

Routledge Studies in Crime and Society

CHILDREN, CARE AND CRIME

TRAUMA AND TRANSFORMATION

Alison Gerard, Andrew McGrath, Emma Colvin and Annette Gainsford



Children, Care and Crime

The historical context of colonisation situates the analysis in *Children, Care and Crime* of the involvement of children with care experience in the criminal justice system in an Australian jurisdiction (New South Wales), focusing on residential care, policing, the provision of legal services and interactions in the Children's Court.

While the majority of children in care do not have contact with the criminal justice system, this book explores why those with care experience, and Indigenous children, are over-represented in this system. Drawing on findings from an innovative, mixed-method study - court observations, file reviews and qualitative interviews - the book investigates historical and contemporary processes of colonisation and criminalisation. The book outlines the impact of trauma and responses to trauma, including intergenerational trauma caused by policies of colonisation and criminalisation. It then follows a child's journey through the continuum of care to the criminal justice system, examining data at each stage including the residential care environment, interactions with police, the provision of legal services and experiences at the Children's Court. Drawing together an analysis of the gendered and racialised treatment of women and girls with care experience in the criminal justice system, the book particularly focuses on legacies of forced removal and apprenticeship which targeted Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women and girls. Through analysing what practices from England and Wales might offer the NSW context, our findings are enriched by further reflection on how decriminalisation pathways might be imagined. While there have been many policy initiatives developed to address criminalisation, in all parts of the study little evidence was found of implementation and impact. To conclude, the book examines the way that 'hope tropes' are regularly deployed in child protection and criminal justice to dangle the prospect of reform, and even to produce pockets of success, only to be whittled away by well-worn pathways to routine criminalisation. The conclusion also considers what a transformative agenda would look like and how monitoring and accountability mechanisms are key to new ways of operating. Finally, the book explores strengths-based approaches and how they might take shape in the child protection and criminal justice systems.

Children, Care and Crime is aimed at researchers, lawyers and criminal justice practitioners, police, Judges and Magistrates, policy-makers and those working in child protection, the criminal justice system or delivering services to children or adults with care experience. The research is multidisciplinary and therefore will be of broad appeal to the criminology, law, psychology, sociology and social work disciplines. The book is most suitable for undergraduate courses focusing on youth justice and policing, and post-graduates researching in this field.

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Children, Care and Crime

Trauma and Transformation

Alison Gerard, Andrew McGrath, Emma Colvin and Annette Gainsford



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Ultimately, this research was founded upon a commitment to meet research needs identified by community stakeholders. We hope it contributes to a fundamental shift in policy, practices and processes.

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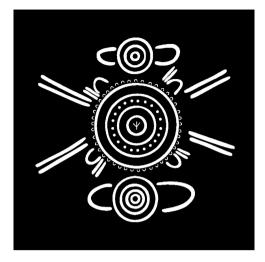
We would like to acknowledge the Boys to the Bush program; the mission of the program is centred on providing an environment for boys to be surrounded by positive influences and provide opportunities for success through encouraging mateship, resilience and a sense of belonging. The program recognises that there are 50,000 Australian children that are currently living in out-of-home-care arrangements and that four out of five young people in the juvenile system are males. To highlight and support the program, the authors approached Kurt Hancock, the Bathurst Program Manager for Boys to the Bush, to see if the boys from the program would like to create an artwork about their experience for inclusion in the book. Through assistance from Kurt Hancock, Kate Welsh and Brendan Boney, two Wiradjuri boys Joshua Dargin-Carr and Clayton Tarrant created the inspirational artwork Yawarra Dhulubang 'Take Care of Spirit' that appears on the first page of this book. The artwork symbolises the boys' experience through the following story. The emu footprint in the middle is a symbol of a young person moving forward not going back; the circles are support circles with a lot of support from different people on the outside. The dots symbolise a layer of protection. The lines pushing out symbolise a healing place, with four man symbols, to show strong men. The meeting place up top and bottom are two people having one-on-one mentoring. We the authors recognise the significance of this program and the guidance it provides to build strength-based approaches for boys.

Acronyms

ACCP	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Child Placement Principles
ACE	Adverse Childhood Experience
ACWA	Association of Child Welfare Agencies
ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
ADVO	Apprehended Domestic Violence Order
AIATSIS	Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
ALRC	Australian Law Reform Commission
APPG	All Party Parliamentary Group
ARC	Attachment, Regulation, Competency (model)
ASD	Aboriginal Strategic Direction
AVL	Audio Visual Link
AVO	Apprehended Violence Order
BAME	Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic
CAN	Court Attendance Notice
DCJ	Department of Communities and Justice
DOCS	Department of Community Services
DSM	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders
DOE	Department of Education (UK)
FACS	Family and Community Services
FASD	Foetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder
HREOC	Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission
ISP	Intensive Supervision Program
JJ	Juvenile Justice
LAC	Local Area Command
MOJ	Ministry of Justice (UK)
ODD	Oppositional defiant disorder
OOHC	Out-of-Home Care
PINOP	Person in need of protection
PRT	Prison Reform Trust

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PTSD	Post traumatic stress disorder
QAF	Quality Assurance Framework
MASH	Multi-Agency Safeguarding Hubs
NAO	National Audit Office (UK)
NSW	New South Wales
SNAICC	Secretariat of National Aboriginal and Islander Child Care
TAFE	Technical and Further Education
TCF	Therapeutic Care Framework
UK	United Kingdom
YJB	Youth Justice Board (UK)
YP	Young person



Yawarra Dhulubang

'Take Care of Spirit'

Joshua Dargin-Carr (Wiradjuri) and Clayton Tarrant (Wiradjuri)

The emu footprint in the middle is a symbol of a young person moving forward not going back, the circles are support circles with a lot of support from different people on the outside. The dots symbolise a layer of protection. The lines pushing out symbolise a healing place, with four man symbols, to show strong men. The meeting place up top and bottom are two people having one on one mentoring.

