THE SOCIAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL PATTERNS OF SEXUAL OFFENDING:

QUESTIONING THE PRACTICALITY OF BROADLY IMPLEMENTED

SEX OFFENDER RESIDENCE RESTRICTION LAWS

by

MELANIE CLARK MOGAVERO

A Dissertation submitted to the

Graduate School-Newark

Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey

in partial fulfillment of requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Graduate Program in Criminal Justice

written under the direction of

Dr. Leslie Kennedy

and approved by

_____

_____

_____

_____

May 2014

Newark, New Jersey

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

The Social and Geographical Patterns of Sexual Offending:

Questioning the Practicality of Broadly Implemented Sex Offender

Residence Restriction Laws

By MELANIE CLARK MOGAVERO

Dissertation Director: Leslie Kennedy

The development of sex offender residence restriction laws are predicated on the assumption sexual offenders pose an increased risk to the public. The laws create zones where registered sex offenders are prohibited from residing near landmarks where children congregate. Despite the support for these laws, there appears to be little evidence of their efficacy. Evidence has demonstrated these laws may be doing more harm than good by inhibiting successful community reintegration.

When sex offenders commit offenses, are they likely to do so by selecting victims who reside in close proximity to where they live and in close proximity to schools, parks, daycares, and religious institutions? The argument against residence restriction laws is sex offenders can live near a restricted area and offend within their household, or travel elsewhere to meet victims.

The goals of this study are: 1). to identify the social and physical proximity between offenders and victims, 2). to identify if offenders met or contacted victims or committed offenses in close proximity of restricted landmarks, and 3). to examine any

differences among offenders who do and do not meet or contact victims in close

proximity to offender's residence *and* in close proximity to a restricted landmark.

The current study consisted of 270 males who are or were incarcerated in one

correctional facility in New Jersey. The results demonstrated nearly half the sample

shared a household with their victim, and nearly half of sex offenders were related to

their victim by blood or marriage. Although it was revealed most sex offenders resided

within 2,500 feet of one of the restricted landmarks, after examining the methods

offenders used to meet victims, and how far offenders traveled to meet or establish

contact with victims, residing near restricted landmarks did not contribute to an

offender's ability to access victims. Of the 270 sex offenders, the offense patterns

consistent with many residence restriction laws were applicable to less than one percent.

This dissertation concludes with a discussion of the findings, policy implications, and

future research recommendations.

Preface

        The goal of a residence restriction law is to create "sex offender-free" zones, in which registered sex offenders are prohibited from residing near places where children congregate. The law strives to reduce registered sex offenders' access to potential victims. Currently, at least 30 states and more than 400 local municipalities in the U.S. have implemented residence restriction laws for registered sex offenders. Are residence restriction laws consistent with the reality of sexual offending and victim selection? The argument against residence restriction laws is sex offenders can live near a restricted area and offend within their household, travel elsewhere to meet victims, or meet victims on the internet. A second argument is residence restriction laws are not restricted in application to those who have more than one sex offense conviction or only to those who offend against minor victims. Broadly implemented sex offender residence restriction laws often apply to all sex offenders, regardless of offense severity, victim selection, or criminal history.

Acknowledgements

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Overview and Introduction to the Topic

Introduction

In response to high-profile sex crimes against children and the public's negative

perceptions of sex offenders, several laws have been implemented to increase the ability

to track, monitor, restrict, apprehend, and sentence sex offenders. Sexually based crimes,

particularly against children, have become a serious social concern. Those who commit

sexually based crimes have been labeled as sex offenders. The term, *sex offender* is a

legal term, and not a clinical diagnosis or psychological term, and those who receive such

a label is determined by a state's statute. The term has been constructed to suggest

someone who is deviant, mentally deranged, compulsive, dangerous, and will reoffend if

not confined, often due to the perpetuate media reporting of high-profile crimes against

children (Gavin, 2005; Sutherland, 1950). Katz-Schiavone, Levenson, and Ackerman

(2008) explored public perceptions about sex offenders by conducting a survey of 127

community members in 15 major U.S. cities. The study revealed nearly all members

(98%) believed most sex offenders re-offend. Gavin (2005) conducted a narrative study

of 20 men and women in which they described sex offenders as dangerous, incurable, and

incapable of redemption through treatment.

Sex offender laws are typically enacted quickly after a tragedy, often named after

the child victim, placing an emotional connotation to the laws while demonstrating a

perceived necessity. The Jacob Wetterling Act of 1994 initiated a State Sex Offender

Registry, which required all states to set up a registration database containing persons

convicted of a sex offense. Two years later, the federal version of Megan's Law

amended the Jacob Wetterling Act, eliminating confidentiality and making the registry

information available to the public through community notification. More recently, passage of the Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act (AWA) occurred on July 27, 2006. The AWA requires states to establish an internet registry, set minimum durations for registration, increase penalties and sentence lengths for crimes against children, require more frequent updating of information, and also made failing to register as a sex offender a federal offense (AWA, 2006).

With the burgeoning legislation directed towards sex offenders, Florida enacted residence restriction laws in 1994 prohibiting those deemed as *sexual predators* from living within 1,000 feet of a school, park, playground or other place where children regularly congregate. Residence restriction laws created "sex offender-free zones," stemmed from previous laws targeted towards drug offenders. In 1970, Congress enacted "school zones," that enhanced punishments of those convicted of drug crimes within a certain distance from the school. These became known as "drug-free zones" and later included "gun free zones," which enhanced punished of those convicted of a gun crime in a school zone (Walker, 2007).

In 1995, the law was amended to include restrict other sexual offenders, not designated as sexual predators but whose victims were under the age of 16, from living in close proximity to these areas as condition of community supervision (Datz, 2009). February 27, 2005, John Couey, a 47-year old previously convicted sex offender who lived nearby, kidnapped and murdered 9-year-old Jessica Lunsford after holding her captive for three days, raping her, and burying her alive (Jessica Lunsford Act, 2005). Just months after this tragic event, the first local ordinance restricting where registered sex offenders can establish residence was passed in Miami Beach, Florida. This

ordinance prohibited registered sex offenders, and sexual predators convicted of certain

sex offenses, from residing within 2,500 feet of schools, parks, playgrounds, bus stops,

daycare centers or other place where children regularly congregate. Shortly thereafter,

other Florida towns and counties enacted this more restricted ordinance. The result of

passing these ordinances was an increase in the proximity among restricted areas (Florida

Department of Law Enforcement, retrieved January 11, 2011 from

http://offender.fdle.state.fl.us/offender). As Zgoba and colleagues (2009) have noted,

residence restriction (RR) laws tend to have a "domino effect." When one town

implements the RR law, nearby towns pass similar laws to prevent displaced sex

offenders from moving into their communities (Zgoba et al., 2009). To date, hundreds if

not thousands of towns and 30 states across the U.S. have implemented laws restricting

where registered sex offenders can establish residence. RR laws vary by jurisdiction, and

can range from 500 feet to 2,500 feet from a landmark. The goals of these laws were to

create "sex offender-free" zones, to provide community members a sense of security as

registered sex offenders are prohibited from residing near places where children

congregate, and consequently reducing registered sex offenders' access to potential

victims (Meloy, Miller, & Curtis, 2008).

     Although there have been several research studies conducted in the area of RR

laws, it continues to be an area in need of evaluation. This research adds to the existing

research and examines whether, designated restricted areas (schools, parks, playgrounds,

daycares, religious institutions) are indeed domains for sex offenders to meet and/or gain

access to victims. Much of the research on RR laws has demonstrated the law's impact

on housing availability, where sex offenders live in relation to restricted areas, and the

neighborhood conditions in which the sex offenders choose or are forced to live due to the RR laws (Barnes et al., 2009; Chajewski & Mercado, 2009; Zgoba et al., 2009; Maghelal et al., 2008; Hughes & Kadleck, 2008; Grubesic, 2010; Grubesic et al., 2007; Mustaine, et al., 2006a; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2006; Socia, 2011).

Other research has used geospatial analysis to identify buffer zones to determine where sex offenders live in relation to restricted areas (Zgoba, et al., 2009), while also taking into consideration the type of victimization (Chajewski & Mercado, 2009) or the type of victim (Zanderberg et al., 2010). Duwe et al. (2008) examined the geographical patterns of sexual offenses by mapping the locations where sex offenders are meeting victims and committing offenses in relation to restricted areas. However, these researchers did not measure if the sex offenders' residences were within a restricted area, only where sex offenders initially established contact with victims, where the offense was committed, and the physical distances between an offender's residence to where the offense occurred and where initial contact was made. However, a sex offender can live near a restricted area, meet victims online, and/or travel elsewhere to meet victims and commit a sex offense to avoid detection or commit a non-contact offense. Duwe et al. (2008) examined data from recidivists who were re-incarcerated, because these offenders are considered to be higher-risk and more likely to reoffend.

The current study includes offenders who are or were incarcerated for a sexual offense, and includes both first-time offenders and recidivists with adult and minor victims. Most sexual offenses are committed by "first time" offenders (Freeman et al., 2008), whereas not limiting subjects to those who have been arrested for more than one sexual offense and re-incarcerated allows a broader perspective of sex offenders' offense

proximity patterns. It is important to note not every RR laws is restricted in application to those who have more than one conviction for a sex offense or to those with minor victims. Broadly implemented RR laws apply to all sex offenders, regardless of offense severity, victim selection, or criminal history. The restricted areas included in the study by Duwe et al. were limited to schools, parks/playgrounds, and daycares. The current study also includes churches of all denominations and synagogues, as religious institutions are often included in state level RR laws. The goals of this study were three-fold: 1). to identify the social and physical proximity between victim and offender, 2). to determine if the offenders meet or contact victims or commit offenses in close proximity of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution and 3). to examine any differences among offenders who do and do not meet or contact victims in close proximity to the offenders' personal residence *and* to a school, park, daycare, or religious institution.

Chapter one begins with an introduction to sex offender legislation and an overview of the study design and research questions. The chapter provides a discussion on current problems with sex offender residence restriction laws and myths regarding sex offenders. Chapter two provides a more comprehensive review of literature concerning sex offender registration and notification as well as sex offender residence restriction laws. Chapter three discusses the research questions guiding this dissertation in more detail and provides the statistical analysis methods used for addressing each question. In addition, this chapter provides a discussion on the study limitations. Chapter four presents the results and a discussion of the sample, the latent class analysis, and the spatial analysis. Chapter five presents results and a discussion of the conjunctive analysis. Chapter six concludes with a discussion of findings, policy implications, and

future research recommendations.

Problems with Sex Offender Residence Restrictions

RR laws have sparked controversy since the 1990's when the laws were first introduced. Imposing RR laws on convicted sex offenders, some argue, violates the United State (U.S.) Constitution's Due Process and Eighth Amendment *Ex Post Facto* Clause. In the Iowa State Supreme Court case, *Doe v. Miller*, 405 F.3d 700 (2005), Doe, represented all sex offenders in the State of Iowa. Doe challenged the constitutionality of the RR law, arguing sex offenders will suffer "significant hardship," because offenders would have to move from current residences to a permissible area, imposing a retroactive punishment. Iowa's Attorney General, Tom Miller, argued the law was designed to protect children from convicted sex offenders who may reoffend if allowed to reside close to areas where potential victims congregate. He further contended the intent of the law was non-punitive. The Court weighed the public interest to the hardships experienced by sex offenders and in a two to one decision and upheld the lower court's decision that RR laws were not in violation of the U.S. Constitution (Doe v. Miller, 2005).

The high-profile deaths of children who were sexually assaulted and murdered by offenders living nearby create an assumption RR laws are necessary and warranted. However, upon closer examination of RR laws, researchers have noted several problems. One problem is the impetus behind the implementation of the laws have largely been based on myths, emotions such as fear and anger, *moral panic*, and political pressure, and not on scientific research or facts (Leon, 2011; Zgoba, 2004; Sutherland, 1950; Wright, 2008; Vess, 2009). A second problem is how these laws are identified. Many of these

laws are named for child victims and provide compelling images that perpetuate myths, emotions, and fears. A third problem with these laws relates to the offenders. Many people believe sex offenders possess a psychological disturbance and lack impulse control. A considerable amount of bias in the treatment and handling of sex offenders has been noted, as most has been conducted in the mental health realm by psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers. When sex offenders are studied and treated by psychologists and psychiatrists, and committed to mental health facilities, it legitimizes the belief to the public these offenders are indeed ill with some type of mental disturbance. When legislators create laws to in order to monitor sex offenders, laws reinforce the belief offenders will continue committing sexual offenses (Sutherland, 1950; Simon, 2000; Sample & Kadleck, 2008).

Although research on sexual recidivism has demonstrated otherwise, another myth is the assumption sex offenders are dangerous and will reoffend when released into the community. The U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) published a study headed by Langan, Schmitt, and Durose (2003) tracking data for 9,691 sex offenders in 15 states released from prison in 1994. Three years after release, slightly more than five percent of sex offenders were rearrested for another sex crime. Evidence suggests an overwhelming majority of sex offenders do not reoffend upon release back into the community. For example, when compared to other types of criminals, sex offenders are no more likely to reoffend than any other type of criminal (Langan & Levin, 2002). Langan and Levin (2002) of the BJS tracked 272,111 inmates and found that within three years of their release, more than 67 percent of the prisoners were rearrested for a new offense. Of those offenders rearrested, sex offenders (i.e., rape

and sexual assault) had the lowest rates (46.0% and 41.4%), second only to homicide, which had the lowest rate of 40.7%.

Harris and Hanson (2004) conducted a large meta-analysis using ten studies of sex offenders. Their work revealed recidivism rates as low as 13 percent over 5 years and 24 percent over 15 years. Hanson and Morton-Bourgon (2004) conducted an updated meta-analysis of 95 recidivism studies with more than 31,000 sexual offenders and observed similar sexual recidivism rates of 13.7 percent after 5 years and less than 25 percent after 15 years. The common belief most sex offenders reoffend has been contradicted, the reality is an overwhelming majority of sex offenders do not reoffend.

A third myth regarding sex offenders, perpetuated by the media, is the belief sexual offenses against children are often committed by strangers. A survey of 168 sex offenders conducted by Danni and Hampe (2000) revealed as many as 95 percent (161 out of 168) of sex offenses were committed by someone the victim knew and/or trusted. Zgoba, Veysey, and Dalessandro (2010) examined recidivism data of 550 sex offenders and found family members (48%) committed a large percentage of offenses. This study also revealed 34 percent of victims were acquaintances of the sex offender while only 16 percent of victims were strangers sex offenders. The above research demonstrates family members or acquaintances commit a vast majority of sex offenses, yet the myth of "stranger danger" has largely influenced current sex offender legislation.

The perception of the dangerousness for sexual re-offending by strangers often result in moral panic. Moral panic is a term sociologists use when dealing with emotional topics such as sexual offending. Moral Panic, studied by Goode and Ben-Yehuda (1994), and discussed by Zgoba (2004) with the implementation of the AMBER alert system,

argued how infrequent social problems lead to moral panic. As stated by Goode and

Ben-Yehuda (1994), for a social problem, such as re-offending sex offenders, to meet the

criteria for moral panic, five criterion must be present: concern, hostility, consensus,

disproportionally, and volatility. Research suggests people have greater concern over the

sexual assault of a child rather than an adult. In addition, research suggests people have

greater difficulty in understanding assault on a child over an adult as well. Due to the

perceived innocence of children and the need to protect them from adults, many people

assume those who commit sexual acts against children must have a mental disturbance.

Because of this concern for children, sexual acts against children can easily invoke anger

and hostility. When media aggressively reports on the sexual assault or murder of a child

by a stranger or a known sex offender, a message is sent conveying a sense risk for all

children. In actuality, these types of sexual assaults against children are disproportionate

to the total number of assaults against children and are often conducted by known

offenders (Danni & Hampe, 2000; Zgoba, et al., 2010; Duwe, Donnay, & Tewksbury,

2008). Sex offender legislation is also extremely volatile. Goode and Ben-Yehuda

describe laws being volatile when, "They erupt fairly suddenly (although they may lie

latent for long periods of time and may reappear from time to time), and, nearly as

suddenly, they subside" (Goode & Ben-Yehuda, 1994, p.156-158). Examination of the

various sex offender laws in the U.S. appears to follow such a trend. These laws are

typically implemented shortly after a high profile crime, focus on these laws decreases as

time elapses, and after another child is assaulted, focus reappears and laws are enhanced,

amended, or a new one is drafted. This progression was evident with the Jacob

Wetterling Act, an enhancement of Megan's Law, and to the harsher Adam Walsh Act.

A second problem with RR laws is the result of negative consequences on the ability for sex offenders to become stable, rehabilitated, and contributing members of society. Although these laws were designed to restrict housing availability, research demonstrates the laws make finding affordable housing extremely difficult (Levenson, 2008; Burchfield & Mingus, 2008). Sex offenders are often forced to move from their homes or relocate (Levenson & Cotter, 2005b; Mercado et al., 2008), are prohibited from returning to live with their families (Mercado et al., 2008; Levenson & Cotter, 2005a), and/or are forced to reside in socially disorganized or economically disadvantaged areas (Hughes & Kadleck, 2008; Grubesic, 2010; Mustaine, Tewksbury, & Stengel, 2006a). As Zgoba (2011) states, the additional stress of having difficulty finding stable housing and not being able to live with family can result in destabilization and does not promote rehabilitation.

A third problem with RR laws is sex offenders being forced to live in socially disorganized neighborhoods. These neighborhoods lack informal social controls, allowing for sex offenders to more easily become transient, homeless or abscond (Casady, 2009). Sometimes RR laws force sex offenders into more rural areas, forcing sex offenders to live further away from social services, jobs, sex offender treatment facilities, and/or supportive family members (Tewksbury, Mustaine, & Stengel, 2007**;** Casady, 2009). Some social researchers believe diminishing the ability to find stable housing as well as hindering social and interpersonal relationships destabilizes sex offenders. In addition, these same researchers believe decreased employment opportunities, decreased access to treatment and social services, and a lack of pro-social

networks to reintegrate into the community, increase sex offenders' likelihood of reoffending (Casady, 2009).

A fourth problem with RR laws is the belief all sex offenders are the same. Many states and jurisdictions have implemented RR laws broadly, homogenizing sex offenders into one large group, ignoring the multiple dimensions in regards to victim selection, deviance, and risk (Meloy, et al., 2008; Norman-Eady, 2007). Sex offenders are not a homogenous group that can fit under one umbrella, and many states such as South Carolina, have applied restrictions to all sex offenders regardless of offending history, the age of victim, type of offense (i.e., contact or non-contact) and/or perceived risk of re-offense (Norman-Eady, 2007). A homogenous label of sex offender and widely implemented restriction policies may unnecessarily subject sex offenders to RR laws, and resulting negative consequences. The broad implementation of RR laws fails to take into consideration a sex offender's ability to successfully reintegrate into society, including: (a) employment, (b) housing, (c) social relationships, and (d) interpersonal relationships.

A fifth problem with RR laws is that, as mentioned in Doe v. Miller, the laws have failed to achieve their intent of protecting the public from sex offenders. Research examining RR laws in the past decade has failed to provide evidence to support such intent. Blood, Watson, and Stageberg (2008) compared conviction rates before and after the implementation of RR laws in Iowa and found no significant difference, suggesting RR laws have not been effective in protecting the public from sex offenders. Other studies have failed to demonstrate residential proximity to restricted areas has any effect on sex offenders. Chajewski and Mercado (2009) found sex offenders with child victims lived no closer to restricted areas (schools or daycares) than those offenders with adult

victims. In addition, Zandbergen, Levenson, and Hart (2010) revealed sex offenders living closer to schools and daycares were no more likely to reoffend than those offenders living further away. Duwe, Donnay, and Tewksbury (2008) examined social and geographical patters of sexual offenders to determine the effectiveness of RR laws in preventing recidivism and sexual assaults against children. Their research revealed RR laws would likely have not prevented the 224 sexual re-offenses examined. The researchers concluded either the sex offenders already knew the victims or the offenders initiated contact outside restriction zones.

A sixth problem with RR laws is the inability to repeal or modify existing laws. Although research suggests RR laws lead to negative consequences, and are neither practicable nor effective ways to keep children safe from sex offenders, attempts to repeal or modify them often prove impossible. Emotions have been the basis for creating policy in response to sex offenders, with grieving family members of the victim lobbying for harsher laws, extensive media coverage, public outrage, and legislators pressured to pass laws without hesitation. Any hesitation on the part of lawmakers can be interpreted as being "soft" on crime or sex offenders, or "failing to protect children," which political opponents can use against them.

The emotional response and media coverage has likely resulted in RR laws being highly popular among community members. Surveys of community residents regarding opinions towards the RR laws has shown a significant majority, as much as 82 percent to 95 percent (Mancini, Shields, Mears, & Beaver, 2010), approve the laws (Comartin et al., 2009). When community members are surveyed regarding the stress and hardship experienced by sex offenders, such as difficulty finding housing and being unable to live

with family members, a high percentage ranging from 64% to 78%, showed little empathy for sex offenders (Schiavone & Jeglic, 2009). Therefore, lawmakers making any changes to the laws decreasing restrictions on sex offenders risk anger and rejection from a large percent of voters.

The lawmakers who pass RR laws and the academics who have studied these laws have a divergence in opinions and goals, commonly referred to symbolic policy versus evidence-based policy. Academic researchers have been noting RR laws' inability to reduce offending, and the adverse effects or unintended consequences, while lawmakers often support such laws. Interviews of 25 Illinois State lawmakers by Sample and Kadleck (2008) revealed most (77%) believed sex offender legislation will help control sex offenders, and believe the laws are not strict enough to protect the public, but at least make it appear is if they are, "doing something about it" (p. 57). Despite the vast research challenging the common myths regarding sex offenders, the negative consequences of such laws, the broad implementation of sex offender laws, and the lack of demonstrated effectiveness, the Adam Walsh Act (AWA) broadens the scope of what is considered a registrable offense. AWA enhances sentences for sexual offenses against children, and increases the length of time sex offenders must remain on sex offender registries. If or when states decide to implement the AWA, it is likely more sex offenders will be added to the registries, and incurs negative consequences. For jurisdictions imposing RR laws, more sex offenders will then be subject to RR laws, and for longer periods.

The more recent passing of the AWA, which enhances current sex offender policies, raises concerns among many regarding the policy direction this country is

moving regarding sex offenders. Patty Wetterling, Jacob's mother, has raised concerns in which she stated, "We're setting up an environment that's not healthy. It's just anger driven, anger and fear. It's not smart, and it doesn't get us to the Promised Land" (MPR News, retrieved February 2, 2011 from http://minnesota.publicradio.org/display/web/2007/06/11/sexoffender1).Yung's 2009 article, "The Emerging Criminal War on Sex Offenders," illustrates how new legislation is creating more aggressive ways to regulate and enhance punishments of sex offenders and is similar to the "War on Drugs" that began in the early 1970s. When criminal justice policies used in the "War on Drugs" were shown to be ineffective, little was done to revise the laws to make them more effective (Yung, 2009). Yung believes the same outcome is likely for RR laws.

Many policy makers and community members lack concern for the effectiveness of sex offender laws, viewing these laws as a safety net when the sex offender is released back into the community. However, these laws may in fact decrease community safety by diminishing the quality of life factors that encourage rehabilitation and help prevent sex offenders from engaging in a criminal lifestyle. The goal of research on sex offender legislation is to educate community members about the myths regarding sex offenders, the negative consequences of the sex offender legislation, their demonstrated ineffectiveness, and move away from policies passed on emotions, and move towards evidence-based policies with proven effectiveness. By informing community members of the social costs of sex offender laws with little to no effectiveness, it seems unlikely continued support of the laws would be popular. New concerns can be communicated to lawmakers, demanding the study, review, and/or revision of RR laws.

Brief Review of Research Questions

1. Since the residential distance restriction of most RR laws are set between 1,000 and 2,500 feet, do sex offenders meet or make initial contact or obtain access to their victims within 2,500 feet of their residence? To address this question, addresses of the offenders' residence and the meeting/contact locations were collected. The addresses were mapped using ArcGIS 10 and the distance between the two locations were measured. This provides information about the geographical patterns of sexual offending. In order for an offense to be considered one corresponds with the concepts behind the implementation of a RR law; the offender had to have established victim contact within 2,500 feet of his residence.

2. Since sex offenders are a heterogeneous group who meet/contact victims through various means, can a subtype of non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community be classified based on offender, offense, and victim characteristics? To address this question, variables regarding offender, victim, and offense characteristics were identified, and entered into a Latent Class Analysis. Latent Class Analysis (LCA) is a technique used to investigate the existence of distinct types or subgroups and to capture heterogeneity within and between subjects by classifying variables and patterns among them.

