CHAPTER 36

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR SEX OFFENDERS*

A. Introduction

If you have been convicted of or pled guilty to a sex offense, there are special issues you should know about. Sex offenses are defined differently in each state. Common sex offenses include sexually touching or having sex with another person, when that other person is:

1. forced to act;
2. unable to agree to sexual behavior (“incapacitated”); or
3. under the age of consent (a child or minor).

Most sex offenses are felonies. However, some lower-level sex offenses are characterized as misdemeanors. These lower-level offenses include sexual misconduct, forcible touching, and sexual abuse in the third degree. In New York State, most sex offenses appear in Article 130 of the Penal Law of the State of New York.

This Chapter will focus mainly on the more serious felony sex offenses and specifically on New York law. However, this Chapter will also discuss laws from other states as examples. Each state has very specific laws on this topic, so you must always check the laws in the state where you were convicted.

Some sex offender laws may apply to people who have committed crimes that are not usually considered sex offenses. For example, the New York Sex Offender Registration Act applies to people convicted of crimes which are not included in section 130 of the Penal Code and do not necessarily involve any sexual contact with another individual, or are not even sexual in nature. The Act applies to kidnapping a minor (Article 135), prostitution offenses (Article 230), or offenses against the right to privacy (Article 250).

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* This Chapter was revised by Daniel Lennard, based on previous versions by Carrie Lebigre, Mia Gonzalez, Jennifer Parkinson, Lynnette Phillips, and Kristen Heavey.

1. In some states, sending sexual messages to a minor without a plan to have sexual contact with that minor is a crime. While the Supreme Court has not decided on this question, the Seventh Circuit held that sending sexual messages online to a minor, without a plan to actually have sexual contact with that minor, is not a crime under 18 U.S.C. § 2422(b), because that person did not take a “substantial step” towards completing the crime. United States v. Gladish, 536 F.3d 646, 2008 U.S. App. LEXIS 16228 (7th Cir. 2008). The Second Circuit (New York is in the Second Circuit) has held that this crime only requires intent to entice. United States v. Brand, 467 F.3d 179, 202, 2006 U.S. App. 25887, at *64 (2d Cir. 2006); United States v. Douglas, 626 F.3d 161, 164, 2010 U.S. App. LEXIS 24024, at *8 (2d Cir. 2010). That is, even if the person fails to go through with the sexual acts, they can still be found guilty of violating the statute if they had an intent to entice someone into engaging in these acts with them. Similarly, the Ninth Circuit has held that sending sexual letters and encouraging a meeting is sufficient to support a conviction for attempting to persuade, induce, entice, or coerce a minor to engage in unlawful sexual activity. United States v. Goetzke, 494 F.3d 1231, 2007 U.S. App. LEXIS 18232 (9th Cir. 2007).

2. A person might not be able to agree to engage in sexual behavior because he or she is mentally disabled or mentally incapacitated. N.Y. Penal Law § 130.25 (McKinney 2013).

3. N.Y. Penal Law § 130.20 (McKinney 2014) (sexual misconduct is a class A misdemeanor).

4. N.Y. Penal Law § 130.52 (McKinney 2014) (forcible touching is a class A misdemeanor).

5. N.Y. Penal Law § 130.55 (McKinney 2014) (sexual abuse in the third degree involves subjecting another to sexual contact without the latter’s consent, and is a class B misdemeanor).


8. N.Y. Penal Law § 135 (McKinney 2014). Kidnapping, which is not a sex offense under normal circumstances, becomes a sex offense for purposes of the Sex Offender Registration Act (and, therefore, the Act will apply to a kidnapper) if the victim is under seventeen years of age and the perpetrator is not the parent. N.Y. Correct. Law § 168-a(2) (McKinney 2013).

9. N.Y. Penal Law § 230 (McKinney 2013). Specifically, the New York Sex Offender Registration Act requires registration for persons convicted of §§ 230.04 (patronizing, that is, using, a prostitute) if the person patronized (that is, the prostitute) is under the age of seventeen, 230.05 (patronizing a person below the age of fifteen for prostitution, while being above the age of eighteen), 230.06 (patronizing a person below the age of eleven for prostitution, or patronizing a person below the age of thirteen for prostitution while being above the age of eighteen), 230.30 (promoting prostitution through force or intimidation, profiting from another’s promotion of prostitution, or promoting or profiting from the prostitution of a person below the age of eighteen), 230.32 (knowingly promoting or profiting from the prostitution of a person below the age of thirteen, or doing the same for a person below the age of fifteen while being above the age of
Laws about sex offenses are always changing, and you must be careful to read current statutes to see which apply to you. This Chapter covers issues of special importance for sex offenders based upon the laws in effect at the time of publication.

This Chapter begins with topics most important to your everyday life in prison, such as protective custody (if you believe that you are in danger of being harmed by other prisoners), counseling and the consequences of not going to counseling, and good time credits.

Next, this Chapter discusses other issues that might come up in legal proceedings in which you’re involved. These issues include HIV testing and post-conviction DNA testing. The courts may require these tests based upon your status as a sex offender. These tests might even be required if you have only been accused, but not convicted, of the offense for which you are incarcerated.

Finally, this Chapter discusses issues that may arise during and after your release from prison. Some of these issues include special parole conditions for sex offenders, community registration, the Adam Walsh Act (a federal sex offender law), and civil confinement.

Some of these topics are addressed in more detail in other places in the JLM.11

B. Protective Custody

You may become a target for abuse if other prisoners know you have been convicted of a sex crime. If this happens, or if you think it could happen, most prisons will let you seek “protective custody.”

In protective custody, you are kept from contact with the general prisoner population. Prisoners who may be placed in protective custody include potential victims, witnesses likely to be intimidated, and prisoners who, for one reason or another, are unable to live safely in the general population. Protective custody can be required or voluntary.12 Although protective custody is for the prisoner’s protection and not punishment, prisoners in protective custody may have limited opportunities for some things such as scheduling out-of-cell time, access to library services, and use of the commissary.13 Despite these limitations, you might be better off in protective custody if you feel threatened or in danger.

C. “Recommended” Counseling and the Loss of Good Time Credits

The New York Department of Corrections and Community Supervision (“DOCCS”) has an Earned Eligibility Program, which is supposed to give eligible prisoners an incentive to work on the issues that may have led to their incarceration.14 This program recognizes that “many inmates are motivated to achieve a positive change in their lives.” It aims to help them “prepare to live law abiding lives in the community,” and it “assist[s] and guide[s] inmates in preparing for their release.”15 In New York, you may be able to earn time off your sentence (“good time credit”) for “good behavior and efficient and willing performance of duties” that are assigned to you while in prison and/or for “progress and achievement in an assigned treatment program.”16 Assigned treatment programs can include sex offender counseling.17 If you do not attend counseling, you risk losing your good time credits.18
Chapter 35, “Getting Out Early: Conditional & Early Release,” for a detailed explanation of the requirements and procedures for earning good time credits.

