judge must be satisfied that there exist significant positive signs which show that if the offender is allowed a longer period on parole, rehabilitation is likely to be successful as opposed to a mere possibility*”, I agree with his Honour’s reasons and proposed order. I also agree with the additional reasons of the Chief Justice and N Adams J. I wish only to make the following brief observations in respect of the question of special circumstances.

[9]: As this Court explained in *R v Dashti* [2016] NSWCCA 251 at [84] a finding of special circumstances is integrally linked with the determination of an appropriate parole period. Although the statement of Bellew J to which I have referred in the previous paragraph is supported by authority, regard must always be had to the context in which a particular statement is made. The seemingly unqualified nature of his Honour’s observation would not be appropriate in every case.

[10]: An obvious, but not the only circumstance where his Honour’s observation may not be appropriate, is in the case of a long prison sentence where the prospects of rehabilitation may be difficult to assess or, at that stage, even be non-existent. The Court may nonetheless be satisfied that a finding of special circumstances is appropriate to assist or promote an offender’s rehabilitation. As Spigelman CJ

explained in *R v Simpson* (2001) 53 NSWLR 704; [2001] NSWCCA 534 at [58], that may be an appropriate approach to the question of special circumstances in a given case: see generally the discussion in *Dashti* at [81]-[91].

Per Bellew J:

[54]: There is no statutory definition of “special circumstances”, but a finding that such circumstances are established is integrally linked with the determination of an appropriate non-parole period, that being the minimum period for which an offender must be kept in detention in relation to the offence: *R v Dashti*[2016] NSWCCA 251 at [84] per the Court (Beazley P, Garling and Fagan JJ). A wide range of factors are capable of constituting special circumstances: *Dashti* (supra) at [89]. However before a finding of special circumstances can be made, it is necessary for a sentencing judge to be satisfied that there exist significant positive signs which show that if the offender is allowed a longer period on parole, rehabilitation is likely to be successful as opposed to a mere possibility: *R v Carter* [2003] NSWCCA 243 at [20]; *R v Tuuta* [2014] NSWCCA 40; (2014) 239 A Crim R 399 at [57]).

STANDARD NON-PAROLE PERIODS

- The High Court in **Muldrock** stated that the standard non-parole period is only one aspect of the larger task of sentencing. It should not be the starting point or the endpoint in arriving at a sentence. Instead a sentencing judge is required to identify all the factors that are relevant to sentencing. In doing so I have been mindful of the two legislative guideposts: the maximum sentence and the standard non-parole period.
- The statutory scheme does not require the court to ask where the particular criminal conduct of the offender falls in comparison with the judge's own abstract notion of an offence in the mid range: See *Muldrock v The Queen* at [29].
- The High Court in ***Muldrock v The Queen*** (2011) 244 CLR 120 at [28] rejected the idea that sentencing judges were required to hypothesise an abstract offence, or to compare the objective seriousness of the offence for which the offender is being sentenced with this abstract offence. The Court of Criminal Appeal appears to have accepted that the decision of the High Court in ***Muldrock*** has 'weakened the link between the standard non-parole period and the sentence imposed in a particular case' and 'diminished the role to be accorded to the standard non-parole period': see ***Regina v Koloamatangi*** [2011] NSWCCA 288 at paras [18] and [19].

"Muldrock affirmed (at [26]) that the **broad ranging and flexible inquiry** envisaged by s 21A and confirmed in *Markarian* was **not subjected to a procedural straitjacket** in respect of particular offences by the introduction of Div 1A into Part 4": ***Koloamatangi*** at [17].

- In ***Regina v Koloamatangi*** the Court of Criminal Appeal said that it was not clear if the court was required to, or permitted to, or prohibited from classifying the offence as being in the low, middle or high range of objective seriousness at para [19], see also ***Butler v Regina*** [2012] NSWCCA 23 esp at para [23], ***Regina v Martin*** [2013] NSWCCA 24 at para [38]).
- Probably the better view is that the court is not required to, but may, so classify the offence for which the offender is to be sentenced. The CCA has said that it is still necessary for the sentencing judge to consider the objective gravity of the offence, and the moral culpability of the offender, but commented that the High

Court has left 'somewhat opaque' the meaning of the term 'objective seriousness': **Zreika v Regina** [2012] NSWCCA 44 at para [47].

- S54A(2) reflects the decision in **Muldrock** in that the standard non-parole period only takes into account the objective factors affecting the relative seriousness of the offence.
- Also s 54B.
- The SNPP does not apply if the offender was under 18 at the time of the offending: s 54D(3).
- **R v Campbell** [2014] NSWCCA 102, Simpson J (with whom Hall J agreed):

*[28] A "legislative guide post" is an instrument of measurement. Standing alone, it is meaningless. It is used to measure the relevant features of a particular instance of a crime against (in the case of the maximum penalty) a worst case: see **Markarian**, [30]-[31]; (in the case of the standard non-parole period) an offence in the mid-range of objective seriousness.*

- The offence/s carry standard non-parole periods as a result of the introduction of Div 1A into Part 4 of the Crimes Sentencing Procedure Act. Since the decision of the High Court in **Muldrock v The Queen** (2011) HCA 39, the objective seriousness of the offence is determined without reference to matters personal to the offender but wholly by reference to the nature of the offending. Furthermore, the fixing of the non-parole period is but part of the task whereby the court determines what is an appropriate sentence. The court must identify all relevant matters bearing upon the question of the appropriate sentence in the process of an intuitive synthesis identified in **Markarian v Regina** (2005) 228 CLR 357 at 378.
- The standard non-parole period should not be the starting point or the endpoint in arriving at a sentence. I am required to identify all the factors that are relevant to sentencing. In doing so I must be mindful of the two legislative guideposts: the maximum sentence and the standard non-parole period. The broad ranging and flexible enquiry envisaged by s21A is not subjected to a procedural straitjacket in respect of particular offences by the introduction of the standard non-parole period regime.

STATUTORY AGGRAVATING FACTORS

- Where a judge is sentencing an offender for a number of matters, and he/she refers to aggravating features generally which are elements of some of the offences (such as using weapons when there is an armed robbery count), error is established: **Street** [2005] NSWCCA 139 at paras [32] to [34].
- If an aggravating factor applies to some of the offences for which an offender is being sentenced, but not all of them, the sentencing judge must indicate which of the offences are ones in which the aggravating factors are taken into account: **Tadrosse** (2005) 65 NSWLR 740 at para [22].
- In **Mansour v R** [2011] NSWCCA 28, Price J said:

*"It is well established that a factor should not be taken into account as an aggravating factor under section 21A(2) of the Act if it is either an element of the offence for which the offender is being sentenced or an inherent characteristic of that kind of offence...A factor, which is an inherent characteristic of the kind of offence for which the offender is being sentenced, cannot be taken into account as an aggravating factor under section 21A(2) of the Act, unless its nature or extent in the particular case is unusual. As Simpson J observed in **R v Yildiz** (2006) 160 A Crim R 218, this principle does not mean that the degree to which the inherent characteristic exists in relation to a particular offence may not, where it exceeds the norm, be taken into account as an aggravating factor. It follows that the sentencing judge could not take into account this inherent characteristic as an aggravating factor unless its nature or extent went beyond what ordinarily might be expected".*

- In **Ta and Nguyen v R** [2011] NSWCCA 32, James J said:

"It has been established by a series of cases in this Court that a factor should not be taken into account as an aggravating factor, to which additional regard can be had in sentencing, if it is either an element of the offence for which the offender is being sentenced, or an inherent characteristic of that kind of offence. A factor, which is an inherent characteristic of the kind of offence for which the offender is being sentenced, can be taken into account as an aggravating factor to which additional regard can be had only if its nature or extent in the particular case is unusual".

