

Public Law – Scaffolds

Topic 6: A Responsible Executive

CONSTITUTIONAL POWERS (Governor-General)

- **Section 2 – Governor General** – appointed by Queen, as the Queen’s representative in the Commonwealth
- **Section 61 – Executive Power** – vested in the Queen, exercisable by the Governor-General
- **Section 62 – Federal Executive Council** – to advise the Governor-General
- **Section 63 – Provisions referring to Governor-General** – construed as referring to the Governor-General acting with the advice of the Federal Executive Council.
- **Section 64 – Ministers of State** – may be appointed by the Governor-General
- **Governor-General’s power:**
 - **Section 5** – proroguing and dissolving Parliament
 - **Section 32** – issuing writs for a general election
 - **Section 58** – assenting to legislation
 - **Section 68** – command of the military
 - **Section 72** – appointing of judges
 - By **CONVENTION**, none of these powers are exercised by the Governor General alone – Governor General acts on advice of Ministers – which is a fundamental aspect of responsible government

RESERVE POWERS (Governor-General)

- **Principle:** As a convention, the Governor-General acts on the advice of Ministers (**Hardie-Boys, New Zealand’s Governor-General**); *FAI Insurances Ltd v Winneke*, Wilson J)
- But, the reserve powers can be exercised independently by the Governor-General, without (or contrary to) advice, in the exercise of his/her constitutional powers, to support fundamental constitutional principles – such as to **safeguard system of responsible government, representative democracy, the rule of law**

Settled Reserve Powers:

- (1) Commission a new Prime Minister
 - If PM loses confidence of the House, the G-G must discern where the House’s confidence lies to commission a new PM
 - Departing PM may advise G-G on who to pick, but G-G doesn’t have to follow his advice since the PM no longer holds responsibility for advising the G-G on the House’s behalf
- (2) Refuse request to dissolve parliament by a PM who has lost the confidence of the House where another MP has confidence of the House.
 - **Dissolution = go into an election**
- (3) Dismiss a PM who has lost the confidence of the House
 - **By convention, PM must resign if loses the confidence**
 - **For PM who refuses to resign, G-G may dismiss**

Debatable Reserve Powers

- (1) Refuse to prorogue parliament.
- (2) Dismiss a PM who retains the confidence of the lower House but is – or is perceived to be – acting illegally.
- (3) Dismiss a PM who retains the confidence of the lower House but is unable to obtain supply from the Senate (and refuses to resign or advise an election)

Refusing Prorogation of Parliament

- **Principle:** The Governor-General’s power to prorogue Parliament is entrenched in **s 5, Constitution**
 - As a convention, the Governor-General acts on the advice of Ministers when proroguing Parliament (Anne Twomey, *Prorogation*)
 - But, there is a reserve power to refuse prorogation if it would cause a breach of fundamental constitutional principles, like responsible government (Anne Twomey, *Prorogation*)

nationhood power to spend appropriated money can be established (**Pape** – Gummow, Crennan and Bell JJ)

- **Contra** – **Heydon, Hayne and Kiefel JJ (dissent)** held that national emergencies could not enliven the nationhood power – **Heydon J** was concerned that the Executive could declare national emergencies and circumvent constitutional limits to exercise of power
- **Contra** - **Williams (No 1)** which is distinguished from **Pape** on the basis that it was a **national emergency** that was also **supported by legislation**. This was not the case for the NSPC program.

- **LIMB 2** of **AAP case**

- The activity cannot otherwise be carried on “for the benefit of the nation” by the states or others
- **Pape** → states did not have enough money to give a stimulus of that size, and could not act quickly enough
- **Davis** → states would not be able to organise that national commemoration
- **Contra** - **Williams (No 1)** and **Williams (No 2)**, → spending on Chaplaincy program not adapted to federal government → **States** were well placed to administer a program for chaplaincy services in State schools; this is an area where there is real competition with the States.

Limits on Nationhood Power (**Williams (No 1)**)

- Convenience is not enough – the fact that it can be “**conveniently formulated and administered** by the national government” is **not sufficient** to render it on a “truly national endeavour” (Crennan J)
- No competition with States – The Cth’s exercise of executive or legislative power must **involve no real competition of the states**
 - **Williams (No 1)** – the chaplaincy funding program to schools involves direct competition with the State executive and legislative action (Hayne J)
- **S 96, Constitution** – the power to make state grants **must not be rendered useless**. The legislation must not bypass **s 96** for no adequate reason. **S 96** ensures consensual funding; State authority is retained as they are free to reject funding.

STEP 2: Legislative Incidental power

- **Davis** (purposive and proportionate test for incidental legislative power in **s 51(xxxix)**)
 - Legislation made under the nationhood power is valid if they are **reasonably incidental, adapted or proportionate** to the Commonwealth’s **legitimate national purpose**
 - **Davis** – Commemoration of Bicentenary was within the Cth’s executive power, however the limit on freedoms of speech in which the use of 1788, 1988, 200 years were invalid as they were **grossly disproportionate**.

INHERENT EXECUTIVE POWER – DETENTION FOR BORDER CONTROL

2) Is there a prerogative power to detain for border control?