17. Twenty facilities in New York State that offer sex offender counseling and treatment programs are currently listed on the New York State Department of Corrections and Community Supervision website. The length of the program will vary depending on the category you will be assigned to. The treatment is divided into three categories: Low Risk, Moderate/High Risk, and High Risk. If you are assigned to the Low Risk category, then treatment will last 6 months. If you are in the Medium/High Risk category, the program will last anywhere from 9 to 12 months. If you are in the High Risk category, the program will last anywhere from 15 to 18 months. Your risk level will be determined at a program site by a sex offender program staff member. Sex Offender Counseling and Treatment Program (SOCPT), N.Y. State Dept. of Corr. & Cmty. Supervision, http://www.doccs.ny.gov/ProgramServices/guidance.html#socpt (last visited Feb. 20, 2017). Enrollees have 10–12 hours a week of group counseling, so a low risk participant will go through approximately 260 hours of counseling in his six months in the program. DOCCS Fact Sheet: SOMTA/Civil Management, N.Y. State Dept. of Corr. & Cmty. Supervision (Dec. 2007), http://www.doccs.ny.gov/FactSheets/somta.html (last visited Feb. 20, 2017). If you are considered a sex offender because you either committed (or attempted to commit) a sex offense, displayed behavior of a sexual nature in committing a non-sex crime, or your need for sex offender counseling is identified, you will be transferred to one of the institutions where counseling is offered when you are eligible to begin the program. If you are in the Low Risk category, you can begin the program 18 months before your release date. If you are in the Moderate/High Risk or High Risk category, you can begin the program 36 months before your release date. Sex Offender Counseling and Treatment Program Guidelines, N.Y. State Dept. of Corr. & Cmty. Supervision (Feb. 2016), http://www.doccs.ny.gov/ProgramServices/SOCTP_Procedures_and_Guidelines.pdf (last visited Feb. 20, 2017).

18. N.Y. Corr. Law § 803(1)(a) (McKinney Supp. 2014). This law was in effect until September 1, 2015 and explains that good behavior allowances (or good time credits) may be withheld, forfeited or canceled in whole or in part for, among other things, “failure to perform properly in the duties or program assigned.” It was replaced by the equivalent N.Y. Corr. Law § 803(1)(a) (2015).


21. N.Y. Comp. Codes R. & Regs. tit. 7, § 260.2. The statute makes clear that the good behavior allowances, or good time credits, are a privilege that need to be earned by a prisoner and, therefore, no prisoner has the right to demand these allowances/credits.


In several ways, including through sexual contact, HIV is transmitted. Contact is one way to transmit this virus, almost every state (including New York) has a law allowing or requiring the shared use of drug needles, and other methods that result in an exchange of bodily fluids. Because sexual contact is one way to transmit this virus, patients are told they need to get counseling if it is recommended to them.

For these reasons, you should make every attempt to get counseling if it is recommended to you.

1. Self-incrimination in counseling

Before October of 2008, prisoners could be required to essentially admit to crimes in counseling. For example, they could be forced to produce “sexual autobiographies.” This rule has been changed. You can only be required to speak about your past sexual behavior in general terms, without having to mention specific details. You cannot be required to admit to any specific crime in order to participate in treatment and receive good time credits.

D. HIV Testing

HIV is the virus that causes AIDS. HIV can be spread in several ways, including through sexual contact, shared use of drug needles, and other methods that result in an exchange of bodily fluids. Because sexual contact is one way to transmit this virus, patients are told they need to get counseling if it is recommended to them.

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requiring courts to order HIV testing for convicted sex offenders or defendants charged with sex offenses.\textsuperscript{32} Additionally, the federal government may perform HIV testing on any prisoner who has been sentenced to at least six months imprisonment if the health services staff at the prison determines that the prisoner is at risk for HIV infection. It may also perform an HIV test on any prisoner sentenced to less than six months, who may have transmitted HIV to prison employees or to other non-prisoners.\textsuperscript{33}

Typically, there are two kinds of HIV testing that may be required by law: “informational testing” and “evidentiary testing.”

Informational testing laws require testing criminal defendants so that the state can provide information about the defendant’s HIV status to others who may have been exposed to HIV by the prisoner.\textsuperscript{34} This includes telling the defendant’s HIV status to either a crime victim or someone who had contact with the defendant’s fluids during arrest. Informational HIV test results may sometimes be allowed as evidence in the defendant’s trial, but each state has a different rule regarding who may access the test results and how they may be used.

Evidentiary testing laws exist in states where transmission of HIV can be a crime. In these states, a defendant is tested for HIV in order to produce evidence for the prosecution.\textsuperscript{35}

For more detailed information about HIV testing and testing for other infectious disease, see JLM Chapter 26 “Infectious Diseases: AIDS, Hepatitis, and Tuberculosis and MRSA in Prison.”

1. Informational Tests

Different states have different regulations for informational HIV testing. States have different rules for when a test should be done, for who is allowed to find out about your test results, and for whether the results can be used in criminal proceedings. Some statutes allow the court to decide if you should be tested for


\textsuperscript{33} 28 C.F.R. § 549.12(a)(2) (2016).


HIV, while other statutes require the court to order testing if the victim requests it. In some states, testing is automatic.

Some states do not allow test results to be shown to the court or used in criminal or civil proceedings against the defendant, but other states allow the use of HIV test results by the prosecution. Be sure to read a copy of the statute from your state in order to learn what the law is in relation to your case.

Some defendants have challenged statutes that allow pre- or post-conviction HIV testing against the defendant’s wishes. They did so by claiming that these statutes violate the Fourth Amendment’s ban on unreasonable searches. Most of the time, the courts have determined that these statutes are constitutional.

Some courts say that some Fourth Amendment protections—warrant and probable cause—do not apply when (1) the reason for the test is a “special need” beyond ordinary law enforcement; and (2) that special need justifies the privacy intrusion.

(a) New York

New York has its own laws about HIV testing. In New York, the nature of the testing depends on the status of your case. If you have not been convicted but there is an indictment or information filed, then the court must order you to take an HIV test at the victim’s request, if it “would provide medical benefit to the victim or a psychological benefit to the victim.” The results will be given to the victim and you, but not to the court.

You may be required to take an HIV test even if there has been no showing that telling the victim about your HIV status would benefit the victim. This is because you have made your medical condition an

36. See, e.g., Or. Rev. Stat. § 135.139 (2013) (allowing court to order HIV testing for charges where body fluids may have been transferred from one person to another when the court finds there is probable cause to believe (1) you committed the crime; (2) the body fluids were spread to the victim;

37. See, e.g., N.Y. Crim. Proc. Law § 210.16(1)(a) (McKinney 2007) (requiring HIV testing when (1) the victim requests it within six months of the date of the alleged felony offense; and (2) the felony offense includes as an essential element an act of “sexual intercourse,” “oral sexual conduct,” or “anal sexual conduct” as defined in section 130.00 of the penal law).


39. See, e.g., N.Y. Crim. Proc. Law § 390.15(6)(a)(ii) (McKinney 2005) (limiting disclosure “to the victim, the victim’s immediate family, guardian, physicians, attorneys, medical or mental health providers and to his or her past and future contacts to whom there was or is a reasonable risk of HIV transmission,” and plainly forbidding disclosure “to any other person or the court”).

40. See, e.g., N.Y. Crim. Proc. Law § 390.15(8) (McKinney 2005) (information on HIV status obtained by consent, hearing, or a court order may not be used as evidence against you in a criminal or civil proceeding related to the events that you were convicted for); Tex. Code Crim. Proc. Ann. art. 21.31(c) (Vernon 1989 & Supp. 2005) (preventing use of test results in any criminal proceeding resulting from the alleged offense).

41. See, e.g., Alaska Stat. § 18.15.310(e)(2) (2012) (allowing use of HIV test results when necessary for civil proceedings against a defendant); Cal. Penal Code § 1202.1(c) (West 2004) (allowing disclosure of HIV test results to the prosecution for use in an additional criminal charge or to increase the defendant’s sentence).