Introduction

Australia's child protection and criminal justice systems reflect legacies of colonisation, imperialism and globalisation. Contemporary social realities in Australia that see disproportionately large numbers of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people and those with care experience involved with the criminal justice system are indicative of this legacy. We recognise and reflect upon our privilege as part of the academy and as members of key disciplines – criminology, law, psychology and education – that have historically and contemporaneously inhibited engagement with Indigeneity and contributed to these realities (see Porter, 2019).

This book examines the involvement of those with care experience in the criminal justice system in an Australian jurisdiction. The majority of children in care do not come into contact with the youth justice system (Cashmore, 2011). However, among children involved in the youth justice system, those with care experience are over-represented (see Gerard et al., 2019). We focus on the processes of colonisation and criminalisation, rather than crime (see Aliverti et al., 2021). Our research took place in New South Wales (NSW), the most populous state located on Australia's East Coast. Child welfare is the responsibility of individual states and territories, but there are many similarities across jurisdictions. NSW was the site of the first encounters, both peaceful and violent, between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people. It was the site of the first colonial 'settlement', although the settlement could be more accurately described as an invasion. The Frontier Wars occurred in Sydney and its surrounds and marked the beginning of a brutal period for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. The landmark report into the forced removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples from their families and communities, the Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission's Bringing Them Home Report found that Indigenous children have been removed from their families since the first few days of European occupation (HREOC, 1997, p. 22). Moreover, Indigenous people's sophisticated practices and social rules around child rearing and family relationships have been, up until the present, poorly understood by the community, and in particular by case workers, judges and decisionmakers in child protection (Behrendt, 2019; Davis, 2019).

The historical context of child protection and colonisation is used to situate the contemporary practices that we observed in our mixed-methods study of care experience and involvement in the criminal justice system in NSW. As a research team, we have backgrounds in law, psychology, criminology and Indigenous education. We draw on theoretical frameworks from critical criminology, psychology and Indigenous standpoint theory to conduct this interdisciplinary study and better understand legacies of colonisation and pathways to transformation. In what follows, we introduce our theoretical approach to the research. We outline our terminology and definitions used and our research design, and we preview the content of each chapter.

Out-of-home care (OOHC)

Across Australia, there are 46,000 children in OOHC (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare [AIHW], 2021). A nationally consistent definition of OOHC was arrived at in 2018–2019, which includes legal and voluntary placements for children who are unable to live with their families due to child safety concerns (AIHW, 2021, pp. 47–48). A legal placement in NSW involves the Department of Communities and Justice successfully applying for a care and protection order to remove a child into the care of the department or a nominated carer. It is meant to be an option of last resort. There are four different types of OOHC: relative/kinship care, foster care, residential care and other forms of home-based care. Just over half of the children in OOHC are in relative or kinship care, with 37% in foster care, 7% in residential care and the remaining 1% in other forms of home-based care. Our research focuses primarily on residential care, which is understood as one of the main sites for the criminalisation of children with care experience and an environment that is potentially unsafe for children and staff, and in particular, culturally unsafe for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children (Cunneen & Libesman, 2000; Davis, 2019; Gerard et al., 2019). Our research was undertaken before and after the commencement of the 2016 NSW Government's Joint Protocol to Reduce the Contact of Young People in Residential Care with the Criminal Justice System (the Joint Protocol), prepared by the NSW Ombudsman in conjunction with stakeholders.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children are over-represented in the Australian child welfare system at a rate of about 11 times that for non-Indigenous children (AIHW, 2021). The over-representation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children in OOHC is a result of multiple factors explored in this book, including continuing practices of colonisation, intergenerational and transgenerational trauma, bias and systemic racism. Distinguished Professor Larissa Behrendt AO (Behrendt, 2019, p. 192), a Eualeyai/Kamillaroi woman who runs a legal practice in this area,

has observed an 'exponential growth in the number of cases of wrongful removal, or of cases where grandparents were deemed unsuitable as carers for children, coming through our doors'. The primary causes of overrepresentation also include the inaction of successive governments in addressing systemic faults in the child protection and criminal justice systems.

Advocacy by a group of Aboriginal grandmothers in NSW, known as Grandmothers Against Removal, led to a far-reaching inquiry into Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children and young people in OOHC. In 2016, the NSW Government commissioned senior law academic and Cobble Cobble woman of the Barrungam nation, Professor Megan Davis, to identify the reasons behind the high and increasing rates of Aboriginal children in OOHC in NSW and strategies to reduce this trend. The review made 125 recommendations, ultimately concluding that 'it is time for the NSW Government to formally acknowledge to Aboriginal communities, as well as the broader Australian community that, as an ostensible "parent", it can and does cause harm to children for whom it has parental responsibility' (Davis, 2020, p. XXXV). None of the recommendations have been responded to by the NSW Government.

Deficiencies in data collection further complicate the picture of child protection and the criminal justice system in NSW, particularly in relation to children in OOHC who cross over into the criminal justice system. Many of the key recommendations by Professor Davis were a commitment to data collection and research so that the picture of child protection can be properly understood and an Aboriginal quality assurance initiative introduced to ensure an appropriate standard of care and protection. Davis also recommended a roundtable with the Aboriginal community and stakeholders to determine how data sovereignty can be realised in the process of designing and collecting data for analysis.

Criminalisation of care experience: gender, trauma, colonisation and individuallstructural drivers

Characterisations of the main drivers of the criminalisation of those with care experience have typically fallen into explanations that centre either adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) or the residential care environment. We avoid this unhelpful framing and instead focus on the interaction of multiple and complex factors that contribute to criminalisation, including the ongoing impact of colonisation. Our approach is informed by Scraton's (2007) concept of 'speaking truth to power' and 'pursuing alternative accounts' in critical social research. In our study, we focus on 'how' certain acts are labelled and who has the power to label them (Scraton & Chadwick, 1991, p. 172). Key to this approach is considering the role power plays in creating an official discourse and privileging institutional knowledge (Burton & Carlen, 1979). In our research, we critically analyse what behaviours are valorised and what responses are prioritised – in other words, where agencies

place their emphasis and resources in the complex interplay between individuals and stakeholder organisations. In doing so, this book contributes our perspective on the relationship between colonisation and punishment. We agree with Aliverti et al.'s (2021) contention that for too long criminological inquiry has neglected these dimensions.