3. Do the non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community meet/contact victims or commit offenses within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks than those who offend family members or close acquaintances? To address this two-part question, addresses of the restricted landmarks, and the meeting/contact locations and offense locations were geocoded by latent class. The distances between the, meet/contact

locations and offense locations were measured to the restricted landmarks and compared by class using a Chi-Square analysis. This provides information regarding the geographical patterns of sexual offending.

4. Do the offender's residence and the victim meet/contact location intersect within a 2,500 foot restricted landmark buffer zone among the non-incest offenders who meet/contact victims in public? Do the offender's residence and the offense location intersect in within a 2,500 foot restricted landmark buffer zone among the non-incest offenders who meet/contact their victims in public? To address these questions, addresses of the restricted landmarks, offenders' residences, and the meeting/contact locations were geocoded and mapped. In addition, distances from offenders' residences to these landmarks and to the meet/contact locations were measured. This provides information regarding the geographical patterns of sexual offending. In order for a case to be considered preventable by a RR law, the offender had to have established victim contact in or within a common buffer zone of one of the landmarks commonly included in RR laws: a school, park/playground, daycare center, or religious institution. Offenders may live near a school, daycare, park/playground, or religious institution, but then travel outside a zone of 1,000-2,500 feet to avoid detection. Offenders' may also live near an area where children congregate, and meet victims on the internet, or internet-related sex offenses. A Conjunctive Analysis (CA) was conducted to investigate interrelationships among characteristics of the different types of offenders and if the meet/contact locations and offense locations are within 2,500 feet of the restricted landmarks.

Social and Geographical Patterns of Sexual Offending

  A. Study Design, Sample, & Site Selection

  To answer the above research questions, this study provides insights and details about the social proximity sex offenders have to victims, and the patterns of sexual offending among sample sex offenders who have been convicted and incarcerated for a sexual offense. This study also questions the logic behind the implementation of RR laws and if this logic is consistent with the realities of victim selection and sexual offending. For example, sex offenders use various methods to gain access to victims, often through acquaintances, significant others, relatives, their occupation, or in the neighborhoods in which they live. However, RR laws are intended to prevent sex offenders from gaining access to one of these methods, accessing victims in their own neighborhood. The sex offender's residence would have to be in close proximity to certain landmarks where children are known to congregate, such as schools, daycare centers, religious institutions, playgrounds or parks in order for their neighborhood to be considered a high-risk zone. RR laws, however, do not prevent sex offenders from traveling to locations where children congregate, only from residing near these locations.

  A list of every inmate incarcerated at the Adult Diagnostic and Treatment Center in Avenel, New Jersey, convicted of a sex offense since 2000 in six selected counties was compiled. Since this study involves crime mapping, only the top six counties where the greatest number of sexual offenses occurred were included. This inmate list only included those convicted in the following New Jersey counties: Camden, Bergen, Essex, Middlesex, Ocean, and Passaic.

B. Data Sources

The data are derived from information found in inmate files held by the New Jersey Department of Corrections. All files contain a Face Sheet, Judgment of Conviction and Order of Commitment (J&C), Pre-Sentence Report (PSI), and a Psychological Report. The National Center for Education Statistics, an online database of all public and private schools was used to obtain their physical addresses. The database lists its source as the Common Core of Data, Public School Data for the 2010-2011 school year. The addresses of licensed daycare centers were recorded from the New Jersey State Department of Children and Families Office of Licensing, which lists all licensed preschools and child development centers in New Jersey.

Several sources were used to locate the playgrounds and parks to increase reliability and accuracy. The addresses of the parks in the included counties were obtained from the County Department of Parks and Recreation, the City/Township Department of Parks and Recreation, NJ Playgrounds, MapQuest, and Google Maps (aerial view and/or street view). Parks with play structures or athletic fields tend to attract minors, and were considered a location where children would congregate.

New Jersey does not have a comprehensive list of all religious institutions. In addition, not all religious institutions register their not-for-profit status with the state. Three different sources were used to compile a comprehensive list of addresses for religious institutions. These sources included the Electronic Yellow Pages, a free online directory of business containing the names and addresses of "places of worship"; the Business List, a free online database listing registered and non-registered businesses,

including churches and synagogues in New Jersey was used; and the website for each borough, township and/or city in the six counties within this study.

The current study adds to previous residence restriction research by including more landmarks, but remaining consistent with buffer zones (1,000 feet and 2,500 feet). This study examines three distances from the landmarks: offenders' residence, the location where the offender met, established contact, or obtained access to their victim, and offense location. Since offenders meet victims in various ways, the locations where the offender met or accessed the victim in this paper are referred to meet/contact locations. For a detailed observation of the physical proximity between sex offenders and victims, both distances of residence to meet/contact victim location, and residence to offense location were examined. The current study also includes details on how and where offenders met or established contact with victims for a more comprehensive view of sexual offending.

Chapter 2: The History of Sex Offender Legislation, Collateral Consequences, and Effectiveness

Sex Offender Legislation

A. Sexually Violent Predator Act.

The Sexual Psychopath law was first sex offender legislation, enacted in Michigan in 1937. This law allowed an offender who is considered dangerous and diagnosed a sexual psychopath to be involuntarily committed to a mental hospital for an indefinite period. By 1949, 12 states and the District of Columbia had enacted such laws (Sutherland, 1950). According the Sutherland, the laws are primarily enacted after a community experiences intense fear after one or more serious sex crimes. More recently, similar laws have been termed as the Sexually Violent Predator Act. Over the decades, the number of states that have enacted such laws has grown to twenty (Civil Commitment of Sexually Violent Predators, retrieved March 24, 2012 from http://atsa.com/civil-commitment-sexually-violent-predators).

Kansas enacted its version of the Sexually Violent Predator Act in 1994, which instituted procedures for the civil commitment of persons who, due to a mental abnormality or a personality disorder, are likely to engage in sex crimes. Kansas exercised this Act for the first time when attempting to commit Leroy Hendricks. Hendricks had an extensive history of sexually molesting children. On August 19, 1994 Hendricks and his counsel appeared before the court to dismiss the petition stating the Act violated various federal constitutional due process provisions, including Double Jeopardy, and the Ex Post-Facto Clause. The Double Jeopardy Clause states, "[N]or shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb" (Kansas v Hendricks, 1997, p. 23). The Ex Post-Facto Clause, "forbids the application of

any new punitive measure to a crime already consummated" (Kansas v Hendricks, 1997, p. 23).

Since the Act did not criminalize Hendricks' behavior before its enactment, nor deprive him of any defense that was available to him at the time of his crimes, the Act was not in violation of the Ex Post-Facto Clause (Kansas v Hendricks, 1997). The majority opinion in Kansas v. Hendricks was that the Kansas statute was civil, not criminal, and therefore, the constitutional protections of the Ex Post Facto and Double Jeopardy Clauses did not apply. On May 17, 2010 the United States Supreme Court decided in United States vs. Comstock No. 08-1224, in a seven to two decision, to expand this authority to the Federal Government under Article I of the Constitution to enact a federal civil commitment program (U.S. v. Comstock, 2010).

In May of 1996, approximately a year and one-half after Federal Megan's Law was passed, the New Jersey Task Force, whose responsibility was to review the treatment of those deemed "criminally insane," issued a report that recommended the State of New Jersey adopt a Sexually Violent Predator Act. The New Jersey Sexually Violent Predator Act (SVPA) was adopted on August 12, 1998 as P.L. 1998 c. 71. New Jersey SVPA became effective on August 12, 1999. In enacting the SVPA, certain individuals who commit sex offenses and who suffer from mental abnormalities or personality disorders which make them likely repeat the sexual offenses if not treated will be subject to involuntary civil commitment (N.J.S.A. 30:4-27.24 to -27.38).

The SVP laws essentially transition sex offenders from criminals to patients, assuming that their crimes are at least in part due to some sort of mental disturbance. Sex crimes against children are effective in creating the assumption of illness because most

cannot understand a sex offense against a child, and assume those who commit such an act must be a "fiend or maniac" who will reoffend (Sutherland, 1950, p. 143). Because of this assumed mental disturbance, most research on sex offenders has been in the mental health realm, by social workers, psychologists, and psychiatrists.

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5) (first edition published in 1952) published by the American Psychiatric Association, standardizes and classifies mental disorders. The DSM-5 does not include a diagnosis of sex offender or one that claims to apply to all sex offenders, but does contain nine paraphilia diagnoses. A paraphilia involves, ''recurrent, intense sexually arousing fantasies, sexual urges, or behaviors generally involving 1) nonhuman objects, 2) the suffering or humiliation of oneself or one's partner, or 3) children or other non-consenting persons, that occur over a period of at least six months (DSM-5, dsm.psychiatryonline.org).'' The paraphilia, Pedophilia, involves sexual activity with a prepubescent child, usually less than 13 years of age. A person with Pedophilia must be at least 16 years of age and a minimum of five years older than the child. The DSM-5 notes that paraphilias are rarely diagnosed in clinical facilities, and likely are diagnosed after an arrest for a sexual offense (American Psychiatric Association DSM-5, 2013). The assumption that sex offenders possess a mental disorder has been reinforced by research using a medical model, comprised mainly of treatment providers within the three mental health backgrounds. This medical model for handling and treating sex offenders has had tremendous influence on how sex offenders are viewed by the public. This has resulted in sex offenders largely being labeled as mentally ill, mentally deranged, and compulsive (Sutherland, 1950).

B. Jimmy Ryce Act.

Florida enacted their version of the SVPA, the Jimmy Ryce Act, in 1999, after the sexual murder of 9-year-old Jimmy Ryce. On September 11, 1995 Jimmy Ryce walked off his school bus and was never seen again. Months later, his backpack was found inside the trailer of a local ranch hand, Juan Carlos Chavez. Chavez admitted to kidnapping and killing Jimmy and led authorities to his dismembered body. It was later found that Jimmy had been beaten and sexually assaulted. Juan Chavez was convicted of Jimmy's murder on September 12, 1998. Jimmy's parents, Don and Claudine Ryce, drafted and lobbied for the Jimmy Ryce Act or Involuntary Civil Commitment for Sexually Violent Predators' Treatment and Care Act. This Act allowed indefinite involuntary civil commitment of dangerous sex offenders to a State mental facility until it is determined by the mental health staff that they are no longer a threat to public safety (Presley, 1999). The Jimmy Ryce Act is also included in the Adam Walsh Act under Title III, The Civil Commitment of Dangerous Sex Offenders (AWA).

C. Jacob Wetterling Act.

Recently, the criminal justice system has had a greater involvement in handing sex offenders. The tremendous amount of social control held by the criminal justice system has been employed to control the lives of sex offenders, with the threat of sanctions for non-compliance. The passing of sex offender laws creates the presumption that sex offenders are dangerous, and therefore must be monitored and controlled. In 1950, renowned Sociologist/Criminologist, Edwin H. Sutherland stated that the laws to control sexual psychopaths were implemented due to the belief that the offenders would continue to commit sexual crimes throughout life. In essence, sex offender legislation

communicates to the community that sex offenders, due to some type of mental deficiency, are unable to control their impulses and the laws are necessary to control their behavior. Although California enacted sex offender registration legislation in 1947, most states did not begin implementing registration laws until the 1990s.

One of the first well-recognized laws was the Jacob Wetterling Crimes Against Children and Sexually Violent Offender Registration Act, otherwise known as the Jacob Wetterling Act. The Jacob Wetterling Act, which is Title XVII of the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994, was signed into law by President William Clinton on September 13, 1994. The law was named after 11-year-old Jacob Wetterling, from St. Joseph, Minnesota, who went missing in 1989. On October 22, 1989 Jacob, his younger brother Trevor, and friend Aaron rode their bicycles to a nearby store. While they were riding their bikes, an unknown man with a gun came out of a ditch and approached the boys. The gunman ordered them off their bicycles, told Trevor and Aaron to turn and run away, and not to look back. The boys followed the gunman's orders, but the boys did look back to see the gunman take Jacob by the arm. Investigators later learned that sex offenders were living in halfway houses nearby. Jacob's abduction was similar to a case a year earlier that took place ten miles away, of a boy who was kidnapped and sexually assaulted. To this day, Jacob has not been found and is presumed dead (Farley, 2008).

The Jacob Wetterling Act initiated a State Sex Offender Registry, which required all states to set up a registration program database to include, "a person who is convicted of a criminal offense against a victim who is a minor or who is convicted of a sexually violent offense to register a current address with a designated State law enforcement

agency for the time period" (Jacob Wetterling Act, 1994).The registry is a requirement

upon release from prison, parole, supervised release, or probation for all those who

commit sexual or kidnapping crimes against children or who commit sexually violent

crimes against any person, and the registry data includes the offender's name and address

(Jacob Wetterling Act, 1994). This information is kept confidential and the Act states,

"The information collected under a state registration program shall be treated as private

data" and can only disclosed to law enforcement agencies, government agencies

conducting confidential background checks, or a state agency, to protect members of the

public who may be directly affected (Jacob Wetterling, 1994). All states were required to

implement the Act within three years from the date of its enactment, and failure to do so

would have resulted in the State losing ten percent of the funds allocated in the Omnibus

Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (Jacob Wetterling Act, 1994). States that did

not comply with this Act risked losing ten percent of their criminal justice program block

grants, known as the Byrne Program (Kabat, 1998).

D. Megan's Law.

Two years after the passing of the Jacob Wetterling Act, President William J.

Clinton signed Federal Megan's Law on May 17, 1996, which was named after Megan

Kanka from Hamilton, NJ. In July 1994, 7-year-old Megan was invited by her neighbor,

Jesse Timmendequas, into his home to see his new puppy. Timmendequas was a

convicted sex offender with a history of violent assaults against children. Once inside

Timmendequas' home, Megan was strangled with a belt, raped, and suffocated to death

with a plastic bag that was placed over her head (Corrigan, 2006). Prior to Megan's Law,

law enforcement had discretion as to whom the registered sex offenders' information was

released. Megan's Law amended the Jacob Wetterling Act by releasing the information

to the public by stating, "The designated State law enforcement agency and any local law

enforcement agency authorized by the State agency shall release relevant information that

is necessary to protect the public" (Megan's Law, 1996). Megan's Law eliminated the

confidentiality of this registry data with community notification by changing what was

stated in the Jacob Wetterling Act, that the information collected, "may be disclosed for

any purpose collected permitted by the laws of the state," and changing it to, "shall

release relevant information that is necessary to protect the public" (Kabat, 1998).

By the end of 1999, all 50 states had implemented a version of Megan's Law

(Vásquez, Maddan, & Walker, 2008), yet each implemented its own version resulting in a

great deal of variability among them. Not all 50 states' versions are detailed here, but

some of the states were compared to better understand some of the variations, as well as

why many believe that reforming this law is necessary for greater consistency. New

Jersey implemented its version of Megan's Law October 31, 1994 and registered all sex

offenders, including juveniles. New Jersey distinguishes risk level by using a three-tier

level system based on one's score on the Registrant Risk Assessment Scale (RRAS),

which includes various risk factors that have been shown to be empirically related to

recidivism (Chajewski & Mercado, 2008). New Jersey's Internet Sex Offender Registry

only makes public the higher-risk Tier II and Tier III sex offenders.

New York State's version of Megan's Law became effective January 21, 1996

and used the three-level classification system. New York's system is based on the court's

assessment of the likelihood of offenders repeating the same or a similar offense.

Decisions regarding risk level (Level I- low-risk, Level II – moderate-risk, and Level III -

high-risk) assignment are made based on the offender's relationship to the victim, age of the victim, duration of the offense, use of a weapon, and extent to which the victim was injured (Freeman, 2009). New York's Internet Sex Offender Registry also only makes public Level II and Level III sex offenders. Juveniles who are adjudicated as youthful offenders or juvenile delinquents are not required to register.

Some states have broad notification laws that do not distinguish risk level. Connecticut and Indiana both have broad notification policies that apply to all sex offenders, including juveniles, and neither state has a classification system differentiating between low- and high-risk (Levenson, D'Amora, & Hern, 2007). South Carolina also has a broad sex offender notification policy that is significantly harsher than other states such as New York and New Jersey and does not distinguish between low-risk and high-risk offenders. South Carolina's Megan's Law was implemented retroactively, and included sex offenders who committed sex offenses before the law was passed. The duration of South Carolina's registration is for life, and all registered offenders are subjected to the same level of community notification, which, since 1999, has included broad internet-based notification (Letourneau, Levenson, Bandyopadhyay, Armstrong & Sinha, 2010). Megan's Law varies widely from state to state in regards to the complexity and broadness of the notification, and the amount of state and local bureaucratic involvement.

E. Adam Walsh Act.

More recently, President George W. Bush signed the Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act, on July 27, 2006. The Adam Walsh Act (AWA) was initiated by Adam's parents, John and Revé Walsh, who have been child advocates since the

murder of their son, Adam. In July 1981, 6-year-old Adam Walsh was abducted from a

local mall in Hollywood, FL. Two weeks later, some of his remains were found in a

canal more than 100 miles from his home (Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act,

2006). The AWA states its Declaration of Purpose is to, "protect the public from sex

offenders and offenders against children," then goes on to describe briefly 17 additional

cases of sex offender victims (Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act, 2006). The

Declaration of Purpose also mentions an eight-year-old victim, Amie Zyla, who was

sexually assaulted by a juvenile, suggesting a greater need for protection from juvenile

sex offenders. Therefore, the AWA extends registration and notification to juveniles as

young as 14 years old, which was not required in Megan's Law (Adam Walsh Child

Protection and Safety Act of 2006). According to U.S. Department of Justice Center for

Sex Offender Management, only 32 states require the registration of juveniles adjudicated

in juvenile court, and not all of them release the information to the public. Twenty states

have instituted special juvenile procedures and/or age limits that can determine a

juvenile's obligation and length of time to register (Center for Sex Offender

Management, retrieved on December 7, 2010 from

www.csom.org/train/juvenile/7/7_4.htm). The AWA was developed in part to reduce the

variability and discrepancies among the states' sex offender registration and notification

laws discussed previously.

Title 1 of the AWA is known as the Sex Offender Registration and Notification

Act (SORNA). The SORNA standardized the registration and community notification

procedures of all 50 states by adding a tier system to differentiate risk level, as not all

states employ such differentiation. Sex offenders are divided into three tiers depending

entirely on the crime of conviction and sentence length. Tier I consists of sex offenders

convicted of misdemeanor offenses such as forcible touching and receipt of child

pornography. Tier II consists of sex offenders convicted of felonies such as sex

trafficking, transportation of a minor with intent to engage in criminal sexual activity,

abusive sexual contact, use of a minor in a sexual performance, solicitation of a minor to

practice prostitution, and production or distribution of child pornography. Tier III

consists of sex offenders convicted of more serious felonies such as sexual abuse,

aggravated sexual abuse, abusive sexual contact against a minor under the age of 13

years, and kidnapping of a minor by one that is not a parent or guardian. Both Tiers II

and III require offenses to result in more than one year imprisonment, with the main

difference between the Tiers being the nature and severity of the sexual offense.

The SORNA also made the registry retroactive, to include sex offenders who may

no longer be in the criminal justice system, or no longer registered. It also set the

duration length of registration based on risk: 15 years for Tier I, 25 years for Tier II, and

lifetime registration for Tier III sex offenders (Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety

Act, 2006). Title 1 of the AWA also implemented the SMART Office (Sex Offender

Sentencing, Monitoring, Apprehending, Registering, and Tracking) of Justice Programs.

The SMART Office is headed by a Director appointed by the President and the Attorney

General. The roles of the SMART Office include administering the standards for the sex

offender registration and notification program, as well as overseeing grant programs

related to sex offender registration and notification (Adam Walsh Child Protection and

Safety Act, 2006). AWA also eliminates the state's decision regarding which registered

sex offenders should be included on internet registries. Thus, all states are required to

implement a broad notification system, in which the states comply by publicly identifying

at least the high-risk offenders on internet registries (Letourneau, Levenson,

Bandyopadhyay, Sinha, & Armstrong, 2009).

The AWA declared that each state must implement SORNA in its entirety within

three years, making the deadline July 26, 2009. Similar to the Jacob Wetterling Act, the

AWA declared that states who failing to comply with the Act would be ineligible to

receive the Byrne Grant, ten percent of the funds that would otherwise be allocated to the

Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (Adam Walsh Reauthorization Act

of 2011 H.R. 2870, Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, retrieved on

January 11, 2011 from www.govtrack.us/congress/bill.xpd?bill=h109-

4472&tab=reports). The AWA allows up to two one-year extensions, bringing the

implementation deadline to July 26, 2011 (Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act

of 2006 retrieved on January 11, 2011 from

www.ojp.usdoj.gov/smart/pdfs/SORNA_Extensions_Granted.pdf.). This allows states

time to implement the act, and to decide whether certain controversial aspects of the law

should be implemented, such as the registration and notification of juveniles (New York

does not register those adjudicated as youthful offenders or juvenile delinquents) (Adam

Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act, 2006; New York Division of Criminal Justice

Services, retrieved January 11, 2011 from http://criminaljustice.state.ny.us/nsor). The

extension also allows states to evaluate whether the financial cost of implementing

SORNA in their state is greater than the penalties for not being in compliance, i.e. losing

the Byrne Grant funding (Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, retrieved

on January 11, 2011 from www.govtrack.us/congress/bill.xpd?bill=h109-

4472&tab=reports).

At the time the AWA was passed, about half the states already assigned sex

offenders to risk levels; most assigned risk based on offense and victim characteristics,

not merely by crime of conviction, as required by SORNA (Levenson & Cotter, 2005b).

Since the publication of the SORNA Guidelines, many states have raised concerns about

certain aspects, such as registering juveniles and the retroactivity of the registry. To

address these concerns, the Department of Justice issued modifications to allow more

latitude and discretion regarding who is required to register. The updated guidelines were

published May 14, 2010 in Federal Register published by the Department of Justice. The

updated guidelines offered jurisdiction discretion regarding the registration and public

notification of juvenile sex offenders, and jurisdiction discretion for those who have

committed a sex offense prior to the enactment of AWA and have fully exited the

criminal justice system and are no longer incarcerated, under community supervision, or

no longer registered (Holder, 2010).

The July 26, 2011 deadline to implement the AWA has passed and so far,

according to the SMART Office, only 16 states (Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Kansas,

Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nevada, Ohio, Pennsylvania,

South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Wyoming) and three territories (Guam,

Northern Mariana Islands, Virgin Islands) have implemented the requirements of the

AWA (U.S. Department of Justice, http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/smart). States such as

Texas and California do not plan to implement AWA because it is believed that the

current sex offender classification system is superior to that proposed in SORNA

(Grinberg, 2011, retrieved on September 16, 2011 from

www.cnn.com/2011/CRIME/07/28/sex.offender.adam.walsh.act/index.html?hpt=hp_c2).

Typology of Sex Offenders

As mentioned previously, sex offenders are not a homogenous group who merit

one label. Many psychologists have created typologies of sex offenders for treatment

methods and risk assessments. The book, Sex Offenders: An Analysis of Types, authored

by Gebhard, Gagnon, Pomeroy, and Christenson (1965), examined different types of sex

offenders. The authors interviewed 1,356 white males who had been convicted of one of

more sex offenses, 888 white males who had never been convicted of a sex offense but

were incarcerated for another crime, and 477 white males who had never been convicted

of a crime. Offense and victim characteristics were examined, including the age and

gender of the victim, the relationship to the victim, the manner in which the offender

approached their victim, and the sexual acts committed. Differences among those who

offended against adults, children 11 years old and younger, those 12 to 15 years, older

teens, and adults were compared. The types or groups of offenders that were identified

and compared were Heterosexual Offenders, Heterosexual Aggressors, Incest Offenders,

Homosexual Offenders, Peepers, and Exhibitionists.

In 1978, Groth and Bimbaum used a random sample of 175 males convicted of

sexual assault against children to identify two types of child sex offenders: fixated and

regressed. A fixated offender is defined as a temporary or permanent arrestment of

psychological maturation resulting from unresolved formative issues, which persist and

underlie the organization of subsequent phases of development. The fixated offender is

primarily or exclusively sexually attracted children. Some fixated offenders may be in a

relationship with a peer-aged individual, but their primary attraction is to minors. A regressed offender's sexual attraction is not primarily to those peer-aged or adult, and they did not exhibit sexual attraction to younger persons during their sexual development (Groth & Birnbaum, 1978).