42. See, e.g., Seaton v. Mayberg, 610 F.3d 530, 534 (9th Cir. 2010) (“A right of privacy in traditional Fourth Amendment terms is fundamentally incompatible with the close and continual surveillance of inmates and their cells required to ensure institutional security and internal order,” quoting Hudson v. Palmer, 468 U.S. 517, 527–28, 104 S. Ct. 3194, 3201, 82 L. Ed. 2d 393 (1984)) (Seaton found that the 4th Amendment did not prevent disclosure of the prisoner’s medical records); Connor v. Foster, 833 F. Supp. 727, 730–31 (N.D. Ill. 1993) (finding that HIV testing against prisoner’s wishes did not violate the 4th Amendment when prisoner’s hypodermic needle pricked the finger of an officer during a frisk search); Virgin Islands v. Roberts, 756 F. Supp. 898, 904 (D.V.I. 1991) (holding that the 4th Amendment allowed HIV testing against defendant’s wishes), aff’d, 961 F.2d 1567 (3d Cir. 1992); People v. Adams, 149 Ill. 2d 331, 352–54, 597 N.E. 2d 574, 584–86 (1992) (finding that an Illinois statute requiring prisoners convicted of sex offenses to undergo HIV testing was constitutional, and did not violate the 4th Amendment or the Equal Protection Clause); In re Juveniles A, B, C, D, E121 Wash. 2d 80, 98, 847 P.2d 455, 463 (1993) (en banc) (holding that statute requiring HIV testing of sexual offenders is reasonable under the 4th Amendment, does not violate the right to privacy, and may be applied to juveniles).

43. See In re Juveniles A, B, C, D, E, 121 Wash. 2d 80, 91, 847 P.2d 455, 459 (1993) (en banc) (citing Skinner v. Ry. Labor Executives’ Ass’n, 489 U.S. 602, 619, 109 S. Ct. 1402, 1414, 103 L. Ed. 2d 639, 661 (1989)). See also United States v. Ward, 131 F.3d 335, 342 (3d Cir. 1997) (holding that a convicted rapist had to undergo a mandatory HIV test, because telling the victim about a potential HIV infection and preventing the spread of HIV were “special needs,” which justified the blood test).

issue and have given up your right to confidentiality.\textsuperscript{45} If you have been convicted of certain sex offenses, a separate law requires that a court order HIV tests at a victim’s request.\textsuperscript{46} If you have been tested under a court order, the results of the test cannot be used against you in court.\textsuperscript{47}

\begin{itemize}
\item[(b)] Federal
\end{itemize}

Under federal law, specifically the 1994 Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), a victim of certain sex offenses can ask a federal district court to order a defendant to get tested for HIV. These results are given to the victim (and/or the victim’s parent or legal guardian) and the defendant.\textsuperscript{48} “[T]he victim may then disclose the test results only to any medical professional, counselor, family member or sexual partner(s) the victim may have had since the attack.”\textsuperscript{49}

Unlike New York law, which only authorizes testing the defendant after conviction, VAWA allows a court to order testing of a defendant before they have been convicted of certain sex offenses. Although VAWA is a federal law, it applies to accused sex offenders who are being prosecuted in state court under state criminal laws.\textsuperscript{50}

This means that no matter what the laws of the state you are in say, you could be required to take an HIV test and to provide the results under VAWA. However, in New York, victims can also request HIV test results under New York State law.\textsuperscript{51}

Some provisions of VAWA have been challenged in federal courts.\textsuperscript{52} The few courts to consider the question have generally upheld the federal testing provision.\textsuperscript{53}

There is a possibility that a challenge to the HIV testing provisions of VAWA might someday succeed. You should read the most recent case law to determine if the rules have changed at all. Furthermore, VAWA was amended in 2013. Although the amendments do not change the specific laws on HIV testing, be sure to look at the most recent version of VAWA if you believe it applies to your case.

\section*{2. Evidentiary Testing Laws}

In many states, if you know you are HIV positive, it is a crime for you to have sexual contact with another person without telling the other person your HIV status beforehand.\textsuperscript{54} In states that criminalize HIV transmission, the court must order an HIV test in order for the prosecution to prove one element of the crime (that is, that you are HIV positive). In such situations, the HIV test results may be used against you in your criminal case.\textsuperscript{55}

\begin{itemize}
\item[45.] People v. Durham, 146 Misc. 2d 913, 916, 553 N.Y.S.2d 944, 946–47 (Sup. Ct. Queens Cnty. 1990) (ordering defendant to be tested for HIV after he told his rape victim that he had HIV and thus placed his medical condition at issue); \textit{In re Gribetz}, 159 Misc. 2d 550, 553, 605 N.Y.S.2d 834, 836 (Ct. Ct. Rockland Cnty. 1993) (holding that HIV test results were needed to prove defendant had acted recklessly and with depraved indifference to human life, and that the defendant had waived her right to privacy since she had already discussed her HIV status).
\item[48.] 42 U.S.C. § 14011(b)(5) (2012). Note that VAWA consists of several subtitles, which can be found throughout the United States Code. Only the subtitle relevant to HIV testing of prisoners is cited here.
\item[49.] 42 U.S.C. § 14011(b)(5) (2012).
\item[51.] N.Y. Criminal Procedure Law §210.16 (McKinney 2016).
\item[52.] For example, in United States v. Morrison, 529 U.S. 598, 627, 120 S.Ct. 1740, 1759, 146 L. Ed. 2d 658 (2000), the Supreme Court invalidated 42 U.S.C.A. § 13981, the portion of VAWA that provides a civil remedy to victims of gender-motivated violence.
\item[53.] \textit{See, e.g.}, United States v. Ward, 131 F.3d 335, 339–40 (3d Cir. 1997).
\item[54.] \textit{See, e.g.}, Fla. Stat. Ann. § 775.0877(3) (West 2010) (allowing a defendant who was previously convicted of a sexual offense and tested positive for HIV, who then commits a second sexual offense, to be charged with criminal transmission of HIV); Ga. Code Ann. § 16–5–60 (2011) (criminalizing behavior by a person who knows that he is HIV positive, who then exposes another person to HIV through sexual behavior, sharing drug paraphernalia, or donating blood or other bodily fluids); 720 III. Comp. Stat. Ann. 5/12–5.01 (West Supp. 2013) (allowing a defendant to be charged with criminal transmission of HIV if defendant knows he is HIV positive and then engages in sexual contact, donates blood or other bodily fluids, or shares intravenous drug paraphernalia with another person); Iowa Code Ann. § 709C.1 (West 2003) (criminalizing the knowing transmission of HIV positive bodily fluids or drug paraphernalia previously used by the person infected with HIV); Mich. Comp. Laws Ann. § 333.5210 (West 2001) (criminalizing “sexual penetration” by a person who knows he is infected with HIV or AIDS, and who does not tell his sexual partner about his infection).
\item[55.] \textit{See, e.g.}, People v. C.S., 222 Ill.App.3d 348, 355, 164 Ill.Dec. 810, 583 N.E.2d 726, 731 (2d Dist 1991) (noting that the positive results of the HIV test performed on defendant would be essential to a future prosecution under state
E. Post-Conviction DNA Testing

Investigations of sex offenses often involve collecting bodily fluids like semen or blood. These fluids can then be submitted for DNA testing to help identify perpetrators. If you have been convicted of a sex offense and you are trying to prove that you are innocent, DNA evidence could be helpful and may be available. See JLM Chapter 11, “Using Post-Conviction DNA Testing to Attack Your Conviction or Sentence,” for more detailed information.