Structural approaches in critical social research

Scraton and Chadwick (1991) provide a critical analysis framework for understanding the process of criminalisation, particularly through critiquing the role of power in the decision-making of professionals working within the system. They argue that:

undoubtably professionals, be they employed in the caring agencies, the military, the criminal justice system or private industry, operate on the basis of professional training and work experience enjoying discretionary powers in accordance with their rank and status. Yet whatever the quality and implications of decisions formulated and administered at the interpersonal level of 'agency', their recognition and legitimacy are rooted in the determining contexts of 'structure'. and in their manifestation in the professional ideologies of control and political management. (p. 167)

Further, sometimes criminalisation can occur through repetitious, minor decision-making that at first glance may not appear controversial – as Giddens (1987, p. 9) argues, 'power is at its most intense and durable when running through the repetition of institutionalised practices'. Additionally, Scraton and Chadwick (1991) argue that the focus should be on the action and reaction contexts, not the causation elements as this is reductionist.

Scraton's (2007) work expands on criminalisation through the analysis of routine processes. He draws on C. Wright Mills's critique that policy and practice interventions are prioritised over care and advocacy and that classification and regulation are the driving principles in the training of professionals (p. 6). Gatekeeping information is used to protect official discourse. Key to Scraton's framework is being mindful of the consequences of interviewing 'up' the power structure. He asserts that:

interviews with senior officials and established professionals, particularly in circumstances where institutions are under scrutiny, usually are prepared and rehearsed by participants. Their purpose is to deflect criticism, negotiate or even reconstruct events. While the 'conditions' of the interview should always be honoured – anonymity, confidentiality, 'off the record' comments and so on – officials undertake interviews to represent and protect the interests of corporate bodies or state institutions. (p. 16)

We are mindful that in our research we interviewed up. Our qualitative interviews in this project thus represent an institutional view. This is a limitation of our research design, as explored in the next section.

The challenge for those in dominant law disciplines, often plagued by assumptions of value neutrality (Foucault, 1980, p. 131), is the ability to access in-depth knowledge in context and seek out the 'view from below'. 'Knowing', presented by Scraton (2007) as an antidote to 'the suppression of truth and the denial of responsibility', comes about in three ways: personal exploration, context and interpretation and understanding. These three factors are underpinned by witnessing and recording by the researcher. Scraton and Chadwick (1991) and Scraton (2007) provide a useful framework for critical analysis of the underlying structural factors that result in criminalisation, in particular, through the critical analysis of official discourse and of the propensity for routine institutional decisions to criminalise the less powerful in the system.

Historically, academic research has reproduced structural inequality, and in many cases, it has reinforced mechanisms of surveillance, control and marginalisation (Scraton, 2007, p. 6). This is particularly true of criminological research in Australia, which 'continues to operate without an acknowledgement of colonialism and its effects' (Porter, 2019; see also Cunneen & Tauri, 2016). Porter argues that:

criminologists must ask some unsettling questions: has criminology as a discipline failed Indigenous Peoples? And, if so, how can we do things differently? To what degree has criminology been complicit in the rising rates of Indigenous incarceration internationally? And what, if anything, does criminology have to offer these crises in criminal justice experienced by Indigenous Peoples around the globe?

(p. 123)

Cunneen and Tauri (2016, 2017) call for an Indigenous criminology that privileges Indigenous voices and experiences, speaks truth to power and meaningfully engages with Indigenous peoples and communities.

Keeping both individual and structural factors in focus

While this analytical emphasis on structure contributed to the analytical framework used in this book, we also felt that it was important to look at individual differences. We believe that structural approaches often leave out the individual. Cook et al. (2005, p. 390) assert that 'children exposed to complex trauma often experience lifelong problems that place them at risk of additional trauma exposure and cumulative impairment'. In line with this, we felt that a focus on the impact of trauma on behaviour was vital in unpacking lived experiences of criminalisation and victimisation.

Cook et al. (2005) describe the impact of exposure to complex trauma and identify seven domains of impairment. They point out that traditional diagnoses such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) do not capture the full impact of exposure to complex trauma. Disrupted attachment, particularly disorganised attachment, is likely to result from exposure to trauma. This attachment style results in certain 'themes' of behaviour - specifically, helplessness and coercive control. Disrupted attachment can cause a lifetime of disease and psychosocial dysfunction through increased susceptibility to stress, problems in regulating emotion and altered help-seeking behaviour. Complex trauma has profound neurological impacts, particularly around self-regulation and other executive functions in adolescence. Further, Cook et al. note profound difficulties in identifying, expressing and controlling emotions, disassociation as a coping mechanism, difficulty regulating behaviour, cognitive developmental problems and poor self-concepts. Given that trauma is a common element in the lives of children with care experience, understanding the nature of trauma-informed behaviour is vital to both understanding criminalisation and developing effective responses to such behaviour. Critically, Cook et al. (2005, p. 392) state that 'when the primary caregiver is too preoccupied, distant, unpredictable, punitive, or distressed to be reliably responsive, children become distressed easily and do not learn to collaborate with others when their own internal resources are inadequate'. We are interested in how this manifests when the primary caregiver is a shift worker in a residential care setting.

Harris and Fallot (2001, p. 3) highlight the impact a systemic lack of trauma-informed services has on survivors: 'systems serve survivors of childhood trauma without treating them for the consequences of that trauma' or even without an awareness that clients have experienced childhood trauma. These authors provide guidelines on trauma-informed care practice based on understanding the impact of trauma and incorporating this into every aspect of service delivery. This approach seeks to understand the history of the person being cared for and not just their behaviour. We use this approach to analyse and unpack responses to children's behaviour and how criminalisation can occur through inappropriate responses by OOHC service providers, law enforcement, lawyers and Magistrates. Notably, Harris and Fallot (2001) also discuss how important it is to be aware of power dynamics when implementing a trauma-informed approach within an organisation. This links to our previous discussion on power dynamics, colonisation and official discourse, enabling a more complex, in-depth analysis of trauma-informed responses that we draw on as we unpack our data in the following chapters.