(a) the victim was a police officer, emergency services worker, correctional officer, judicial officer, council law enforcement officer, health worker, teacher, community worker, or other public official, exercising public or community functions and the offence arose because of the victim's occupation or voluntary work

(b) the offence involved the actual or threatened use of violence

Actual violence is not an aggravating factor in relation to a robbery offence due to it being an element of the offence: **Aslett v R** [2006] NSWCCA 49.

Threatened use of violence is not necessarily an element and can be taken into account in assessing seriousness: **Hamze v R** [2006] NSWCCA 36; **R v Dougan** (2006) 160 A Crim R 135.

(c) the offence involved the actual or threatened use of a weapon

(ca) the offence involved the actual or threatened use of explosives or a chemical or biological agent

(cb) the offence involved the offender causing the victim to take, inhale or be affected by a narcotic drug, alcohol or any other intoxicating substance

(d) the offender has a record of previous convictions – SEE PRIOR CONVICTIONS

(e) the offence was committed in company

(ea) the offence was committed in the presence of a child under 18 years of age

The CCA found it was an error to take into account as an aggravating feature the “generalised presence” of the child: **McLaughlin** [2013] NSWCCA 152.

Strict proof is required: **Gore v R**; **Hunter v R** [2010] NSWCCA 330; (2010) 208 A Crim R 353

(eb) the offence was committed in the home of the victim or any other person,

Jonson v R [2016] NSWCCA 286 at [40]-[42], [50], [52]:

“[40]: ... First, the section in its terms does not impose as a pre-condition for its operation that the offender be an intruder into the victim's home. Second, the aggravating factor is not limited to the home of the victim but extends to the home of any other person. On a literal construction, this could, hardly surprisingly, include the offender's home. It seems to me that, in those circumstances, the legislator did not intend that the operation of the section was limited to circumstances where the offender was an intruder either in the victim's home or some other home.

[41]: That construction promotes the purpose of the section, namely, that a home is a place which should be safe and secure for persons who reside, or are otherwise present, at such a place. Thus, it would extend to persons (for example, children) visiting a relative's home or, for that matter, persons in a domestic relationship at the home of the offender.

[42]: That construction is also consistent with the purpose of the legislature outlined in the Second Reading Speech introducing the subsection...

...

[50]: In these circumstances, I am unable to agree that there is a rule of law within the meaning of that expression in s 21A(4) of the *Sentencing Procedure Act* that the fact that the offence was committed in the victim's home can only be an aggravating factor on sentence if the offender is an intruder. Whilst I am conscious of the care which should be taken in overruling previous decisions of this Court (see, for example, *Nguyen v Nguyen* (1989) 169 CLR 245; [1989] HCA 9 at 269), I am of the view that the decisions which attributed this principle to *Comert* are plainly wrong and should be overruled.

...

[52]: ... The fact that s 21A(2)(eb) can extend beyond offences committed by an intruder does not mean that in all cases the fact that the offence occurred in a home will be an aggravating factor. It is necessary for the Court to conclude that, having regard to ordinary sentencing principles, it actually aggravates the offence in question: *Gore v The Queen* [2010] NSWCCA 330; (2010) 208 A Crim R 353 at [29]."

R v Lulham [2016] NSWCCA 287 at [24]-[25]:

"[24]: It should be noted at this point that the sentencing judge's finding that the offending was aggravated by the fact that the victim was attacked in his own home raised the question of the proper interpretation of s. 21A(2)(eb) of the *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999* (NSW). In particular, it raised the question whether the fact that an offence occurred at a victim's home can be taken into account as an aggravating factor, in circumstances where the offender was not an intruder but was entitled to be at the victim's home at the time of the offence.

[25]: The same issue was raised in the matter of *Jonson v R* [2016] NSWCCA 286 which was heard on the same day as this matter. The Court heard submissions on this issue in the course of hearing both appeals. Those submissions are summarised in the judgment of Bathurst CJ in *Jonson* at [11]-[21]. The Chief Justice (with whom the other members of the Court agreed)

concluded (at [40]) that the Parliament did not intend that the operation of s. 21A(2)(eb) be limited to circumstances where the offender was an intruder, either in the victim's home or in some other home. Accordingly, the offending in the present case was aggravated in the way in which the sentencing judge found."

Drew v R [2016] NSWCCA 310 at [111]:

[111]: "As Bathurst CJ (with whom Beazley P, Hall, Bellew JJ and I agreed) held in **Jonson v R [2016] NSWCCA 286** (at [50]) s 21A(2)(eb) of the CSP Act is not limited to cases where the offender is an intruder into the home of the victim. Despite this, his Honour went on to observe at [52] that the fact that s 21A(2)(eb) is not so limited does not mean that in all cases the fact that the offence occurred in a home will be an aggravating factor. It is necessary for the Court to conclude that, having regard to ordinary sentencing principles, it actually aggravates the offence in question."

(f) the offence involved gratuitous cruelty,

(g) the injury, emotional harm, loss or damage caused by the offence was substantial – SEE VICTIMS

(h) the offence was motivated by hatred for or prejudice against a group of people to which the offender believed the victim belonged (such as people of a particular religion, racial or ethnic origin, language, sexual orientation or age, or having a particular disability),

(i) the offence was committed without regard for public safety,

(ia) the actions of the offender were a risk to national security (within the meaning of the National Security Information (Criminal and Civil Proceedings) Act 2004 of the Commonwealth),

(ib) the offence involved a grave risk of death to another person or persons,

(j) the offence was committed while the offender was on conditional liberty in relation to an offence or alleged offence,

(k) the offender abused a position of trust or authority in relation to the victim,

(l) the victim was vulnerable, for example, because the victim was very young or very old or had a disability, or because of the victim's occupation (such as a taxi driver, bus driver or other public transport worker, bank teller or service station attendant) – see VULNERABLE VICTIMS

(m) the offence involved multiple victims or a series of criminal acts

This factor applies if there are multiple victims within the one offence. The circumstance of aggravation is directed towards offences that themselves encompass a series of criminal acts. It is not directed towards offences that take their place as one of a series of criminal acts. The distinction is

important, and was drawn in **R v Tadrosse** [2005] NSWCCA 145; (2005) 65 NSWLR 740 at [28] - [29]: **Magnuson v R** [2013] NSWCCA 50.

(n) the offence was part of a planned or organised criminal activity – see PLANNING

(o) the offence was committed for financial gain

However, in **Cicciarello v R** [2009] NSWCCA 272, the court said:

"Whilst one should be careful about generalising in relation to such factors outside the circumstances of any particular case, here, quite clearly, when one understands the background of this young man and what he was doing, he was not selling for greed or for financial gain, he was selling to feed a drug habit that he had acquired. This does not detract from the fact that he committed a serious offence, but what it does mean is that it was an error, and an important one, to characterise this as selling for financial gain and thus to characterise it as an offence falling within the mid-range".