Groth (1979) identified three types of adult sex offenders (rapists): power, anger, and sadistic. Power rapists show less aggression than anger or sadistic, and tend not to use unnecessary force. Power reassurance rapists, often known as the gentlemen rapists, often commit offenses that are premeditated and preceded by rape fantasies. The offender uses limited force/threats, and may use a weapon to gain compliance. A history of minor sexual offenses, such as lewdness, is common among this type of sex offender (Groth, 1979).

Anger rapists focus their anger to maintain strength and power over the victim. Their crimes tend to be impulsive, spontaneous, and unplanned, and often result in physical injury to the victim. The offender's prior criminal record may include violent offenses. Anger offenders often are less educated, and more likely to use alcohol or drugs prior to the offense. Sadistic rapists are extremely rare and display sexual aggression powered by erotic, violent fantasies in which sex and violence are merged. Their motive is to achieve sexual gratification by inflicting physical pain and suffering upon their victim. Sadistic rapists are opportunistic, attacking suddenly, and often kidnapping their victims. Sadistic rapists tend to be more intelligent, are more likely to have a college education and be married (Groth, 1979).

Baxter, Marshall, Barbaree, Davidson, and Malcolm (1984) differentiated 128 sex offenders by criminal and personal history by comparing three types of sex offenders:

Pedophiles, hebophiles, and rapists. The offenders were classified as pedophiles if their victim was age 11 years or younger and the offender was least five years older than the victim. A hebophile designation was assigned to describe an offender who never assaulted a victim under the age of 12, but their victim was between 12 and 16 years old, and the offender was at least five years older than the victim. An offender was defined as a rapist if he committed an offense against an adult or peer-aged victim. Results demonstrated that rapists tended to assault strangers, use violence or weapons, and have more non-sexual offenses in their offense history. Pedophiles tended to be less intelligent and less likely to have a high school education, had more victims in their offense history, and tended to have committed fewer non-sexual offenses. Pedophiles tended to be older than the rapists and were similar in the degree of violence used in the offense. Hebophiles were more likely to be married, and have children of their own. Both rapists and hebophiles were less likely to be sexually attracted to young adolescents and children compared to pedophiles (Baxter et al., 1984).

Robertiello and Terry (2007) detail how the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) also constructed a typology of seven child sex offenders (regressed, morally indiscriminate, sexually indiscriminate, inadequate, preferential, fixated, and sadistic). The regressed offenders target victims who are easily accessible and are often a substitute for adult relationships. Morally indiscriminate offenders do not prefer children to adults and use their own sexual gratifications. Sexually indiscriminate offenders use children to experiment sexually, and tend to offend out of boredom. Inadequate offenders view relationships with children as their only sexual method. Preferential offenders and seductive offenders groom or "court" children and give them affection and sometimes

gifts. Fixated offenders have a sexual desire for children. Sadistic offenders are aggressive, sexually excited by violence, and target stranger victims.

Danni and Hampe (2000) classified and examined characteristics of three child offender types: pedophiles, hebophiles, and incest offenders. According to the authors, a pedophile is described as someone who prefers victims who are prepubescent, and the offender is attempting to sexually satisfy the child victim. Hebophiles prefer their victims to be post pubescent, and interprets the sexual relationship with the victim to be mutual. An incest offender often has successful adult sexual relationships and reverts to younger victims for sexual activities. They were able to correctly classify the offenders in one of the three types 90 percent of the time, using factors such as victims' age, motive, age-appropriate relationships, stress, social facade, and anger.

Robertiello and Terry (2007) also used the classifications termed by Groth and Bimbaum (1978) to compare characteristics of child sex offenders (fixated and regressed). Those termed as the fixed offender were characterized as having a persistent, continual, and compulsive attraction to children, as developing relationships with vulnerable children, and typically, grooming and maintaining the children for a continuing sexual relationship. The regressed offender tends to be situational and precipitated by external life stressors. Stressors may include unemployment or substance abuse. A rapist is the term used for those who commit sex offenses against adults. Rapists have also been classified by the victim and offense characteristics. Four types of rapists were classified: Power reassurance, power assertive, anger retaliation, and anger/excitation. The power assertive rapists tend to use alcohol and/or drugs prior to the offense, and tend to use non-lethal aggression to promote masculinity. Rapists are more

likely to commit their crimes in public. The anger excitation rapist is sexually excited by the pain and fear imposed on the victim. Opportunistic rapists tend to commit sexual assaults on impulse, and the motivation is immediate sexual gratification. Lastly, the vindictive rapists were motivated by power and control, and often used physical harm to humiliate their victims.

Therefore, sex offenders are not simply one homogenous group that merits the same broad label. In regards to the typology of sex offenders, the legislation often homogenizes sex offenders into one large group, ignoring the multiple dimensions in regards to deviance and risk. The laws named after victims are powerful images because there are some offenders who are dangerous habitual predators. It is these offenders who make the headlines and are the prominent images of the typical sex offender presented to the public. The sex offender laws attempt to deal with the deviant behavior and not the individual person. A master label of sex offender and widely implemented policies on registration and residence restrictions do not take into consideration the offenders' abilities to successfully reintegrate into society, including housing, social contacts, and employment.

Moral Panic and Sex Offender Legislation

The sex offender laws are based on the assumption that sex offenders are situationally motivated and would be less likely to reoffend if their access to victims is restricted. Most of the response to sex offenders and sexual offending has been in the form of policies based on emotional reactions and myths rather than on research and facts. Given that the sex offender registration and notification laws are named after murdered children (Jacob Wetterling, Megan Kanka, and Adam Walsh) infers that sex

offenders often kill their victims. The fear of sex offenders has been perpetrated and

sensationalized in the media for decades.

> According to Sutherland (1950), fear is produced more readily in the modern
> community than it was earlier in our history because of the increased publicity
> regarding sex crimes. Any spectacular sex crime is picked up by the press
> associations and is distributed to practically all the newspapers in the nation; in
> addition, it is often described in news broadcasts. Then weekly and monthly
> journals publish general articles on sex crimes. All this produces a widespread
> uneasiness which, given a few local incidents, readily bursts into hysteria. (p. 144)

Although this quote is more than 60 years old, it is even more relevant today with the

increased abilities to communicate information through media and the internet. The

uncommon problem of violent sexual offenses appears more prevalent than it actually is,

and legislators feel pressure to act to appease community fears.

Similar patterns have emerged with the implementation of sex offender laws.

Sutherland (1950) describes three stages in the implementation of the earlier laws. The

first is that a "[s]tate of fear has been aroused in a community by a few serious sex crimes

committed in quick succession" (p. 143). He provides an example of Indiana passing a

law shortly after a series of sexual attacks in which two resulted in murder. The second

stage is the "[a]gitated activity of the community in connection with the fear" (p. 144).

The attention the crimes received by community members becomes the focus, and people

feel the need to control the amount of sex offenses. The last phase is the appointment of

a committee to study sex crimes, gather recommendations, and draft bills for the

legislature (Sutherland, 1950).

Wright (2008) also described a similar pattern as to why and how the more recent

sex offender laws have been enacted, with the media causing moral panic. The formation

of the laws usually begins with a sexual murder of a child. An investigation into the

murder identifies a suspect who was previously convicted of a sex crime and the local media extensively reports on the murder. The state or federal legislators become involved, often by meeting with the grieving family members and drafting a new law that would "prevent" these types of crimes from occurring in the future. The new proposed bill either creates a new sex offender law or revises an existing one, in an attempt to better control sex offenders. The bill quickly passes without controversy, and becomes state or federal law. Once the bill has become law, the process has developed into a "moral panic" (Wright, 2008, p. 20). A similar pattern emerged in the sexual murders of, and the laws named after, Jacob Wetterling and Megan Kanka. The laws were written with the intent of increasing protection from sex offenders, but were typically a reaction to a highly publicized crime that caused fear and outrage. The public demands, "something be done," placing politicians under intense pressure to pass the laws.

The high profile murders mentioned often lead to the assumption that the dangerous sex offenders are strangers, which has been supported in research. Gavin (2005) used a diverse sample of ten men and ten women and had them perform a story completion form containing six scenarios, generated by the researchers, to elicit thoughts and feelings concerning the social construction of sex offenders. Gavin included offenders who were known to the victim in many scenarios, yet participants generally thought of the sex offenders as strangers unless prompted to think of an alternative. When this alternative was offered, people still did not describe a family member or close friend as the offender unless further prompted. Gavin was able to demonstrate that the term, "sex offender" is a social construction, and people tend not to view sex offenders as possibly being family members.

Constitutionality of Sex Offender Registration and Notification Legislation

Sex Offender laws, although designed to protect the public, have not been received without skepticism and controversy. Many civil rights groups have advocated that public registration and notification laws violate the privacy and Due Process rights of sex offenders. When Megan's Law was enacted in New Jersey on October 31, 1994 the constitutionality was questioned with the case Doe v. Portiz, 1995. John Doe (Poritz was the Attorney General) was a convicted sex offender, and complained that Megan's Law violated the Ex Post Facto and Double Jeopardy clause of the U.S. Constitution. The New Jersey Supreme Court decided, in a six to one decision, to hold the lower court's decision that the Registration and Community Notification Laws do not violate the Ex Post Facto, Double Jeopardy, or Cruel and Unusual Punishment. The opinion stated that Megan's Law does not deprive sex offenders of the right to equal protection under the laws or to their constitutional right to privacy. The Supreme Court believed that the Constitution does not prevent society from creating laws in order to protect itself from convicted sex offenders, as long as the law is designed for protection, and not designed to punish. It was determined that the right to protect the public from sex offenders who are believed to reoffend outweighed the privacy rights of convicted sex offenders. Since Megan's Law was interpreted as intending to protect, and was determined to be non-punitive, the lower court's decision stood.

In addition, it was argued whether Megan's law violated due process rights of a hearing. In Connecticut Dept. of Public Safety v. Doe, 538 U.S. 1 (2003), John Doe, a convicted sex offender who was subject to the law, filed a suit, claiming that the law violated the Fourteenth Amendment's Due Process Clause. The Court of Appeals

concluded that disclosing registry information violated the Due Process Clause because officials did not afford registrants a pre-deprivation hearing. The case was heard by the U.S. Supreme Court and in a six to three decision, Justice Rehnquist, who stated the majority opinion, decided that, "Due process does not require the opportunity to prove a fact that is not material to the State's statutory scheme" (Connecticut Dept. of Public Safety v. Doe, 2003). The Court decided that because the law was based on an offender's convictions, not the offender's dangerousness, disclosing an offender on the registry without a hearing did not violate due process (Connecticut Dept. of Public Safety v. Doe, 2003).

Applying Megan's Law retroactively also came with intense controversy. In New York, shortly after the enactment of the community notification law, the Legal Aid Society filed a federal lawsuit on behalf of several released sex offenders in Doe v. Pataki, 1996. The legality of the law was challenged on the grounds that it violated the Ex Post Facto clause and that the law did not grant due process proceedings to establish risk level. The court decided in a six to one decision in favor of the Legal Aid Society and the released sex offenders, and prohibited community notification for all sex offenders who committed their crimes before the enactment of the community notification law on January 21, 1996 (Freeman, 2009). The constitutionality of a public sex offender registry was again resolved in 2003 with the Alaskan case, Smith v. Doe, 2003. The respondents were convicted of aggravated sex offenses, and argued that the Act was in violation of the Eighth Amendment, Ex Post Facto Clause. Smith v. Doe, 2003 was argued before the U.S. Supreme Court. It was decided that the Alaska Sex Offender Registration Act was determined to be non-punitive and the retroactive

application did not violate the Ex Post Facto clause. In a six to three decision, the lower

court's decision was held (Smith v. Doe, 2003).

Consequences of Sex Offender Registration and Notification Legislation

What a number of civil rights advocates feared regarding the sex offender laws

unfortunately came into fruition for many. The abundance of academic research has

shown that similar negative experiences with Megan's Law were noted, regardless of the

state in which the surveys or interviews of sex offenders were conducted. The concern is

not only for civil rights, but also for one's quality of life, as a reduced quality of life has

been linked to recidivism. According to Tony Ward's Good Lives Model (GLM), an

effective way to reduce recidivism is to provide released offenders with the tools needed

to create more fulfilling lives, including housing, employment, and meaningful

interpersonal relationships. However, these tools are difficult to attain when many sex

offenders have experienced severe stigma due to the community notification laws (Ward

& Brown, 2004).

     A. Vigilantism.

The public registration of sex offenders, including public internet registries, often include

the name, date of birth, address, and photograph of the sex offender, which has led many

registered sex offenders to experience severe stigma in the form of vigilantism. The most

severe yet less common form of vigilantism against sex offenders is physical assaults.

Zevitz, Crim, and Farkas (2000) examined the effects of community notification and this

type of stigma in Wisconsin, shortly after the law was implemented. Wisconsin was one

of the few states at the time that conducted risk assessments and implemented a risk-level

system. The study consisted of 30 one-on-one interviews of the high-risk Level III sex

offenders using open-ended questions about their experiences with the community notification law and its impact. Only three percent of the offenders interviewed experienced a physical attack, but all expressed concern for their own safety.

Mercado, Alvarez and Levenson (2008) examined the perceived impact of community notification among a sample of higher-risk (Tier II and Tier III) sex offenders from the New Jersey Sex Offender Internet Registry. A survey containing a series of questions concerning offenders' perceptions of the impact of community notification and RR statutes was mailed to all 1,601 sex offenders on the internet registry, to which 138 responded. Of the 138 sex offenders, 11 percent experienced physical violence and nearly all (136) reported that they were afraid for their own safety because of their sex offender status. Levenson, et al. (2007) surveyed 239 registered sex offenders in Connecticut and Indiana, and revealed that ten percent of their sample experienced physical assaults and nearly half expressed fear for their safety. Robbers (2009) surveyed 153 registered sex offenders in Virginia; more than six percent stated they were assaulted by their neighbors. Thirteen percent of the 125 sex offenders surveyed by Brannon, Levenson, Fortney, and Baker (2007) have experienced physical violence and 16 percent of the 121 sex offenders surveyed by Tewksbury (2005) reported being assaulted. Although physical assaults were rare, as indicated, the fear and perception that they are in physical danger was prominent.

Property damage is another form of vigilantism experienced by sex offenders. Mercado, et al. (2008) found that 27 percent of the sample in New Jersey reported having their property damaged by someone who found out that they were sex offenders. Eighteen percent of the 239 sex offenders surveyed in Indiana and Connecticut by

Levenson, et al. (2007) reported having their property damaged, and 12 percent of those surveyed in Florida by Brannon et al. (2007) reported having their homes damaged. Pets are also subject to harm; Robbers (2009) revealed four of the offenders interviewed stated that their pets had been assaulted, threatened, or tormented by neighbors.

According to surveys of registered sex offenders, family members also suffer the effects of the stigma. The study by Mercado, et al. (2008) found that 34 percent of the sex offenders reported that someone who lived with them was threatened, harassed, assaulted, or injured due to their sex offender registration status. Robbers (2009) revealed that more than 18 percent of partners or household members of sex offenders surveyed in Virginia were threatened or harassed by neighbors. Sixteen percent of the sex offenders surveyed in Connecticut and Indiana reported that the persons living with them experienced threats or harassment (Levenson, D'Amora, et al., 2007). Tewksbury and Levenson (2009) surveyed 584 family members of registered sex offenders in 2008 in all 50 states and reported that nearly half stated they feared for their safety, and 31 percent said that they were forced to move due to RR laws or pressure from community members. Zevitz et al. (2000) reported that 67 percent of the Wisconsin sex offenders interviewed reported their sex offender status caused emotional harm to family members. The sex offenders' family members also can experience the negative consequences of the registration and notification laws. The negative experiences by family members can pose significant strain on relationships, reducing their ability to provide emotional support, and promote rehabilitation and reintegration of the registered sex offenders.

B. Harassment.

Being threatened or harassed was found to be the most common form of stigma experienced by registered sex offenders. Most researchers who have studied the experiences of registration and notification laws found that a large percentage of their sample of sex offenders experienced this type of stigma. Tewksbury and Lees (2006) conducted 22 one-on-one interviews with registered sex offenders in Kentucky to provide insights about the experiences of registered sex offender who have been subject to community notification. The results demonstrated that many offenders reported at least one incident of harassment in the form of personal attacks, with no physical violence. Mercado, et al. (2008) found nearly half of the sex offenders (48%) in New Jersey reported having been threatened or harassed, and Zevitz et al. (2000) showed that 77 percent (23 out of 30) of the sex offenders in Wisconsin were harassed, humiliated, or threatened by neighbors. More than 22 percent of the sex offenders in Virginia surveyed by Robbers (2009) said they were threatened or harassed by neighbors, and more than one-third said they have been treated poorly by others in public. Levenson, D'Amora, et al. (2007) surveyed sex offenders in Connecticut and Indiana in which 21 percent reported being harassed, and Tewksbury (2005) revealed that of the 121 sex offenders surveyed in Kentucky, 47 percent were harassed in person, and 53 percent were harassed by either phone or mail.

C. Loss of Social Networks.

Having positive and meaningful interpersonal relationship with family and friends is an important aspect of one's quality of life, and has been noted to be an essential component of community reintegration of offenders (Ward & Gannon, 2006). Some

registered sex offenders, whether the offenders experienced harassment or not, have been ostracized from their community due to the community notification laws. The majority of the sex offenders surveyed by Levenson, et al. (2007) reported experiencing isolation, shame, and embarrassment related to the public sex offender notification. Of the 30 sex offenders interviewed by Zevitz et al. (2000), 67 percent reported being ostracized by neighbors and acquaintances. Tewksbury and Lees (2006) found similar results and revealed that often extended family members stopped communication or limited their interactions with some sex offenders; however, some sex offenders were legally prohibited from interacting with family members. Twenty-eight percent of the sex offenders surveyed by Tewksbury and Zgoba (2009) reported that their most significant loss was that their communications with family and friends was hindered, and Zevitz et al. (2000) found that the loss of personal relationships was the most common consequence of sex offender registration.

Tewksbury (2005) found that more than 54 percent of registered sex offenders reported losing a friend due to their sex offender status. Brannon et al. (2007) reported that, of those interviewed, many reported that being a registered sex offender made the support of family and friends and their acceptance back into the community problematic; 40 percent reported diminished contact with their family and friends. Burchfield and Mingus (2008) noted that among those who stated that they maintained relationships with friends and family, few of the relationships were local. Jennings, Zgoba, and Tewksbury (2012) compared the recidivism trajectories of released sex offenders and non-sex offenders after the implementation of New Jersey's Megan's Law. When compared to non-sex offenders, more of the sex offenders were not living with family or friends, and

more were living in a group facility. The registration and notification laws greatly affect the offenders' ability to maintain a support system, which is an essential part of one's quality of life, and of the ability to successfully re-integrate back into the community.

In addition to being rejected or ostracized by others, some sex offenders willingly withdraw from social situations and socially interacting with others due to shame and embarrassment. Burchfield and Mingus (2008) conducted one-on-one interviews with 23 registered sex offenders, recruited from a sex offender treatment group, and nearly one quarter reported purposefully and voluntarily limiting their interactions with friends, family, and neighbors. Sex offenders interviewed by Mercado et al. (2008) also reported that the shame and embarrassment from community notification prevented them from engaging in social activities. Robbers (2009) found that the majority of sex offenders surveyed indicated they were not involved or did not participate in community activities and 20 percent had been living in a different neighborhood, and moved to the present one to live anonymously and did not want to draw attention to themselves. Nearly half the sample surveyed by Tewksbury and Levenson (2009) reported experiencing feelings of loneliness and isolation, and that they avoided social activities due to shame and embarrassment.

D. Housing Discrimination.

Many sex offenders experienced housing discrimination, one of the most necessary and important aspects of community reintegration. Thirty-four percent of sex offenders surveyed by Mercado et al. (2008) indicated property owners refused to rent to them, and those surveyed by Tewksbury (2005) reported that more than 45 percent were either denied or lost a place to live. Of the 30 sex offenders interviewed by Zevitz et al.

(2000), 83 percent reported being denied housing because their RSO status, and

Levenson, D'Amora, et al. (2007) reported that 18 percent of the 239 sex offenders were

forced to move because either their property owner or neighbors became aware of their

RSO status. Levenson and Cotter (2005b) reported that some were forced out of rented

apartments because landlords (24%) or neighbors (20%) learned that they were sex

offenders, and 12 percent of the offenders surveyed by Brannon et al. (2007) claimed

they were forced to move. Tewksbury and Zgoba (2009) examined registered sex

offenders' experience and responses to sex offender registration and notification policies

and noted that registered sex offenders may have had to move to more affordable

locations due to financial constraints.

     E. Job Discrimination.

     Securing stable employment is an important aspect of one's quality of life, and is

essential in one's ability to successfully reintegrate into the community and avoid

criminal recidivism. Obtaining employment is challenging for convicted felons; adding

the sex offender status makes it increasingly difficult (Robbers, 2009). For example,

Kentucky restricts sex offenders from obtaining jobs involving regular handling of

money, working with children, having contact with pharmaceutical drugs and medical

supplies, or jobs that require licensure (Tewksbury & Lees, 2006). The research

conducted on sex offenders and employment discrimination has found that a large

percentage of the samples of sex offenders have lost their jobs because of their sex

offender status. Specifically, 21 percent of those surveyed by Levenson, et al. (2007), 33

percent by Levenson and Cotter (2005b), 43 percent by Tewksbury (2005), nearly half of

those surveyed by Robbers (2009), more than half (52%) by Mercado et al. (2008), and

57 percent of sex offenders surveyed by Zevitz et al. (2000) reported experiencing the loss of a job as a result of sex offender community notification.

The status of RSO can also result in a demotion in one's employment status. Many sex offenders who were employed stated that they were forced to take jobs that were of a lower status than before they were arrested due to the stigma or job restrictions (Brown, Spencer, & Deakin, 2007). Brown, et al. also found that of those offenders with higher education levels, many had been employed in skilled and professional jobs prior to conviction, but were prohibited from obtaining the same jobs once released. Those employed in higher status professional jobs felt the most disappointed by the prison and probation system in regards to education and training. A complaint was that more emphasis was placed on the least educated and skilled, resulting in little support for those who are skilled but need to be retrained in order for them to compete in the job market (Brown, et al.). Robbers (2009) also found that nearly all sex offenders surveyed stated that they were employed below their skill level and three-quarters indicated that their career advancement had been disrupted by sex offender registration and notification. Twenty offenders surveyed stated that their sex offender status prevented them from obtaining professional positions and six indicated that they had to obtain two low-paying jobs, in order to meet financial obligations (Robbers, 2009). It appears that the negative status of RSO in addition to a criminal record has resulted in detrimental effects on obtaining employment and on the ability to obtain financially stability.

Brown et al. (2007) interviewed employers to examine their apprehensiveness in employing registered sex offenders. Approximately half stated they would not consider hiring a registered sex offender, regardless of the circumstances. The perceived risks

they posed to staff and customers, negative reactions from their staff to the sex offender, and negative publicity for the company for employing a registered sex offender were some of the reasons provided for refusing to hire sex offenders. It appears that many employers are unwilling to hire sex offenders due to the liability. It appears that important quality of life factors are discarded for sex offenders, despite the GLM of Ward and Brown (2004) regarding how important a role employment has on successful community reintegration and recidivism prevention.

Attitudes towards Sex Offender Registration and Notification Legislation

Despite the numerous negative consequences, and the research questioning the effectiveness of the laws, the sex offender registration laws continue to be extremely popular among the general public and politicians. According to Gaines (2006), who collected information about the public's perception of sex offender registration and community notification from law enforcement, found that community members stated that they have an increased level of comfort now that they are able to receive public information about sex offenders, and that they have lauded law enforcement for making the information available. Comartin, Kernsmith, and Kernsmith (2009) investigated public attitudes regarding work restrictions, community notification, and RR laws through 703 telephone surveys, and found that the pubic was overall supportive of sex offender legislation. Eighty-five percent agreed with notification laws, about 96 percent supported work restrictions, and 88 percent supported RR laws. Schiavone and Jeglic (2009) surveyed 115 community members regarding who should be subjected to Megan's Law. The majority (89%) stated that the high-risk offenders should be included, 82 percent believed that moderate risk offenders should be included, 51 percent wanted to

include the low-risk offenders, and 20 percent believed those posing no risk should still be subjected to Megan's Law.

Research has been conducted to determine the perceived fairness of the laws, and the level of fairness of the release of personal information. Lieb and Nunlist (2008) conducted telephone surveys of 643 adults in both rural and urban areas in Washington State regarding the state's community notification law. About 80 percent of the public agreed that Washington's community notification law was important, and 63 percent agreed that the law was effective and believed that released sex offenders would be less likely to reoffend than if there was no community notification law in place.