While understanding trauma is an important aspect of our theoretical framework, we felt that there was an absence of cultural understandings of trauma that we saw as pivotal to analysing our data. Comas-Diaz, Hall and Neville (2019) unpack racial trauma, which is imperative to apply to the Australian context in respect of intergenerational trauma among Aboriginal

and Torres Strait Islander peoples and the ongoing legacy of colonial and neo-colonial child welfare policies. Racial trauma:

refers to the events of danger related to real or perceived experiences of racial discrimination. These include threats of harm and injury, humiliating and shaming events, and witnessing harm to other POCI (People of Colour and Indigenous People) due to real or perceived racism.

(Comas-Diaz et al., 2019, p. 1)

Comas-Diaz et al. talk of 'soul wounds' as an illustrative means of understanding the transfer of pain across generations. They also talk of resilience crossing generations alongside trauma. We wanted to unpack this further in our findings as it contrasts with a deficit model of understanding racial trauma and provides a means to adopt a strengths-based approach to addressing issues of criminalisation and victimisation. While Comas-Diaz et al. call for culturally appropriate interventions and recognition of intergenerational trauma is important, we also felt the need to incorporate culturally competent analysis through the lens of Australian Indigenous epistemologies.

We first consider seminal work that explores and unpacks the nature of trauma through an Indigenous/First Nations lens. Much of the literature that theorises in this space have been generated from Canada and Aotearoa New Zealand. We examine these theoretical frameworks generally and then explore how they can be applied to the Australian context. Blackstock et al. (2020) investigate how international law, particularly the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP), has the potential to provide a path forward to promote Indigenous voices, and children's agency, in future initiatives aimed at decolonisation. Our discussion also considers international treaties and agreements. Australia is a signatory to some of these (such as the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child), but there is a growing body of international jurisprudence around First Nations rights and this is something we tie into our analysis. However, Blackstock et al. argue that human rights paradigms tend to valorise individual rights over collective rights. They also posit that there are key ontological differences between Indigenous and non-Indigenous conceptualisations of 'care'. Blackstock et al. argue that although there are many different languages, cultural practices and contexts among different Indigenous peoples globally, they all share a common understanding of concepts such as time, land and relationships, and this Indigenous ontological perspective can provide a valuable approach to understanding trauma and how to respond to it. Critically, these authors note that 'Western thinking is deterministic, segmented, privileges new knowledge, and gives primacy to individual rights and current reality' (p. 2). In Blackstock et al.'s characterisation of Western thinking, the value of property is given primacy, and children are seen as chattels. Further, Blackstock et al. argue that understandings of child

neglect tend to focus on the individual faults of parents and family rather than on underlying structural elements that lead to poverty and neglect. And, this approach has a disproportionately negative impact upon First Nations families. Blackstock et al.'s argument that problem solving in this space needs to account for Indigenous ontologies and incorporate principles of self-determination has had a significant influence on our analysis and findings. These authors affirm that:

unless our respective child welfare systems fully embrace selfdetermination and self-management and embed human rights within child welfare legislation the position of First Nations and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children in child welfare will remain one of over representation and disconnection from family and Nation.

(p. 9)

Blackstock et al.'s research includes a comparison between Canada and Australia, which was useful for providing context to our analysis and offering a basis for international comparison.

Pihama et al.'s (2017) Aotearoa New Zealand-based research on Māori Trauma Informed Care Principles develops a specific set of principles derived from Kaupapa Māori, which is a collective set of ontological principles held by Māori people. These authors highlight the need for therapy to occur within cultural contexts. Dominant framings of trauma and traumainformed care are grounded in Western definitions and understandings (see, for example, Emmerson & Hopper, 2011), which means that the diverse experiences of trauma among different groups are not fully understood or addressed in current practice (see also Wirihana & Smith, 2014). By applying the Māori Trauma Informed Care Principles, culturally safe and effective practices can be developed for Māori communities. In this regard, it is also noteworthy that current practices do not acknowledge that 'massive group trauma experiences impact on collectives of people and manifest in conditions and behaviour that are often reconstructed within dominant pathologising view[s] as common traits belonging to Indigenous Peoples' (Pihama et al., 2017, p. 23). We were particularly interested in using these principles to inform our analysis. Pihama et al.'s framework is endeavouring to move beyond Western psychological notions of trauma as a one-off event and instead conceptualise trauma as something cumulative. We think critically about this in our analysis of whether and how such a program might be implemented in an Australian context.

Key to our analysis is a thorough understanding of intergenerational and transgenerational trauma. As noted above with reference to Pihama et al. (2017), group trauma, intergenerational trauma and transgenerational trauma are not routinely recognised within or incorporated into Western framings of trauma, nor developed into practice. Atkinson et al.'s (2010) work unpacks transgenerational trauma and group experiences of trauma in the Australian First Nations context, noting in particular that the definition of trauma is not settled. Definitions vary, from those that argue that trauma arises from a single event or events or from an environment to the characterisation of trauma according to an 'extreme/not extreme dichotomy', which, Atkinson et al. (2010) claim, shapes how people process and experience traumatic events as the same event. Yet, scholars have criticised the 'effectiveness of mainstream psychology for Indigenous People' (Atkinson et al., 2010, p. 136). The extent to which concepts like PTSD are able to accurately describe the impact of chronic stressors that pervade the lives of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people has been widely criticised (Atkinson, 2008, 1990, 2002; Cameron, 1998; Milroy, 2005; O'Shane, 1993). Atkinson et al. (2010) characterise these stressors as 'multiple, repeated, and of great severity', and as reinforced by three elements: 'the inability to identify and overcome a single source of stress', 'cumulative stressors' and the fact that those perpetrating the harms are 'well known to the victims'. More specifically, there is a distinction between situational trauma, which occurs as a result of a discrete event such as a car accident, a murder or being taken away, and cumulative trauma, which is more subtle and characterised by feelings that build over time, as occurs in response to racism, for example.

