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Résumé/Abstract

Cet article relate trois grandes étapes dans l'évolution de deux processus étroitement reliés, l'administration civique canadienne et la justice urbaine au 19e siècle. Les cours de première instance, administrées à l'origine par des juges de paix assignés par la Couronne et soumis à sa tutelle, ont été transformées, à l'époque des incorporations municipales, en cours civiles sous la juridiction des maires et des élus municipaux. Finalement, les villes adoptent un système permanent de rémunération des magistrats nommés par le gouvernement, mettant ainsi fin à la tradition d'une magistrature urbaine non-qualifiée et réduisant les prérogatives judiciaires du bureau du maire.

La justice urbaine, le plus important service municipal au milieu du 19e siècle, a été en grande partie négligée par les historiens canadiens. Des études ultérieures permettront d'examiner la nature de la police et des cours et aussi, d'une façon prometteuse, d'explorer la question de la popularité relative des institutions locales de justice.

This article traces three broad stages in the evolution of two closely-related processes, nineteenth-century Canadian civic government and urban justice. Lower courts, originally administered by Crown-appointed paternalist justices of the peace, were transformed in the era of municipal incorporation into civic courts under mayors and aldermen elected by property holders. Eventually cities adopted permanent government-appointed stipendiary magistrates, ending the tradition of the urban lay magistracy and curtailing the judicial prerogatives of the office of mayor.

Urban justice, the most important mid-nineteenth century municipal service, has been largely neglected by Canadian historians. Future studies will continue to examine the class nature of police and the courts and hopefully also explore the question of relative popularity of the local institutions of justice.

Despite the wide range of themes explored in Canadian urban history in the past fifteen years, a neglected area is the development and role of the local institutions of justice. The comparatively late interest in Canadian criminal justice topics is related partly to the perception of law as an abstraction, best left to the attentions of legal historians. Yet the administration of justice in nineteenth-century Canada was inextricably interwoven with the form of local government.

This paper, an integration of original research and the growing body of literature on criminal justice, argues that the maintenance of civic courts, combined with police, was the cornerstone of Canadian urban government in the second-third of the nineteenth century. The focus is on the administrative reforms that transformed urban justice from a voluntary, ad hoc response to a more bureaucratic and professional system.

Three stages of urban justice are discernable: the era of Crown-appointed justices of the peace who also administered local affairs; police and city courts conducted by officers...
of municipal corporations; and police courts under permanent salaried magistrates. The pattern was general, allowing variations from province to province. Most of the major cities of British North America experimented with 'civic justice,' courts conducted by mayors and aldermen, before adopting permanent magistrates. In the same period civic government was transformed from its initial negative role of regulating public behaviour and arbitrating disputes to a more positive provision of services and promotion of economic development. Boosterism, however limited, became the primary concern of late Victorian city politics.

Paternalistic Justice

Early nineteenth century Canadian towns and cities, with one exception, were unincorporated communities administered by government-appointed justices of the peace and a handful of officials with limited duties, such as fenceviewers, hog reeves and assessors. The magistracy, empowered by the Crown to enforce the peace, was generally appointed from the ranks of the elite and functioned on a reactive, part-time basis.

Magistrates not only examined and tried the bulk of criminal offenders and debtors, they often performed primitive police duties with the assistance of town constables, part-time officers who were usually artisans or shopkeepers. The administrative duties of magistrates sitting in district or county quarters sessions ranged from determining taxation rates to regulating markets, reflecting the wide interpretation of the term 'police.' Most petty criminal proceedings and small debt litigation were handled by a small number of active justices of the peace who were awarded fees for each conviction. Magistrates also supervised early-nineteenth century police forces which were usually limited to traditional part-time town constables, night watchmen or special officers hired on a seasonal basis. In larger centres the general practice was the appointment of a senior justice of the peace as semi-permanent 'police magistrate' in charge of the police court. Police magistrates, who were assisted by other justices, were often trained barristers but they did not keep records of convictions, fines and fees. Halifax maintained a regular police office with a paid magistrate as early as 1815; in 1826 the magistracy of the town of York appointed a permanent police clerk to assist magistrates stationed in the police office on a rotating basis. Facilities in small centres were less ostentatious: most criminal convictions in mid-century, was assisted in police court duties by the mayor or chief magistrate, who remained a Crown official until mid-century, was assisted in police court duties by aldermen who also presided at the court of common pleas, a