F. Special Parole Considerations

1. Parole Generally

You may be paroled—that is, conditionally released from prison—before you have served your entire sentence.\(^{56}\) You will be required to follow certain rules from the time of your early release until your full sentence is finished. The state parole division will supervise you and make sure that you do not “violate parole” by breaking these rules.\(^{57}\) During this time, the parole division is also required to assist you in reintegrating into the community.\(^{58}\) In New York, you are not usually eligible for parole if you have received one or more “determinate” sentences (a sentence where the court specifies a fixed amount of time you will be in prison, as opposed to a range of time).\(^{59}\) If you have received a determinate sentence, you will also be subject to a period of “post-release supervision.”\(^{60}\) However, the state board of parole supervises prisoners released under both parole and post-release supervision.

2. Special Parole Conditions for Sex Offenders

If you are convicted of a sex offense and released on parole, your parole officer will probably impose special conditions or restrictions on you. These conditions may include mandatory address verification and restrictions on how close you can come to school grounds or child care facilities.\(^{61}\) Courts will not look at the rules a parole officer makes you follow to decide whether they are helpful or fair.\(^{62}\) As long as the parole officer’s decision follows the law and makes some sense as a response to your record, the officer’s decision is final.\(^{63}\)

\(^{56}\) Black’s Law Dictionary 1227 (9th ed. 2009). See also N.Y. Exec. Law § 259-a–c (McKinney 2012) (describing generally the organization and duties of the New York State Division of Parole).

\(^{57}\) N.Y. Exec. Law § 259-c (McKinney 2012) (describing the supervisory duties of New York State Division of Parole).


\(^{59}\) N.Y. Penal Law § 70.40–45 (McKinney 2012). For example, “5 years” would be a determinate sentence, and you would probably not be eligible for parole. However, if you received “3 to 6 years,” this would be an indeterminate sentence, and you might be eligible for parole after three years. If you received more than one sentence, with one sentence determinate and another indeterminate, you might still be eligible for parole. If you received sentences that can be served concurrently (at the same time) then you may be paroled after you have served the minimum period of the indeterminate sentence or after you have served six-sevenths of the determinate sentences, whichever is later. N.Y. Penal Law § 70.41(a)(iii) (McKinney 2012). If you received sentences that have to be served consecutively (one after another), then you may be paroled after you have served the minimum amount of time in the indeterminate sentence plus six-sevenths of the total length of the sentences put together. N.Y. Penal Law § 70.41(a)(iv) (McKinney 2012).

\(^{60}\) N.Y. Penal Law § 70.45 (McKinney 2012).


\(^{62}\) See Ahlers v. N.Y. State Div. of Parole, 1 A.D.3d 849, 849, 767 N.Y.S.2d 289, 289, 2003 N.Y. App. Div. LEXIS 12601, at *1–2 (3d Dept. 2003) (holding that a parole officer was allowed to require a convicted sex offender to attend substance and alcohol abuse treatment programs as a condition of the offender’s parole and that this decision was “beyond judicial review”).

\(^{63}\) M.G. v. Travis, 236 A.D.2d 163, 167–169, 667 N.Y.S.2d 11, 14–15, 1997 N.Y. App. Div. LEXIS 12822, at *7–8 (1st Dept. 1997) (citing Briguglio v. N.Y State Bd. of Parole, 24 NY2d 21, 28, 246 N.E.2d 512, 516, 298 N.Y.S.2d 704, 710, 1969 N.Y. LEXIS 1512, at *15–17 (1969) to support the proposition that decisions of the parole board cannot be reviewed by the courts as long as the parole board does not violate any statutory obligations, and the court’s only ability is to review the board’s decision to determine whether it was arbitrary or capricious).
3. Incarceration Beyond Your Conditional Release Date

If you are imprisoned in New York State, you will have to tell the Parole Board where you plan to live after prison when your release date is coming up. The Parole Board can make you change your plans. If you do not get approval for your living plans after release, you can be held in prison beyond your conditional release date (parole date). Courts will allow you to be held until you have a living situation the Parole Board approves of. Often, the Board will not let you live near schools or other places that care for children under the age of 18. Sometimes the state has rules about where you may or may not live after release; sometimes these rules are local (in a county, city, town, and village).

4. The Importance of Following Parole Rules

If you have been convicted of a sex offense, the Division of Parole will be especially strict in making sure you follow all the rules of your parole, and will send you back to prison if you break those rules. It is very important that you comply with the requirements and conditions the Parole Board imposes.

G. Community Registration and Notification Laws

1. Generally

In 1989, states began to pass Community Registration and Notification laws, often called “Megan’s Laws.” These are called Megan’s Laws after Megan Kanka, a seven year old girl who was murdered in New Jersey in 1994, and whose death prompted New Jersey to pass the first Megan’s Law. Today, all fifty states have these laws. Although the exact laws are different in each state, the Federal Government requires that
all states collect your name, addresses of where you live and work, information about your physical appearance, fingerprints, a DNA sample, conviction history, a copy of your state issued license/identification card, and license plates of your car if you have one. Additionally, states are required by federal law to tell you about your duty to register, to check your address every year, to tell the police when you move, and to give the public any information about you that it might need to protect itself.

Challenges to state Megan’s Laws have usually failed. States are allowed to impose Megan’s Law requirements on sex offenders who were convicted before the laws existed. States are also allowed to post a convicted sex offender’s picture and information on the internet without giving him a hearing.

In Connecticut Department of Public Safety, the Court suggested that someday, a defendant might show that a Megan’s Law violated “substantive due process,” a set of rights protected by the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution. Under substantive due process, laws have to be fair and reasonable and the government has to have a legitimate reason for creating them. Even though the Court left this possibility open, it has mostly let states do what they want with Megan’s Laws, and a substantive due process challenge to a Megan’s Law would probably not succeed right now.

In another case dealing with due process and Megan’s Laws, the Sixth Circuit upheld a law that made young sex offenders register even though their records had been sealed because they had pleaded guilty to a sexual offense and completed a “diversion program.” The Court said that there was no substantive due process violation.

2. Residency Restrictions

Most states have laws that forbid certain convicted sex offenders from living near any sort of childcare center, but courts have required that these laws make an exception and allow an offender to stay where he is if a daycare center moves nearby after he has purchased a home. In Mann v. Georgia Dept. of Corrections, the Supreme Court of Georgia said that the state could not make a convicted sex offender move from a home he owned near a daycare, even though there was a Georgia law prohibiting him from living within 1000 feet
of a daycare. The court explained that because he owned the home (instead of renting it, or living in it for free) it was unfair for the state to make him move without paying him for the house. The court also said that Georgia was still allowed to forbid a convicted sex offender from working near any childcare facility.

Another case addressing similar restrictions is Doe v. Pennsylvania Board of Probation and Parole, where the court ruled that if a state law treats convicted sex offenders who were convicted in that state differently from convicted sex offenders who were convicted out of that state and moved there after release, that law may be unconstitutional. This case only applies to the Third Circuit (Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Delaware), so you should check what laws apply in your area.

3. New York

(a) Overview

New York’s version of Megan’s Law is called the Sex Offender Registration Act of 1996 (or “SORA”), which requires convicted sex offenders to register with the New York Division of Criminal Justice Services. The Division will keep a file on you which will include your:

1. name;
2. aliases (other names) used;
3. date of birth;
4. sex;
5. race;
6. height;
7. weight;
8. eye color;
9. driver’s license number;
10. home address, or the address of the place you expect to live;
11. Internet account information and any screen names you use;
12. photograph;
13. fingerprints;
14. a description of the crime of which you were convicted;
15. the name and address of any higher education institution where you are or expect to be enrolled, attending, or employed, and whether you will live in housing provided by that institution;
16. if you are a high risk offender (discussed below), the address where you either work or expect to work; and
17. any other information deemed pertinent by the division.