A disproportionately high number of children in OOHC are Indigenous. Therefore, the above observations about the nature of trauma experienced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and the inadequacy of psychological diagnosis and treatment apply. This may also extend to non-Indigenous children in OOHC, whom we know from the characteristics of those with care experience are likely to experience similar stressors compounded by the three elements referred to above, albeit without the additional layer of the unique trauma facing Indigenous peoples. Atkinson et al.'s examination of how trauma can influence future behaviours, particularly offending behaviours, is useful for our analysis. They critique the DSM-IV-TR definition of trauma, the prevailing diagnostic framework at the time, noting, as do Pihama et al. (2017), that Western definitions and practice are not culturally informed. Their review of the literature on intergenerational trauma provided us with a framework to apply to our analysis of intergenerational trauma. A common theme in the articles referenced in this section was the need for community-led change and culturally safe service provision.

Intersectionality in analysing legacies of colonisation and criminalisation processes

We recognise the need for an intersectional approach to analyse the historical and contemporary realities of colonisation and the specific criminalisation processes examined in this study. Criminology as a discipline has taken a long time to acknowledge and apply concepts of intersectionality (Porter, 2019). The term intersectionality was first coined by law scholar Kimberlé Crenshaw (1989, 1991). Crenshaw's conceptualisation, primarily focused on 'women of colour', takes in 'structural intersectionality', reflecting the structural factors that locate women of colour on the lower rungs of social strata, which, in turn, makes them more vulnerable to violence; 'political intersectionality', relating to discourses in family violence frameworks that silence or erase the experience and voice of women of colour; and 'representational intersectionality', in reference to cultural discourses that marginalise women of colour.

Intersectional theorists argue that by analysing these structural realities in terms of either race or gender, much is lost or erased, in particular the experiences of women of colour (Crenshaw, 1991). In an Australian context, this view is also reflected in Marchetti's (2008, 2013) analysis of the 1991 Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody (RCIADIC), which, by focusing on deaths in police and prison custody, ignored the experiences of Aboriginal women who had been the victims of family violence. Marchetti argues that when politics of race were privileged, and gender was set aside during the Royal Commission, 'a guiding assumption emerged from the investigations into the deaths and from the sociological, anthropological and criminological research: that young Indigenous males were more disadvantaged than Indigenous females' (p. 163). Marchetti's article highlights some confronting and difficult questions with which scholars need to grapple.

An 'additive' approach to intersectionality is not transformative (Porter, 2019). Paik (2016) draws attention to the theoretical tensions between intersectionality and criminology, particularly insofar as quantitative analysis has a tendency to rely on fixed categories. Yuval Davis (2006) stresses that researchers cannot assume that all individuals belonging to a race or gender are the same and that race, gender and class are not the only divisions. Yuval Davis critiques 'additive' approaches to using intersectionality, arguing that they can become essentialist and construct a 'right way' to be a member of a particular group, thereby making certain experiences 'invisible'. Tauri (2017, p.15, in Porter, 2019, p.127) has criticised Australian criminology for seeking to 'add a bit of colour' by incorporating selective Indigenous elements instead of committing to the 'significant overhaul' required to rid the discipline of its 'bias and obstructive prejudice that currently pervades Australian criminology'. British criminology has diluted the focus on race by using the term 'ethnicity' in its place (Parmar, 2017). Parmar suggests that this has been co-constitutive in that 'British criminology's unwillingness to engage with race has resulted in the reticence towards an intersectional approach and vice versa' (p. 35). Parmar argues that a more sophisticated intersectional analysis is required. Yuval Davis (2006) recommends assuming a social divisions approach to intersectionality. In doing so, Parmar argues, 'the point is to analyse the differential ways in which different social divisions are concretely enmeshed and constructed by each other and how they relate to political and subjective constructions of identities' (2017, p. 205).

An intersectional lens allowed us to identify the siloed approach that is prevalent across the board in treatment and support services. When people with multiple intersecting vulnerabilities, such as many of the careexperienced children in our study, come before the courts or are responded to in institutional settings, this siloed approach often results in inadequate responses. Delgado and Stefancic (2012) see intersectionality as a means to engage in 'legal storytelling' and thus to voice and make visible lived experiences of people ordinarily excluded or marginalised. This is particularly important for Indigenous women in the criminal justice system (Marchetti, 2008, p. 156). We thus draw on intersectionality to unpack the deep colonising practices and their impact which we observed in the courts during our research.

In conjunction with an Indigenous ontological approach, intersectionality also offers a framework with which to examine the role of resistance to colonisation and criminalisation processes. Looking at the role of resistance provides a pathway to a strengths-based approach, a relatively novel approach in criminology: 'Criminological studies that illuminate forms of resistance among racialized communities are scarce as are perspectives that interpret ethnic identity as a resource' (Parmar, 2017, p. 36). As Marchetti (2008) discusses, the non-reporting of family violence as a means of protecting children from removal is a good example of resistance from within the community. Our data also revealed instances of resistance by children and we explore this in the context of the systemic view of children as 'misbehaving' or 'troublesome'. The aim of our intersectional approach is not just to understand intersectional dynamics but to transform them (Parmar, 2017).

This chapter has outlined the four theoretical approaches that inform our analytical framework. We draw on structural determinants from Scraton's work, psychological theories of trauma, Indigenous ontologies and intersectionality to enrich our analysis. Our approach combines an individual and a structural lens. The challenge for our book is to meet the requirements set out here - 'intersectionality allows us to avoid overly deterministic structural analyses while also not assuming individuals operate independently of that structural context' (Paik, 2017, p. 9). Psychological models of stress and trauma, while useful in the case of adverse childhood events, do not capture the impact of intergenerational and historical trauma. There is a growing realisation of this, particularly as our understanding of epigenetics increases, and any trauma-informed care program that does not encapsulate this understanding will likely fail, especially in the case of First Nations people. Further, intersectionality offers a way to recognise and explore the diversity of experiences of care. This knowledge is applicable to quantitative research also, as more researchers examine interactions and mediating factors, recognising the complexity of human behaviour.