employers. Justices of the peace were appointed on the basis of their social standing, political connections and wealth; as a New Brunswick journalist recalled, "It was something then to be a magistrate." With property came the obligations of service, including trying petty offenders, sending debtors to jail, informally settling disputes and personally intervening to quell disturbances. Paternalist relations were not built entirely on deference, as the many assaults and examples of resistance to magisterial authority attest. Bryan Palmer, in an interpretation heavily indebted to British and European analyses, describes pre-industrial Canadian paternalism as both a "self-conscious creation of the merchants, independent commodity producers and landed gentry" and a "negotiated acceptance by the various plebian subjects of the producing class." Applying a rigid theory of paternalist relations to the more fluid class system of British North America may be overly ambitious, but it is clear that community authority was highly personalized, operated on the principle of mutual obligations and combined harshness with benevolence.

Civic Justice

The struggle for responsible government in the 1840s, a subject that weaned entire generations of Canadian historians, was paralleled by a less-celebrated but equally-significant municipal revolution that established the principles of local autonomy and self-taxation by property-holders. It was no coincidence that radical and reform movements of the 1830s and 1840s, inspired by the British Chartists and American republicanism, criticized legal and urban administration by magistrates. Depictions of "jobbing" or "trading justices" such as Sam Slick's 'Justice Shallow' were common in colonial social criticism. Charlottetown's justices of the peace were accused of conducting hidden tribunals for the purpose of self-enrichment, displaying favouritism in recommending liquor licenses and prosecuting petty offenders, and failing to enforce statutes for local regulation out of laziness or timidity. Community regulation by part-time officials with business and family obligations suited the village, reformers in many centres argued, but not progressive towns and cities of the British Empire.

The magistracy as a class was not hostile to reformers' demands that legislatures recognize the principle of ratepayer accountability and local control. In many communities magistrates were prominent supporters of local improvement in the form of municipal institutions. One example that captured their attention was British North America's only incorporated city in 1830, Saint John. As T.W. Acheson indicates in his superb study of colonial Saint John, the 1785 royal charter, "designed to maintain a dignified society and restrain democratic excess," was patterned after that of a seventeenth century English market town. The mayor or chief magistrate, who remained a Crown officer until mid-century, was assisted in police court duties by aldermen who also presided at the court of common pleas, a
small debts tribunal. Saint John’s example indicated that limited democratic selection of judges — Acheson estimates that by 1851 one-quarter of adult males were freemen eligible to vote in ward elections — hardly encouraged republican-style justice.12

When British North America’s major centres incorporated, Montreal and Quebec in 1833, Toronto in 1834, Halifax in 1841 and Charlottetown in 1855, they adopted variations on the Saint John model with city courts under mayors and aldermen. Individual accounts of incorporation tend to stress local personalities and factors, such as sectarian violence, rising levels of crime, the threat of fire and disease or the political ambition of Reformers. A comparison of incorporation debates, whether in 1830s Toronto, 1840s Halifax or 1850s Charlottetown, indicates that municipal institutions were a standard administrative innovation, supported by coalitions of Liberals and Conservatives. Incorporation was a practical, not ideological, solution, similar to the introduction of permanent uniformed police, that transcended the details of local politics. Municipal self-government usually brought immediate or planned reorganization and expansion of police services and more stringent regulation of public behaviour through civic ordinances. Prior to its incorporation, for example, convictions for public drunkenness in Charlottetown were virtually unknown.13

How democratic was civic justice, or courts administered by mayors and aldermen? The election of radical William Lyon Mackenzie as Toronto’s first mayor in 1834 suggests that municipal authority could be used by Reform-minded freeholders against the Tory elite, but for the most part police courts reflected the conservative values of respectable artisans and merchants. Two factors precluded democratic control: the election of mayor or chief magistrate by and from the city council and a narrow municipal franchise. Mayors were first directly elected in Montreal in 1852, Saint John in 1854, Charlottetown in 1855 and in Toronto in 1859. Charlottetown’s 1855 constitution was one of the more radical: property-holders worth five pounds directly elected both mayor and aldermen who served as police magistrates.14 A restricted civic franchise underlined the fact that municipal politics was based on property and its protection. City charters were compromises designed not to offend the business elite and small freeholders who “disapproved of political power being entrusted to men unable to be their own masters.”15 The result was that participation in municipal affairs was limited to men who had a ‘stake in the community’; although the top echelons of the elite did not actively pursue municipal office, working-class input in local administration was minimal. The average offender was not tried before his peers but by officials recruited from and accountable to middle-class artisans and businessmen.16