Brannon et al. (2007) examined public perceptions of the sex offender community notification and found that the public was more likely to find the community notification law to be fair, as only 22 percent of the public believed the law to be unfair. Schiavone and Jeglic reported that 80 percent of those surveyed did not believe that Megan's Law was unconstitutional and felt that it did not violate the Eighth (Cruel and Unusual Punishment Clause) and Fifth (Double Jeopardy Clause) Amendments to the Constitution, and about 66 percent did not believe Megan's Law violated sex offenders' right to privacy. About 56 percent of the sample of community members believed it is unfair if sex offenders are threatened and harassed by their neighbors, while only 17 percent believed that Megan's Law makes integration into the community more difficult by causing additional stress. This suggests a large percentage of residents agree that sex offenders are deserving of mistreatment, and sex offenders received little sympathy from the public.

The legislators who enacted the sex offender laws emphasize the importance of supporting such laws in order to protect children and society from dangerous sex offenders living in the community. Sample and Kadleck (2008) interviewed Illinois legislators regarding the sex offender laws and most (77%) of the legislators believed the sex offender laws would help control sex offenders, but only four of the 35 were confident that they would. The majority expressed dissatisfaction with the effectiveness of the laws because they do not provide immediate recognition of sex offenders, they allow sex offenders to be released into the community, or they do not intervene early enough in their sexual offending career. Most (74%) did not believe the laws were too intrusive in the lives of sex offenders.

Effectiveness of Sex Offender Registration and Notification Legislation

A. Comparison Studies.

Measuring recidivism or reoffending is a common method to determine whether the sex offender registration and notification laws are effective in keeping communities safer. Overall, most recidivism data has not shown statistically significant reductions in sexual recidivism. At least eight studies compared recidivism rates of sex offenders subject to registration and notification to rates among those who were not (before the implementation of Megan's Law) and at least five studies analyzed official data to observe the trends of sex offense rates before and after the implementation of Megan's Law. Adkins, Huff, and Stageberg (2000) compared the sex offense conviction rates of sex offenders subject to registration and notification to those who were not. Their results revealed that the difference in conviction rates between the two groups was low and not significant (3% compared to 3.5%). Letourneau, Levenson, Bandyopadhyay, Sinha, and

Armstrong (2009) also did not find group differences between those subject to registration and those who were not. Recidivism rates were examined between the groups with an average follow-up of about eight and one-half years. Of those who were required to register, about seven percent were charged with a new sex offense, compared to about ten percent who were not registered.

Tewksbury, Jennings, Zgoba (2012) also compared the offense rates of sex offenders subject to registration and notification to those who were not. The sample consisted of New Jersey sex offenders, in which a random sample of 247 sex offender offenders who were released between 1990–1994 (before the implementation of Megan's Law) were compared to a matched sample of 248 offenders released between 1996–2000 (after Megan's Law was implemented). The effect of registration and notification on the types of offenses they were re-arrested for were examined. The two groups were followed for eight years, after which about half recidivated with another offense (general) but recidivism for another sex offense was low (13% or less). When those who were subject to Megan's Law were compared to those who were not, Megan's Law failed to significantly predict whether a sex offender would commit another sex offense or any offense during the 8-year follow up after release from prison. Group differences revealed that were significantly more offenders with child victims among those subject to registration and notification, and significantly more offenders with adult victims among those who were not. Overall, this research examining the impact and effectiveness of registration and notification has not demonstrated a preventative effect of registration and notification. The recidivism rate for sexual offenses was low, but the registration and notification law did not demonstrate a significant reduction of sexual reoffenses.

Similar results were found when examining recidivism of juvenile sex offenders. Letourneau and Armstrong (2008) examined the effects of South Carolina's Megan's Law on recidivism of juveniles by comparing a matched sample of 111 who were required to register to 111 who were not, and found that the conviction rate for sexual recidivism was less than one percent (2 of 222), too low to make an accurate group comparison. Letourneau, Bandyopadhyay, Sinha, and Armstrong (2008) also examined the influence of South Carolina's broad sex offender registration policy on juvenile recidivism and found that, overall, being subject to registration and notification had a marginal effect on sexual offense charges, in that registration status may increase the risk of a sexual reoffense, but this increase was not statistically significant. The results provided little support that registration and notification have a deterrent effect on juvenile sex offenders, and question the need to apply registration and notification to juveniles.

Zgoba, Veysey, and Dalessandro (2010) examined recidivism data in New Jersey, which included 250 sex offenders who were released between the years 1990 to 1994, and 300 sex offenders who were released between 1995 and 2000, in order to compare the differences among those subject to Megan's Law to those who were not. Recidivism was measured with rearrests, reconvictions, and reincarcerations for any criminal offense and sex offense. The number of days to their arrest for the criminal offense or sex offense was also measured to determine if Megan's Law had an effect on how long an offender remains in the community before being arrested. Overall, the results did not demonstrate significant differences in recidivism between those required to register to those who were not. Sexual recidivism was low, and of the nearly 46% of sex offenders who were rearrested, only nine percent were rearrested for a sex offense. The average

time before a sex offender was rearrested for a sex offense was 795 days, with no

significant differences between the two groups of sex offenders. Freeman (2009)

revealed a possible surveillance effect but not a deterrent effect of registration and

notification in New York, when comparing those subject to registration and notification

to those who were not. She found that those who were subject to registration and

notification were rearrested twice as quickly for a sexual offense as those not subject to

registration and notification. The surveillance effect was also supported in that Level III

sex offenders, who tend to be under more surveillance, were rearrested for a sexual

offense more quickly than Level I or Level II offenders.

Some of the research conducted on registration and notification contradict the

results of the above six studies, and found that registration and notification have shown

effectiveness. Duwe and Donnay (2008) compared the recidivism rates of sex offenders

subject to Megan's Law to those who were not after their release from prison. Their

study revealed that those subject to registration and notification had lower recidivism

rates and an increased time to rearrest than those who were not subject to the registration

and notification law, supporting that Megan's Law both reduces and delays sexual

recidivism. Barnoski (2005b) also found similar results, as he found significant

differences when comparing recidivism rates of sex offenders before and after the 1990

implementation of registration and notification, and after it was revised in 1997. The

five-year recidivism rate for sex offenses prior to 1990 was seven percent, then decreased

to four percent during 1990-1996, and then dropped again to two percent after 1997.

This five percentage-point difference was determined to be equivalent to a 70 percent

recidivism reduction of felony sex offenses. Therefore, according to this research, both

violent and sexual felony recidivism by sex offenders in Washington has decreased since

passage and revision of the 1997 statute. The positive results may have simply been due

to historical crime trends, and unrelated to registration and community notification laws,

because the analyses examined rates of recidivism at three points in time.

   B. Trend Studies.

   Some trend analysis studies that compared arrest data before and after the

implementation of Megan's Law have yielded mixed results. Prescott and Rockoff

(2008) found significant yet mixed results between sex offenses and the implementation

of registration and notification, when they examined the interaction between and registry

size along with the sex offenses. Using data from the National Incident Based Reporting

System (NIBRS) in 15 states, no evidence was shown to support registration and

notification as a specific deterrent for registered sex offenders. Support as a general

deterrent was found, as there was an 11.5 percent reduction in the frequency of serious

first-time sex crimes after the implementation of registration and notification. A

deterrent effect was shown for first time offenders but showed an increase in recidivism

among those subject to registration and notification. When considering the registry size,

as the number of sex offenders subjected to notification increased, sexual recidivism also

increased.

   Vásquez, Maddan, and Walker (2008) showed mixed results with their interrupted

time-series analysis of the impact of registration and notification on the incidence of

forcible rapes. UCR data were compared before and after implementation in ten states

(Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Hawaii, Idaho, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, Oklahoma,

and West Virginia). Five states showed decreases in the number of monthly rape counts

associated with the implementation of registration and notification, in which three of the five (Hawaii, Idaho, Ohio) had statistically significant decreases, but the other five states show increases; only one (California) was statistically significant.

At least one trend study has shown a decrease in sexual offenses and at least one has shown an increase. Veysey, Zgoba, and Dalessandro (2008) evaluated the effectiveness of Megan's Law in New Jersey by examining data of sex offense rates from the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) ten years before the implementation, and ten years after. To compare the overall decrease in crime over the last two decades, sex offense rates were compared to non-sexual offenses and drug-related offenses. The trend showed a decrease in sex offense rates, with a significant change occurring around 1994, the year New Jersey's Megan's Law was implemented. In the majority of counties, sexual offense rates were higher prior to Megan's Law and lower afterwards. By 2005, the sex offense rates had increased slightly, but were lower than the rates before Megan's Law. The nonsexual offenses also showed a decreasing trend, but the decease began after the early 1990s, and remained stable from 2000 to 2005. Drug offenses, however, were the lowest in 1985, peaked around 1989, then decreased and remained relatively stable, without returning to the low rate of 1985. The declines in sex offenses were similar to the decrease in nonsexual crimes.

Initially, it appears that Megan's Law may be effective in deterring sex offenses in New Jersey; however, the decrease in sexual offenses may simply be following an overall decreasing crime pattern. A different pattern was seen in New York with a study by Sandler, Freeman, and Socia (2008) that compared data from criminal history files, ten years before and ten years after the enactment of registration and notification. A time-

series analysis was used to examine differences in arrests of registrable sex offenses, rapes, and child molestations, and whether registered sex offenders, or first-time offenders committed the offenses. The results indicated that registration and notification had no significant impact on the rates of the total number of arrests for general sexual offending, rape, or child molestation, either by first-time sex offenders or those committed by previously convicted sex offenders.

Ragusa-Salerno and Zgoba (2012) examined criminal history data of 1,129 adult male sexual offenders released from New Jersey correctional facilities between the years of 1990 and 2010. The examination revealed that only 210 (18.6%) of the sample had prior arrests for sexual offenses, and only 131 (11.4%) of the sample had a prior conviction for a sexual offense. In other words, only about 11 percent would have been subject to Megan's Law. Since New Jersey only makes public Tier-1 and Tier-2 offenses, only 70 (6%) had a prior incarceration for a sexual offense, which makes them more likely to have been required to register. The vast majority, 88.6 percent of the sample of sexual offenders, would not be eligible for registration and fewer would be subject to registration and notification under New Jersey's Megan's Law. The results indicate that few offenders would have been subject to Megan's Law prior to their most recent sexual offenses, demonstrating minimal ability to have preventative effects on sexual offending (Ragusa-Salerno & Zgoba, 2012).

Overall, the research studies examining registration and notification are unremarkable and unclear as to whether the laws are effective in reducing recidivism and keeping communities safer from sex offenders. Whether comparing those who were subject to notification to those who were not, or the rate of sex offenses before and after

the implementation of Megan's Law, the results were either mixed or showed little differences between comparison groups. It is also difficult to interpret whether increases in sexual offenses are due to a surveillance effect, an increase in reporting due to increased awareness, due to actual increases in sexual offending, or if the increases are the result of the unintended negative consequences of the sex offender laws that prohibit community re-integration that lead to reoffending. On the other hand, it is difficult to determine if decreases in sexual offending rates are due to a deterrent effect, a true decrease in sexual offending, or decrease in reporting due to victims hesitating to report family members or acquaintances due to community notification, as Uggen and Hlavka have reported in their 2008 study of reporting rates.

The research fails to provide conclusive support that Megan's Law is an effective tool to protect community members from sexual victimization. It appears that the laws may create more harm than protection, with various unintentional consequences mentioned previously. The laws may also create a false sense of security, placing residents at further harm from sex offenders by assuming there is no risk of danger simply because no one in their neighborhood is listed on the registry. In addition, the ability to interpret the results in either direction also makes it difficult to determine if or how the laws are affecting the rate of sexual offenses.

Sex Offender Residence Restriction Legislation.

       A. Implementation of Sex Offender Residence Restrictions.

The sex offender registration and notification legislation also encouraged many states and jurisdictions to pass legislative bills to create zones that would prohibit registered sex offenders by law from residing near certain landmarks where children

congregate. The zones in the RR laws vary in scope, and can restrict as little as 500 feet

from the specified landmark, to as much as 2,500 feet. The landmarks included in a zone

also vary, and often include schools, parks, and daycare centers, and some include

playgrounds, religious institution, public pools, bike trails, fairgrounds, malls, and bus

stops (Meloy, Miller, & Curtis, 2008). RR laws sought to establish areas free of sex

offenders, often termed, "sex offender free zones," or "child safety zones." The laws are

perpetuated by fear, and provide the illusion that children are safer if sex offenders are

prohibited from living near areas where children are known to congregate.

In addition to fear and public reaction that justified the implementation of the sex

offender laws, the main concepts of a renowned criminological theory, Routine Activity

Theory, are consistent with the ideas behind implementing residence restriction laws.

Routine Activity Theory (RAT), by Cohen and Felson (1979), states that for a crime to

occur, three things must be present: a motivated offender, a suitable target (victim), and

the absence of a guardian (person to prevent or control the offender), and all three must

converge in time and space. Specifically, the ideas behind residence restriction laws are,

1. the sex offender would reoffend (motivated offender), 2. the restricted areas contain

large numbers of children (suitable targets), and 3. restricted areas tend to have a large

ratio of children to adults (lack of guardians). For example, according to the Newark

Public School District, the school district has approximately seven employees per 40

students (Newark Public Schools, retrieved May 13, 2012 from

www.nps.k12.nj.us/newarkpublicschools/site/default.asp). According to the New Jersey

Administrative Code for Child Care Centers and Licensing, (N.J.A.C. 10:122-4.3.),

children five years and older are required to have a staff-child ratio of one employee per

fifteen children (State of New Jersey Department of Children and Families, retrieved May 13, 2012 from http://www.state.nj.us/dcf/divisions/licensing/laws.html).

The motivation aspect of RAT has been tested specifically on sex offenders (Beauregard & Leclerc, 2007; Beauregard, Rossmo, & Proulx, 2007; Sasses, 2005). Applying this theory assumes that sex offenders are more likely to commit offenses in the areas where they live or work because they are more aware of the availability of potential victims and geographical familiarity. In other words, sex offenders know where victims are, the number of available victims, where there is less surveillance, and know where to escape successfully when necessary. The registration and community notification acts as a surveillance, i.e. guardians, and the residence restriction laws act as a suitable target removal from the motivated offender. Walker, Golden, and Van Houten (2001) examined the characteristics of sex offenders in Arkansas and found that a high number of child sex offenders were living in close proximity to potential victims. Therefore, the argument for RAT is that, if there are fewer children accessible to sex offenders near their residences, fewer sex offenses would occur. However, the argument against RAT is that sex offenders do not choose a residence based on the number of potential available victims, but based on affordability and community ties, i.e. proximity to work and family (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2008). It is also argued that sex offenders do not select victims near their place of residence because they fear detection, in that there are too many guardians who could identify the offender, which would increase the likelihood of apprehension (Levenson & Cotter, 2005; Duwe, et al., 2008).

RR laws utilize the idea of banishment in order to protect the public, by banishing or ostracizing sex offenders from their communities, forcing them to live elsewhere. The

use of banishment for punishment dates back at least as far as 2285 B.C. (Bagley, 2008).

The United States is a country that was, in part, founded by criminals sent to prison

colonies. This punishment of exile or banishment was termed "transportation." One can

even argue that most modern punishments are a form of banishment. Prisons exile

inmates to controlled environments for a term of years. Halfway houses facilitate reentry

from the exiled world to the mainstream population. Even the death penalty permanently

"banishes" an offender from society (Yung, 2007). Banishment, in a sense, offers the

ideal sense of physical safety because it prevents the reoccurrence of future crimes by

removing dangerous offenders from crime-facilitating environments, from victims, and

from society (Bagley, 2008). According to Morrison (2007), one of the reasons for

creating the registries and restriction laws is the belief that sex offenders should be

removed because they are incurable and resistant to treatment, and are nearly certain to

offend again if left unsupervised. Therefore, the belief is that, "Nothing works to stop

these irredeemable predators, and so the only solution is absolute expulsion from society"

(Morrison, 2007, 24).

RR laws vary in application, and can apply statewide, or some states have the

individual municipalities implement their own laws (See Figure 1). Currently, at least 30

states and more than 400 local municipalities in the U.S. have implemented RR laws for

registered sex offenders (Meloy et al, 2008). However, this number is likely going to

continue to grow with the "domino effect" suggested by Zgoba et al. (2009). The study

by Meloy et al. describes the various residence restrictions laws in 30 states, noting a

great deal of variability among them. Some states, for example Alabama, Georgia, Iowa,

Kentucky, North Carolina, and Michigan, applied the laws broadly to all sex offenders,

regardless of risk level or the age of the victims. Some states restricted the law to those who are either violent or higher-risk, such as Arkansas, California, Indiana, and Louisiana. Florida, Nebraska, and Illinois limited the residence restriction laws to only sex offenders with victims under the age of 18 (Meloy, et al. 2008).

Some states apply the residence restriction subjectively through an assessment where either the Department of Corrections or the parole board or a parole commissioner determines where the sex offender is allowed to live (Minnesota, Oregon, Texas, Washington, Wisconsin) (Norman-Eady, 2007, retrieved on December 7, 2010 from www.cga.ct.gov/2007/rpt/2007-R-0380.htm; Meghelal, et al., 2008, Meloy et al., 2008). Other states have areas that do not have a statewide RR law, but are implemented at the local level. New York's RR laws are county wide, where some states such as Connecticut and Massachusetts have towns that implemented RR ordinances (Socia, 2012; Norman-Eady, 2009, retrieved April 21, 2013 from http://www.cga.ct.gov/2009/rpt/2009-R-0277.htm; Sex Offender Residency Restrictions, retrieved April 21, 2013 from http://www.leominster-ma.gov/pdf/ofender-ordinance-2011.pdf). Maine enacted a statue that allows individual municipalities to adopt ordinances regarding residence restrictions (Ordinances regarding residency restrictions for sex offenders, retrieved April 21, 2013 from http://www.mainelegislature.org/legis/statutes/30-A/title30-Asec3014.html).

RR laws also vary in size and location. In states such as North Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Indiana, Louisiana, Missouri, Michigan, Ohio, Tennessee, Nevada, Maryland, and West Virginia, the state-wide residence restriction statute prohibit sex offenders from living within 1,000 feet of a designated landmark (Meloy et al., 2008;

Cooper, 2011, p. 20, retrieved January 11, 2011 from http://ncdoj.gov/Protect-

Yourself/Find-Sex-Offenders/SexOffenderRegPrograms.aspx). Alabama, Arkansas,

California, Oklahoma have stricter laws regarding sex offenders, preventing them from

living within 2,000 feet of a designated landmark. Some RR laws are limited only to

schools (Delaware, Idaho), and some, for example Georgia, also includes daycare centers,

parks, playgrounds, school bus stops, recreation facilities, churches, skating rinks,

gymnasiums, and facilities that provide programs or services to children under the age of

18 (Meloy et al., 2008).

Some states do not have statewide RR laws and laws that are countywide, such as

in New York State. Minnesota also does not have a statewide residence restriction law

for registered sex offenders, but offers it subjectively based on the sex offender's pattern

of behavior as a condition of release. Their statute was enacted in 1999, and states that

offenders who were determined to be Level III may be subject to residence restrictions

based on the decision of the End of Confinement Review Committee (ECRC) (Duwe, et

al., 2008).
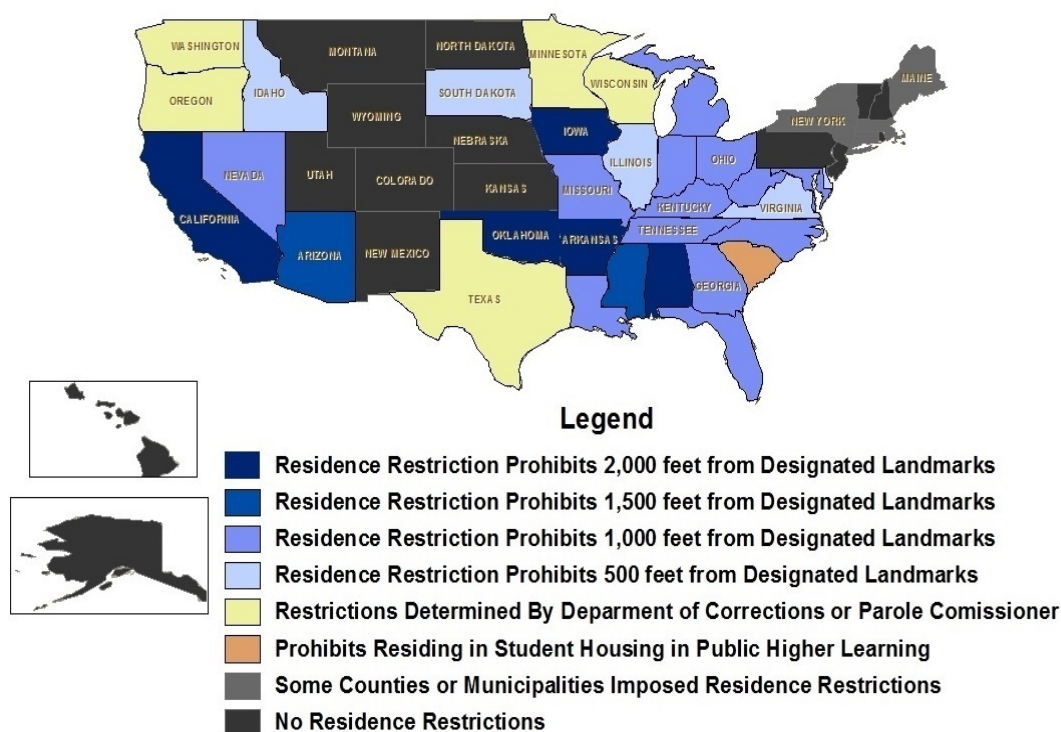
Figure 1. Sex Offender Residence Restriction Law Variations by State

From Meloy, Miller & Curtis (2008); Meghelal, Olivares, Wunneburger & Roman (2008); Socia (2012); www.mainelegislature.org; www.cga.ct.gov; www.leominster-ma.gov

Constitutionality of Residence Restrictions

Similar to Megan's Law, residence restriction laws were controversial, in that the argument of the Eight Amendment ex post facto clause surfaced again. The Iowa State Supreme Court argued Doe v. Miller, 405 F.3d 700 (2005). Doe challenged the constitutionality of the residence restriction laws in Iowa, arguing that the sex offenders would suffer "significant hardship," because they would have to move from their residences, if it is in a restricted zone, to a permissible area. The Court weighed public interest versus the potential hardships the sex offenders may experience and the public interested prevailed. In a two to one decision, the Court held the lower court's decision that the residence restriction laws were constitutional (Doe v. Miller, 2005).

Municipalities in New Jersey, however, were not successful in implementing residence restrictions due to the decisions of New Jersey Supreme Court Cases G.H. v. Township of Galloway, and Township of Cherry Hill v. Barclay and Finguerra, 2009. At one point, however, at least 113 local residence restriction laws were in place in New Jersey (Meloy, et al., 2008). The two New Jersey cases were decided together since they brought the same argument regarding residence restrictions. G.H., Barclay and Finguerra were registered sex offenders who challenged town ordinances that would prohibit registered sex offenders from living within a designated distance of any school, park, playground, public library, or daycare center. The towns argued that Megan's Law deals with registration and notification regarding convicted sex offenders, but does not include provisions restricting locations in which they can live. Therefore, the towns' argument was that the ordinances were not preemptive and serve a different purpose than Megan's Law. It was also argued that the residence restrictions complement the law by providing additional measures to protect their residents. The Supreme Court decided in a unanimous decision that Cherry Hill Township's and Galloway Township's residence restrictions were prohibited due to the language of Megan's Law, which clearly states that using the information in the sex offender registry to deny certain necessities, including "housing or accommodations," is prohibited (Megan's Law N.J.S.A. 2C:7-16c (7)).

Consequences of Residence Restriction Legislation

A. Diminished Available Housing.

The residence restrictions laws are designed to restrict housing availability to registered sex offenders. The extent of the RR laws was largely unknown until several

researchers used geospatial analysis to detect the amount and size of the restricted zones

in order to examine the effects of the laws on available housing. Some researchers

examined the potential impact of the laws on available housing if they went into effect.

South Carolina's RR law prohibits sex offenders from living within 1,000 feet of a

church, school, daycare center, or playground (Barnes, Dukes, Tewksbury, & De Troye,

2009). Prior to the law going into effect, Barnes and colleagues (2009) identified a 1,000

foot restriction zone and geocoded the addresses of sex offenders in four counties.

Nearly one-fifth of all registered sex offenders would be affected by the 1,000-foot

restriction if it were to go into place, displacing about 20 percent of offenders. Although

the majority of offenders were unaffected by an RR law, it was found that more than 45

percent of available residential property in all four counties would be restricted.