In **Hejazi v R** [2009] NSWCCA 282, Basten JA said:

"This statement must be read in its context. It does not purport to say that an offence committed for financial gain may not involve an element of aggravation... What it does assert is that selling to feed a drug addiction is a factor which does not increase the moral culpability of the offence in the way that it might be increased if financial gain were not otherwise so excused. Nor does it suggest that the fact that the purpose of the offence was to obtain funds to feed a drug habit in any way diminishes the objective seriousness of the offence...It may be that the complaint was really a way of asserting that financial gain was not to be equated with obtaining funds to feed a drug habit, but the two are not mutually incompatible".

Farkas v R [2014] NSWCCA 141 the CCA held, in part, that the sentencing judge erred by aggravating the offending by finding that the applicant profited by way of a reduction in pre-existing drug debts. He profited by receiving drugs but that did not take the case out of the ordinary [71]. At [62] – [63]:

[62] *This Court held in Prculovski v R* [2010] NSWCCA 274 at [43] (by Howie AJ; McClellan CJ at CL agreeing) that financial gain and a level

of planning are elements of the offence. It is only when these factors are "significant" and above that expected in the "lowest level of offending" that a sentencing judge would not be in error to take this into account as a matter of aggravation.

[63] The Crown accepts that the appellant in this case did not fall into this "significant" category. Neither the level of planning involved nor the "profit" gained were so significant as to take the offence beyond the level inherently contemplated by the elements of the offence. It is difficult to accept his Honour's error was not material in the result given the centrality of this idea in his thinking as summarised at [16] above.

(p) without limiting paragraph (ea), the offence was a prescribed traffic offence and was committed while a child under 16 years of age was a passenger in the offender's vehicle.

STATUTORY MITIGATING FACTORS of the offence

S21A(3)

(a) the injury, emotional harm, loss or damage caused by the offence was not substantial

(b) the offence was not part of a planned or organised criminal activity

(c) the offender was provoked by the victim

(d) the offender was acting under duress

(e) the offender does not have any record (or any significant record) of previous convictions – SEE PRIOR CONVICTIONS

(f) the offender was a person of good character – SEE GOOD CHARACTER

(g) the offender is unlikely to re-offend - SEE REHABILITATION & PROSPECTS OF RE-OFFENDING

(h) the offender has good prospects of rehabilitation, whether by reason of the offender's age or otherwise – SEE REHABILITATION & PROSPECTS OF RE-OFFENDING

(i) the remorse shown by the offender for the offence, but only if:

(i) the offender has provided evidence that he or she has accepted responsibility for his or her actions, and

(ii) the offender has acknowledged any injury, loss or damage caused by his or her actions or made reparation for such injury, loss or damage (or both) – SEE REMORSE

(j) the offender was not fully aware of the consequences of his or her actions because of the offender's age or any disability [see MENTAL ILLNESS]

(k) a plea of guilty by the offender (as provided by section 22) – SEE PLEA OF GUILTY

(l) the degree of pre-trial disclosure by the defence (as provided by section 22A)

(m) assistance by the offender to law enforcement authorities (as provided by section 23) – SEE ASSISTANCE TO AUTHORITIES

SUSPENDED SENTENCES

- See the case of **Zaky v R** [2015] NSWCCA 161. In that case, Hamill J recited some of the principles in relation to suspended sentences, at [30]:

[30] In **Regina v Zamagias** [2002] NSWCCA 17 Howie J said at [32]:

“[32] Further, a sentencing court must approach the imposition of a sentence that is suspended on the basis that it can be a sufficiently severe form of punishment to act as a deterrent to both the general public and the particular offender. Of course it must also be recognised that the fact that the execution of the sentence is to be immediately suspended will deprive the punishment of much of its effectiveness in this regard because it is a significantly more lenient penalty than any other sentence of imprisonment. The question of whether any particular sentencing alternative, including a suspended sentence, is an appropriate or adequate form of punishment must be considered on a case by case basis, having regard to the nature of the offence committed, the objective seriousness of the criminality involved, the need for general or specific deterrence and the subjective circumstances of the offender.”

[31] **R v Nahlous** [2013] NSWCCA 90 Adamson J (with whom Hoeben CJ at CL and Davies J agreed) said at [86]:

*“[86] **This Court has consistently emphasised that a suspended sentence is a sentence in its own right and ought not be regarded as no punishment at all:** R v Zamagias [2002] NSWCCA 17 at [31]. As Bray CJ, (Bright and Zelling JJ agreeing) said in *Elliott v Harris* (No 2) (1976) 13 SASR 516 at 527, that view:*

“... reveals an entirely mistaken and wrong-headed approach to the question of suspended sentences. So far from being no punishment at all, a suspended sentence is a sentence to imprisonment with all the consequences such a sentence involves on the defendant's record and his future, and it is one which can be called automatically into effect on the slightest breach of the terms of the bond during its currency. “

...

[34] Not only were the comments of King DCJ contrary to repeated statements of principle by appellate courts, they were also contrary to a study published by NSW Bureau Of Crime Statistics And Research: Lulham, Weatherburn and Bartels, “The recidivism of offenders given suspended sentences: A comparison with full-time imprisonment” *Crime and Justice Bulletin: Contemporary Issues In Crime And Justice* vol 136 (September 2009)

(“BOCSAR report”). That study compared recidivism rates of offenders subject to prison sentences and those who received suspended sentences under s 12 of the Sentencing Act. The report suggests that suspended sentences are a useful and important sentencing option in terms of “promoting the rehabilitation of offenders”: cf s 3A(d) Sentencing Act. The report noted at 10:

“The aim of the present study was to examine the relative efficacy of suspended sentences and full-time imprisonment in reducing the risk of further offending. Our results provide no evidence to support the contention that offenders given imprisonment are less likely to re-offend than those given a suspended sentence. Indeed, on the face of it, the findings in relation to offenders who have previously been in prison are inconsistent with the deterrence hypothesis. After the prison and suspended sentence samples in this group were matched on key sentencing variables, there was a significant tendency for the prison group to re-offend more quickly on release than the suspended sentence group.”

[35] The report concluded at 13:

*“The value of suspended sentences as a sentencing option is clearly a matter of considerable debate. The present study resolves only one element of this debate but it is a fairly important element to resolve. **Taken as a whole, our findings suggest that sentencers contemplating imposing a suspended sentence instead of full-time custody need not be concerned about the possibility that imposing a suspended sentence will increase the risk of recidivism. As a means of reducing the risk of further offending, suspended sentences are as effective as, if not more effective than, a sentence of full-time imprisonment.**”*

TOTALITY

- The principle of totality of criminality may have the practical effect that a lower penalty may be imposed for all the offences as compared to if the offences were dealt with separately and distinctly: **R v Holder** (1983) 13 A Crim R 375. A sentence must be just and appropriate to the totality of the offending behaviour.
- **Cahyadi v R** [2007] NSWCCA 1; 169 A Crim R at [27] Howie J said:

[27] In any event there is no general rule that determines whether sentences ought to be imposed concurrently or consecutively. The issue is determined by the application of the principle of totality of criminality: can the sentence for one offence comprehend and reflect the criminality for the other offence? If it can, the sentences ought to be concurrent otherwise there is a risk that the combined sentences will exceed that which is warranted to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. If not, the sentences should be at least partly cumulative otherwise there is a risk that the total sentence will fail to reflect the total criminality of the two offences. This is so regardless of whether the two offences represent two discrete acts of criminality or can be regarded as part of a single episode of criminality. Of course it is more likely that, where the offences are discrete and independent criminal acts, the sentence for one offence cannot comprehend the criminality of the other. Similarly, where they are part of a single episode of criminality with common factors, it is more likely that the sentence for one of the offences will reflect the criminality of both.