Civic justice continued many elements of paternalist authority. The mid-century mayor was primarily a judicial officer who tried petty offenders and directed the police force; aldermen assisted in the police court, supervised small debts tribunals and often enforced vestiges of paternalist authority in their wards. The network of patron-client relations that dominated mid-century community life, as critics pointed out, presented opportunities for conflicts of interest when elected officials were expected to sit in judgement of their political supporters or co-religionists. Aldermen and city councillors also intervened by securing the release of individuals from police stations and by remitting fines imposed on illegal liquor dealers.17

**Stipendiary Magistrates**

The third stage in the evolution of urban justice was the transfer of mayoral and aldermanic judicial powers to permanent salaried magistrates with the intention of introducing a degree of non-partisan professionalism to police courts. The reasons were mixed, but the innovation was popular in common law jurisdictions. Temperance supporters argued that magistrates elected by the middle and lower-middle class were still prone to dangerous democratic pressures; businessmen complained that the burdens of civic office discouraged men of talent from offering their leadership. With the support of the civic bourgeoisie, provincial governments appointed stipendiary magistrates for Kingston in 1847, Saint John in 1849, Toronto in 1851, Montreal in 1852, Halifax in 1867 and Charlottetown in 1875.18 The innovation was also designed to free civic politicians from judicial and in some cases police responsibilities so that they could more actively improve services and promote economic development. Stipendiary magistrates, who were often trained barristers, enjoyed a degree of relative autonomy, but remained sensitive to community feeling. With the expansion of summary justice in the post-Confederation period, police magistrates presided over the busiest and most important courts in the country. The traditional key to the mayor’s perogatives, judicial powers, virtually ended, making the ‘chief magistrate’ little more than chairman of the city council and civic figurehead. Police magistrates, for example, often assumed the mayor’s traditional authority of swearing in special constables to meet emergencies such as riots. In the larger cities of Ontario and to a lesser extent in the Maritime provinces, stipendiary magistrates took an active role in police administration.19

Two themes have emerged from historians’ discussions of police courts under stipendiary magistrates: the importance of conservative and class-biased ideology and the notion that the lower court, although one of the most visible institutions of a justice system that leaned heavily upon the working class, was to a certain extent a popular community institution.20 Police courts, as with police forces, it appears, did more than control and punish behaviour threatening to the middle class; they arbitrated disputes within the working class and generally mediated urban life. Studies by Gene
Homel, Paul Craven, Thomas Thorner and Neil Watson, although not making explicit statements as to the harshness of police court justice, have as their underlying theme class or social control. Craven's innovative approach, based on the ideological importance of law, does take into account “maggisteral benevolence,” but concludes that the function of the Toronto police court was “to mark off the gulf between the respectable and the disreputable.” In her study of nineteenth-century seamen, Judith Fingard asserted that stipendiary magistrates, as compared to justices of the peace, “clearly favoured capital in its legal battles with labour.” Yet stipendiary magistrates, harkening back to the paternalist tradition, were not always authoritarian or unpopular. Craven, as well as Michael Katz, Michael Doucet and M.J. Stern, in their quantitative study of the Hamilton criminal class, illustrate that the police court was resorted to by people of all classes and was an object of working class curiosity, of justice.

In conclusion, nineteenth-century urban justice, whether dispensed by paternalist justices of the peace, ‘democratic’ mayors and aldermen or permanent professional magistrates, was viewed as a practical function of local government. It remains one of the urban services about which historians know the least. Documentation is one problem, particularly for quantitative analysis; in many cities lower court records were not instituted until the advent of stipendiary magistrates or were subsequently lost or destroyed by error, fire or intent. Nonetheless, criminal justice should emerge as the next growth field in Canadian urban and social history, thus case studies of lower court criminal prosecutions and civil litigation will doubtless ensue. The era of ‘civic justice,’ which despite the historic Canadian distrust of elected judges lasted in many cities for two decades, is worthy of detailed investigation. Subsequent interpretations will continue to address the themes described above, the interplay of class and authority and the relative popularity of local institutions of justice.

NOTES


2. Hamilton, for example, obtained a stipendiary magistrate with civic incorporation in 1846; Portland, New Brunswick, was served by a permanent magistrate in 1848, two decades before incorporation as a town. See: John Weaver, Hamilton: An Illustrated History (Toronto: John, New Brunswick, 1860-1890,” MA Thesis, University of New Brunswick, 1982.


20. Fingard, Jack in Port: Sailortowns of Eastern Canada (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1982), 188.