Chajewski and Mercado (2009) geocoded the addresses of registered sex

offenders within a 1,000-foot and a 2,500-foot restriction zones around schools and

compared three areas: Phillipsburg (rural), Newark (city), and countywide (Bergen

County) in New Jersey to determine the effects if RR laws were implemented. The

findings revealed that approximately one-third of the offenders in rural (31.25%) and

county areas (37.5%), and nearly two thirds of the offenders in suburban areas (64.8%)

would be required to move if a 1,000-foot RR was enacted. If 2,500-foot RR laws were

enacted, nearly all of the sex offenders county-wide (91%), or city-wide (98%) would be

required to relocate. In the rural areas, a 1,000-foot RR would result in more than 31

percent having to relocate, and a 2,500-foot restriction would require 100 percent of

offenders to relocate. Nearly two thirds (64.8%) of sex offenders living in the Newark

area would be in violation of a 1,000-foot RR and nearly all (98.47%) of the offenders in

this area would have to relocate if a 2,500-foot restricted zone was enacted (Chajewski &

Mercado, 2009).

Zgoba, Levenson and McKee (2009) conducted a similar study in Camden

County, New Jersey, which examined the effect on housing availability if the county

implemented RR laws. Two hundred eleven sex offenders listed on New Jersey's public

sex offender registry residing in Camden County, New Jersey were included to determine

the effects on housing availability if either a 1,000-foot or a 2,500-foot RR laws from

schools, daycares, churches, or parks were implemented. Of the 211 registered sex

offenders mapped in this study, 122 (58%) lived within 1,000 feet, and 85 (88%) lived

within 2,500 feet of a restricted zone. Specifically, 26 percent lived within 1,000 feet and

71 percent lived within 2,500 feet of a school, 37 percent lived within 1,000 feet, 80

percent lived within 2,500 feet of a daycare, 16 percent lived within 1,000 feet, and 40

percent lived within 2,500 feet of a park. The results demonstrate the potential for RR

laws to severely diminish housing availability for registered sex offenders.

Levenson (2008) examined the effect of current laws, which demonstrated that

RR laws have affected a large percentage of registered sex offenders. Of the 160 sex

offenders in Florida surveyed by Levenson (2008), 64 percent of them stated that the RR

laws applied to them. Many of the Illinois sex offenders surveyed by Burchfield and

Mingus (2008) were not subject to the restrictions because their victims were adults, yet

between 25 to 50 percent of the offenders stated that the restrictions diminished housing

available to them. Socia (2011) examined the statewide RR laws in 47 counties in

Upstate New York. This study took into consideration housing density, since it varies by

neighborhood and geographical area. Neighborhoods with the least restricted housing

(less than 33% of housing was restricted) were compared to moderate neighborhoods

(33–66% restricted housing) and the most restricted neighborhoods (more than 66% of

housing was restricted). Also taken into consideration were housing density (housing

parcels per square mile), housing availability (percent of vacant rental housing units), and

affordability (average rent). Five different sizes of restrictions (least restrictive—500

feet, 1,000 feet, 1,500 feet, 2,000 feet, to 2,500 feet—most restrictive) and three scopes,

limited (schools, daycares), medium (all educational parcels, daycares, parks,

playgrounds), and comprehensive (all educational parcels, daycares, parks, playgrounds,

religious institutions, child congregation locations). The results revealed that the least

restricted neighborhoods had less housing density, were less available, and less

affordable than both the most restricted neighborhoods and the moderately restricted

neighborhoods. In other words, sex offenders who are seeking housing in the least

restricted neighborhoods due to severe RR laws have few housing or rental options

available to them.

Many researchers found that sex offenders were unable to return to their homes

due to RR laws and were denied from residing with supportive family members, or even

with their spouses and children, if the home was located in a restricted zone. Mercado et

al. (2008) found that 35 percent of the sex offenders listed on the New Jersey Sex

Offender Internet Registry subject to RR laws reported being unable to live with

supportive family members. Twenty-two percent reported having been unable to return

to their homes upon release from prison because their homes or apartments were too

close to RR zones that were in place at the time. Levenson and Cotter (2005a) examined

the impact of RR laws on reintegration by surveying 1,835 sex offenders from Florida

outpatient sex offender counseling centers and found that 22 percent of the sex offenders were unable to return to their residence because of RR laws.

Many registered sex offenders are forced to move from their homes because of RR laws. Nearly half of the sex offenders surveyed by Levenson and Cotter (2005a) and 33 percent of offenders surveyed by Levenson and Cotter (2005b) in Florida reported that RR laws forced them to move or caused them to lose their home. In New Jersey, Mercado et al. (2008) found that 24 percent of offenders reported having had to move out of rental homes, and 12 percent reported having to move out of an owned home because they were within the restricted areas. Prior to the ordinances being stuck down by the New Jersey Supreme Court in 2009, New Jersey had a "grandfather clause" that allowed offenders to remain in their homes if they were purchased prior to the enactment of the RR laws. About half of the offenders (48%) reported that they were grandfathered into the new requirements and did not have to relocate and only four percent reported moving out of owned homes because of notification statutes. In the sample of sex offenders in Connecticut and Indiana surveyed by Levenson, et al. (2007), three percent reported having to move from a home they owned, but 18 percent had to move from a rented home.

B. Social Disorganization.

Much of the previous research has demonstrated lack of housing and being forced to move from one's current home have been consequences of the sex offender RR policies. However, another consequence is the formation of sex offender "clusters," and sex offenders "clustering" in socially disorganized areas. Social Disorganization Theory originated from studies of delinquency rates in Chicago by Shaw and McKay (1942),

and explains the variation in neighborhood crime rates using characteristics such as residents' income, racial composition, residential stability, and levels of informal social control. Grubesic (2010) broadly defined clustering as, "A group of people or things relatively close to each other in geographic space" (Grubesic, 2010, p. 3). The clustering of registered sex offenders in a geographical space is being created due to sex offenders housing options being limited, as demonstrated by Zgoba, et al. (2009), and Barnes et al. (2009).

Geocoding is a common method used to identify clusters. Grubesic (2010) identified clusters of sex offenders in the Chicago area using zip codes from the internet sex offender registry. The clusters of sex offenders were more likely to be in socially disorganized and violent communities in Chicago and many of the larger cities throughout Illinois. Hughes and Kadleck (2008) also used geocoded addresses and used U.S. census tracts to determine if registered sex offenders were residing in more disadvantaged neighborhoods. Sex offenders in two states were compared because of different notification laws, broad versus restricted. Nebraska used a tier system, and only applied RR laws to high-risk Level III sex offenders from living within 500 feet of a school or child care facility. Oklahoma used a broad notification system and RR laws applied to all sex offenders. Both states showed higher concentrations of sex offenders in more disadvantaged neighborhoods, and sex offenders were significantly more likely to reside in areas with higher amounts of poverty (Hughes & Kadleck, 2008). Mustaine, Tewksbury, and Stengel (2006a), who examined the neighborhood and housing characteristics of sex offenders in Kentucky and Florida, found similar results. Their findings showed that sex offenders tended to live in more disorganized and socially

disadvantaged areas. Specifically, the offenders were more likely to live in areas where residents were younger, had less education, where there were more minorities, higher unemployment, higher poverty, more rented homes, and fewer owner occupied homes (Mustaine, et al., 2006a).

To determine if the sex offender status had an effect on where a registered sex offender lives, Mustaine, Tewksbury, and Stengel (2006b) compared residence location before and after arrest for a sex offense. Mustaine, et al. used census tracts and the data from 271 registered sex offenders to determine if sex offenders' residential locations at the time of arrest differed from their current addresses, and if so, if they moved to a more or less socially disorganized neighborhood. Social disorganization was measured by the percent of the households in the tract that were headed by females, the percent of the homes that were owner occupied, the median household income, and the median housing value. The results showed that about 31 percent moved where there was greater social disorganization than their previous residence, nearly 33 percent moved into an area that had less social disorganization, and nearly 36 percent either stayed in the same residence or moved within the same census tract. It appears the relocations were divided evenly across all categories. Offenders who lived in less socially disorganized neighborhoods initially were more likely to move to more socially disorganized areas after their arrest. Offenders who already lived in highly socially disorganized areas were likely to stay the same or have minimal movement. Those who were middle or upper class at the time of their arrest may perceive the housing difficulties as the most severe (Mustaine, et al., 2006b).

Somewhat conflicting research on social disorganization was also found. Using census tracts of residence, Tewksbury and Mustaine (2006) examined the residential location and physical neighborhood conditions, such as living within 1,000 feet from vacant lots, abandoned buildings, or public litter, as these were defined as characteristics of social disorganization. With a sample of 96 convicted sex offenders in Florida, their results showed that just under one-third lived in poor neighborhood conditions, including areas with vacant lots, litter, and abandoned buildings. The results demonstrate that although a significant minority of sex offenders lived in disorganization, they were not areas considered overly oppressed or disorganized.

Most residential research on sex offenders focused on urban areas. Tewksbury, Mustaine, and Stengel (2007) apply social disorganization theory to examine the residential locations of registered sex offenders in rural areas in Kentucky. The researchers obtained a list of 728 registered sex offenders in the community and used census tract information to measure characteristics of economic disadvantage and social disorganization. The results showed that the areas with greater concentrations of registered sex offenders are only slightly more disorganized than the areas with lower concentrations of registered sex offenders. The neighborhood characteristics examined by Socia (2011) revealed that the least restricted neighborhoods (areas with more available housing for sex offenders) were less disorganized than the most restricted neighborhoods and the moderately restricted neighborhoods, in that they were significantly less disadvantaged, had more residential stability, and had more ethnic homogeneity.

Overall, the above research supports that sex offenders are more likely to live in the socially disorganized and lower income areas. This is likely due to several different reasons. One, due to RR laws, they are forced to reside in areas to be in compliance. Due to financial restraints and/or difficulty finding well-paying jobs, they cannot afford other housing in less disorganized areas. Sex offenders may also choose to live in more socially disorganized areas due to the lack of informal social controls in the neighborhoods. As Casady (2009) mentioned, living in high mobility, transient, and socially disorganized areas allows sex offenders to feel that they can blend in, go unnoticed, and remain "invisible" to neighbors. However, the consequence of clustering in socially disorganized areas results in registered sex offenders residing in areas with higher crime rates, an increased likelihood of associating with other sex offenders, and a greater ability to become transient, homeless, or to abscond. Offenders also live further away from social services, treatment facilities, and supportive family members. In combination, the negative consequences can lead to the destabilizing of sex offenders in regards to employment and important social networks to reintegrate into the community, increasing their likelihood of reoffending (Casady, 2009).

Attitudes towards Residence Restriction Laws

Similar to Megan's Law, laws restricting where sex offender can live remain popular among community members, regardless of their consequences or lack of demonstrated effectiveness. Comartin et al. (2009) reported that over 95 percent of the members of the public surveyed favored RR laws and placing limitations on a sex offender's ability to work in a school or daycare. Schiavone and Jeglic (2009) also found community members supported housing restrictions and demonstrated little empathy in

regards to the stress endured by sex offenders due to the lack of housing or housing restrictions. Mancini, Shields, Mears, and Beaver (2010) investigated the support for RR laws in Florida by gathering data from telephone surveys of random sample of 1,308 residents. Most residents (82%) supported laws to restrict where convicted sex offenders can reside. The survey conducted by Schiavone and Jeglic revealed that 79 percent of residents did not express empathy if sex offenders were unable to return to their homes or apartments, and 66 percent did not express empathy if they were unable to live with supportive family members because of housing restrictions.

A comparison of the research on the consequences that have resulted from the RR laws shows that more research supports the argument that RR laws may be doing more harm than protecting (Barnes, et al. 2009; Chajewski & Mercado, 2009; Zgoba, et al., 2009; Levenson, 2008; Burchfield & Mingus, 2008; Grubesic, et al., 2007; Socia, 2011; Mercado et al., 2008; Levenson& Cotter, 2005a; Levenson & Cotter, 2005b; Levenson, et al., 2007; Grubesic, 2010, Hughes & Kadleck, 2008; Mustaine, et al., 2006a, Tewksbury, et al. 2007), rather than supporting the effectiveness (Chajewski & Mercado, 2009; Zandbergen et al., 2010; Blood et al., 2008; Duwe, et al., 2008; Maghelal et al., 2008; & Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2006). The harmful consequences include forcing sex offenders out of their homes, prohibiting them from living with loving, supportive family members, forcing them to live in more rural areas further from employment and treatment facilities, and decreasing their ability to find affordable housing. These effects potentially lead to homelessness, transience, and destabilization. A positive aspect of the law is that known sex offenders are prohibited from residing near potential victims, allowing residents to feel safer knowing such offenders are not able to reside near their children's schools and

parks. It also demonstrates that politicians and law enforcement agents are doing something about sex offenders. The research thus far is demonstrating little hope that RR laws are attaining the goals of keeping communities safer and preventing sex reoffenses. By conducting a more comprehensive evaluation of sexual offending patterns, the current study can add to existing research to determine not only if RR laws are practicable, but also possibly to initiate the evaluation of other policies that might be more effective and less hindering to an offender's quality of life.

Effectiveness of Residence Restriction Legislation

Several studies have evaluated RR laws, either by examining arrests after the implementation, mapping locations of sex offenders' residences, or comparing arrest rates before and after the implementation. Whether or not RR laws are effective in preventing sex offenders from reoffending, by not allowing them to live near schools and where children congregate, has received criticism. The RR laws only prohibit where sex offenders can live, not where they travel. Chajewski and Mercado (2009) examined possible RR laws in New Jersey and whether sex offenders with child victims lived closer to schools than those who did not who offended against adults. The results revealed that the sex offenders with child victims living in Newark, NJ lived significantly further from schools than those with adult victims.

Levenson and Cotter (2005a) interviewed 135 sex offenders regarding residence restriction laws in Florida. The majority of sex offenders surveyed by did not believe the residence restrictions were helpful or useful in preventing a reoffense, and only two offenders out of the 135 reported that the RR laws were a deterrent. The majority stated that the RR had no effect on their risk of reoffending. One sex offender stated, "living

1,000 feet away compared to 900 feet doesn't prevent anything…he can just get closer by walking or driving" (Levenson & Cotter, p. 174). Many stated that there were already careful not to offend against those living nearby to reduce the chance of being recognized.

Zandbergen, Levenson, and Hart (2010) investigated whether sex offenders in Florida who lived closer to schools or daycares were more likely reoffend children than those who lived further away. As mentioned, Florida has RR laws that prohibit sex offenders from living within 1,000 feet of schools, parks, playgrounds, daycares, or other places where children congregate ,and some towns expanded it to 2,500 feet. The authors compared a matched sample of 330 offenders, 165 who reoffended with another sex offense against a minor and 165 who have not reoffended. Of the entire sample, 96 percent had at least one minor victim in their criminal sexual history, and more than half lived within 2,500 feet of a school or daycare. The results revealed small and insignificant differences between to the two groups of sex offenders. Those who did not reoffend lived slightly closer to daycares, and those who did reoffend lived slightly closer to schools, but the differences were not statistically significant. Offenders who reoffended were not more likely to live within 1,000 or 2,500 feet of schools or daycares than those who did not reoffend. No correlation between proximity to schools and daycares, and recidivism was found, indicating a lack of evidence to link where sex offenders live and whether sex offenders reoffend against a child. Overall, the sex offenders who lived in closer proximity to schools and daycares were less likely to reoffend than those who lived further away.

Blood, Watson, and Stageberg (2008) from the Iowa Department of Criminal and Juvenile Justice Planning, evaluated the impact of RR laws on recidivism against minor victims before and after the implementation of the law. The researchers compared the number of charges and convictions for sex offenses involving minors 12 months prior to the RR law, and 24 months after the implementation. The year prior to the law, there were 913 charges filed and 433 convictions; the following year, there were 928 charges and 445 convictions; and the second year after implementation, there were 1,095 charges filed and 490 convictions. The RR law in Iowa did not appear to result in fewer charges or convictions, suggesting that the law has not been effective in protecting children from sexual offenses.

Kang (2012) examined the effects of the North Carolina RR law using a sample of 545 male registered sex offenders. General recidivism and sex offense recidivism was examined three years after their release from prison, and post-release residential patterns. The results revealed that the RR law in North Carolina led to a significant increase in the likelihood of sex offenders' committing another offense (general), but demonstrated no significant deterrent effect on the likelihood of committing another sex offense. Offenders who were forced to move from their former residences were more likely to move to high poverty areas. As discussed previously, this may be a contributing factor to the positive relationship between the RR and the risk of general criminal recidivism. Socia (2012) examined arrests for sex crimes before and after the implementation of countywide RR laws in New York State. The results revealed that the presence of an RR law was not associated with a decrease in sex offenses involving children, among first time offenders or recidivists. However, a significant decrease was noted among first-time

offenders involving adult victims. The results suggest a possible general deterrence effect for sex offenses; however, first-time offenders and offenders with adult victims was not what the RR laws were designed to address.

Nobels, Levenson, and Youstin (2012) examined the effect of the 2005 expansion of Jacksonville, Florida's RR law from 1,000 feet to 2,500 feet on preventing sex offense recidivism. Arrest data of sex-related offenses of approximately two years before and after the July 1, 2005 expansion were examined. Florida's Fourth-Circuit Case, State of Florida v. Schmidt et al., struck the expansion down October 11, 2007 because Florida's statewide 1,000-foot RR law preempted Jacksonville's more restrictive ordinance. The results did not demonstrate a decrease in sexual offenses two years after the expansion, but both sex offenses and recidivism for sex offenses increased after the expansion. The expansion failed to demonstrate a decrease in sexual offense arrests; however, it is possible that this increase is due to an increased awareness, detection, and reporting of sex offenses (Nobels et al., 2012).

Duwe, Donnay, and Tewksbury (2008) examined social and geographical patterns of sexual offending to determine whether the RR laws would be effective in preventing recidivism and sexual assaults against children. The offense patterns of sex offenders were analyzed by measuring the physical distances between the offender's residence to both where the offense took place and where the offenders first made contact with their victims. Sex offenders released from Minnesota correctional facilities between 1990 and 2002 were tracked, in which 224 were re-incarcerated for a new sex offense. Family members or acquaintances committed most of the sexual reoffenses, and a stranger committed only about 21 percent. In regards to the location of the sexual offense, 85

percent took place in a residential location, of which nearly 34 percent took place in the offender's home, almost 22 percent in the victim's home, and in more than 21 percent of the offenses, the victim and offender shared a home. Of the sex offenses that did not take place in either the victim's or offender's home, only about nine percent occurred less than one mile away from the offender's residence. The rest occurred more than one mile away, which would not have been prevented by a 1,500-foot restriction. The results regarding where the offenders met their victims revealed that 28 offenders met their victims less than a mile away from their home, and of these 28, 12 of them were adults. Of the remaining 16 offenses with minor victims, not one initial meeting occurred in close proximity to a school, daycare, or park. Therefore, the RR laws would not have prevented any of the 224 incidents of sex offender recidivism.

Currently, at least 30 states and more than 400 local municipalities in the U.S. have implemented RR laws for registered sex offenders (Meloy et al, 2008). The various studies in different states, using different methodology to research the effectiveness and/or practicality of RR laws of sex offenders, have all demonstrated little promise that restricting where sex offenders live can reduce sexual offending. The RR laws in jurisdictions in New Jersey, Minnesota, Iowa, and Florida have not been shown to be effective in preventing or controlling sexual offenses, but likely give the residents a feeling of security (Chajewski & Mercado, 2009; Zandbergen et al., 2010; Blood et al., 2008; Duwe, et al., 2008).

Compliance with sex offender RR laws has also been evaluated, to determine if sex offenders are adhering to policies, as well as the overall impact of the laws on the lives of sex offenders. One method for doing so is by geocoding their addresses to the

nearest prohibited location. Grubesic, Mack, and Murray (2007) geocoded the addresses of sex offenders in Hamilton County, Ohio and found that 340 offenders were residing within 1,000 feet of a school. When they incorporated all education facilities, 494 offenders resided within 1,000 feet of a school. This mapping technique was able to demonstrate that many registered sex offenders are in violation of the RR laws in Ohio. Maghelal, Olivares, Wunneburger, and Roman (2008) sought to determine how effective RR laws are in actually controlling where offenders decide to live by conducting a geospatial analysis and identifying the offenders in Texas who violate the laws. In Brazos County, Texas, a prohibited area is within 1,000 feet from a school, daycare, playground, public or private youth center, public swimming pool, or video arcade. Addresses of 164 sex offenders were geocoded, along with the addresses of daycares, schools and parks in Brazos County, Texas. The spatial analysis showed that more than 55 percent of offenders resided within the restricted zones. Enforcement of this law would result in a high percentage of offenders being in violation of the law and require relocation.

Tewksbury and Mustaine (2006), who studied the effectiveness of RR laws in Florida using a sample of 96 sex offenders, found similar results. Addresses of sex offenders and addresses of locations where children are known to congregate were geocoded, and revealed 22 percent lived near a park or playground, more than 14 percent near a school, more than 13 percent near a fast food restaurant, and more than 31 percent live near at least one of these locations. Therefore, regardless of the laws, sex offenders continue to reside where they have access to potential victims. As demonstrated by Chajewski and Mercado (2009); Zandbergen et al., 2010; Blood et al., 2008; Duwe, et al.,

2008; Maghelal et al., 2008; and Tewksbury and Mustaine (2006), it does not appear that the RR laws have any effect on whether or not a sex offender would choose to reoffend. Even with the implementation of the laws, many sex offenders still continue to reside where it is prohibited, as seen in Brazos County, Texas, Ohio, and in Florida (Maghelal et al., 2008; Grubesic et al, 2007;Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2006)

Chapter 3: Study Design and Methodology

Research Strategies- Questions, Hypotheses and Analytic Plan

Research Question 1: The first question concerns a general geographic proximity of

where sex offenders meet or have initial contact with victims: Do sex offenders meet or

make initial contact with victims within 2,500 of their personal residence?

Hypothesis 1: Overall, sex offenders will meet or have initial contact with victims

within 2,500 feet of their personal residence.

This is due to the assumption that most sex offenders offend victims they share a

household with, or access victims who visit their personal residence. As mentioned

previously, offenders gain access to victims in various ways and in various locations.

The term "meet location" for an incest offender does not seem logical, and instead refers

to where the offender was able to access the victim, whether it was a shared residence,

personal residence, victim's residence, or another residence of an acquaintance of both

the victim and offender. Other non-incest offenders may also access their victim in one

of these residential locations. Other offenders may meet or establish contact with victims

in non-residential locations. Therefore, for simplicity, the location where the offender

met, established contact or obtained access to the victim in this study are referred to

meet/contact locations. See page 103 and Appendix A for more details regarding these

locations. The first goal was to establish where sex offenders meet/contact, or gain

access to victims and whether this occurs within close proximity to the offenders'

residence. Consistent with existing research, I believe many sex offenders offend victims

within the offenders' personal residence. Victims may live in the offenders' home, are

brought to offenders' home, or victims reside within close proximity to offenders. The

rationale for this hypothesis is RR laws assume offenders offend victims met in close proximity to offenders' residence. If offenders reside in close proximity to where children congregate, RR laws attempt to prevent the two parties from intersecting. By geocoding addresses of offenders' residences and the meeting/contact locations, measuring the distance between the two points, the distance offenders travel from residence to meet victims can be determined.

Research Question 2: Can a subtype of non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community be classified based on offender, offense, and victim characteristics?

Hypothesis 2: Some sex offenders offend both strangers and acquaintances, and meet/contact victims in public locations. A subtype of non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community can be classified using LCA. RR laws target these offenders because they are more feared by community members.

Due to Hypothesis 1, the goal was to isolate the incest offenders and offenders who were close acquaintances to the victim. The objective was to identify a similar group of offenders based on victim and offense characteristics. To answer this question, a Latent Class Analysis was conducted to classify or group offenders using offender, victim, and offense characteristics the public are most fearful. Latent Class Analysis (LCA) is a technique use to investigate the existence of distinct groups or subgroups and to capture heterogeneity within and between subjects using categorical data. LCA identifies intra-individual and inter-individual differences within a given sample to provide configurations of heterogeneity using similar characteristics of subjects. LCA classifies or clusters observed variables and the patterns among them. Duwe et al. (2008)

used a joint contingency analysis to display the differences among the offenders in a sample regarding the victim-offender relationship, offense and meeting/contact locations, and distance traveled from offenders' residence to the meet/contact location. To take this research a step further, a Latent Class Analysis (LCA) was conducted using Stata IC 13.0 with GLLAMM version 2.3.20 (Generalized Linear Latent and Mixed Models: Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh, 2004).