- The Majority in **Tampa** (and French CJ in **CPCF**) found there was a prerogative power to exclude aliens from Australia, and to undertake necessary action to affect that exclusion, including detaining and deportation.
 - However, Black CJ in dissent in **Tampa** found that any such prerogative had become expired due to its disuse, and had become incompatible with modern jurisprudence, and had been overtaken by statutory enactment in the same area
 - Black CJ’s dissent was adopted by Kiefel J, a dissenting judge in **CPCF**
 - Kiefel, Hayne and Bell JJ in **CPCF** held that **Lim** was authority for the proposition that the Executives cannot detain without judicial mandate and without statutory authorisation by a valid Commonwealth law, and that extended to offshore detention or detention on the high seas
 - Gageler J in obiter in **Plaintiff M68/2015** held that habeas corpus in **s 75, Constitution** meant that there could be no executive power to authorise arrest or detention; it could only be authorised by statute

- 6) **Sub-delegation** – not appropriate for Parliament to authorise Executive to sub-delegate their delegated legislative powers, but is valid to do

Question 2: Is the regulation valid?

Step 5: Compliance with the *Legislation Act (Cth)*

- The *Legislation Act (Cth)* provides mechanisms that enable Parliamentary scrutiny of legislative instruments (s 3(e)).
- 1) **s 8(4)**: A 'legislative instrument' includes delegated legislation which determines the law and creates rights and obligations (s 8(4)).
 - 2) The *Legislation Act (Cth)* provides that a 'legislative instrument' is not effective unless it is registered and tabled (ss 15K(1), 38), and remains effective until disallowed by Parliament (ss 42, 45). The rule-maker should undertake 'appropriate' and 'reasonably practicable' consultation before making 'legislative instruments' (s 17(1)), but a failure to consult does not affect the instrument's validity or enforceability (s 19).
 - 3) **Public Participation and Consultation Requirements**
 - a. Consultation is not mandatory – the extent of consultation, if there is any, is up to the rule-maker
 - b. **s 17(1)**: Rule-makers should undertake appropriate and reasonably practicable consultation
 - c. **s 19**: Failure to consult does not affect validity or enforceability of instrument
 - d. **s 15J(2)**: requires an explanatory statement of the legislative instrument to include a description of consultation undertaken, or explanations for lack of consultation.
 - e. **s 15K(2)**: a failure to lodge an explanatory statement for registration does not invalidate the instrument
 - 4) **Registration and Commencement**
 - a. **S 15K(1)** – a legislative instrument is not enforceable by or against any person unless registered
 - b. **S 12(1)** – a legislative instrument commences the day after it is registered unless it provides otherwise
 - c. **S 12(1A)** – the instrument can commence before registration
 - d. **S 12(2)** – but if commencement is earlier than registration, the instrument does not apply to a person (except the Commonwealth) to the extent that its retrospective operation disadvantages a person or imposes liabilities for conduct done before registration
 - 5) **Tabling**
 - a. **s 38(1)**: Registered legislative instruments must be tabled in each House of Parliament within 6 sitting days after registration (s 38(1))
 - Note: the 6 days starts to run from when parliament is sitting – so if regulation is made when Parliament is not sitting, there is more time to table!
 - b. **s 38(2)**: If the instrument is not tabled within 6 sitting days, the instrument is immediately repealed after the 6th day, and ceases to have effect (s 38(2))
 - c. **NOTE**: after tabling, the Senate Standing Committee for Scrutiny of Delegated Legislation may scrutinise the instrument for its compliance with all legislative requirements, whether it is supported by a constitutional head of legislative power, adequate consultation... (**Senate Standing Order 23**)
 - Scrutiny principles of delegated legislation - **Senate Standing Order 23(3)**
 - (a) Is in accordance with its enabling Act and complies with all legislative requirements
 - (b) Is supported by constitutional head of legislative power, and constitutionally valid
 - (c) Makes rights, liberties, obligations or interests unduly dependent on insufficiently defined administrative powers
 - (d) Affected persons not adequately consulted
 - (e) Drafting is defective or unclear
 - (f) Documents incorporated can be freely accessed and used

- The provision in **Lim** required Court “not to” order release of asylum seekers from custody was thus invalid → Courts are vested with jurisdiction to determine federal matters or matters involving the Cth as a party – and the provision removed the court’s independence to exercise its jurisdiction and to control ultra vires acts of the Executive
- **Totani (state law)** → mandating the courts (with the use of the word “must”) to give a control order on members of declared organisations if requested by the Executive
 - That impaired the decisional independence of the courts in areas going to personal liberty and criminal liability which are at the heart of judicial functions
 - The executive had enlisted the court to implement its decisions in a manner that is inconsistent with institutional integrity
- **Kable (state law)** → provided ad hominem rules that applied to “Kable” (as an individual) only
 - Invalid law – since the court was required to enforce the decisions of the legislature/executive, instead of making its own determinations about Kable’s rights and obligations
 - The Supreme Court was made to look like the instrument of executive government policy
 - Attempt to dress up proceedings as judicial process makes a mockery of that process
 - Court required to grant detention order in a manner that is removed from the judicial process
 - Criminal law is based on standard of beyond reasonable doubt – applies to past actions – and applies uniformly to all people
 - Here, the standard was lower (more likely than not) – applies to future acts – and only to Kable → it was very contradicting to ordinary criminal law under judiciary power