To explore these issues in the NSW context, we undertook a mixed-methods study consisting of qualitative interviews with key agencies involved in OOHC service provision and the criminal justice system. We also conducted court observation of Children's Court matters and carried out individual file reviews. We now provide an overview of our research design.

Research design

This project was initiated in response to a need identified by a community partner who felt that the involvement of children in residential care in the criminal justice system is both unnecessary and disproportionate. They also expressed concern that it is non-government agencies, charged with looking after children in care, who are calling the police and reporting the behaviour. We, therefore, set out to design a research project to investigate the criminalisation of children in care.

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Charles Sturt University Human Research Ethics Committee, protocol H17141. We also obtained approval from the Children's Court of NSW to conduct our court observations. This research is informed by the Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies (AIATSIS) Guidelines for Ethical Research in Australian Indigenous Studies. It was also informed by the experiences of one of the authors (Annette Gainsford), who is a Wiradyuri woman with care experience and experience as a carer.

Our research aimed to identify:

- the perceptions of frontline criminal justice professionals of the criminalisation processes that impact children in residential OOHC placements;
- the systems or processes that contribute to the criminalisation of children in OOHC;
- the differential impacts of demographic characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity and Aboriginality;
- the disparities in representation rates of children in OOHC across regional/metropolitan areas; and
- international decriminalisation practice.

In this book, we explore the processes through which children with care experience come into contact with the criminal justice system, starting with histories of trauma and concluding with contact with the court system. Data supporting this were drawn from three sources: qualitative interviews with key stakeholders, court observations and file reviews. Given this, we do not describe results from each part of the study in turn; rather, we interweave these data into the overall findings presented in the book as they relate to each step in the process. The method pertaining to each part of the study is now described.

Qualitative interviews

Our book draws on qualitative research undertaken with criminal justice and social welfare professionals working on the frontline of the care– criminalisation nexus. These stakeholders are OOHC service providers (n = 17), NSW Police Force representatives (n = 10), Juvenile Justice officers (Department of Justice employees supervising children on community-based sanctions) (n = 19), Department of Family and Community Services employees (n = 5), defence lawyers, community legal centre lawyers and lawyers working in the care jurisdiction of the NSW Children's Court (n = 14) and Children's Court magistrates (n = 10). In the UK case study, interviews were conducted with 10 key stakeholders. Interviews were semi-structured, involving a core set of questions that were followed up by open-ended prompts where necessary. We started by asking about the participant's general experience in the criminal justice system before moving to specific questions relating to care-experienced children.

Our analyses followed the six phases described by Braun and Clarke (2006) but were also informed by these authors' later conceptualisation of 'reflexive' thematic analysis, which sees themes as 'creative and interpretive stories about the data, produced at the intersection of the researcher's theoretical assumptions, their analytic resources and skill, and the data themselves' (Braun & Clarke, 2019, p. 594). We took a semantic approach, identifying themes based on the explicit, rather than latent, meaning of the data. All of the researchers read the interview transcripts, thereby becoming familiar with the data and developing initial ideas to guide subsequent analyses. These were then discussed collaboratively, and codes were developed based on these discussions. The interview data were then entered into NVivo by individual researchers based on separate coding of each interview transcript undertaken independently by each researcher. Where obvious disagreements were observed, these were discussed and resolved by the research team to ensure consistency in coding across the dataset. A further meeting was then held at which the codes were collated into themes using a thematic map. We understood a theme to represent a repeated pattern of meaning across the dataset, substantiated by relevant extracts. Rather than report these themes individually, we contextualise them in reference to certain aspects of the interface between the care and criminal justice systems.

We were not able to interview people directly impacted by the criminalisation of those with care experience in NSW and this is a limitation of our research. Indigenous stories provide a challenge to stereotypes and promote healing and counter-narratives of strength (Anthony et al., 2021; Behrendt, 2019). Behrendt (2019) and Anthony et al.'s articles illustrate the richness created by enabling the conditions for First Nations women to speak directly about experiences of child removal and interactions with the criminal justice system. This scholarship makes us pause, reflect upon and acknowledge the limitations of our own research design. We chose not to interview people in custody or the care system. We decided that we could not effectively surmount the institutional barriers to gaining access to people in custody or under other forms of community supervision. Instead, we spoke to professionals in these organisations charged with responsibility for children in care or with care experience. Our pilot study and our subsequent study started and finished with frontline professionals as interview respondents. We involved those with care experience and Indigenous people in the analysis of the material in an advisory capacity. Our UK case study did interview one person with care experience. Three of the stakeholders we interviewed were Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander (n = 3). We sought to address these limitations in our sample by establishing an Advisory Board that included Aboriginal representation and people with lived experience of the care system. We also informally consulted Aboriginal lawyers and carers as well as local Elders. In this regard, of immense benefit to our research has been the lived experience of Wiradyuri woman Annette Gainsford (co-author of this book), who was a member of our initial Advisory Board and has experience of the care system as both a care leaver and a carer.

Court files

We reviewed a number of Children's Court files as part of our analysis. We accessed these files through the court registry and later entered relevant details into a database. We reviewed 107 files relating to 92 individuals -65 males (70%) and 27 females (30%). For 22 (23%) of the files, there was evidence of Indigenous status - 16 males (73%) and 6 females (27%). We also found evidence on file of a care background for 22 (23%) of the children whose matters we reviewed. Other variables coded were whether there were reports on file, such as a Juvenile Justice pre-sentence report (28%). evidence of a mental health condition (30%), homelessness (26%), abuse and neglect (20%), educational problems (33%) and a criminal history (32%). It is likely that these figures are underestimates as only minimal information was provided in a number of files. Figure 1 shows these findings in more detail, highlighting the differences between the children with and without care experience. It is clear from these findings that the care-experienced children whose court files we reviewed were more likely to have a mental health condition, have had educational problems, have been in custody previously, have evidence of abuse and neglect on file and have a history of homelessness.