If you were convicted of (not just charged with) any of the offenses in the paragraph below, you are a “sex offender” under SORA and you must register with the Division of Criminal Justice Services before you leave prison. You must register if you were convicted on or after January 21, 1996, or if you were in prison on parole for a sex offense on January 21, 1996.

You MUST register as a sex offender if you have been convicted of committing or attempting to commit one or more offenses under any of the following sections:

- New York Penal Law Sections 120.70 (luring a child), 130.20 (sexual misconduct), 130.25, 130.30, 130.40, 130.45, or 130.60 (certain offenses involving rape, criminal sexual acts, or sexual abuse)
- New York Penal Law Sections 230.34 (sex trafficking), 250.50 (unlawful surveillance), 255.25, 255.26, or 255.27 (offenses involving incest) or any provision of Article 263 of the penal law (offenses involving sexual performance by a child);
- New York Penal Law Sections 130.52 or 130.55 (forcible touching or sexual assault). If you have previously been convicted of another listed sex offense, then the age of the victim of the offense under 130.52 or 130.55 does not matter; otherwise, you must register as a sex offender only where the victim of the offense was under 18 years old;

New York Penal Law Sections 135.05, 135.10, 135.20, or 135.25 (offenses involving imprisonment or kidnapping if the victim of the kidnapping is less than 17 years old and you are not the parent of the victim);

New York Penal Law Section 230.04 (when you are convicted of patronizing a prostitute who is actually younger than seventeen);

New York Penal Law Sections 230.05, 230.06, 230.30(2), 230.32, 230.33 (offenses involving patronizing prostitutes or promoting prostitution);

New York Penal Law Section 250.45 (2), (3), or (4) (offenses involving unlawful surveillance)

Unless you petition the trial court, and the court holds that registration would be too harsh;


any offense in any jurisdiction which has the same elements as any of the crimes listed above.

If you were convicted of a sex offense in another state, you still have to register under SORA, as long as you petition the trial court, and the court holds that registration would be too harsh.

You will have to re-register with the Division of Criminal Justice every year for at least twenty years. If you are a “high risk offender,” (discussed below) you will have to register every year for the rest of your life, and you will have to give your address to the local police every 90 days.

(b) Risk Assessment Hearing and Right to Appointed Counsel

Under SORA, the sentencing court will put you in one of three categories depending on your “risk level.” Your “risk level” is the court’s decision about how likely it is that you will commit other sex offenses. The court makes this decision after a Board of Examiners of Sex Offenders looks at your case and makes a recommendation to the court.

The Board uses a Sex Offender Registration Act Risk Assessment Instrument worksheet to decide what your risk level should be. This worksheet lists different factors and gives a number value to each factor. The Board sees which factors you have and then adds up the number for all of those, which corresponds to your risk level. The factors are related to your crime, criminal history, personal background, and future plans.

If any of the following four factors are present, you are automatically a category 3 (high risk) offender:

(1) you have a prior felony conviction for a sex crime;

(2) you inflicted serious physical injury or caused death;

(3) you have made a recent threat that you will re-offend by committing a sexual or violent crime; or

(4) there is a clinical assessment that you have a psychological, physical, or biological problem making you unable to control your sexual behavior.

According to 1999 amendments to SORA, you have a right to a lawyer at your risk level hearing, which occurs about a month before your release. The court can appoint one for you if you cannot afford one.

you had a court-appointed lawyer at your trial, the court should appoint one for you automatically. If you paid for your lawyer at trial, but cannot afford one now, you must apply to have one appointed before your hearing.

You should attend your risk assessment hearing. The hearing is the one opportunity to challenge your risk level by giving the lawyer information about the case or your history that the court otherwise would not have. Many convicted offenders have chosen not to attend, either to avoid the hassle of transportation or the embarrassment of the subject, only to realize later the harsh lifetime consequences of receiving a level three risk classification.

Before your hearing, the district attorney must give you the evidence used to decide your proposed risk. If he wants you to have a different risk level than the Board recommended, he has to tell you and explain why at least ten days before your hearing.

Any information the Board used to determine your risk level should be available to you and your lawyer. This information may include records from state or local correctional facilities, hospitals, institutions, District Attorneys, law enforcement agencies, probation departments, the Division of Parole, courts, and child protective agencies.

The court is allowed to delay your hearing until after your release if they need to do that in order to decide your case properly.

(c) Registration and Notification

Your risk level says how much information about you and your crime can be given to the public. If you are classified as level 1 (low risk), local law enforcement is notified of your presence in the community and may release any information about you to the community generally or to specific institutions at its discretion. Information it may release includes a photograph, your zip code, background information (including the crime you were convicted of), the method of the crime, the type of victim, the name and address of any institution of higher education at which you are enrolled, work, attend, or reside, and any special conditions imposed on you (such as a condition that says you are not allowed to be around children).

If you are classified as level 2 (moderate risk), law enforcement is notified and may release the information above as well as your exact name and any aliases. Furthermore, law enforcement will keep a list of schools, parks, libraries and other vulnerable areas and organizations, and will notify these organizations of your identity automatically.

If you receive a level 3 (high risk) designation, all of the information above, as well as your exact address and place of employment, can be given both to vulnerable institutions and to the public at large.

There are also phone numbers (1-900-288-3838 and 1-800-262-3257), which the general public can call to find out whether someone is a registered sex offender. These phone numbers include all registered sex offenders in New York (levels 1–3). A person calling this number will learn only that a level 1 offender is listed in the registry; far more detailed information is available about level 3 offenders. Callers must identify themselves and must also provide identifying information about the sex offender in order to secure information by telephone. They must know information about the sex offender such as his social security number, address, license number, and date of birth.

In addition, each police department in New York is required to have a publicly accessible book, the “Subdirectory of High-Risk (Level 3) Sex Offenders,” that people can look at if they send a written request. The subdirectory provides detailed information about level 3 sex offenders residing in New York, including the offender’s address, photograph, and a description of the crimes he committed and how he committed them.

96. See Memorandum from Thomas O’Brien, Legal Aid, February 13, 2009.
The New York state sex offender registry is also available online at http://www.criminaljustice.ny.gov/nsor/. Beyond the information law enforcement makes available, parent volunteers, from at least one private organization, hand-copy additional information and have made it available in an online database.105

(d) Amendments to SORA

Amendments that went into effect in March 2002 changed the definition of “sexually violent offender” and “sexual predator.” Currently, you are considered a “sexually violent offender” if you were convicted of a “sexually violent offense.”106 Sexually violent offenses include crimes such as rape, criminal sexual act (meaning forced anal or oral sexual contact), sexual abuse, aggravated sexual abuse, sexual abuse of a child, and predatory sexual assault against an adult or a child (meaning sexual assault involving physical injury, threat of injury, or repeated assaults).107 You are considered a “sexual predator” if you were convicted of a sexually violent offense and you have a mental or personality disorder that makes you likely to commit predatory sexually violent offenses.108 If you are found to be a “sexually violent offender” or “sexual predator” you will automatically get a level 3 risk (high risk) classification. While the court has to look at each case individually, you can be classified as level 3 even if the crime you were convicted of is a misdemeanor, because risk level classification is based on how likely you are to repeat your offense.109

Other amendments to SORA give sex offenders the right to a civil appeal after the court assigns them a risk level and a right to a lawyer in that appeal.110 You also have the right to appointed counsel if you file a motion to have your sex offender classification changed, which you may do if your circumstances change.111