3. Judicial Process/Procedural Fairness [natural justice]

- Judicial process involves:
 - procedural fairness
 - open court principle
 - reason-giving
- Law that modifies these principles MAY be incompatible with institutional integrity → at the Federal level, departure from these principles will more likely be incompatible
- Risk of invalidity is most significant where the law detracts from the courts’ decisional authority in relation to its process.
 - Procedural fairness = decisional ability to determine the processes which the court makes those decisions
 - Decisional independence = decisional ability to determine the outcome/result of the case
- **Law struck down – International Finance Trust Co v NSW Crime Commission (state law)**
 - The court was **mandated** to have closed hearing, ex parte hearing (without other party) – for a freezing order of assets against persons suspected of engaging in serious crime-related activity
 - 1) No discretion to make/not make ‘ex parte’ hearing – departure from open court and procedural fairness required in criminal law
 - 2) Indefinite freezing period – significant departure from ordinary criminal law processes
 - 3) Court “must” make an order based on “reasonable grounds” → that is a departure from the ordinary standard of “beyond reasonable doubt”
 - 4) Other party is able to argue their case, but the onus is on them → departs from the ordinary criminal law processes of requiring the prosecution to prove beyond reasonable doubt
- **Law upheld – Condon v Pompano (state law)**
 - The court had discretion as to whether to conduct closed hearing – and could discontinue proceedings for procedural fairness
 - “Special closed hearings of criminal intelligence” regarding members of declared “criminal organisations”
 - Departure from open court and procedural fairness – but still valid, since court retained its decisional independence and powers necessary to mitigate extent of unfairness (French CJ):
 - 1) Court had discretion as to whether the information submitted by Commissioner of Police was criminal intelligence information
 - 2) Court had discretion to discontinue proceedings if unfair

- The power to grant preventative orders that restrict individual's liberty should be a judiciary function, not executive function – since it is guarded by the impartiality and independence of the court, along with procedural fairness (open court, legal representation, opportunity to be heard, reason-giving)
- The decision by Parliament to confer this power on the judiciary reflected a "parliamentary intention that the power should be exercised judicially, and with the independence and impartiality which should characterise the judicial branch of government"
- **Gageler J (dissent)** – constraining personal liberty based on what a person might do in the future is not compatible with judicial power – it was not based on ascertainable tests, there was too much scope for discretion by the courts – so essentially an executive function
- **REQUIREMENT 1: Benbrika (Federal Law)**
 - Power to order detention without adjudication of criminal guilt demands constitutional justification
 - The detention must be 'reasonably capable of being seen as necessary for a legitimate non-punitive purpose'
 - **Benbrika** confirms 'the **Lim** principle', i.e., the default characterisation of detention is punitive:
 - Aside from exceptional cases, detention is permissible only as a consequential step in adjudication of criminal guilt.
 - Exceptional cases:
 - Arrest and detention pending trial
 - Detention of persons suffering from mental illness or infectious disease
 - These exceptions can be expanded
 - **Benbrika** majority – legislation was for a valid non-punitive purpose to protect community against risk of terrorism (a rising social threat) – and it is the protective purpose that makes a power an exception to **Lim** and safeguards to liberty
 - Edelman J (agreed with majority for different reasons) → power to grant continuing detention order was comparable to criminal punishment, so fell within exclusive judicial powers
 - Gageler and Gordon JJ (dissent) → invalid, since lack of close correspondence between the ultimate non-punitive purpose to protect the community from terrorist acts and the immediate statutory objective of the detention order - to prevent crimes, some of which have a remote connection to a potential terrorist act (e.g. preparatory works)
 - **Thomas v Mowbray** (federal law) → valid – legitimate protective purpose against terrorism
 - **Vella** (state law) → valid – legitimate protective purpose against serious crime activities
 - **Fardon** (state law) → valid – legitimate protective purpose against sexual offenders
 - **Wainohu** (state law) → 2nd step was valid – legitimate protective purpose against criminal organisations
 - **Pompano** (state law) → valid – legitimate protective purpose against criminal organisations
- **REQUIREMENT 2: Ascertainable standards** [goes to **decisional independence**]
 - The power must be governed or bounded by ascertainable tests or standards capable of strictly judicial application
 - **Vella** (state law) → valid
 - Court had discretion to make the order according to ascertainable standards – unlike **Totani** where the court was mandated to make the order
 - Open-textured criteria – gives rise to rules which courts must assess future risk and balance conflicting interests → so room for wide judicial discretion and application before making an order
 - "Real or significant risk and reasonable grounds to believe and appropriate for protecting public by preventing crime – and could determine if it was appropriate to make any orders
 - **Gageler J (dissent)** – constraining personal liberty based on what a person might do in the future is not compatible with judicial power – it was not based on ascertainable tests, there was too much scope for discretion by the courts (opposite to **Totani**)