In addition to these quantitative analyses, we chose a number of files to analyse in greater detail. Specifically, given our interest in intersectionality, we selected four files relating to Indigenous males, four relating to Indigenous females, four relating to non-Indigenous males and four relating to non-Indigenous females. Two of the research team (AM and EC) read each file carefully and made notes. These two researchers then discussed each file in detail and created a file note describing each and highlighting pertinent themes. We refer to these file analyses throughout the book where appropriate.

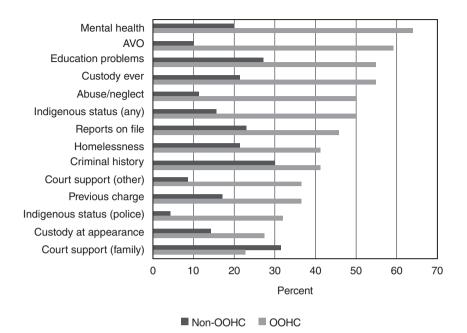


Figure 1 Differences between children with and without care experience (court files).

Court observations

We observed a total of 150 hours of court proceedings spread across three major outer metropolitan Children's Courts. These related to 134 separate matters, involving 83 males (62%), 41 females (31%) and 10 (7%) where the gender could not be determined, as there was no personal appearance by the young person. For 22 (16.4%) of these matters, there was clear evidence of Aboriginal status, determined either by the defendant's Aboriginal status being made known in court or representation by the Aboriginal Legal Service. Our approach was guided by previous court observation studies (Booth, 2012; Hannah-Moffat & Maurutto, 2012; Tait, 2001). Court observation not only allows researchers to collect data on how processes and procedures play out in the court setting but also provides a deeper view of the power structures at play (Garapon, 1997) and the subtle influences on decision-making, such as the physical appearance of children and the presence of family member support in the courtroom (Booth, 2012; Danziger et al., 2011; Tait, 2001).

At least two researchers were present in court for each observation. Each took notes, concentrating on the type of matter being observed but also on other relevant factors such as the demeanour of the child and magistrate, and the presence or absence of support people in court. These notes were collated into a single document, developed by all the researchers. From this document, we developed a series of vignettes that were mapped on to the broader themes relating to the cycle of care and criminalisation. Some quantitative information was also extracted and entered into a database. In particular, we coded for whether the child was supported in court. There was evidence in court of a care background for only six (4.5%) of the young people whose cases we observed. A total of 23 (17%) matters were for sentence, 70 (52%) were bail determinations or extensions and the remaining 41 were Apprehended Violence Order (AVO) matters. As there were only six cases where we could find evidence of care experience, we were unable to make comparisons based on this variable as we did with the file review data.

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics from the court observations. Approximately 60% of the matters we observed were at one major outer metropolitan court in Sydney; 13% were at a second court and 28% were at a third. There was evidence of Indigenous status in 16.4% (n = 22) of the cases. Of these, nine (41%) were female and 12 (59%) were male. Nearly, a quarter of the children (23.9%) coming before court were in custody at the time, with a number of these appearing by video link. Just under 30% of the children were accompanied by family members, and 12% were accompanied by a carer or some other non-family support person. There were significant gender differences in this regard, with males more likely to be supported by family members (38.6% compared to 19.5%, p = 0.033) and females more likely to have some other form of support (22% compared to 8.4%, p = 0.035).

As with the file reviews, we developed more detailed accounts of the matters we found to be of particular interest or significance and, similarly, make no claim as to how generalisable these are.

Terminology

Care-experienced: We use the term 'care-experienced' to encompass children who have at some stage been in the care system. We understand that children cycle in and out of care and our research includes children who have been in care but may not have been in care at the time of their court appearance.

Cultural competency: For the purposes of this research, 'cultural competency' refers to knowledge of Indigenous peoples and cultures, the ability to communicate effectively and work proficiently with Indigenous peoples and communities and the acknowledgement of cultural difference and associated differing worldviews in the process (Universities Australia, 2011).

Cultural safety: For the purposes of this research, 'cultural safety' relates to creating and providing an environment where Indigenous peoples feel culturally, socially and emotionally safe, and where there is no challenge to a person's Indigenous identity (Williams, 1999).

Indigenous: For the purposes of this research, the terms 'Indigenous', 'Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander' and 'First Nations' are used

	All^a	$Male^b$	Female	р
Court				
Court 1	58.9	69.9	30.1	p = 0.301
Court 2	12.9	50	50	p = 0.301
Court 3	28.2	68.6	31.4	p = 0.301
Gender	61.9			1
Indigenous status	16.4	14.5	22	p = 0.295
Court support (family)	29.9	38.6	19.5	p = 0.033
Court support (carer)	11.9	8.4	22	p = 0.035
OOHC	4.5	3.6	7.3	p = 0.366
Custody at appearance	23.9	19.3	29.3	p = 0.211
Sentencing matter	17.2	19.3	17.1	p = 0.766
Bail determination/extension	52.2	51.8	56.1	p = 0.652
AVO	29.9	30.1	24.4	p = 0.505
S28	8.2	7.2	9.8	p = 0.627
S32	4.5	3.6	7.3	p = 0.366
FTA	9.7	7.2	12.2	p = 0.360

Table 1 Descriptive statistics from court observations broken down by gender

Note: a – N = 134, 7.5% (N = 10) gender unknown; b – N = 124, 10 cases where gender was unknown removed from analyses; c – Court 3 had significantly more Indigenous young people than Court 1 (p < .05); d – Court 3 had significantly fewer s.28 applications than the other two courts (p < .05).

interchangeably throughout, depending on context. The use of Indigenous refers to peoples who are the first inhabitants across Australia, Canada, Aotearoa New Zealand and other colonised countries, depending on context.

Kinship: 'Kinship' refers to Aboriginal social organisation that relates to family relationships and responsibilities.

Self-determination: For the purposes of this research, Indigenous 'selfdetermination' is defined as Indigenous peoples having autonomy over the cultural, social, economic and political agendas that govern their lives.