*[28] This issue was most recently discussed in **R v MMK** [2006] NSWCCA 272 where the Court stated:*

*[11] One of the limiting principles that constrains a sentencing court in seeking to promote the purposes of punishment is the principle of proportionality. Another is the, not-unrelated, principle of totality and it is this principle that operated in the present case. It is the application of the totality principle that will generally determine the extent to which a particular sentence is to be served concurrently or cumulatively with an existing sentence in accordance with statements of the High Court as to the operation of the principle in *Mill v R* (1988) 166 CLR 59; *Pearce v R**

(1998) 194 CLR 610 and *Johnson v R* [2004] HCA 15; (2004) 78 ALJR 616.

[12] In *R v Holder* (1983) 3 NSWLR 245, Street CJ described the principle as follows: (at 260)

"The principle of totality is a convenient phrase, descriptive of the significant practical consideration confronting a sentencing judge when sentencing for two or more offences... Not infrequently a straightforward arithmetical addition of sentences appropriate for each individual offence considered separately will arrive at an ultimate aggregate that exceeds what is called for in the whole of the circumstances...In such a situation the sentencing judge will evaluate, in a broad sense, the overall criminality involved in all of the offences and, having done so, will determine what, if any, downward adjustment is necessary, whether by telescoping or otherwise, in the aggregate sentences in order to achieve an appropriate relativity between the totality of the criminality and the totality of the sentences".

- **JT v R** [2012] NSWCCA 133, Rothman J at [71]:

[71] The exercise involved in determining accumulation and concurrence and the application of the principles of totality are inconsistent with the proposition that one single correct answer will be derived in every circumstance by every judge. The application of the principle of totality is an exercise of discretion, intuitive or instinctive synthesis, and cannot be conducted arithmetically: Pearce at [46]; Markarian v The Queen [2005] HCA 25; (2005) 228 CLR 357. The principle assumes that each individual sentence imposed will reflect the criminality of that offence and that the combination of the sentences shall reflect the total criminality of all of the crimes committed: Pearce.

- In cases involving a number of offences, a sentencing judge is required to apply the totality principle. In the case of imprisonment this may involve fixing an appropriate sentence for each offence and then considering matters of accumulation or concurrency: **Pearce v The Queen** (1998) 194 CLR 610.

- When carrying out this task a sentencing judge is required to have regard to the fact that an offender is being sentenced for multiple offences and ensure that the ultimate sentence imposed is appropriate to the totality of the offender's offending and to the offender's personal circumstances: **R v Chan** [2000] NSWCCA 345; **Stratford v R** [2007] NSWCCA 279.

- **R v Mak; R v MSK [2006] NSWCCA 381 at [16]:**

*[16] The severity of a sentence is not simply the product of a linear relationship. That is to say severity may increase at a greater rate than an increase in the length of a sentence. As Malcolm CJ said in **R v Clinch** (1994) 72 A Crim R 301 at 306:*

... the severity of a sentence increases at a greater rate than any increase in the length of the sentence. Thus, a sentence of five years is more than five times as severe as a sentence of one year. Similarly, while a sentence of seven years may be appropriate for one set of offences and a sentence of eight years may be appropriate for another set of offences, each looked at in isolation. Where both sets were committed by the one offender a sentence of 15 years may be out of proportion to the degree of criminality involved because of the compounding effect on the severity of the total sentence of simply aggregating the two sets of sentences.

- The degree of accumulation and concurrence is the product of sentencing discretion. However, as Hamill J articulated in **R v Booth** [2014] NSWCCA 156 at [36]:

*"[36] The discretion must be exercised in a principled way and if wholly concurrent sentences are to be imposed for distinct and separate crimes, the explanation for such an approach must be compelling. It is not sufficient that the offences were of a similar nature or formed part of one crime "spree": see for example **R v Harris** [2007] NSWCCA 130."*

VICTIMS

Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act:

3A(g) to recognise the harm done to the victim of the crime and the community
21(2)(g) the injury, emotional harm, loss or damage caused by the offence was substantial:

- **MLP v R [2014] NSWCCA 183** re. sexual assault:

*"[31] Moreover, even accepting that the offending was limited to a short period of time, the resultant effect upon the victim is not similarly limited. The importance of taking into account the ongoing effect, upon a young victim, of offending such as this was recently emphasised by this Court (Leeming JA, Johnson and Hall JJ) in **R v Gavel [2014] NSWCCA 56** at [110]-[112]:*

*"This Court has observed that child sex offences have profound and deleterious effects upon victims for many years, if not the whole of their lives: **R v CMB [2014] NSWCCA 5** at [92]. Sexual abuse of children will inevitably give rise to psychological damage: **SW v R [2013] NSWCCA 255** at [52]. In **R v G [2008] UKHL 37; [2009] 1 AC 92**, Baroness Hale of Richmond (at [49]) referred to the "long term and serious harm, both physical and psychological, which premature sexual activity can do". The absolute prohibition on sexual activity with a child is intended to protect children from the physical and psychological harm taken to be caused by premature sexual activity: **Clarkson v R [2011] VSCA 157; 32 VR 361** at 364 [3], 368372 [26]-[39].*

111. This factor no doubt contributes to the setting of the heaviest maximum penalty known to the criminal law for s.66A(2) offences, accompanied by a standard non-parole period of 15 years. It is important that sentences for s.66A(2) offences reflect this grave element implicit in the offence itself.

112. This is an important feature in the present case. Young child victims are especially vulnerable. It is important that sentences passed for s.66A(2) offences recognize the harm done to the victim of the crime: s.3A(g) Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act 1999."

- **Abdelmeseeh v R [2016] NSWCCA 312**

[56] This Court has made clear that severe punishment is required in circumstances where members of the public are attacked on public transport or after leaving public transport. In *R v JW* [2010] NSWCCA 49; 77 NSWLR 7, McClellan CJ at CL, Howie J and I said at 41-42 [207]-[208]:

“207 It is important to bear in mind that the offences were committed by a group of young men on persons using the public transport system at night. There is no doubt that in the first offence the group were waiting for a likely candidate to rob as he made his way through a secluded park from the station. The group then went to another station and again selected a likely victim and chased him to his home. But even there he was not safe. Crimes of violence committed in those circumstances warranted severe punishment notwithstanding the age of members of the group or the other sentencing principles that apply to the sentencing of young offenders. Persons who are required to use public transport at night should be considered as vulnerable and protected by the sentences imposed in the courts.