4. The Adam Walsh Act

(a) Generally

In July 2006, Congress passed The Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act. Title I of the Act set out a national system for the registration of sex offenders called the Sex Offender Registration and Notification Act (“SORNA”).112 SORNA is a very complicated law, and states have had difficulty implementing it. Therefore, this Chapter will only discuss some key provisions, as it is unlikely your state has adopted all of SORNA. You must check your own state’s law carefully and see what, if any, parts of SORNA it has adopted.113

New York has not adopted SORNA (which sounds similar to, but is different from SORA, the New York State law). If you live in New York, you must register with the New York state registration system, SORA, described in Section G(2) of this Chapter. You may nonetheless have to register with SORNA if you travelled between states.114

If your state has adopted the SORNA system, SORNA applies to you if you have been convicted of a “sex offense” in your state.115 SORNA requires that certain juvenile offenders register as well. If you were fourteen-years-old or older at the time of the offense, and were convicted or adjudicated “delinquent” for “aggravated sexual abuse” or a similar crime, or for an attempt or conspiracy to commit these crimes, you have to register.116

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113. For a list of state laws, see Part G(1), footnote 70, of this Chapter.
114. United States v. Guzman, 591 F.3d 83, 94 (2d Cir. 2010) (applying SORNA registration requirements to defendants, even though their state had not implemented the requirements).
You need not register if you were convicted of a crime listed in SORNA before it existed. The Supreme Court recently reversed a Department of Justice rule to the contrary.\footnote{117}

Under the Attorney General’s guidelines for SORNA, some definitions of offenses may be broader than they are under other laws and may apply to you even if they had not before SORNA.\footnote{118}

States have been resistant to SORNA because of how difficult and expensive it is to put into practice, and because parts of the law are different than states’ own laws.\footnote{119}

Just like under New York law (SORA), SORNA requires sex offenders to register either just before release, or right after sentencing if you are not in custody.\footnote{120} SORNA, like SORA, divides sex offenders into three tiers based on the seriousness of their crime and places different restrictions on each. Tiers are assigned according to the length of imprisonment, the age of the victim of the offense, and the nature of the offense committed.\footnote{121}

How long you have to register as a sex offender depends on what SORNA Tier you are in. Tier I offenders must register for fifteen years; Tier II offenders must register for twenty-five years; and Tier III offenders must register for their entire lives.\footnote{122}

Under SORNA, you will also have to personally appear before the government to verify their registration information.\footnote{123} How often you have to appear before the government is determined by which Tier offender you are. Tier I offenders must appear in person at least once a year; Tier II offenders have to appear at least every six months; and Tier III offenders must appear at least every three months.\footnote{124}

If anything changes during the period of time in which you are required to register, you must notify the government within three days of any changes to your name, address, employment, and student status.\footnote{125}

Your state may adopt SORNA and use more strict classifications than those required by the Act, but it cannot adopt less strict classifications.\footnote{126}

Keep in mind that even in states that have adopted SORNA, implementation and effectiveness can vary. For this reason, your state’s regulations will probably influence your situation more than SORNA.

(b) Who can access this information and how?

(i) Through local registries and law enforcement notification

All information you provide under SORNA will be put in your jurisdiction’s registry. Most of the information contained in the registry will be available to the public.\footnote{127} In addition, law enforcement in your jurisdiction will have to provide your information to certain parties, including the federal Attorney General, and schools, public housing agencies and other vulnerable communities in your area.\footnote{128}

There are some exceptions, however.\footnote{129} States cannot post information about:

(1) any victim’s identity;

(2) your social security number;

(3) arrests that did not result in conviction; and

(4) any other information that the Attorney General decides should not be released.\footnote{130}

States can choose whether or not they want to include:

120. 42 U.S.C. § 16913(b) (2012).
125. 42 U.S.C. § 16913(c) (2012). See United States v. Guzman, 591 F.3d 83, 86 (2d Cir. 2010) (holding that SORNA’s registration requirements for sex offenders are constitutional).
130. 42 U.S.C. § 16918(b) (2012).}
(5) any information about a Tier I offender convicted of an offense other than a “specified offense against a minor;”
(6) the name of your employer;
(7) the name of any school where you are a student; and
(8) any other information that the Attorney General decides should not be released.\(^\text{131}\)

Each state offender registry website must include directions on how to change information that you believe is incorrect.\(^\text{132}\) Each website must also include a warning that any use of the site’s information to “unlawfully injure, harass, or commit a crime” against any person named on the registry “could result in civil or criminal penalties.”\(^\text{133}\)

(ii) Through the National Registry

Each convicted sex offender and any other person required to register will also be included on the National Sex Offender Registry maintained by the FBI.\(^\text{134}\)

The National Sex Offender Public Website is maintained by the Attorney General and includes “relevant information for each sex offender and other person listed on a jurisdiction’s internet site,” making “relevant information” publicly accessible.\(^\text{135}\) The website can be found online at http://www.nsopw.gov/.

(c) Sentence Increases under The Adam Walsh Act

(i) Mandatory Minimums

A mandatory minimum sentence is the shortest, or least severe, sentence a court can give you if you are convicted of a certain crime. Title II of the Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act established new mandatory minimums for a number of sexual crimes. These include:

(1) New mandatory minimums for a “crime of violence against the person of an individual who has not attained the age of 18,” including murder, kidnapping, acts that result in serious bodily injury, and others;\(^\text{136}\) and

(2) New mandatory minimum of 15 years for sex trafficking accomplished through force, fraud, or coercion involving a minor under 14.\(^\text{137}\)

(ii) Mandatory Maximums

A statutory maximum is the longest, or most severe, sentence a court is allowed to give you if you are convicted of a certain crime. In addition to the mandatory minimums discussed above, Title II of the Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act also established new statutory maximums (increasing the previous statutory maximums) for a number of sexual crimes.\(^\text{138}\)

(d) Statute of Limitations

The Act has gotten rid of the statute of limitations for certain crimes, which means that if you are accused of one of these crimes, you can be prosecuted at any time, no matter how long ago the crime was committed.

Under the Act, there is no longer a statute of limitations for any felony listed in Chapter 109A (Sexual Abuse), Chapter 110 (Sexual Exploitation and Other Abuse of Children),\(^\text{139}\) and Chapter 117 (Transportation

\(^{131}\) 42 U.S.C. § 16918(c) (2012).


\(^{139}\) Except for violations of the record-keeping requirements set forth in sections 2257 and 2257A of Chapter 110, for which the statute of limitations still applies. 18 U.S.C. § 3299 (2012).
for Illegal Sexual Activity and Related Crimes), or for charges under Sections 1201 (kidnapping of a minor) or 1591 (sex trafficking).\footnote{140} 

(e) Bail

The Act adds certain sex offenses to the list of those for which a court must hold a bail hearing (if the government moves for one). The offenses that require one of these bail hearings now include “any felony that is not otherwise a crime of violence that involves a minor victim or that involves the possession or use of a firearm .... or any dangerous weapon, or involves the failure to register [as a sex offender].”\footnote{141}

(f) DNA Collection

The Adam Walsh Act lets the government collect the DNA of certain people, even if those people do not consent. Individuals who are facing charges may be compelled by the Attorney General to give a DNA sample. The category of people “facing charges” includes those who are currently charged by indictment, information, or complaint, but are not currently under arrest.\footnote{142} Individuals who are convicted also \textit{must} give samples to the Attorney General. This category includes persons who are convicted of any offense—not only felonies or crimes of violence—but they must at least be “in custody.”\footnote{143}

(g) Probation/Supervised Release

The Act creates a discretionary condition of probation or supervised release (meaning that the judge can choose to impose this condition but does not have to impose it).\footnote{144} If the judge does impose such a condition, you must submit yourself and your property, including your house, vehicle, computer, and electronic devices to a search any time a law enforcement officer has a “reasonable suspicion” that you have violated a condition of probation.\footnote{145} In this case, the officer does not need a warrant to search you or your property as long as the he is acting within his law enforcement duties.\footnote{146}

(h) Sex Offender Management and Treatment Programs

The statute requires the Bureau of Prisons to make appropriate treatment available to sex offenders who need treatment and who are suitable for it.\footnote{147} Such programs include sex offender management programs\footnote{148} and residential sex offender treatment programs.\footnote{149} Participation in this type of program can be very important for determining whether you are eligible for parole. Programs in New York State are discussed in Part C of this Chapter, which gives you an overview of the kinds of services available.