FACS/DOCS/Department of Communities and Justice: During the course of the research, the names of relevant NSW government departments changed. When referring to the government department responsible for child protection and child welfare, we generally use the term FACS (Family and Community Services) as this was the department's name at the time of data collection. Previously, this department was known as DOCS (Department of Community Services), so some research participants still referred to this older terminology and some quotes therefore use DOCS. FACS is now a division of the Department of Communities and Justice (DCJ).

Youth Justice/Juvenile Justice: At the time the research was conducted, the relevant department for children in the youth justice system was called Juvenile Justice. We use this term as it is the one used by our research participants. The department is now known as Youth Justice, a division of DCJ.

Understanding the criminalisation of those with care experience

This book begins with an overview of the historical and contemporary context of OOHC in Australia. Chapter 1 outlines the available statistical profile on the characteristics of children in OOHC in Australia and how the current system operates according to official accounts. It then establishes the historical context of the criminalisation of care-experienced children in Australia by examining two key developments. The first is the practices of forced removal that targeted cultural difference and brought about the Stolen Generations, but we focus on more than the Stolen Generations. We illustrate how the frontier wars arrived at our hometown of Bathurst and led to the declaration of martial law and the deaths of many hundreds of Aboriginal people and some 13 Europeans. We chart the various overlapping periods of protection, segregation and assimilation that led to the Stolen Generations and analyse the resistance to, and the impact of, these destructive policies historically and today. Second, we analyse the reception of English approaches to penal welfare that significantly impacted Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people and communities, and also ensnared particular non-Indigenous communities. This approach enshrined the focus on 'delinquent' children identified for 'saving' and led to the additive approach of affixing welfare to 'the administration of juvenile justice' (Carrington & Pereira, 2009, p. 26). The final part of Chapter 1 evaluates the research on the impact of 'care experience' on children and adults, and the overlap of children with care experience also engaging with the criminal justice system. It pays particular attention to the research from other colonial countries such as Aotearoa New Zealand and Canada.

Chapter 2 examines the impact of trauma. This chapter overviews the impact of ACEs on physical and mental health, and its relationship with the criminal justice system. We focus particularly on the impact of intergenerational trauma caused by policies of colonisation such as criminalisation and forced removal from families and communities. This chapter then explores the evidence linking trauma to offending and highlights trauma-informed care approaches that decentre immediate behaviour to refocus on the traumatic histories of children in care.

The setting for conflict between behaviour and support services for those with care experience is often the residential care environment, a form of group-based care that is explored in Chapter 3. Residential care in NSW is outsourced to the private sector. Previous research has identified that inadequate responses to challenging behaviour are driving unnecessary criminalisation of children in residential care (Shaw, 2016; Staines, 2016). Based on our data, Chapter 3 examines how OOHC service providers engage with children and other agencies associated with residential care such as law enforcement, Juvenile Justice and the Children's Court. It also reviews the regulatory environment of residential care in NSW. The importance of ensuring cultural safety for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children, effectively a legislative requirement in NSW, is discussed.

The policing of children with care experience forms the focus of Chapter 4. The chapter analyses the relationships between care experience, OOHC service providers, police and involvement in the criminal justice system. In the Australian context, the relationship between police and those with care experience, particularly Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, has a long history (HREOC, 1997). Since European occupation of Australia, police have regularly been on the frontline of the administration of policies of colonisation such as forced removal and forced relocation (Cunneen, 2001).

Chapter 5 analyses the significant role that lawyers play in advising and representing children with care experience who come into contact with the criminal justice system. This chapter explores the interview, file review and court observation data to understand how lawyers interact with children in care. It highlights new research on trauma-informed lawyering that would readily benefit children in care. Chapter 5 concludes with an examination of cultural competence and legal services for children in care.

Chapter 6 examines the relationship between care-experienced young people and the NSW Children's Court, one of the oldest specialist Children's Courts in the world. This chapter reviews Australian and international research on the extent of care-experienced children's contact with the criminal justice system and explores our data against these findings. The court experience itself is examined, before turning to focus on two specific aspects of appearing in court that have serious ramifications for care-experienced children – bail and mental health.

Chapter 7 engages 'legal storytelling' (Bedford, 2019) to draw together a gendered analysis of our data focusing on the differential experience of girls and women with the care system. We unpack gendered understandings of historical approaches to care that included specific institutions for girls and women and use an intersectional framing to centre Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children and adults. The global literature on the overrepresentation of women and girls in care is examined before moving to an analysis of the three key themes that emerged in our research. The first is the narrative that girls are more 'difficult', which pushes girls' propensity for increased trauma to the periphery and instead centres their problematic behaviour. The second relates to how self-harm and responses to it accelerate criminalisation. The third concerns how resistance may result in further criminalisation.

Chapter 8 explores international approaches to care experience by reviewing the results of our case study from England and Wales. In our NSW pilot study, several of our respondents discussed innovations in England and Wales that were leading to a decrease in criminalisation. As a result, we built into our study qualitative interviews with key informants from relevant criminal justice and social welfare agencies in the United Kingdom, including care leavers. The chapter provides an overview of the considerable momentum in the United Kingdom around addressing the criminalisation of children with care experience. This chapter details the changes in policing and the administration of OOHC and the resultant impact on the involvement of those in care in the criminal justice system. While not uniform, these changes reflect what is possible. Chapter 8 draws together what the UK case study can offer the NSW context and, in doing so, the chapter enriches the NSW research by promoting further reflection on how decriminalisation pathways might be imagined.

In our conclusion, we examine the way that 'hope tropes' are regularly deployed in child protection and criminal justice to dangle the prospect of reform, and even to produce pockets of success, only to be whittled away by well-worn pathways to routine criminalisation. We highlight how this serves as a mechanism for the system to breathe: enabling it to attain some level of legitimacy and demonstrate a capacity for reform, only to retract and contract in maintaining the normalisation of criminalisation, in particular of those with care experience and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. We examine what a transformative agenda would look like and how monitoring and accountability mechanisms are key to new ways of operating. Finally, we explore strengths-based approaches and how they might take shape in the child protection and criminal justice systems.

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