208 In R v Kelly [2005] NSWCCA 280; 155 A Crim R 499, a case concerning an offence of violence committed at a railway station at night, Johnson J wrote:

‘6 In R v Ranse (Court of Criminal Appeal, 8 August 1994, BC9402928), Gleeson CJ said at page 8:

‘One of the primary purposes of the system of criminal justice is to keep the peace. In this connection the idea of peace embraces the freedom of ordinary citizens to walk the streets and to go about their daily affairs without fear of physical violence. It also embraces respect for the property of others.’

This statement has been adopted recently by this Court with respect to the protection of citizens who use public transport late in the evening, thereby placing themselves in a position of some vulnerability: R v Ibrahimi [2005] NSWCCA 153 at paragraphs 22-24.’”

VULNERABLE VICTIMS

Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act:

21(2)(l) *the victim was vulnerable, for example, because the victim was very young or very old or had a disability, or because of the victim's occupation (such as a taxi driver, bus driver or other public transport worker, bank teller or service station attendant)*

- **Drew v R [2016] NSWCCA 310**

[77] There was no dispute at the hearing of the appeal that the categories of vulnerable victims listed in s 21A(2)(l) are not exhaustive: *Perrin v R* [2006] NSWCCA 64 at [35]; *Ollis v R* [2011] NSWCCA 155 at [96]. It has been recognised that a victim may be “vulnerable” for the purposes of 21A(2)(l) in a variety of circumstances, including the following:

1. where the victim was a Japanese adolescent travelling alone on public transport: *Ollis v R* at [97];
2. where the victim was a passenger in a taxi who was heavily intoxicated: *R v Ali* [2010] NSWCCA 35 at [39];
3. where the victim lived in a rural and isolated location: *Stevens v R* [2007] NSWCCA 152 at [33];
4. where the victim was a person travelling on a train who was to some degree isolated from other people on the train: *R v Dyer* [2006] NSWCCA 274 at [27] and *R v Ibrahimi* [2005] NSWCCA 153 at [24];
5. where the victim was “unwell and dry retching”, so that he was less able to respond to an attack that he otherwise would have otherwise been: *R v Morris* [2007] NSWCCA 127 at [16]; and
6. where the victim was a prisoner confined in a cell after lockdown: *R v Daley* [2010] NSWCCA 223 at [39]

[78] In *R v Betts* [2015] NSWCCA 39, this Court was considering the sentence of an offender who stabbed his partner in circumstances where the sentencing judge had characterised the victim as “vulnerable”. RS Hulme AJ (with whom Meagher JA and Hidden J agreed) observed of s 21A(2)(l) at [29] and [30]: that:

“The authorities make clear that sub-paragraph (l) is concerned with the weakness of a particular class of victim and not with the threat posed by a

particular class of offender” and that “the examples set out in the subparagraph suggest that it is vulnerability of a particular kind that attracts its operation” and the fact that a victim does not have the characteristics of a powerful offender with violent tendencies does not make the victim vulnerable within the meaning of sub-paragraph (l) – see *R v Williams* [2005] NSWCCA 99 at [40], [41]; *R v Tadrosse* [2005] NSWCCA 145; (2005) 65 NSWLR 740 at [26], [27]. The paragraph looks to the circumstances of groups or classes of victims inherent in their situation or characteristics as such divorced from any actions of an offender.

...While in one sense the complainant was vulnerable, that vulnerability arose because of the particular events of the day, not because of the characteristics of any group of which she was a member. Those events included that the applicant was able to prevent the victim from communicating with her family by taking her mobile phone and replying to text messages from her brother who was waiting downstairs. Accordingly, his Honour erred and this ground of appeal is made out.”

...

[80] There was ultimately no dispute at the hearing of the application that, as a matter of general principle, the word “vulnerable” in s 21A(2)(l) is capable of extending to a person who is vulnerable by virtue of being a member of a class of persons who are unable to complain about wrongful conduct because of a culture of silence and ostracism in their particular community. Where the parties joined issue in this matter was whether there was sufficient evidence before the sentencing judge to make that finding in this particular matter, in circumstances where it is accepted that there was neither any evidence led on the issue nor any submissions directed to it during the proceedings on sentence. The significance of the finding is that her Honour expressly found it to be an aggravating factor and as such it was a matter that the Crown was required to establish beyond reasonable doubt.

[81] It is incumbent upon the Crown to establish any aggravating factor in s 21A(2) of the CSP Act beyond reasonable doubt. In *R v Olbrich* (1999) 199 CLR 270; [1999] HCA 54 at 281, the High Court (Gleeson CJ, Gaudron, Hayne and Callinan JJ) held that a sentencing judge may not take facts into account in a way that is adverse to an offender unless those facts have been established beyond reasonable doubt. In so finding, the High Court adopted what was said in *R v Storey* [1998] 1 VR 359 at 369 by Winneke P, Brooking and Hayne JJA and Southwell AJA. This well-established

sentencing principle was recently confirmed in *Filippou v The Queen* (2015) 256 CLR 47; [2015] HCA 29 at [24].

...

[84] Similarly, I am satisfied that a court may not aggravate an offence by taking judicial notice of the fact that some Aboriginal women might be less likely to complain of domestic violence because of a culture of silence and ostracism in their communities. Whether or not the victim in each case is in such a class of vulnerable victims will always be a matter that must be proved beyond reasonable doubt based on the evidence in that case.

...

[90] The sentencing judge was entitled to have regard to the serious problem of domestic violence in Indigenous communities and the under-reporting of such violence. It provided context to her sentencing exercise and was relevant to the need for general deterrence and the protection of the community in sentencing for an offence of domestic violence committed upon an Aboriginal woman. The error established is that her Honour went on to find the offence aggravated for that reason, in the absence of evidence capable of establishing beyond reasonable doubt that this particular victim was a member of a particular class bearing those characteristics.”

VICTIM IMPACT STATEMENTS

- In **R v Hines (No. 3)** [2014] NSWSC 1273 his Honour Justice Hamill considered the recent amendments to s 28 of the Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act. Whilst his Honour was sentencing an offender for a murder, the principles ring true in any offence with a victim:

[77] It is appropriate that I say something, briefly, about the amendments to s 28 Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act. The legislation is in the following terms:

"28. When victim impact statements may be received and considered
(1) If it considers it appropriate to do so, a court may receive and consider a victim impact statement at any time after it convicts, but before it sentences, an offender.

(2) A victim impact statement may also be received and considered by the Supreme Court when it determines an application under Schedule 1 for the determination of a term and a non-parole period for an existing life sentence referred to in that Schedule.

(3) If the primary victim has died as a direct result of the offence, a court must receive a victim impact statement given by a family victim and acknowledge its receipt, and may make any comment on it that the court considers appropriate.

(4) A victim impact statement given by a family victim may, on the application of the prosecutor and if the court considers it appropriate to do so, be considered and taken into account by a court in connection with the determination of the punishment for the offence on the basis that the harmful impact of the primary victim's death on the members of the primary victim's immediate family is an aspect of harm done to the community.

(4A) Subsection (4) does not affect the application of the law of evidence in proceedings relating to sentencing.

(5) A court may make a victim impact statement available to the prosecutor, to the offender or to any other person on such conditions (which must include conditions preventing the offender from retaining copies of the statement) as it considers appropriate.

(6) Despite any other provision of this section, a court must not consider or take into account a victim impact statement under this section unless it has been given by or on behalf of the victim to whom it relates or by or on behalf of the prosecutor."