(i) Victim Rights

The Act now permits minor victims of sex crimes to initiate \textit{civil actions} against the person who violated them, regardless of whether the victim actually suffered a \textit{physical} injury while a minor.\footnote{150} Furthermore, the Act raised the amount of money available to the victim from $50,000 to $150,000.\footnote{151}

The Act also gives specific rights to victims in habeas corpus proceedings (see \textit{JLM}, Chapters 13 and 21 for more information about habeas corpus): the right not to be excluded, the right to be reasonably heard, the right to proceedings free from unreasonable delay, and the right to be treated with fairness and respect for the dignity and privacy of the victim.\footnote{152}

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H. Civil Commitment

Civil commitment is the practice of confining someone without a criminal conviction because the person is determined to be dangerous. This confinement may be involuntary and indefinite. It may be imposed instead of a criminal sentence, or after a criminal sentence is completed. However, civil commitment requires a determination that you are likely to commit future sexually violent acts. Many states have a general civil commitment statute, which allows for the commitment of persons who fall into various categories of mental illness or dangerousness.

While some sexually violent individuals can be committed under more general civil commitment statutes, many cannot because their behavior often does not fit within the narrow definitions of “mental illness” used in these statutes. In response to these narrow definitions in general civil commitment statutes, many states have passed laws providing for the involuntary civil commitment of sex offenders. The Supreme Court has said that involuntary civil commitment does not violate a person’s due process rights as long as the State can show that the person has a mental illness and presents a risk of future danger to himself or to others. In United States v. Comstock, the Supreme Court said that a federal law allowing district courts to commit a prisoner in civil commitment beyond the date that the prisoner would otherwise be released was constitutional under the Necessary and Proper clause. In addition to these state laws, Congress, through the Adam Walsh Act, created the Jimmy Ryce Civil Commitment Program for Dangerous Sex Offenders, a federal civil commitment law discussed in detail in Part I(2)(b) below.

It is difficult to challenge civil commitment statutes, as courts have generally upheld them when the state can show that the person the state wants to confine is a danger to himself or to others. In Kansas v. Hendricks, the Supreme Court explained that civil confinement of a sex offender does not violate substantive due process, equal protection, or the double jeopardy provisions of the Constitution. The court determined that the Kansas statute was a civil remedy, which only applied to the “dangerously mentally ill,” and that the statute was not an additional criminal punishment for sex offenders. Later, in Seling v. Young, the Court said that, if a commitment statute is civil (as opposed to criminal) in nature, it cannot be considered a punishment, and therefore it does not violate the Constitution.

It is important for you to know that the Supreme Court refined its decision in Kansas v. Hendricks, later setting a limit on the conditions under which states can keep convicted sexual predators in civil confinement after their criminal sentences have expired. In Kansas v. Crane, the Court said that states must prove not only that an offender remained dangerous and was likely to repeat a crime, but also that the offender had a psychiatric diagnosis which included a “serious difficulty in controlling behavior.” Therefore, each civil commitment case must be evaluated individually to see if it meets this standard. The Court decided to require this additional finding to make certain that a civilly confined offender was actually mentally ill and dangerous, not simply a “typical recidivist convicted in an ordinary criminal case.” A recidivist, commonly called a “repeat offender,” is “someone who has been convicted of multiple criminal offenses, usually similar in nature.”

After Crane, civil commitment requires a psychiatric evaluation that an offender lacks control over his actions. Without such a determination, the practice would not be sufficiently different from criminal punishment. This reflects a shift towards using civil commitment statutes for treatment and not merely for detention of sex offenders. Those offenders who are civilly confined are now usually held in mental health institutions.

153. See, e.g., N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10.01 (McKinney 2007) (estabishing standards and procedures for the involuntary commitment of dangerous sex offenders).
154. Kansas v. Hendricks, 521 U.S. 346, 357, 371, 117 S. Ct. 2072, 2079–80, 2086, 138 L. Ed. 2d 501, 512, 521 (1997) (finding that the Kansas civil commitment act satisfied due process requirements because it unambiguously required a finding of dangerousness either to one’s self or to others as a prerequisite to involuntary confinement).
159. Kansas v. Crane, 534 U.S. 407, 411, 413, 122 S. Ct. 867, 869, 870, 151 L. Ed. 2d 856, 861, 862 (2002) (finding that where a sexual offender suffered from both exhibitionism and anti-social personality disorder, the state was required to prove a serious difficulty in controlling behavior in order to commit sexual offender).
facilities—either separate from a correctional facility or part of a larger correctional facility. Under New York law, these facilities must have staff from “the office of mental health or the office for people with developmental disabilities for the purposes of providing care and treatment to persons confined. . .”\(^{163}\)

Civil commitment will affect your life in many ways. As an example, sex offenders in civil commitment facilities are now no longer able to receive federal Pell grants to pay for their education.\(^{164}\) You should do further research to determine how else civil commitment will change your rights and options.

1. Procedures

Civil commitment procedures vary by state, so be certain to check what statutes apply to you. Civil commitment of sex offenders typically occurs after you have completed your criminal sentence. Generally, the state attorney general’s office and various other agencies will be notified when you are nearing release from prison. One or more state committees, usually composed of mental health experts, will review your records and will recommend confinement if they determine that you are a sexually violent predator.\(^{165}\)

After getting a recommendation for civil commitment, the state Attorney General, state prosecutors, or other state officials will file a petition alleging that you are a sexually violent predator. You will then have a trial in front of a judge or jury. In most states, you are entitled to assistance of counsel at all stages of these proceedings.\(^{166}\) You may also be entitled to have a psychological expert of your choice examine you, at the state’s expense.\(^{167}\)

If you are found to be a sexually violent predator, in most states you have the right to appeal that determination.\(^{168}\) If you lose the appeal and are committed, you will likely be committed to a facility especially dedicated to the detention and treatment of sex offenders. You will be detained there indefinitely. Usually, your psychological health and danger to the community will be re-evaluated once a year in order to determine whether you should be released.\(^{169}\)

Because of the wide variations in state civil commitment schemes, it is important that you consult your own state’s criminal code to determine whether your state has a civil commitment statute, and to learn its specific details.

2. Statutes

(a) States generally

Following Hendricks and Crane, many states have adopted laws like the Kansas statute. The statutes have three main requirements that they share. To be committed, you must:

1. have engaged in some criminal sexual conduct;
2. have a specified mental condition; and
3. because of your mental disease or defect, be likely to engage in criminal sexual conduct in the future.\(^{170}\)

Although state statutes follow this general pattern, they differ in a number of ways. In finding “criminal sexual conduct” for the purposes of the first requirement, some states require a sex offense conviction, while others require only that a person be charged with a sex offense, and a few simply require that the person

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163. N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10.03(o) (McKinney 2007).
have “committed” an illegal sexual act.\textsuperscript{171} States also vary on whether the case must be heard in front of a judge or jury and how much proof the state must provide of your condition and the danger you pose.\textsuperscript{172} The statutes either require proof “beyond a reasonable doubt” or by “clear and convincing evidence.” “Beyond a reasonable doubt” is a high standard of proof and is used at criminal trials. “Clear and convincing evidence” is a slightly easier standard for the state to meet. If you are facing civil commitment, you must research your state’s laws and determine what sort of assistance you are entitled to.