With the numerous characteristics of sex offenders, a single classification of a sex offender encompassing all offenders would be impractical. As mentioned previously, many researchers have created typologies of sex offenders using victim, offender, and offense characteristics. Most of these typologies were created using data gathered by interviewing sex offenders and/or from clinical observations and experience. Many of these typologies were created to assist in effective treatment, supervision, and management of offenders. It would be difficult to categorize the offenders in my treatment sample using only the information in official records. My study used LCA to classified sex offenders based on offense, victim contact behavior, and victim selection, to categorize offenders and those offenders for which a RR law is most appropriate.

The variables entered into the model were binary except for victim-offender relationship, which had three attributes. Since over 44 percent of my sample was between the ages of 30-39, age was recoded as either under the age of 35 or 35 and older (n_1=125, n_2= 145). The offender's age at the time of offense was determined by subtracting the date of offense by the offender's date of birth located on the Intake Face Sheet. As Robertiello and Terry (2007) and Danni and Hampe (2000) mention, the age of the offender, helps to distinguish one type of offender from another. To increase

validity, relationship status was recoded as married or unmarried. Two offenders were married but separated and were subsequently coded as unmarried. As mentioned in Groth and Birnbaum (1979), some offenders are more likely to be married or in age-appropriate relationships. Whether or not the offender has biological children was coded as dichotomous, having children or not having children. Baxter et al. (1984) found nearly 80 percent of hebophiles had children, compared to only 40 percent of rapists and 33 percent of heterosexual pedophiles.

The victim-offender relationship (VOR) was coded as stranger, acquaintance, and relative. The VOR is important in classifying sex offenders, and most researchers have distinguished between those who offend against strangers and non-strangers (Gebhard, Gagnon, Pomeroy, & Christenson, 1965; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; and Robertiello & Terry, 2007). The victim's age was coded binary minor and Adult. The victim was coded as a minor if the victim was under the age of 18, and adult if the victim was age 18 or older. This age variable was recoded from three categories to binary, because the LCA two-class model ultimately created a binary victim age variable.

There are several methods sex offenders use to meet or gain access to victims. Most sex offenders who offend minors meet or contact victims indirectly or through the victim's parent, family member, or other adult. The offenders who contact victims directly meet either by approaching in public, at work, or breaking into the victim's home. Offenders can also contact victims via the internet. There are several types of locations where sex offenders meet or contact victims, but the focus regarding RR laws is whether offenders contact victims inside a residence or a non-residence location. The type of meet/contact location was coded as residence or non-residence. The location was

record as residence if offenders met or established contact with victims in a shared residence, the offenders' residence, the victims' residence, or another residence. Offenses were coded as a non-residence if offenders met or established contact with victims in a public location such as a street, inside a public building, or on the internet.

Sex offenses may occur in several types of locations, but the type of offense location was re-coded as residence or non-residence. Offense locations were coded as residence if occurring in a shared residence, the offenders' residence, the victims' residence, or another residence. Offense locations were coded as a non-residence if occurring in a public location such as a street, inside a building, a park, or a parking lot. Sasse (2005) examined 163 male sex offenders and compared whether the offense occurred in the home or community. In doing so, Sasse wished to compare if offense preparations differed. Sasse found offenders committing sex offenses in the home tended to use alcohol, and were less likely to use a weapon.

The sexual acts offenders commit were coded as contact and non-contact. Some offenders committed the offense against victims one time, and some offenders committed the offense multiple times against single victims. Therefore, offenses was coded as multiple or single incident. The offense was coded as multiple times if the abuse took place over a period of time (weeks, months, years) or if stated the offense occurred more than once according to the information in the PSI or official statements made by the offender and/or victim. As Robertiello and Terry (2007) mention, this not only distinguishes the severity of the offense, but also distinguishes from offenders who commit non-contact offenses, such as lewdness, or internet offenses, such as distributing pornography.

Offenders' sexual criminal history were recoded using official records and were all dichotomized. Sexual arrests are listed in official records and include arrests for all sexually related offenses, excluding the instant offense. This includes sexual arrests as a juvenile. Sexual convictions include convictions for sexual arrests, listed on official records, excluding the instant offense. This includes sexual convictions as a juvenile. Since many sex offenses go unreported, many of the offenders in the sample had previous victims, and in some cases, there was more than one victim in the instance offense. Another dichotomous variable was created if offenders had more than one victim.

Research Question 3a: Do non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks than those who offend family members or close acquaintances?

Research Question 3b: Do non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community commit offenses within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks than those who offend family members or close acquaintances?

Hypothesis 3a: Some offenders meet victims in the community, those who do will more likely do so in closer proximity to one of the four restricted landmarks. The subtypes of offenders will differ; a greater percentage of those who directly contact victims in public will meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark, those who offend family members or close acquaintances inside a residence.

Hypothesis 3b: Some offenders commit offenses in the community, those who do will more likely do so in closer proximity to one of the four restricted landmarks. A greater percentage of those who directly contact victims in public will commit offenses within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark, those who offend family members or close

acquaintances inside a residence.

These two hypotheses support the argument for RR laws, in that if an offender meets/contacts victims in the community, they are more likely to be in close proximity to a school, park, daycare, or religious institution, than offenders who gains access to victims through personal residence or family. The goal was to establish where sex offenders meet or contact victims and commit offenses, and whether offenders do so within 2,500 feet one of the restricted landmarks. Consistent with existing research, I believe most sex offenders meet/contact victims and commit offenses in personal residence. It is hypothesized offenders traveling outside personal residences and into the community to meet/contact victims and commit offenses are more likely to commit offenses in closer proximity to a restricted landmark. The rationale behind this hypothesis is RR laws assume offenders offend victims met in close proximity to a restricted landmark. By geocoding the addresses of the meeting/contact locations, offense locations, and to the nearest restricted landmark, the distances between these three points can be determined. A Chi-Square analysis compared the latent classes and whether offenders meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of restricted locations.

This question focuses on those who offend inside and outside families or personal residences, and not simply those offenders who offend against strangers. This provides information regarding the social and geographical patterns of sexual offending. Since previous research (Sandler, et al., 2008; Duwe, et al., 2008) has demonstrated a high percentage of sex offenders commit offenses against relatives, my study focuses on those who offend outside of personal residences or against non-family members. In order for a case to be considered one that might have been prevented by a RR law, offenders had to

have established contact and/or committed offenses in or within a common buffer zone for landmarks included in RR laws (school, park/playground, daycare center, or religious institution). Although most community members fear "stranger" sex offenders and most RR laws are designed to protect against these offenders, acquaintances should also be included as there often is a "grooming" period before sexual offenses occur.

Research Question 4a: Does offenders' residence and the locations where they offender's met/contacted or accessed their victims intersect within a 2,500 foot restricted landmark buffer zone among the non-incest offenders who meet/contact victims in public?

Research Question 4b: Does offenders' residence and the locations where the offenders committed their offenses intersect within a 2,500 foot restricted landmark buffer zone among the non-incest offenders who meet/contact victims in public?

Hypothesis 4a: Offenders' residence and meet/contact location will not intersect in the same geographical space (2,500-foot buffer zone) for the majority of non-incest offender subtypes.

Hypothesis 4b: Offenders' residence and offense location will not intersect in the same geographical space (2,500-foot buffer zone) for the majority of non-incest offender subtypes.

The goal of this question was to determine the proximity of the offenders' residence, meet/contact locations, and offense locations to the restricted landmarks as well as how far offenders traveled from personal residences to meet victims and commit sexual offenses. Although offenders may reside within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark, may meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of personal residences, and may

meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark, the three must occur

within the same geographical space of 2,500-foot buffer zone in order for RR laws to be

practical. Despite the objective of RR laws, research has not demonstrated offenders

meet or contact victims and commit offenses near a school, park, daycare or religious

institution. The rationale behind this hypothesis centers on media sensationalizing of

"stranger danger" and misconceptions about offending patterns of sex offenders. By

geocoding the addresses of the landmarks, the meeting/contact locations, offense

locations, the proximity between these locations can be determined. These locations

were displayed on maps to determine visually, the distance offenders traveled, and the

proximity of locations from the restricted landmarks. It hypothesized that these offenders

meet/contact victims and/or commit their offenses in the midst of their daily activities,

including employment, and not in close proximity to their residence.

For a case to be considered one fitting offending patterns for RR laws, offenders

had to have directly established victim contact in or within a common buffer zone for the

landmarks commonly included in RR laws (school, park/playground, daycare center, or

religious institution). Offenders may live near a school, daycare, park/playground, or

religious institution, but then travel outside a zone of 1,000-2,500 feet. Offenders may

also meet/contact victims through places of employment, in which proximity to restricted

landmarks will have little to no role in victim selection. IBM SPSS 21 was used to

conduct a Conjunctive Analysis (CA) to investigate interrelationships among the different

offenders and the dependent variables (see Appendix B). The CA is an additional

method used to analyze categorical data, providing an aggregated compilation for all

possible combinations of variable attributes in a matrix. As Miethe, Hart, and Regoeczi

(2008) describe, a CA forms a data matrix of, "an aggregated compilation of all possible combination of attributes considered simultaneously" (p. 229).

The CA provides a visual inspection of the matrix of case configurations. The method also provides a way for observing patterns and clusters with large number of observations within only a few case configurations and minimal frequencies. The CA used variables not of use in the latent class analysis, as some variable combinations had too few cases to use in a LCA. Therefore, the CA sought to fill in the gaps other cross-case comparative methods could not. The CA was used to answer the research questions, whether or not sex offenders meet or make initial contact with victims within 2,500 feet of personal residences and if offenders meet or make initial contact with victims within 2,500 feet of schools, parks/playgrounds, daycares, and/ religious institutions. The method was also used to answer the question whether sex offenders who offend against victims outside personal residences or families, either meet or commit offenses at landmarks where children are known to congregate and within 2,500 feet of the offenders residence.

Study Design and Sample

The sample for my study consisted of 270 males incarcerated at the Adult Diagnostic and Treatment Center (ADTC) in Avenel, New Jersey, or who had been recently released. The New Jersey Department of Corrections operates this facility, and hold offenders convicted of certain sexual offenses. According to the New Jersey Statute, NJSA 2C:47-1, when one is convicted of certain sexual offenses, the judge orders the Department of Corrections to conduct a psychological examination to determine whether the sexual offense was, "Characterized by a pattern of repetitive, compulsive

behavior and, if it was, a further determination of the offender's amenability to sex offender treatment and willingness to participate in such treatment" (NJSA 2C:47-1). It is important to note that a large percentage of inmates at ADTC are those who offend children and/or relatives. However, since much of the research on sex offenders have found a large percentage of sex offenders were related to their victim, the current sample should not differ significantly from other sex offender research samples (Zgoba et al., 2010; Duwe et al., 2008.)

A New Jersey Department of Corrections employee compiled a list of inmates convicted for sex offenses since 2000 in six selected counties. The derived sample contained inmates convicted of the following offenses, including all subsections and subcodes: (a) 2C:3-6 through 13-7 Luring, Enticing Child, (b) 2C:14-2 Sexual Assault, Aggravated Sexual Assault, (c) 2C:14-3 Criminal Sexual Contact, Aggravated Criminal Sexual Contact, (d) 2C:14-4 Lewdness, and (e) 2C:24-4 Endangering Welfare of a Child. Since my study involved crime mapping, only counties where the greatest number of sexual offenses occurred were examined. The sample only included those offenders convicted in the following New Jersey counties: Bergen, Essex, Camden, Middlesex, Ocean, and Passaic.

The six counties varied considerably in size, population, population density, persons under the age of 18, and the number of restricted landmarks (i.e., schools, parks, daycares, and religious institutions). According to the U.S. Census Bureau 2010 estimate, Bergen is the most populated of the six counties, with a population estimated at 918,888 persons, and has the greatest population of individuals under 18, 21.9 percent or about 201,236 individuals. This county is the third largest in terms of area, with an

estimate of 233.01 square miles, and the second most densely populated county, with 3,884.5 persons per square mile. Camden County is the fourth largest county of the six studies, with 221.26 square miles. This county is the second least populated with a population estimate of 513,539 persons, and has the second smallest number of individuals under 18, 23.7 percent or about 121,708 individuals. This county is also the second least densely populated with a population density of 2,321.5 persons per square mile.

Essex County is the smallest of the six counties in terms of area, with 126.21 square miles of land area, but has the greatest population density with 6,211.5 persons per square mile. This county has a population estimate of 787,744 persons with24.5 percent or about 192,997 individuals under 18. Middlesex County is the second largest of the six counties in terms of land area, with an estimate of 308.91 square miles. This county is also the second most populated with a population estimate of 823,041 persons, and second most populated with those under 18, 22.3 percent or about 183,538 individuals. Of the six counties, this county is the fourth most densely populated with an estimate of 2,621.6 persons per square mile (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Ocean County is the third least populated with a population estimate of 580,470 persons and the second least populated with those under 18, with 23.2 percent or about 134,669 individuals. This county is the least densely populated of the six counties, with a population density of 917 persons per square mile but the largest in terms of land area with 628.78 square miles. Passaic County is the second smallest county of the six counties in terms of land area, with an estimate of 184.59 square miles. This county is the least populated with a population estimate of 502,885 persons, has the smallest population of persons under 18,

24.5 percent or about 122,703 individuals, but the third most densely populated with a

population density of 2,715.3 persons per square mile (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012).

Table 1

U.S. Census Data by County

County	Population	Population <18	sq. miles	Population density in persons per sq. mile
Bergen	918,888	201,236	233.01	3,884.5
Camden	513,539	121,708	221.26	2,321.5
Essex	787,744	192,997	126.21	6,211.5
Middlesex	823,041	183,538	308.91	2,621.6
Ocean	580,470	134,669	628.78	917.0
Passaic	502,885	122,703	184.59	2,715.3

Note. Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2012

New Jersey was selected to examine sex offender proximity patterns because the

state has no statewide RR law, but some townships implemented RR laws prior to May

2009. Due to the May 7, 2009 decision of G.H. v. Township of Galloway, and Township

of Cherry Hill v. Barclay and Finguerra, 2009, New Jersey no longer has residential

restrictions for sex offenders. The State Court's decisions prohibited RR laws due to a

statement in Megan's Law, prohibiting the use of information in the sex offender registry

to deny housing (N.J.S.A. 2C:7-16c (7)). New Jersey is also a densely populated state. A

densely populated state requires a greater number of schools, daycares and churches per

square mile, providing sex offenders with more potential victims. According to the U.S.

Census Bureau, there are 1,195.5 persons per square mile in New Jersey as of 2010, the

U.S. average is 87.4 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Compared to Minnesota, where Duwe, et al. (2008) conducted their research of sexual re-offenses within 2,500 feet of schools, parks, and daycares, has only 66.6 persons per square mile, below the U.S. average (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). As mentioned previously on page 17, since this study involves crime mapping, only the top six counties where the greatest number of sexual offenses occurred were included in the sample. The sample in my study provided for an analysis of incarcerated or released offenders who have been convicted of sex offenses. Using a sample of those who have been incarcerated at the Adult Diagnostic and Treatment Center allowed for the inclusion of those who committed more serious sexual offenses or repetitive sexual offenses, both groups thought to be at risk for reoffending without treatment received at ADTC.

Data Elements and Sources

The data for this study were derived from information located in inmate files held by the New Jersey Department of Corrections ADTC, Classification Department. Institutional Review Board approval (Approval Number 12-261 Mp) from Rutgers University, Office of Research and Sponsored Programs, and the New Jersey Department of Corrections Office of Policy and Planning was obtained. The variables of interest were collected using three categories, offender characteristics, offense characteristics, and victim characteristics. The files were reviewed and the variables collected are listed in Appendix B. The researcher obtained the files as well as collected and entered the data for the sample of 270 sex offenders into a data file for statistical and geospatial analyses. Upon entering the data, offenders' names were not used and replaced with an identification number. Inmate files used in this study were re-filed in the Classification

Department. All files contain a Face Sheet, Judgment of Conviction and Order of

Commitment (J&C), Pre-Sentence Report (PSI), and a Psychological Report. From the

Face Sheet, offenders' age from the date of birth, race, and last known address were

recorded. The date of arrest, date of offense, original charges, final charges, marital

status, employment status, type of employment/occupation, number of children, and

criminal history were recorded from the J&C. From the PSI, the offender's last known

address, previous, how long offender lived at each address, who the offender resided with

at each address, offense information including sexual acts and if any violence or force

was used, victim age, victim gender, and the victim-offender relationship, and where the

offense occurred were recorded. The offenders' criminal sexual history, instant offense

information, and previous victim information, were recorded from the Psychological

Report.

　　　　Many files also contained the Police Criminal Complaint, Affidavit of Probable

Cause, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, and/or the prosecutor's

office Case Investigation Report. These documents also contain the offenders' address,

the location of crime (address), date of offense, the victim's date of birth, victim's

address, if the offense occurred multiple times or over a period of time and if so, the age

of the victim when the first offense occurred or for how long the offense has been

occurring. The age of the victim at the time of offense was determined by subtracting the

year or month/year of the offense from the year or month/year of the victim's date of

birth. From these documents, the offender's address, the address of where the offenders

contacted the victim and/or committed the offense, and the victim's age and gender, the

victim-offender relationship, how they victim and offender met, if the offense occurred

multiple times, and how long the victim and offender knew each other.

Some inmate files contained reports written by social workers from the New Jersey Division of Youth and Family Services. These reports included details of the offense, including multiple incidents and the length of time they occurred, the victim-offender relationship, and how long the victim and offender have known each other. Some files also contained transcripts of police interviews with victims, victims' parent, and/or offenders. These transcripts detailed victim and offender information, including residential addresses, and dates of birth, details of offenses and sexual acts, location of offenses, the relationship of victims to offenders, and how long victims knew offenders.

In many cases, the instant offense charges included more than one victim. To select which victim and offense information to be recorded and used in the analysis, the most serious offense was used. Seriousness of offense was determined by factors such as the sexual acts, violence, victim age, victim-offender relationship, and victim gender. Stranger or non-family victims, younger victims, and male victims were determined to be more serious than relative victims, older victims, and female victims. Three age groups were coded for the age of the victims; younger children (under 12), adolescents (12-17), and adults (18 and older). Those who offend younger children were viewed as distinctly different and considered more serious offenders than those who offend adolescents and adults. If offense and victim information were similar, then the most recent offense or the victim in the complaint was used.

In many cases, offenses occurred multiple times over a period of months or years. If offenses first occurred when victims were under the age of 12, but did not report until older, then the age was recorded as under the age of 12. Often degree of sexual contact

or offense severity increases as victims' age. For those victims classified as younger

children, if the offense began as fondling when under 12 years of age, then progressed to

intercourse when the victim was over 12 of age, the victim age in this study was recorded

as adolescent, and the offense was recorded as intercourse. In many cases, offenders had

several residences over several years. In regards to addresses used in the analysis,

addresses where offenders were living at the time of the first offenses. This was

determined by matching the date of the offense to the addresses listed in the PSI, which

listed previous addresses and the year or month/year the offender lived at that address

(month/year to month/year).

A. Observations

Offender Characteristics. The data collected from the inmate files was collected

in a raw state to ensure accuracy; however, some data was then coded in categories to

ensure confidentiality. Offenders' race was recorded from the Offender's Intake Face

Sheet, which listed the race as White, Black, Hispanic, or Asian/Other. Offenders' age at

the time of offense (i.e., age in years) was determined by subtracting the date of offense

from the date of birth located on the Intake Face Sheet. Age at the time of the offense

was coded in ranges to protect the identity of offenders and victims. Although many

offender demographic characteristics are a matter of public record, much of the

information collected is not public record (e.g. the victim-offender relationship among

incest offenders). Therefore, offender age was coded as under 18, between the ages 18-

24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44, 45-49, 50-54, 55-59, 60-64, 65-69, and ages 70 and over.

This was to avoid the identification of the offenders' year of birth, as with additional

variables such as race and county of commitment, offenders' names may be identified via

the New Jersey Department of Corrections Offender Search or the State Sex Offender Registry.

The offender relationship status at the time of offense was recorded from the J&C, PSI, prosecutor's office Case Investigation Report, police transcript of interviews, and/or from the Psychological Report. The J&C lists offenders' marital status as single, married, divorced, or widowed. If the J&C listed offenders as single, and included a cohabitant of a significant other under the address information or there is mention of a significant other in the documents, offenders were recorded as single in a relationship. If offenders were listed as single in the J&C and there was no mention of a significant other in the PSI, Psychological Report, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, and/or the prosecutor's office Case Investigation Report, police transcripts, or explicated states offenders are not in a relationship, offenders were recorded as single not in a relationship. Offenders were considered to be separated if married according to the J&C or, but no longer cohabitating with a spouse. If offenders were married according to the J&C, but no longer cohabitating with a spouse but involved in another relationship, then offenders were recorded as separated in a relationship. If offenders were listed as divorced in the J&C and there was no mention of a significant other in the PSI, Psychological Report, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, transcript interviews, and/or the prosecutor's office Case Investigation Report, then offenders were recorded as divorced. If offenders were divorced according to the J&C, but there was mention of a significant other in the PSI or psychological report at the time of offense, offenders were recorded as divorced in a relationship. If offenders were widowed according to the J&C and there was no mention of a significant other in the J&C, or the

above file documents at the time of offense, offenders were recorded as widowed. Whether offenders had children was determined by the information in the J&C, PSI, and psychological report. The J&C lists the number of dependents, the PSI mentions if dependents are biologically related to offenders.

Offenders' employment or volunteer activities with minors was determined from the J&C, PSI, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, transcript interviews, and/or the prosecutor's office Case Investigation Report. Offenders were recorded to be employed with minors if employed or volunteered at a school, church, daycare center, or an athletic coach in the town park, or had an occupation providing access to minors such as in a daycare, a doctor's office, or a fast food restaurant. This information was located in the J&C, and was self-reported by the offender.

Offenders' files contained full criminal histories up until the instant offense. Sexual arrests included arrests for sexual offenses, which were listed on official records, excluding the instant offense and included sexual convictions as a juvenile, since New Jersey registers juvenile sex offenders. Sexual convictions included convictions for sexual arrest, listed on official records, excluding the instant offense, also including sexual offenses as a juvenile. Since many sex offenses go unreported by victims, or in some cases, there were multiple victims in the instance offense, the number of previous victims was recorded. Prior victim information was obtained from the Police Criminal Complaint, Affidavit of Probable Cause, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, and/or the prosecutor's office Case Investigation Report, the PSI, and/or the Psychological Report.

Victim Characteristics. Victim information included gender, age, and

relationship to offender. Age was recorded in three under the age of 12, between the ages

of 12-17, and over the age of 17. Age was also coded as binary (minor and adult).

Baxter et al (1984) used a similar age classification, differentiating between pedophiles

and hebophiles. Gender was recorded as either male or female and was obtained from the

PSI. There was one missing value for gender, as one offender was arrested for public

indecency, and no gender information was noted in the office reports. The relationship

between victims and offenders was obtained from the PSI. The victim-offender

relationship (VOR) was recorded as relative if offenders were biologically or lawfully

related to victims. The VOR was recorded as acquaintance if offenders knew victims but

were not biologically or lawfully related. The VOR was recorded as stranger, if the

offenders and victims had no prior knowledge of each before offenses occurred.

Offense Characteristics. Sexual acts were obtained from the PSI, and/or the

Police Criminal Complaint. Offenses and recorded as contact offenses if involving

physical contact. Physical contact included vaginal or anal intercourse, fondling victim's

genital/private areas, victim touching/fondling offender's genitals/private areas, oral sex

(victim or offender), or rubbing genitals/private areas on victim. Offenses were recorded

as a non-contact offense if there was no physical contact with the victim. These offenses

included masturbating or exposing genitals in presence of victim or luring or soliciting

the victim for sex. Offenses were recorded as an internet offense if offenders were in

possession of child pornography, or used the internet to solicit minors for sex. Some

offenders committed single offenses against single victims, and some offenders

committed multiple offenses against single victims. These offenses were coded as single

or multiple incident, respectively. Whether offenders used physical force or threats was recorded in the PSI and police incident reports. If offenders used physical force, restraint, a weapon, or threatened victims with physical or emotional harm, offenses were recoded as using physical force or threats. This information was inferred from details of the offense in the PSI, Police Criminal Complaint, self-reports from police transcript interviews of the victim and/or offender, and/or reports written by social workers from the New Jersey Division of Youth and Family Services.