*[78] Nothing in the legislation explains how a sentencing Judge is to determine when it is "appropriate" to take into account the harmful impact on a victim's family the "determination of the punishment" in a homicide case. Nor does it shed any light on when a victim's suffering is "an aspect of harm done to the community". I have read the second reading speeches and find no guidance there. Those speeches make it clear that the amendment is designed to "change the law" as it was declared by Hunt CJ at CL in **R v Previterra** (1997) 94 A Crim R 76. However, the second reading speeches did not address the observation by his Honour (at 86) that:*

"It is regarded by all thinking persons as offensive to fundamental concepts of equality and justice for criminal courts to value one life as greater than another".

[79] This statement reflects the notion that all human life is precious and goes back to biblical times. The Bible said (Galations 3:28):

"There is neither Jew nor Gentile, neither slave nor free, nor is there male and female, for you are alone in Christ Jesus."

[80] Pope Francis said in September last year "there is no human life more sacred than another".

[81] All civilised societies treat all life and all people as equal. As Thomas Jefferson put it in drafting the United States' Declaration of Independence:

"We hold these truths to be self evident that all men are created equal ... and endowed with certain inalienable rights: that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness."

[82] This became the cornerstone of Dr King's "I have a dream" speech in 1963.

*[83] In **R v Dang** [1999] NSWCCA 42 Adams J contemplated the position of a friendless man without a family and said at [25]-[26]:*

"Assume the deceased was friendless; assume the deceased had no family. It would be monstrous to suggest that that meant for some reason killing her should attract a lesser sentence than would be the case if, as is the situation here, she had a loving family and grieving relatives. Essentially, then, the reason that victim impact statements in cases involving death are not taken into account in imposing sentence is that law holds, as it must, that in death we are all equal and the idea that it is more serious or more culpable to kill someone who has or is surrounded by a loving and grieving family than someone who is alone is offensive to our notions of equality before the law."

[84] The reality is that homicide and other crimes where people are killed have devastating and long-term effects in every case. The exception may be a

friendless or homeless member of the community. Is the law to regard a homeless, unloved person's life as less valuable than another's? This strikes me as being philosophically offensive.

Extent to which Victim Impact Statement can be used to prove aggravating factor – caution to be exercised

- In **R v Tuala** [2015] NSWCCA 8, Simpson J considered the extent to which an unsworn Victim Impact Statement (VIS), not tested by cross-examination, can be used to prove an aggravating factor such as s 21A(2)(g) which must be proved beyond reasonable doubt: at [57].

Where there is no objection to a VIS or a VIS confirms other material, there seems to be no hesitation in accepting a VIS to establish substantial harm. However, considerable caution must be exercised before the VIS can be used to establish an aggravating factor to the requisite standard where:

- the facts to which the victim impact statement attests are in question; or
- the credibility of the victim is in question; or
- the harm which the statement asserts goes well beyond that which might ordinarily be expected of that particular offence; or
- the content of the victim impact statement is the only evidence of harm: at [81]- [82].

Simpson J noted the CCA is yet to reach a consensus on the use to which a VIS is put and each case will depend on its own facts and circumstances: see authorities at [52]-[76].

“[77] Almost invariably the aggravating factor in question is that specified in s 21A(2)(g). It is to be remembered that such aggravating factors must be proved beyond reasonable doubt.”

[78]...such statements are admissible by statute, but that does not preclude argument as to the weight to be attributed to them.

[79] Further, where the statement tends to be confirmatory of other evidence (either in a trial, or in the sentencing proceedings) or where it attests to harm of the kind that might be expected of the offence in question, there is little difficulty with acceptance of its contents.

[80] Difficulties can arise, for example, where:

- *the facts to which the victim impact statement attests are in question; or*
- *the credibility of the victim is in question; or*
- *the harm which the statement asserts goes well beyond that which might ordinarily be expected of that particular offence; or*
- *the content of the victim impact statement is the only evidence of harm.*

RP is an example of the third of these.

[81] In these cases, considerable caution must be exercised before the victim impact statement can be used to establish an aggravating factor to the requisite standard.

- **EG v R** [2015] NSWCCA 36 – a child sexual assault offence was held to be at the bottom of the range of seriousness but the consequences described in the VIS, in relation to their effect on the complainant and the family went beyond that which would normally be expected. For full weight to be given to matters described there needed to be more than just uncritical acceptance of the victim impact statement.

Where ‘VIS’ is a report by an expert – expectation that expert author would be cross-examined - substantial emotional harm s 21A(2)(g) Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act

- In **Muggleton** [2015] NSWCCA 62 the applicant was sentenced for wound with intent to cause GBH (s 33(1) *Crimes Act*). The applicant submitted the Judge erred in taking into account as an aggravating factor the ‘emotional harm’ suffered by the victim under s 21A(2)(g). Evidence of emotional harm was given via a VIS by the victim, a psychologist report and a trauma counsellor report. The CCA dismissed the appeal. Whether emotional harm is ‘substantial’ within s 21A(2)(g) *Crimes (Sentencing Procedure) Act* can be established by a VIS: ss 28(1), 30A: at [39]-[40]. While s 30A does not appear to envisage the author will be cross-examined, the position might be otherwise where the author is an expert, rather than a victim: at [44].
The psychologist report was admissible as evidence from a qualified person on the impact on the victim. The applicant did not cross-examine the authors of the reports. The psychologist could have been required for cross-examination but no request was made: at [44]. There was no impediment to cross-examining the

trauma counsellor. The evidence as to emotional harm thus stands unchallenged: at [45]; see *Aguirre* [2010] NSWCCA 115 at [77].

Weight to be given to VIS where V supports offender

- **AC v R [2016] NSWCA 107**
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YOUTH (INC. CHILDREN)

- Section 6 of the *Children (Criminal Proceedings) Act 1987* sets out the significant principles that courts must take into account when dealing with children:

(a) that children have rights and freedoms before the law equal to those enjoyed by adults and, in particular, a right to be heard, and a right to participate, in the processes that lead to decisions that affect them,

(b) that children who commit offences bear responsibility for their actions but, because of their state of dependency and immaturity, require guidance and assistance,

(c) that it is desirable, wherever possible, to allow the education or employment of a child to proceed without interruption,

(d) that it is desirable, wherever possible, to allow a child to reside in his or her own home,

(e) that the penalty imposed on a child for an offence should be no greater than that imposed on an adult who commits an offence of the same kind,

(f) that it is desirable that children who commit offences be assisted with their reintegration into the community so as to sustain family and community ties,

(g) that it is desirable that children who commit offences accept responsibility for their actions and, wherever possible, make reparation for their actions,

(h) that, subject to the other principles described above, consideration should be given to the effect of any crime on the victim.

- The relevance of the principles stated in s6 to each individual case depends to a very large extent on the age of the particular offender and the nature of the particular offence committed: **Bus and S** (unreported CCA NSW 3/11/1995)

“[t]he prominence to be given to rehabilitation of the young in determining sentence is recognised to the point of being almost axiomatic”: **R v Ponfield** (1999) 48 NSWLR 327 per Grove J at [38].