(b) New York

Until April 2007, New York State did not have a civil commitment statute for sex offenders. Even without specific civil commitment legislation aimed at sex offenders, in some cases state officials had succeeded in civilly committing sex offenders under the regular civil commitment scheme. Some individuals who were civilly committed under the general scheme are entitled to have the issue adjudicated under the procedure set forth in New York’s Sex Offender Management and Treatment Act.\textsuperscript{173} The civil commitment scheme is mainly used for the mentally ill.\textsuperscript{174}

In 2007, the New York Legislature passed The Sex Offender Management and Treatment Act, which can be found at N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10. The Act lays out a procedure for the civil commitment of dangerous sex offenders, discussed below. The Court of Appeals of New York upheld the Act as applied to people charged with sex offenses, convicted of sex offenses, or people who were patients of a state mental hospital since September 1, 2005.\textsuperscript{175}

New York State’s civil commitment statute is similar to other states’ statutes. About 120 days before you are released from prison, the parole board will give notice to the commissioner on health, who will determine if you are a sex offender who requires civil commitment.\textsuperscript{176} Then, the Attorney General may file a petition seeking commitment, which you can contest in a hearing.\textsuperscript{177} If, after the hearing, the court decides that you are probably a sex offender requiring civil commitment, the court will conduct a trial to figure out if this is really the case.\textsuperscript{178} If you are found to be a danger in this trial, you will be committed.\textsuperscript{179}

(c) Federal Civil Commitment: The Adam Walsh Act

Under the Federal Jimmy Ryce Civil Commitment Program for Dangerous Sex Offenders, codified at 18 U.S.C. §§ 4247, 4248, the Attorney General, the Director of the Bureau of Prisons, or anyone authorized by the Attorney General, can seek to civilly commit anyone in Bureau of Prisons custody (in federal prison) by

\textsuperscript{171} See, e.g., Kan. Stat. Ann. § 59-29a02(a) (2013) (defining sexually violent predator as “any person who has been convicted of or charged with a sexually violent offense and who suffers from a mental abnormality or personality disorder which makes the person likely to engage in repeat acts of sexual violence.”).

\textsuperscript{172} See, e.g., Kan. Stat. Ann. § 59-29a06(d) (2013) (providing that a jury trial may be requested by one of the parties or the court, but if no jury is requested the trial will be before the court).

\textsuperscript{173} State of N.Y. ex rel. Harkavy v. Consilvio, 8 N.Y.3d 645, 652, 870 N.E.2d 128, 132 2007 N.Y. Slip Op. 04681, 5 (N.Y. 2007) (finding that certain individuals who were transferred without precommitment hearings, and thus were improperly committed under N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 9, were entitled to adjudication under the new N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10 procedures.)

\textsuperscript{174} See, e.g., Doe v. Pataki, 120 F.3d 1263, 1281, 1285 (2d Cir. 1997) (holding that a statute requiring the involuntary commitment of “mentally abnormal” sex offenders pursuant to a civil commitment statute is valid). See generally N.Y. Mental Hyg. §§ 9.27-9.37 (McKinney 2002) (describing the procedure for involuntary hospital admissions for mental illness).


\textsuperscript{176} N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10.05 (Consol. 2013).

\textsuperscript{177} N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10.06 (Consol. 2013).

\textsuperscript{178} N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10.07 (Consol. 2013) (“If the court finds by clear and convincing evidence that the respondent has a mental abnormality involving such a strong predisposition to commit sex offenses, and such an inability to control behavior, that the respondent is likely to be a danger to others and to commit sex offenses if not confined to a secure treatment facility, then the court shall find the respondent to be a dangerous sex offender requiring confinement.”).

\textsuperscript{179} N.Y. Mental Hyg. § 10.07 (Consol. 2013).
“certifying” the offender as “sexually dangerous.” This is a very serious designation because, practically speaking, civil commitment may turn into a life sentence for those in custody.

(i) Under the Adam Walsh Act, who can be civilly committed?

Anyone in Bureau of Prisons custody (in federal prison) may be civilly committed—even if you were not incarcerated for a sexual offense. It is, however, most common for a prisoner convicted of a sexual crime to be considered for civil commitment. There is no competency or insanity requirement.

(ii) What is the definition of a “sexually dangerous person”?

According to the statute, a “sexually dangerous person” is “a person who has engaged or attempted to engage in sexually violent conduct or child molestation and who is sexually dangerous to others.” A person is “sexually dangerous to others” if he “suffers from a serious mental illness, abnormality, or disorder as a result of which he would have serious difficulty in refraining from sexually violent conduct or child molestation if released.” Some of the key terms are not defined within the statute, such as “sexually violent conduct,” “child molestation,” and “serious difficulty.” The definition of “sexually dangerous person” has been criticized for being overly broad and overly inclusive.

(iii) What is the procedure for determining whether a prisoner is “sexually dangerous”?

The Bureau of Prisons (“BOP”) reviews all prisoners, and when they identify a prisoner they believe may be “sexually dangerous,” BOP staff members then conduct a full evaluation of that prisoner. A prisoner is not provided with an attorney at this point, and no Miranda warnings are given.

The prisoner is given a form to sign which states that (1) there will be an evaluation consisting of interviews, review of records, and testing; (2) he understands that it will be used to determine his eligibility for civil commitment as a sexually dangerous person after he serves his sentence; (3) he understands that the results will be related to BOP officials and “others with a need to know” including the court, the government, and his lawyer; and (4) the evaluation will be completed whether or not he participates. Prisoners have made statements during this process that were used to support a sexually dangerous certification.

(iv) What happens after a prisoner is found to be “sexually dangerous”?

If the BOP certifies a prisoner as sexually dangerous, the certificate is filed with the court in the district in which the prisoner was confined. The filing of the certificate “stays” the prisoner’s release (meaning that the release is delayed) until a decision is reached about the prisoner possibly being civilly committed. This is a particular concern because these certificates are often filed immediately before a prisoner’s release—often within days or even hours.

(v) Can you challenge Federal civil commitment?

In United States v. Comstock, the United States Supreme Court overruled the North Carolina court and settled the issue for now. The Court concluded that it was within Congress’ power to enact 18 U.S.C. § 4248, and it was not an unconstitutional use of the Necessary and Proper clause. The Court’s reasoning rested

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185. United States v. Comstock, 560 U.S. 126, 130 S. Ct. 1949, 176 L. Ed. 2d 878 (2010) (holding that “the statute is a ‘necessary and proper’ means of exercising the federal authority that permits Congress to create federal criminal laws, to punish their violation, to imprison violators, to provide appropriately for those imprisoned, and to maintain the security of those who are not imprisoned but who may be affected by the federal imprisonment of others”).
on the idea that the federal government had a special interest in protecting society from the committed prisoners and that the law only affected a small portion of the prisoner population.186

I. Conclusion

Sex offenders face special concerns both while they are in prison and after they are released. In prison, these issues include HIV testing, post-conviction DNA testing, protective custody, and the importance of attending sex offender counseling programs to receive good time credit. Upon release from prison, prisoners should be aware of special parole conditions, community registration laws, and the possibility of civil commitment to psychiatric hospitals.