Sex offenders use various methods to meet or encounter victims, and do so in different the types of locations. The method the offender used and location where they offender met/contacted his victim was obtained from information found in the Police Criminal Complaint, Affidavit of Probable Cause, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, and/or the prosecutor's office Case Investigation Report, or the PSI. Often victims are family members, or offenders meet victims through parents of victims. The method of contact was recorded as through the victim's mother, victim's father, victim's family, through victim's friend, neighborhood, through employment or volunteer, through the internet, or approached on the street or a public location.

The victim meet/contact locations are not explicitly stated in the file. It is a concept concluded from the scenario of the offense, and the interaction between the victim and offender from the details stated in the various reports. The meet/contact locations in the current study are defined as where the offender had met or established initial contact with the victim (usually strangers or casual acquaintances), or the location where the offender had access to the victim for the offense to occur (usually family members or close acquaintances). These locations are similar in concept to the locations

used in the study by Duwe, et al. (2008), which were referred to as, "where the offender

first established contact with the victim, (p. 489)." These locations identified in the study

by Duwe et al. were applied only to offenders who directly contacted their victim. The

current study broadened this definition to include these locations for the entire sample.

For consistency, these locations are referred to in this study as meet/contact locations.

The victim meet/contact locations were identified from information obtained from

the Police Criminal Complaint, Affidavit of Probable Cause, Police Department

Detective's Supplemental Report, and/or the prosecutor's office Case Investigation

Report or the PSI. Many offenders access their victims within a shared residence, their

personal residence, or the victim's residence. Most of the time, these addresses were

located in the file. Often, the meet/contact location occurred in a public location and was

mentioned specifically by name, but did not include an address. Therefore, the address of

this location had to be identified by either using the Google Maps (aerial view and/or

street view), Electronic Yellow Pages, a free online directory of business with names and

addresses, and/or going directly to the website of the location mentioned in the file.

Other instances, the meet/contact location was mentioned by street name, intersection,

and nearby business. For these locations to be identified, Google Maps (aerial view

and/or street view) was used to identify an address or intersection for these locations. All

meet/contact locations were verified using Google Maps (aerial view and/or street view).

See Appendix A for more information on the meet/contact locations.

Similar to the meet/contact locations, the offense locations were also identified

from information obtained from the Police Criminal Complaint, Affidavit of Probable

Cause, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, and/or the prosecutor's

office Case Investigation Report or the PSI. Often the meet/contact locations and offense

locations are the same. Both locations types were examined in the event that they are

different. Many offenders committed their offense in a shared residence, their personal

residence, or the victim's residence. Most of the time, these addresses were located in the

file. The offense locations that occurred in a public location were often mentioned by

name. Therefore, the addresses of these location were identified by either using Google

Maps (aerial view and/or street view), the Electronic Yellow Pages, and/or going directly

to the website of the location, to identify the address or intersection based on the

information recorded. Other instance, the offense location was mentioned by street

name, intersection, and a nearby business. For these locations, Google Maps (aerial view

and/or street view) was used to identify an address or intersection. All offense locations

were verified using Google Maps (aerial view and/or street view). Often, the offense

location was listed in the Police Criminal Complaint, Affidavit of Probable Cause, Police

Department Detective's Supplemental Report Locations where offenders met or made

initial contact with victims was recorded as a shared residence, victim's residence,

offender's residence, other residence, in a shared apartment building, one of the four

restricted locations, another public location, on the street, or on the internet. See

Appendix A for more information regarding the offense locations.

In some of the cases, offenses were statutory offenses. Statutory offenses were

determined using information in the Police Criminal Complaint, Affidavit of Probable

Cause, Police Department Detective's Supplemental Report, and/or the prosecutor's

office Case Investigation Report or the PSI, or victim's letters to the Judge describing

offenses. For the purpose of this research, statutory offenses only included non-violent

statutory offenses where victims were over the age of 13, offenders were more than four years older, and both were engaged in a mutual sexual relationship. In New Jersey, the age of consent for sexual conduct is 16 years old, but individuals between the ages of 13-15 can legally provide consent if partners are no more than four years older. The variable did not include minor victim's 12 or younger, who were "groomed" by an acquaintance or family member, where the sexual act may have appeared consensual. According to the statute, nobody under the age of 13 can legally consent to sex, regardless of the age of their partner.

D. Addresses.

Offenders' residential addresses at the time of offenses were determined using information listed in several of the above sources. Addresses were determined by using date of offenses, and matching those dates with addresses listed on the PSI. The PSI listed the current address and the previous address with the period of time at that residence (month/year to month/year). The PSI also included under the address that the offender was residing with at that particular residence. This made identifying the address easier when the victim or victim's mother was listed on the PSI. The addresses of meet/contact locations and offense locations were recorded if available. In most cases, this was often the offender's residence, the victim's residence, or another residence in which the addresses were provided. If they were not available, detailed information about the location was recorded, and the address was then later identified by using Google Maps (aerial view and/or street view), the Electronic Yellow Pages, and/or the website of the business, or if only street names and business landmarks were recorded. Offense locations were also recorded as a shared residence, victim's residence, offender's

residence, other residence, one of the four restricted locations, another public location, on the street, or on the internet if it was an internet-related crime. The addresses of offenders' residence, victim meeting/contact locations, and offense locations were verified using Google Maps for correct spelling and zip codes. If addresses for locations where offenders met or established contact with victims or committed offenses was not clearly stated in one of the police reports, the PSI, or the interview transcript(s), then these addresses were identified using information provided in the file's documents as described above.

The National Center for Education Statistics, an online database of all public and private schools was used to obtain school addresses. The database lists its source as the Common Core of Data, Public School Data for the 2010-2011 school year. The addresses of licensed daycare centers were recorded from the New Jersey State Department of Children and Families Office of Licensing, which lists all licensed preschools and child development centers in New Jersey. The list included names and addresses as of August 8, 2011. Some addresses listed on the National Center for Education Statistics and New Jersey State Department of Children and Families Office of Licensing do not contain building numbers, and some have Post Office boxes listed as addresses. For these addresses, the building number or physical address was located from the school district's website, or the school's website. If addresses were still missing the building number from these websites, Google Maps was used to record nearest side-street.

Several sources were used to locate playgrounds and parks. The addresses of parks in the included counties were obtained from the County Department of Parks and

Recreation, the City/Township Department of Parks and Recreation, NJ Playgrounds, MapQuest, and Google Maps. If addresses obtained from the County, City/Township or NJ Playgrounds listed only street names Google Maps was used to view the park locations and to identify adjacent streets. Landmarks were included as a park/playground if landmarks had at least one play structure or an athletic field or court. Parks with play structures or athletic fields would attract minors, and were considered locations where children would congregate.

New Jersey does not have a comprehensive list of all religious institutions, including all churches and synagogues, either by state, county, or city. In addition, not all religious institutions register for not-for-profit status with the State. Three different sources were used to compile a comprehensive list of addresses for religious institutions: (a) The Electronic Yellow Pages, a free online directory of business with names and addresses of "places of worship," including churches of all dominations and synagogues, (b) The Business List, a free online database listing churches and synagogues in New Jersey, and (c) the official websites for each borough, township and city in New Jersey. The names and addresses were typically located under the following titles such as, "Houses of Worship," "Places of Worship," "Religious Organizations", or "Churches." Some addresses did not contain building numbers and others listed as addresses Post Office boxes. For these addresses, building numbers or physical addresses were identified from institutions' websites. If addresses from websites lacked building numbers, Google Maps "street view" was used to locate the religious institution, to record the building number and/or the nearest side street.

The United States Census Bureau State & County Facts from the 2010 Census report (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012) was used to obtain county and city information for the county of commitment, the city/town of where offenders were residing at the time of offenses, where offenders met/contacted victims, and where offenses occurred. The information included county size, population, population of those under the age of 18, and population density. Each county and city compiled from the addresses found in the offenders' files were searched and recorded from the U.S. Census listing.

Validity and Reliability Concerns

   A. Historical Effects.

Retrospective studies run the risk of introducing bias to variables due to historical effects. In this study, historical effects introduce bias in the dependent variable, distance to the landmarks. The addresses of the landmarks were collected between April 2012 and May 2013. The majority of offenses occurred before 2008, and several during the 1990's. Therefore, it is possible some schools were not in existence, in particular Charter schools. It is also possible daycares included in the analysis were not in existence during the time of offense, or a daycare could have been in existence, but closed before the compiling of address data. Some playgrounds could be newly constructed and were not in existence during the time of offense. Although the religious institutions are likely to be established long before the offense, it is possible that new religious institutions were established after the offense, and would be included in the analysis. This caveat was addressed by only including offenders who were convicted after 2000 to obtain the most recent offenses as possible, and to avoid offenses that occurred decades ago.

B. Selection Method.

Similar to most sex offender studies, and studies involving geospatial analysis, the present study does not allow for a random selection of sex offenders. This study consists of data collected from a purposive sample and represents a percentage of sex offenders in New Jersey. This is not a representative sample of all sex offenders in New Jersey or the United States. Most of the inmates at ADTC are there for child molestation and incest and those offenses are more likely to occur in residences. While the reporting of experiences for these offenders may show clear and distinct social proximity and offending patterns, these findings may or may not apply to offenders in other communities. However, this study is descriptive and exploratory regarding how and where a sample of sex offenders meets victims and commits offenses. It is important to note the sex offender population has been shown to be difficult to access due to offenders' concerns about anonymity and trust (Levenson, D'Amora, & Hern, 2007). As a result, prior studies have relied on convenience and purposive samples, including studies by Levenson, D'Amora, and Hern (2007); Levenson, and Hern (2007); Mercado, Alvarez, and Levenson (2008); Tewksbury (2005); Tewksbury, and Lees (2006); and Zevitz, Crim, and Farkas (2000).

The ability to generalize this study's sample to all sex offenders in New Jersey is difficult as this is a sample of offenders who have been apprehended, convicted, and incarcerated in a treatment facility. However, RR laws in many states and jurisdictions apply to all registered sex offenders, regardless of victim age and risk level, a group of offenders this study makes no inference to; therefore, a randomly selected sample of sex offenders for generalizing to all offenders is not necessary. The sample in this study

provides for an analysis of sex offenders incarcerated at the Adult Diagnostic and

Treatment Center in Avenel, NJ, in which offenders met certain criteria. However, this

study seeks to examine offenders many community members would be most fearful of,

and there is an assumption these sex offenders who offend in New Jersey are not

dissimilar to those who are incarcerated in other states.

C. Addresses.

All addresses were collected from state records. Some addresses were identified

using outside sources (Google Maps, Electronic Yellow Pages) in addition to the

information found in the files, questioning the validity of some addresses. In addition,

not every file possessed complete information to allow identification of the victim

meet/contact address or offense address. Much of the information in the file documents

is self- reported. The new Jersey Department of Corrections does not verify accuracy of

offender's addresses recorded on the Face Sheet or the PSI. Some of the addresses for

the meet/contact locations and the offense locations were not available in the file and had

to be identified using the information found in the file and the internet sources mentioned

above. This study only includes licensed day care centers, and would exclude any

unlicensed daycares. The addresses (excluding parks) were geocoded using point

locations, providing an XY axis for each address. Depending on the size of the city lot,

distances measured by geocoding may not be accurate.

Limitations

A limitation of this study is reliance on data collected from official records.

When using data from records collected and written by other individuals, the researcher

has no control over what data these individuals collect or how these individuals address

non-response or missing data. In addition, some of the information contained in the files is compiled form self-reports of the offender and victim, such as information about the offender's employment, prior victims, residential address, and/or offense details. However, due to the high burden of proof to convict and incarcerate sex offenders, the data in these reports is likely reliable.

Another limitation for this study relates to victims' response. Research regarding sex offenders suggests a low rate of official reporting. Sex offenders who are studied have been reported, apprehended, and convicted. This understates figures regarding sexual offenders and the extent of sexual offenses, particularly figures regarding incest. Conversely, some sexual offenses may be over-represented to the police, such as those committed by strangers or offenses against adults. However, the aim of this study was gain understanding of offending patterns of those who would be appropriate for residence restriction laws, therefore an over-representative number of non-relative offenders is ideal.

A third limitation for this study comes from the criminal histories of the sex offenders in this study's sample. Criminal histories for offenders vary when viewed through the eyes of different individuals. To address this limitation, I generated the variables (a) offenders prior arrest, (b) prior conviction, and (c) number of victims. The offenders prior arrest variable describes offenders' previous arrests as a binary response, yes or no. The prior conviction variable describes offenders' previous conviction for a sexual offense as a binary response, yes or no. Finally, the number of prior victims variable quantifies the number of prior victims as some number between zero and infinity. Using all three variables addresses the limitation of complex criminal histories.

A fourth limitation is the categorical coding of variables. Age, for both offender and victim are commonly continuous variables. However, and mentioned previously, this variable had to be coded into categories so that the offender's year of birth could not be identified. This limited the types of statistical analysis that could be conducted in the current study.

Missing data is a fifth limitation for this study. For example, addresses for one offender, as well as meet/contact and offense addresses, were missing from state records. To address this limitation, I reviewed each missing data point individually. The offender with the missing address data committed a sexual offense against a family member within a shared household. In addition, a review of records for missing meet/contact and offense addresses described addresses and/or sexual offenses eliminated from the final analysis. Consequently, the limitation of missing data likely has little influence on the results from this study.

Chapter 4: Study Results and Analysis

Offender Characteristics

Table 2 displays offender demographics. Of the 270 sex offenders in this sample, six offenders, 2.2 percent, were under the age of 18. The ages for the remaining 264 offenders were equally categorized using five year increments between the ages of 25 and 50 as well as the two age categories, 18-24 and over the age of 50. In terms of ethnicity, 47.8 percent of offenders in the sample were classified as White/Caucasian. Of the remaining offenders, 19.6 percent were Black/African American, 30.4 percent were classified as Hispanic, and 2.2 percent were classified as Asian.

A majority, 64.4 percent, of offenders in the sample were in a relationship at the time of sexual offense. Specifically, 16.7 percent of the offenders were single but in a relationship, 40.7 percent were married, 2.6 percent were separated, 1.1 percent were separated but in a relationship, 5.6 percent were divorced, 5.9 percent were divorced but in a relationship, and 0.7 percent were widowed. Most of offenders, 66.8 percent, in this sample had children. Specifically, 16.7 percent had at least one biological child, 25.2 percent had two children, 11.9 percent had three children, and 13.0 percent had four or more children. A majority, 85.2 percent, of offenders in the sample were employed at the time of offense. A minority, 16.6 percent, of offenders worked or volunteered at locations with direct access to minors and a smaller percent,7.4 percent, worked or volunteered in a restricted area (i.e., school, daycare, park, religious institution).

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics for Sex Offenders (n=270)

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Age	Under 18	2.2	2.2
	18-24	14.1	16.3
	25-29	13.3	29.6
	30-34	16.4	46.0
	35-39	19.0	65.0
	40-49	19.3	84.3
	50 and Over	15.7	100.0
Total		100.0	
Ethnicity	White/Caucasian	47.8	47.8
	Hispanic	30.4	78.2
	Black/African American	19.6	97.8
	Asian/Pacific Islander	2.2	100.0
Total		100.0	
Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Relationship status	Married	40.7	40.7
	Single	26.7	67.4
	Single in relationship	16.7	84.1
	Divorced in relationship	5.9	90.0

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
	Divorced	5.6	95.6
	Separated	2.6	98.2
	Separated in relationship	1.1	99.3
	Widowed	0.7	100.0
Total			
Biological children	0	33.2	33.2
	1	16.7	49.9
	2	25.2	75.1
	3	11.9	87.0
	4 or more	13.0	100.0
Total		100.0	
Employment status	Employed	85.2	85.2
	Unemployed	10.3	95.5
	Disabled/public assistance	2.6	98.1
	Retired	1.9	100.0
Total		100.0	
Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Employed/volunteer with minors	No	84.4	84.4
	Yes	15.6	100.0
Total		100.0	
Employed/volunteer in restricted area	No	92.6	92.6

	Yes	7.4	100.0
Total		100.0	
Total known victims	1	41.9	41.9
	2	23.7	65.6
	3	17.0	83.6
	4 or more	17.4	100.0
Total		100.0	
Total known contact victims	0	2.6	2.6
	1	44.0	46.6
	2	23.0	69.6
	3	15.2	84.8
	4 or more	15.2	100.0
Total		100.0	

The number of total known victims was compiled using the offender's arrest and conviction history, Pre-Sentence Report, Psychological Report. Of the offenders in the sample, 41.1 percent had only one only known victim, 23.7 percent had two known victims, 17 percent had at least three known victims, and 17.4 percent had four or more victims. For all known victims, 2.6 percent of offenders had no prior contact offenses. A higher percentage of offenders, 44.1 percent, had only one known victim whom they committed a contact offense, whereas 23.0 percent had at least two known contact victims, and 15.2 percent had either three or four total known contact victims.

A majority of offenders, 66.7 percent, had no prior sexual offense arrests, 22.6 percent had one prior sexual arrest, 5.9 percent had two, 1.9 percent had three arrests, and 3.0 percent had four or more prior sex arrests. A majority of offenders, 79.3 percent, had no prior convictions, 15.9 percent had one, 3.7 percent had two prior sexual convictions, and 1.1 percent had three or more.

Victim Meet/Contact and Offense Characteristics

Table 3 displays characteristics of victims and offenders, including the manner in which offenders meet or establish contact with victims. The results suggest most offenders, 88.1 percent, knew victims prior to sexual offense. Approximately half of offenders, 48.8 percent, were related to victims. The more common familial relationships included stepfathers, biological fathers, and uncles. A majority of offenders, 71.1%, met or contacted victims through family, 35.9 percent, or through parents of victims, 35.2 percent. A majority of offenders, 64.0 percent, met or made contact with victims at the offenders' residences. Furthermore, the results suggest a majority of sex offenses, 83.6 percent, occurred in residences. This was expected considering the sample of inmates at ADTC, and well as results from other sex offender studies such as (Duwe et al., 2008). These residences were classified as shared, offenders, victims, and other. Almost all sexual offenses, 94.9 percent, involved some form of physical contact between offenders and victims. The more common categories for physical contact included vaginal or anal intercourse, oral sex, fondling without penetration, and fondling with penetration. The data in Table 3 suggests most offenses, 77 percent, did not involve any type of threat or violence. Of those offenses involving the use of threats, force or violence, the more common methods included threats and physical force or restrained victim. Most of the

offenders repeated the offense upon their victims (82.2%), whereas only 17.8 percent of the offenses were a single incident.

The offense years were included to demonstrate how recent the offenses were, as some of the restricted landmarks may have changed. This was noted as a possible study caveat, as discussed on page 103 in the section on validity and reliability concerns. Less than half of offenses, 40.7 percent, occurred between the years 2008-2012. In contrast, less than 10 percent of offenses occurred during the 1990's. The distribution of county of commitment or where the offenders' resided at the time of offense appeared evenly distributed across the six counties identified in this study. In addition, the distribution of county of commitment or where offenses were committed appeared evenly distributed across the six counties identified in this study.

Table 3

Meet/Contact and Offense Characteristics for Sex Offenders (n=270)

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Victim-offender relationship	Mother's boyfriend	13.7	13.7
	Stepfather	13.3	27.0
	Uncle	12.2	39.2
	Stranger	11.9	51.1
	Biological father	11.9	63.0
	Family friend	10.7	73.7
	Neighbor	4.1	77.8
	Brother	3.7	81.5
	Other acquaintance	3.7	85.2
	Cousin	3.3	88.5
	Foster father	2.2	90.7
	Grandfather	2.2	92.9
	School official	2.2	95.1
	Babysitter/daycare	1.9	97.0
	Religious official	1.5	98.5
	Athletic coach	1.5	100.0
Total		100.0	
Method of meeting victim	Victim was a family member	35.8	35.8
	Through victim's parent	35.2	71.0
	On the street/in public	7.8	78.8

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Method of meeting victim	Through employment/volunteer	7.0	85.8
	Through victim's family member	4.1	89.9
	Neighborhood/apartment bldg.	4.1	94.0
	Through victim's friend	3.0	97.0
	Internet	3.0	100.0
Total		100.0	
Meeting/contact location	Shared residence	49.6	49.6
	Offender's residence	14.4	64.0
	Victim's residence	11.5	75.5
	Street	5.2	80.7
	Other residence	4.1	84.8
	Internet	3.0	87.8
	Shared apt. bldg.	2.6	90.4
	Public business/office	3.0	93.4
	School/school bus	2.2	95.6
	Religious institution	2.2	97.8
	Park/Playground	1.1	98.9
	Motel	0.7	99.6
	Daycare	0.4	100.0
Total		100.0	

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Offense location type	Shared residence	49.6	49.6
	Offender's residence	20.0	69.6
	Victim's residence	9.6	79.2
	Public-outdoors	6.3	85.5
	Other residence	4.8	90.3
	Public-indoors	3.0	93.3
	Internet	1.5	94.8
	School/school bus	1.5	96.3
	Park	1.5	97.8
	Motel	1.1	98.9
	Religious institution	0.7	99.6
	Daycare	0.4	100.0
Total		100.0	
Prior sex arrests	0	66.6	66.6
	1	22.6	89.2
	2	5.9	95.1
	3	1.9	97.0
	4 or More	3.0	100.0
Total		100.0	
Prior sex convictions	0	79.3	79.3
	1	15.9	95.2
	2	3.7	98.9

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Prior sex convictions	3 or more	1.1	100.0
Total		100.0	
Offense Frequency	Multiple incidents	82.2	82.2
	Single incident	17.8	100.0
Total		100.0	
Offense act	Intercourse	49.3	49.3
	Oral sex	19.3	68.6
	Fondling w/o penetration	15.9	84.5
	Fondling with penetration	10.4	94.9
	Exposing/luring	3.0	97.9
	Internet luring	2.1	100.0
Total		100.0	
Threat/violence/force	No	77.0	77.0
	Yes	23.0	100.0
Total		100.0	
Offense Years	2008-2012	40.7	40.7
	2004-2007	32.2	72.9
	2000-2003	18.1	91.0
	1990-1999	8.9	100.0
	Total	100.0	
County of Residence	Middlesex	19.3	19.3

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
	Camden	17.4	36.7
	Passaic	17.0	53.7
	Bergen	14.4	68.1
	Ocean	14.1	82.2
	Essex	13.0	95.2
	Out of State	1.9	97.0
	Gloucester	1.1	98.1
	Hunterton	0.7	98.9
	Atlantic	0.4	99.3
	Mercer	0.4	99.6
	Monmouth	0.4	100.0
	Total	100.0	
County of Commitment	Middlesex	20.0	20.0
	Camden	19.3	39.3
	Passaic	18.1	57.4
	Bergen	15.9	73.3
	Ocean	13.7	87.0
	Essex	13.0	100.0
	Total	100.0	

Victim Characteristics

Table 4 lists characteristics of the victim (age and gender). The majority of
victims were under the age of 12 (59.3%), and 34.8 percent were between the ages of 12-
17 years, and 5.9 percent were adults over the age of 18. Most of the victims' of the
offenders in this sample were females (80%), and only 18.9 percent of the victims were
males. Two of the victims were actually undercover agents posing online as female
minors. One of the offenders exposed themselves to young children playing at a park;
therefore, victims' gender was not available.

Table 4

Victim Characteristics

Characteristic	Category	Percent (%)	Cum. Percent (%)
Age	Under 12	59.3	59.3
	12-17	34.8	94.1
	Adult	5.9	100.0
Total		100.0	
Gender	Female	80.0	80.0
	Male	18.9	98.9
	Virtual female	0.7	96.6
Total		99.6	

Note. [a] one victim gender value missing

Geospatial Analysis of Addresses

Environmental System Research Institute (ESRI) ArcGIS 10 was used to geocode the addresses of every school, daycare, park/playground, and religious institution in the following six counties: Bergen, Camden, Essex, Middlesex, Ocean, and Passaic. Point locations were used (as opposed to parcels or area calculations) to allow greater error margin to maximize individual impact evaluation. Using geocoded park addresses and a basemap, a new Shapefile was created and polygons were drawn using the edit feature to create polygons of the park/playground locations. This Shapefile was converted into a new Layer, and added to the map. A total of 399 park/playground polygons were drawn for the six counties. These park/playground polygons were created using the same coordinate system as the geocoded addresses and the basemap, GCS_WGS_1984. The ArcGIS 10 North American Geocode Service address locater was used where the minimum match score was set at 85. The match scores for an address locator is a value between 0 and 100, in which this setting allows one to control how closely addresses have to match the reference data to be considered a match. A perfect match yields a score of 100. A good match score is considered to be between 85 and 99.