- In **R v GDP** (1991) 53 A Crim R 112, the Court referred to the decision in **R v Wilcox** (15 August 1979 unreported), where Yeldham J remarked during the course of sentencing a young offender that *“in the case of a youthful offender...considerations of punishment and of general deterrence of others may*

properly be largely discarded in favour of individualised treatment of the offender, directed to his rehabilitation.”

- Yeldham J had relied on **R v Smith** [1964] Crim L R 70, where it was said, *“In the case of a young offender there can rarely be any conflict between his interest and the public. The public have no greater interest than that he should become a good citizen”*.
- Allen J in **R v Webster**, unreported CCA NSW 15 July 1991 (the murder by a young man of a teenage girl):

“The protection of the community does not involve simply the infliction of punishment appropriate to the objective gravity of the crime. There are other considerations as well – principally although by no means only, the deterrence of others...and the rehabilitation of the offender. The community have a real interest in rehabilitation. The interest to no small extent relates to its own protection...The community interest in respect to its own protection is greater where the offender is young and the chances of rehabilitation for almost all of the offender’s adult life, unless he is crushed by the severity in sentence, is high.”

- In **R v Govinden** (1999) 106 A Crim R 314, Dunford J stated (at para 29):

“[29] It is well recognized that in dealing with young offenders, questions of general deterrence are of less importance than in the case of older offenders and the rehabilitation of the offender is given a greater significance.”

- In **R v Farah** (unrep. CCA, 11 December 1998), Dunford J referred to the sentencing principles relevant to sentencing young offenders in the context of an armed robbery offence:

“To send a young man of eighteen years to gaol in these circumstances where he has no previous convictions and where he might meet and be in regular contact with real or hardened criminals, could hardly assist in his rehabilitation and would almost certainly turn him out at the end of his sentence a worse person than when he went in.

One can expect that the shock of his arrest and all these proceedings will have had a salutary effect on him and can feel reasonably confident that if given a second chance he is unlikely to offend again."

- See also **Lattouf** under **REHABILITATION/INDIVIDUALISED JUSTICE**.
- **Regina v LNT** [2005] NSWCCA 307:

"But the fact that a "crime of considerable gravity" has been committed does not, in and of itself, necessitate a finding that the youth has conducted himself "in the way an adult might conduct himself".

In every case it is a question of balancing deterrence, retribution and protection of the community, on the one hand, and rehabilitation, on the other. In the case of juvenile offenders, rehabilitation generally plays a far more significant role than it does in the case of mature adults.

- In **KT v R** [2008] NSWCCA 51, the Chief Judge at Common Law Justice McClellan discussed the principles relevant to sentencing young offenders:

*[22] The principles relevant to the sentencing of children have been discussed on many occasions. Both considerations of general deterrence and principles of retribution are, in most cases, of less significance than they would be when sentencing an adult for the same offence. In recognition of the capacity for young people to reform and mould their character to conform to society's norms, considerable emphasis is placed on the need to provide an opportunity for rehabilitation. These principles were considered in **R v GDP** (1991) 53 A Crim R 112 at 115-116 (NSWCCA), **R v E (a child)** (1993) 66 A Crim R 14 at 28 (WACCA) and **R v Adamson** (2002) 132 A Crim R 511; [2002] NSWCCA 349 at [30].*

*[23] The law recognises the potential for the cognitive, emotional and/or psychological immaturity of a young person to contribute to their breach of the law. Accordingly, allowance will be made for an offender's youth and not just their biological age. (**R v Hearne** (2001) 124 A Crim R 451; [2001] NSWCCA 37 at [25]). The weight to be given to the fact of the offender's youth does not vary depending upon the seriousness of the offence (*Hearne* at [24]). Where*

the immaturity of the offender is a significant factor in the commission of the offence, the criminality involved will be less than if the same offence was committed by an adult. (Hearne at [25]; MS2 v The Queen (2005) 158 A Crim R 93; [2005] NSWCCA 397 at [61]).

[24] Although accepted to be of less significance than when sentencing adults, considerations of general deterrence and retribution cannot be completely ignored when sentencing young offenders. There remains a significant public interest in deterring antisocial conduct. In R v Pham & Ly (1991) 55 A Crim R 128 Lee CJ at CL said (at 135):

"It is true that courts must refrain from sending young persons to prison, unless that course is necessary, but the gravity of the crime and the fact that it is a crime of violence frequently committed by persons even in their teens must be kept steadfastly in mind otherwise the protective aspect of the criminal court's function will cease to operate. In short, deterrence and retribution do not cease to be significant merely because persons in their late teens are the persons committing grave crimes, particularly crimes involving physical violence to persons in their own homes. It is appropriate to refer to the decision of Williscroft (1975) VR 292 at 299, where the majority of the Full Court of Victoria expressed the view that, notwithstanding the enlightened approach that is now made to sentencing compared to earlier days, the concept of punishment ie coercive action is fundamental to correctional treatment in our society."

[25] The emphasis given to rehabilitation rather than general deterrence and retribution when sentencing young offenders, may be moderated when the young person has conducted him or herself in the way an adult might conduct him or herself and has committed a crime of violence or considerable gravity (R v Bus, unreported, NSWCCA, 3 November 1995, Hunt CJ at CL; R v Tran [1999] NSWCCA 109 at [9]-[10]; R v TJP [1999] NSWCCA 408 at [23]; R v LC [2001] NSWCCA 175 at [48]; R v AEM Snr, KEM and MM [2002] NSWCCA 58 at [96]-[98]; R v Adamson (2002) 132 A Crim R 511 at [31]; R v Voss [2003] NSWCCA 182 at [16]). In determining whether a young offender has engaged in "adult behaviour" (Voss at [14]), the court will look to various matters including the use of weapons, planning or pre-meditation, the existence of an extensive criminal history and the nature and circumstances of the offence (Adamson at [31]-[32]). Where some or all of these factors are

present the need for rehabilitation of the offender may be diminished by the need to protect society.

[26] The weight to be given to considerations relevant to a person's youth diminishes the closer the offender approaches the age of maturity (R v Hoang [2003] NSWCCA 380 at [45]). A 'child-offender' of almost eighteen years of age cannot expect to be treated substantially differently from an offender who is just over eighteen years of age (R v Bus, unreported, NSWCCA, 3 November 1995; R v Voss [2003] NSWCCA 182 at [15]). However, the younger the offender, the greater the weight to be afforded to the element of youth (Hearne at [27]).

- **Belvie v R [2017] NSWCCA 36:**

[38] The principles in sentencing a child, as earlier stated, have been expressed on a number of occasions: see *R v AN* [2005] NSWCCA 239 (per Howie J, with whom James and Rothman JJ agreed); *R v LNT* [2005] NSWCCA 307; *MJ v R*; *KT v R* (2008) 182 A Crim R 571; [2008] NSWCCA 51 at [22] – [26]; *CPD v R* [2010] NSWCCA 52; and *BP v R* [2010] NSWCCA 159. In the last-mentioned matter, Hodgson JA dealt extensively with the principles associated with the sentencing of a young offender, in the following passage:

“[3] The relevance of the youth of an offender to sentencing has been extensively discussed in many cases, including *KT v R* [2008] NSWCCA 51; (2008) 182 A Crim R 571 (referred to by Johnson J) and cases referred to in that case. I accept the principles stated in *KT* at [22] – [26] (quoted by Johnson J at par [74] of his judgment). However, I wish to make three points concerning these principles.

[4] First, statements that, in relation to young offenders, principles of retribution may be of less significance and considerations of rehabilitation may be of more significance, may tend to obscure the point that even in relation to retribution the youth of an offender may be a mitigating circumstance. In my understanding, considerations of retribution direct attention to what the offender deserves; and in my opinion, where emotional immaturity or a young person's less-than-fully-developed capacity to control impulsive behaviour contributes to the offending, this may be seen as mitigating culpability and thus as reducing what is suggested by considerations of retribution: see *TM v R* [2008] NSWCCA 158 at [33] – [36].

[5] Second, while I agree with the statements in *KT* at [26] that the weight to be given to considerations relevant to a person's youth diminishes the closer the offender approaches the age of maturity, and that a 'child offender' of almost 18 years cannot expect to be treated substantially differently from an offender who is just over 18 years of age, it does not follow that the age of maturity is 18 (albeit that for certain purposes the law does draw a line there: *Children (Criminal Proceedings) Act 1987*). In my understanding, emotional maturity and impulse control develop progressively during adolescence and early adulthood, and may not be fully developed until the early to mid twenties: see *R v Slade* [2005] NZCA 19; [2005] 2 NZLR 526 at [43], quoted by Kirby J in *R v Elliott* [2006] NSWCCA 305; (2006) 68 NSWLR 1 at 27 [127]. As shown by *R v Hearne* [2001] NSWCCA

37; (2001) 124 A Crim R 451, youth may be a material factor in sentencing even a 19 year old for a most serious crime.

[6] Third, I do not think courts should be over-ready to discount the relevance of an offender's youth on the basis that the offender has engaged in adult behaviour or acted as an adult. In the present case, the offence is a very serious one; but it did not involve significant planning or reflection, or any other indicia of mature decision-making. The applicant was 16 years old, and in my opinion the circumstances of the offence suggest rather that emotional immaturity and less-than-fully-developed capacity to control impulses were likely to be contributing factors.'

- The principles applying to young offenders were recently encapsulated in **Tammer-Spence v R** [2013] NSWCCA 297 by Rotham J at [36] - :

*"[36] In sentencing young offenders (or persons with a mental illness), the sentencing principles make clear that retribution may be of less significance and considerations of rehabilitation may be of more significance. Further, even in relation to retribution, the youth of an offender may be a mitigating factor: **BP v R** [2010] NSWCCA 159; (2010) 201 A Crim R 379 at [4] per Hodgson JA, with whom I agreed; **KT v R** [2008] NSWCCA 51; (2008) 182 A Crim R 571 at [22]-[26].*

*[37] While offenders under 18 years of age are sentenced under a different regime (Children (Criminal Proceedings) Act 1987), youth may not reach emotional maturity or impulse control until early to mid-twenties: **BP v R** at [5] per Hodgson JA; **R v Slade** [2005] NZCA 19; (2005) 2 NZLR 526 at [43]; **R v Elliott** [2006] NSWCCA 305; (2006) 68 NSWLR 1 at [127] per D. Kirby J; **R v Hearne** [2001] NSWCCA 37; (2001) 124 A Crim R 451. Age, and the principles associated with sentencing youth, may be a factor when sentencing a 19 year old, as here, or, depending on maturity, even a 21 year old. Despite the fact that, here, the offences in question do not reflect aspects of immaturity, the Applicant may not have had the maturity to understand fully the consequences of his actions and to control his conduct accordingly.*

- In the decision of **Miller v R** [2015] NSWCCA 86, Schmidt J reiterated the well-recognised principle that the capacity for young people to reform and mould their character to conform to society's norms is usually greater than that of an older offender. In the result, considerable emphasis has been placed on the need to provide young offenders with the opportunity for rehabilitation. In that case, the appellant was 20 years old.

- Her honour went on to say that it is also well settled that the law recognises the potential for the cognitive, emotional and/or psychological immaturity of a young person, to contribute to their breach of the law. Of course, the greater the objective gravity of an offence, the less likely it is that retribution and general deterrence will cede to the interests of rehabilitation.
- **R v MF** [2015] NSWCCA 283
- **DA v R** [2014] NSWCCA 306 – intellectual disability – ADHD
- **R v RM** [2015] NSWCCA 4 – child sex offences – juvenile when occurred.
- **R v DH; R v AH** [2014] NSWCCA 326 – wholly exceptional circumstances. Robbery with offensive weapon. Rehab.
- In the decision of **Alrubae v R** [2016] NSWCCA 142 at [2], Justice Rothman reiterated the principles relating to sentencing a youth of immature age that his Honour gave in **BP v The Queen** [2010] NSWCCA 159 and most recently in **Bullock v R** [2016] NSWCCA 131.
- In the decision of **May-Jordan v The Queen** [2017] VSCA 30, *Azzopardi v R* (2011) 35 VR 43 was quoted as follows:

[34]: “... In *Azzopardi v R* Redlich JA summarised the underlying reasons for this as follows:

First, young offenders being immature are therefore ‘more prone to ill-considered or rash decisions’. They ‘may lack the degree of insight, judgment and self-control that is possessed by an adult’. They may not fully appreciate the nature, seriousness and consequences of their criminal conduct....

Secondly, courts ‘recognise the potential for young offenders to be redeemed and rehabilitated’. This potential exists because young offenders are typically still in a stage of mental and emotional development and may be more open to influences designed to positively change their behaviour than adults who have established patterns of anti-social behaviour. No doubt because of this potential, it has been stated that the rehabilitation of young offenders, ‘is one of the great objectives of the criminal law’. The added emphasis for the purposes of sentencing on realisation of a young offender’s potential to be rehabilitated is further justified because of the community’s interest in such rehabilitation, not only at a theoretical level, but because the effective rehabilitation of a young offender protects the community from further offending....

Thirdly, courts sentencing young offenders are cognisant that the effect of incarceration in an adult prison on a young offender will more likely impair, rather than improve, the offender’s prospects of successful rehabilitation. While in prison a youthful offender is likely to

be exposed to corrupting influences which may entrench in that young person criminal behaviour, thereby defeating the very purpose for which punishment is imposed. Imprisonment for any substantial period carries with it the recognised risk that anti-social tendencies may be exacerbated. The likely detrimental effect of adult prison on a youthful offender has adverse flow-on consequences for the community... (53–54 [34]–[36])”

Also note:

[35]: “... Batt JA in *Director of Public Prosecutions v Lawrence* (2004) 10 VR 125:

‘... with an offence as serious as intentionally causing serious injury and particularly with an instance of it as grave as this one, the offender’s youthfulness and rehabilitation, achieved and prospective, whilst not irrelevant in the instinctive synthesis which the sentencing judge must make, were of much less significance than they would have been with a less serious offence. As has been said, youth and rehabilitation must be subjugated to other considerations...’

...

[39]: “We would reject the applicant’s submission that it is only where the offence is both particularly serious *and* persistent that an offender’s youth does not apply in the same way that it would in other cases. In fact, in our view, the offender’s youth will always be an important factor; but its importance and force cannot help but be affected by other sentencing considerations which are likely to include either the seriousness of the offending or its persistence or both.”