One thousand seven hundred fourteen addresses of schools within the six counties were geocoded, in which 1,456 locations had scores of 100, 187 locations had scores between 90.97 and 99, and 71 locations had scores between 85 and 89.3. Three thousand nine hundred twenty-eight addresses of religious institutions were geocoded, in which 3,338 locations had a scores of 100, 436 locations had scores between 90.91 and 99.68, and 107 locations had scores between 85 and 89.96. One thousand eight hundred ninety-seven daycare addresses were geocoded, in which 1,641 locations had scores of 100, 256

locations had scores between 90.38 and 99.74, and 112 locations had scores between 85 and 89.96. One-thousand and 2,500-foot buffer zones were generated around each of these geocoded addresses.

The residences for 269 offenders at the time offenses were committed were identified. One offender's residential address could not be identified. One hundred ninety-four locations had a geocoding match score of 100, 51 locations had match scores between 90.97 and 99.88 and 22 locations had scores between 85 and 89.87. One location had a score of 82.42 and one location had a match score of 78.79, which coded one house number away, possibly due to a recording error.

Four offenders resided in other New Jersey counties. For these offenders the same methods were used to identify the addresses of schools, nearby parks, daycares, and religious intuitions for the city/town in New Jersey in which the offenders resided and compiled and mapped to the nearest buffer zone. An additional 167 schools, 205 daycares, 387 religious institutions were geocoded, and the identifying and drawing of an additional 59 park/playground polygons. For the additional schools, 125 locations had scores of 100, 28 locations had scores between 92.5 and 97.75, and 14 locations had a geocoding score between 85 and 87.35. For the additional religious institutions, 300 locations had scores of 100, 78 locations had scores between 90.97 and 97.66, and 13 locations had scores between 85 and 87.23.

Three offenders resided in New York State and two resided in Pennsylvania. Using the same methods, the addresses of the schools, parks/playgrounds, religious instructions and daycares were identified using offenders' zip codes. The New York State licensed daycares were compiled by conducting a daycare search of the New York

State Office of Children and Family Services. The licensed daycares in Pennsylvania were compiled by conducting a daycare search of the Pennsylvania Department of Public Welfare. This resulted in the geocoding of an additional 128 schools, 82 daycares, 174 religious institutions, and the drawing of an additional 15 park/playground polygons. Of the 128 schools, 127 locations had geocoding scores of 100 and one location had a score of 89.16. The locations for all 82 daycares had scores of 100. Of the religious institutions, 158 locations had scores of 100, five locations had scores between 90.97 and 97.46, and 11 locations had scores of 86.21.

The addresses for 269 of the offenders were geocoded to the nearest landmark (i.e., school, park, religious institution, and daycare). The geocoded addresses for offenders were examined in relation to the buffer zones to determine if addresses fell inside one of the two buffer zones. If the addresses were located outside the buffer zones, the "ruler" feature of ArcGis was used to measure in feet, how far outside the buffer zones offenders resided.

The meeting/contact or victim access addresses were identified for 247 of the offenders. No physical addresses were noted for the eight offenders contacting victims on the internet. The meeting or victim contact locations were geocoded. One hundred seventy seven locations had scores of 100, 41 locations had scores between 90.97 and 99.89, 28 locations had scores between 85 and 89.85 and one location had a score of 84.83. The geocoded addresses were examined in relation to buffer zones to determine if these addresses fell inside one of the two buffer zones. If addresses were located outside buffer zones, the ruler feature of was used to measure in feet, how far outside buffer zones offenders resided.

The offense addresses were identified for 248 offenders. No addresses were noted for offenses committed using the internet. Two hundred sixteen locations had scores of 100, 20 locations had scores between 90.97 and 99.01, and 11 locations had scores between 85 and 89.85. One address had a score of 78.79 (same address as above). The geocoded addresses were also examined in relation to the buffer zones to determine if addresses fell inside one of the two buffer zones. If addresses were located outside the buffer zones, the ruler feature of was used to measure in feet, how far outside buffer zones offenders' resided. The Bair Analytics Spatial Predictive Analysis of Crime Extension (SPACE) "Link Points" function was used to measure distance in feet on a straight line between offenders' residences to both meeting and offense locations for all those combinations identified.

Latent Class Analysis

The primary objective of the latent class analysis (LCA) was to identify a subgroup of convicted sex offenders along multiple dimensions for victim, offense, and offender characteristics. Although there is no optimal number of classes to use in a LCA, parsimony is imperative. The goal was to have to an optimal number of classes in which each class is distinct, where adding an additional class would not provide a descriptive benefit. For all 270 offenders, 14 indicator variables were entered into the model based on victim characteristics, offense characteristics/behaviors, offense history, and offender characteristics. Two, three, four, and five class models were attempted for each analysis. The GLLAMM program generated a two-class model for each analysis. After conducting the LCA model, the gllapred command was used. Gllapred is a prediction command for gllamm, which calculates the likelihood of cases falling into the classes to

determine class fit and to help determine the interpretation of each class within the model.

All but one of the variables used in the LCA were dichotomous. If a variable with three or four categories (e.g. victim age) was entered into the LCA model, the results of the LCA would either divide the variable between the classes to create a binary variable, or would not generate classes. Some indicator variables entered into the model did provide explanatory power to the classes (e.g. offender race, victim gender). The model was run again with these variables removed from the model. The fourteen binary variables entered into the final model were: offender age, marital status, parental status, victim age, meet/contact method, meet/contact location, offense location, violence/threats, offense type, offense frequency, number of victims, sex arrest story, sex conviction history. The last variable in the model was victim-offender relationship, having three categories (See Appendix B).

A. Model Results.

The LCA identified two distinct subgroups of offenders, which were easily divided along the specified variables (see Table 5). Offenders in Class 1 comprised 19 percent of the sampled offenders. Offenders in Class 2 comprised 81 percent of the sampled offenders. For victim characteristics, offenders in both classes committed offenses mainly against minors, but offenders in Class 1 were more likely than offenders in Class 2 to offend against adults as well. Offenders in Class 1 committed offenses against strangers and acquaintances, with no relatives whereas; offenders in Class 2 committed offenses almost entirely against relatives and acquaintances, with a higher percentage of victims related to offenders.

In regards to offense behavior, offenders in Class 1 were more likely to directly contact or meet victims whereas offenders in Class 2 were more likely to indirectly meet or contact victims. In other words, offenders in Class 1 met victims through someone the victim knows, usually another adult. Offenders in Class 1 were also more likely to meet or contact victims in a non-residential location, for example in public or on the internet. Conversely, offenders in Class 2 tended to meet victims inside a residence. Offenders in Class 1 were more likely to commit offenses involving direct contact with the victim, but also had a greater percentage of non-contact offenses. The offenses were more likely to occur in a non-residential location. The offenses were usually only one incident and most did not involve the use of violence or threats, but at a higher percentage than offenses for offenders in Class 2. The offenses for offenders in Class 2 were contact offenses, more likely to occur in offenders' residences, occurred on multiple occasions, and involved fewer incidents of violence or threats.

Table 5

Comparison of Offender Class across Victim, Offense, and Offender Characteristics

(n=270)

Variable	Category	Class 1 (%) n=51	Class 2 (%) n= 219
Victim age	Minor	76.5	98.2
VOR	Stranger	60.8	0.4
	Acquaintance	39.2	39.3
	Relative	0.0	60.3
Contact method	Direct contact	96.1	4.6
Contact location	Non-residence	86.3	0.9
Offense type	Contact	72.5	100.0
Offense location	Non-residence	70.6	0.9
Offense frequency	Single incident	62.7	7.3
Violence or threats	Yes	41.2	18.7
Offense history	2 or more victims	60.8	51.6
Prior sex arrest	Yes	60.8	26.9
Prior sex conviction	Yes	37.3	16.4
Marital status	Unmarried	80.4	53.9
Fathered children	Yes	33.3	73.5
Offender age	Under 35	64.7	42.0

The two classes differed slightly on sexual offense history. Technically,

offenders committing offenses repeatedly against one victim is a "repeat offender." This

has more to do with offenders having continued access to the same victims, and the

compulsive nature of the crime. Therefore, offense history in this study is characterized by prior arrest, prior conviction, and having more than one victim. Offenders in Class 1 were characterized by those having more than one victim, and a prior sexual arrest. Most offenders in Class 1 did not have a prior conviction, but at a higher rate than offenders in Class 2. About half of offenders in Class 2 had only one known victim and about half committed offenses on more than one victim. Most offenders in Class 2 did not have prior sex offense arrests or convictions for a sex offense. Regarding offender characteristics, offenders in Class 1 were characterized by those who were not married, did not have children, and were under the age of 35. About half of offenders in Class 2 were married and about half were unmarried. Most offenders in Class 2 have children and are 35 years of age or older.

Table 6 lists the average individual class probabilities assigned to offenders for each class in each corresponding table. A good classification is indicated when the diagonal values are high and the values off the diagonal are low.

Table 6

Class Assignment Probability by Latent Class

	Class 1	Class 2
Class 1	0.9875	0.0125
Class 2	0.0206	0.9794

The LCA identified two offender types. The LCA identified a subgroup of non-incest sex offenders who directly meet/contact victims in the community, and a subgroup consisting of incest offenders committing offenses against close acquaintances who they

met/contacted indirectly though family or someone knowing the victims. Offenders in Class 1 demonstrated the "stereotypical" sex offender, similar to those described in Gavin (2005). These offenders tend to be younger, single, do not have children, and are repetitive. Most had more than one victim, therefore, they experienced success in committing a previous sexual offense, avoided apprehension, and were arrested after a subsequent offense. These offenders can be viewed as "hunters," preying on vulnerable victims, or seizing an opportunity when a vulnerable victim is present. In other words, when the three characteristics of Routine Activity Theory converge and allow for the completion of offense. An example for this offender type would be the offender crossing paths with a suitable victim lacking a guardian or surveillance reducing the likelihood of apprehension. These offenders tend to be strangers who abused/assaulted victims in public on one occasion. Offending strangers on one occasion reduces the likelihood of being identified by victims. The offenses also tend to occur in non-residential locations, where offenders are less likely to be identified or leave evidence.

Offenders in Class 1 depicted the stereotypical sex offender often portrayed in the media or in social constructs described in Gavin (2005); however, offenders in Class 2 were the majority identified through LCA. Offenders in Class 2 can be described as the common or "traditional" sex offender, and not the "stranger danger" offender the media depicts. These offenders are not the stereotypical offenders because they tend to be older, are married, and/or have children. These offenders would be considered by most as unlikely offenders, as they are relatives or close acquaintances of victims. These offenders tend to have continued access to victims, and are therefore able to repeat offenses on victims. Victims are less likely to report offenses if offenders are family

members or close acquaintances, as shown by Uggen and Hlavka (2008), allowing repeat offenses not only on current victims, but with previous victims as well. Nearly half of these offenders had more than one victim, but small percentages had a previous arrest or conviction. Since most offenders in Class 2 offend against family members in personal residences, it is likely these offenders are stationary, or do not travel from personal residences to meet victims or commit offenses. Further spatial analysis determined if this was indeed the case.

Geospatial Analysis: Addresses to Landmarks

A. Offender Residence.

Of the 269 offenders' residences mapped to the nearest landmarks, a large percentage lived within the buffer zones. This is likely due to New Jersey's high population density and the large number of schools, parks, daycares and religious institutions per square mile. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, New Jersey's estimated population in 2012 was 8,864,590, of which 22.9 percent or about 2,029,991 are under the age of 18. The population density in 2010 was 1,195.5 people per square mile.

Table 7 shows the numbers and percentages of offenders' residences from the nearest landmark. Most resided within 2,550 feet of a school with 38.5 percent residing within 1,000 feet and 43 percent residing between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a school. Fewer resided within 2,000 feet of a park with 15.9 percent residing within 1,000 feet and 24.8 percent residing between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a park. Most offenders resided within 2,500 feet of a daycare with 38.5 percent residing within 1,000 feet and 41.5 percent residing between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a daycare. Most offenders resided

within 2,500 feet of a religious institution with 57.4 percent within 1,000 feet and 26.7

percent between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet. Since 134 offenders committed offenses

against victims of shared residences, (i.e. residences where both offender and victim

lived) it is unlikely residing near one of the four landmarks had an influence on

offenders' victim selection.

Table 7

Proximity of Offender Residence to Landmarks

Landmark	Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
School	< 1,000	38.5	38.7
	1,001 – 2,500	43.0	43.1
	2,501 – 5,280	10.7	10.8
	5,281 – 10,560	3.7	3.7
	10,561 – 26,400	2.6	2.6
	26,401 – 52,800	1.1	1.1
Total		99.6	100.0
Park	< 1,000	15.9	16.0
	1,001 – 2,500	24.8	24.9
	2,501 – 5,280	35.6	35.7
	5,281 – 10,560	15.2	15.2
	10,561 – 26,400	5.9	5.9
	26,401 – 52,800	2.2	2.2
Total		99.6	100.0
Daycare	< 1,000	38.5	38.7
	1,001 – 2,500	41.5	41.6
	2,501 – 5,280	13.0	13.0
	5,280 – 10,560	5.2	5.2
	10,560 – 26,400	1.1	1.1
	26,400 – 52,800	0.4	0.4
Total		99.6	100.0

Landmark	Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
Religious institution	< 1,000	57.4	57.6
	1,001 – 2,500	26.7	26.8
	2,501 – 5,280	10.7	10.8
	5,281 – 10,560	3.3	3.3
	10,561 – 26,400	1.5	1.5
	26,401 – 52,800	0.0	0.0
Total		99.6	100.0

Note. One offender residence missing

B. Victim Meet/Contact Location.

Two hundred forty-seven meet/contact locations were identified. As mentioned previously, many of these locations were shared residences, and their proximity to restricted landmarks has little relevance to a RR law. This analysis was conducted to obtain a general idea of the proximity of these locations for the entire sample of offenders with identified meet/contact locations. As displayed in Table 3, many of these locations were residences where the offender was able to gain access to their victim (shared residence, offender's residence, victim's residence). Some locations were in public, where some examples were schools, churches, a daycare center, and parks, all of which had addresses that were previously identified and compiled. Additional meet/contact locations included medical office exam rooms, hospital room, motel room, fast food restaurant, public bathroom inside a department store, pubic bathroom inside a college

library, martial arts studio, and on the street near local businesses. Of the 247

meet/contact or victim access locations identified, a large percentage fell within one of

the two buffer zones.

Table 8 displays the numbers and percentages of these locations to the nearest

landmark. Of the 247 locations, 37.0 percent were less than 1,000 feet and 41.1 percent

were between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a school. Fewer meet/contact locations were

within 2,500 feet of a park; 15.9 percent of offenders met or contacted victims less than

1,000 feet and 21.9 percent between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a park. A high

percentage of meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of a daycare with 40.7

percent less than 1,000 feet and 35.2 percent between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a

daycare. The greatest percentage of offense locations fell within the 2,500-foot buffer

zone of a religious institution with 57.0 percent less than 1,000 feet and 23.0 percent

between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a religious institution.

Table 8

Proximity of Meet/Contact Locations to Landmarks

Landmark	Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
School	< 1,000	37.0	40.5
	1,001 – 2,500	41.1	44.9
	2,501 – 5,280	7.8	8.5
	5,281 – 10,560	2.6	2.8
	10,561 – 26,400	2.2	2.4
	26,401 – 52,800	0.7	0.8
Total		91.5	100.0
Park	< 1,000	15.9	17.4
	1,001 – 2,500	21.9	23.9
	2,501 – 5,280	33.7	36.8
	5,281 – 10,560	13.3	14.6
	10,561 – 26,400	5.2	5.7
	26,401 – 52,800	1.5	1.6
Total		91.5	100.0
Daycare	< 1,000	40.7	44.5
	1,001 – 2,500	35.2	38.5
	2,501 – 5,280	10.0	10.9
	5,281 – 10,560	4.1	4.5
	10,561 – 26,400	1.1	1.2
	26,401 – 52,800	0.4	0.4
Total		91.5	100.0

Landmark	Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
Total		91.5	100.0
Religious institution	< 1,000	57.0	62.3
	1,001 – 2,500	23.0	25.1
	2,501 – 5,280	8.1	8.9
	5,281 – 10,560	1.9	2.0
	10,561 – 26,400	1.5	1.6
	26,401 – 52,800	0.0	0.0
Total		91.5	100.0

Note. 23 meet/contact locations missing

C. Offense Location.

For the 270 offenders, 249 offense addresses were identified. Most of these

locations (86.3%) were the same as the meet/contact location. As mentioned previously,

most of these locations were residences, and their proximity to restricted landmarks has

little relevance to a RR law. This analysis was conducted to obtain a general idea of the

proximity of the offense locations for the entire sample of offenders with identified

offense locations. As displayed in Table 3, many of the offense locations were residences

where the offender was able to gain access to their victim. Some locations were public

locations in which many were the same location where the offender met/contacted the

victim. Some examples of the offense locations identified were schools, churches, a

daycare center, and parks, which again, the addresses where identified and compiled.

Additional offense locations included many of the same locations where the offender

met/contacted the victim, for example, medical office exam rooms, hospital room, motel rooms, fast food restaurant, public bathroom inside a department store, pubic bathroom inside a college library, parking lots (motel, college, shopping center), coffee shop, and on the street near local businesses. One offense occurred in a park, but the address of the park was not identified.

Table 9 displays the numbers and percentages of these offense locations to the nearest landmark. Of these 249 offense locations, more than 37 percent were less than 1,000 feet and 40.4 percent were between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a school. Fewer offenses occurred within 2,500 feet of a park with 17.4 percent less than 1,000 feet and 21.1 between 1,000 feet and 2,500 of a school. Thirty five point five percent of offense locations were less than 1,000 feet and 36.6 percent were between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a daycare. The greatest percentage of offense locations were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution with 54.8 percent less than 1,000 feet and 24.4 percent between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet of a religious institution.

Table 9

Proximity of Offense Location to Landmarks

Landmark	Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
School	< 1,000	37.0	40.3
	1,001 – 2,500	40.4	44.0
	2,501 – 5,280	8.9	9.7
	5,281 – 10,560	2.6	2.8
	10,561 – 26,400	2.2	2.4
	26,401 – 52,800	0.7	0.8
Total		91.8	100.0
Park	< 1,000	17.4	18.9
	1,001 – 2,500	21.1	22.9
	2,501 – 5,280	33.3	36.1
	5,281 – 10,560	13.0	14.1
	10,561 – 26,400	5.9	6.4
	26,401 – 52,800	1.5	1.6
Total		92.2	100.0
Daycare	< 1,000	38.5	41.9
	1,001 – 2,500	35.6	38.7
	2,501 – 5,280	11.5	12.5
	5,281 – 10,560	4.8	5.2
	10,561 – 26,400	1.1	1.2
	26,401 – 52,800	0.4	0.4

Landmark	Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
Total		91.8	100.0
Religious institution	< 1,000	54.8	59.7
	1,001 – 2,500	24.4	26.6
	2,501 – 5,280	9.6	10.5
	5,281 – 10,560	1.5	1.6
	10,561 – 26,400	1.5	1.6
	26,401 – 52,800	0.0	0.0
Total		91.8	100.0

Note. 22 offense locations missing

Geospatial Analysis: Distance Traveled

A. Distance Traveled from Residence to Meet/Contact Location.

Two hundred forty-seven victim meeting/contact locations were identified and geocoded. One offender's residential address could not be identified, but according to his file, he met/contacted his victim inside his residence. Consequently, this offender was coded as traveling zero feet to meet his victim. Another offender traveled at least 35 miles out of state to a meet/contact location. Because there were two similar addresses, the exact address could not be identified. Therefore, the contact/meet location was not mapped to the landmarks. This offender was coded as traveling more than 20 miles to meet/contact victims. Table 10 lists distances traveled from offenders' residences to meet/contact locations. As mentioned previously, most offenders shared a household with their victim, and gained access to their victim within their personal household. This

analysis was conducted to obtain a general idea of how far offenders traveled, if at all, for

entire sample of offenders with identified meet/contact locations. About two-thirds of

offenders accessed victims in personal residences, whether victims were family members

or acquaintances. Equal percentages either traveled less than 1,000 feet, between 1,000

feet and 2,500 feet, and between 2,501 feet and one mile from personal residences. As

mentioned previously, of the eight percent missing, three percent met victims via the

internet.

Table 10

Proximity of Offender Residence to Meet/Contact Location

Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
0 feet	67.4	73.1
< 1,000 feet	2.6	2.8
1,001 – 2,500	2.6	2.8
2,501 – 5,280	2.6	2.8
5,281 – 10,560	5.9	6.4
10,561 – 26,400	4.4	4.8
26,401 – 52,800	3.0	3.2
52,801 – 105,600	1.9	2.0
> 105,601	1.9	2.0
Total	92.2	100.0

Note. One offender's meet/contact address was not identified, but he met/contacted the victim in his residence. One offender traveled out of state to meet/contact his victim, the exact address could not identified, was not included in addresses mapped to landmarks, but was coded as > 20 miles.

B. Distance Traveled from Residence to Offense Location.

Two hundred forty-nine offense locations were identified and geocoded. As mentioned previously, many offenders shared a household with their victim, and gained access to their victim within their personal household. This analysis was conducted to obtain a general idea of how far offenders travelled, if at all, for entire sample of offenders with identified offense locations. Table 11 lists distances offenders traveled

from personal residences to offense locations. More than two-thirds of offenders

committed offenses in personal residences, whether the victim was a relative or was

brought or went willingly to offenders' residences. A small percentage traveled less than

1,000 feet and or between 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet from personal residences. As

mentioned previously, of the 20 missing locations, four offenses were internet-related.

Table 11

Proximity of Offender Residence to Offense Location

Distance (feet)	Percent (%)	Valid percent (%)
0 feet	71.5	77.2
< 1,000 feet	3.3	3.6
1,001 – 2,500	1.1	1.2
2,501 – 5,280	1.9	2.0
5,281 – 10,560	5.2	5.6
10,561 – 26,400	4.1	4.4
26,401 – 52,800	2.6	2.8
52,801 – 105,600	1.5	1.6
> 105,601	1.5	1.6
Total	92.6	100.0

Note. One offense address was not identified; however, the offender
committed the offense in his residence, and was coded as 0 feet.

Geospatial Analysis by Latent Class

      A. Offender's Residence to Landmarks.

      Whether or not offenders resided within 2,500 feet of one of the restricted landmarks were compared by latent class. This analysis allowed the comparison of those who offend outside the family or personal residence. Offenders in Class 1 consisted of the "stereotypical" sex offender. Offenders in Class 2 consisted of the "traditional" sex offender. Table 12 shows, by class, a contingency table for offenders living within 2,500 feet of a school, park or playground, daycare, or religious institution. The results suggest for three of the four restricted landmarks, parks, daycares, and religious institutions, there were similar percentages between the two classes with no statistically significant differences at the $p = .01$ or $p = .05$ level. There is a statistically significant different between Class 1 and Class 2 residing within 2,500 feet of a school. However, it is the offenders in Class 2, not those in Class 1 who are more likely to reside within 2,500 feet of a school. Offenders in Class 1 committing offenses against strangers and acquaintances and contacting victims directly in non-residential locations are no more likely to reside near a restricted landmark than offenders who committing offenses against victims in personal residences and contacting victims within personal residences. The differences between the classes are not statistically significant for the other three of the landmarks, as the Pearson chi-square analysis demonstrated. This supports the argument against RR laws. One may reside within a buffer zone of a restricted landmark, and access victims within their personal residence. This suggests the social proximity, and not the physical proximity to victims as a risk factor to having access to victims.

Table 12

Percent of Offenders' Residences Less than 2,500 feet to Restricted Landmarks by Class

	Landmark			
Class	School	Park	Daycare	Religious Institution
1	70.6**	45.1	74.5	80.4
2	84.4**	40.2	81.3	84.9

Note. * Pearson χ^2 significant at the .01 level. ** Pearson χ^2 significant at the .05 level. Pearson χ^2 School = 5.295, Likelihood Ratio = 4.818, df=1, p=.021; Pearson χ^2 Park = 617, Likelihood Ratio=.799, df = 2, p = .735; Pearson χ^2 Daycare = 1.570, Likelihood Ratio = 1.688, df = 2, p = .456; Pearson χ^2 Religious Institution = .998, Likelihood Ratio = 1.146, df = 2, p = .607.

B. Meet/Contact Location to Landmarks.

Whether or not offenders met or contacted victims within 2,500 feet of one of the restricted landmarks were compared by latent class. Table 13 shows, by class, a contingency table for the offenders who met or contacted victims within 2,500 feet of a school, park or playground, daycare center, or religious institution. The results suggest for all four restricted landmarks, offenders in Class 1 were more likely to have met/contacted victims within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. However, the percentages between the classes were similar and according to Pearson chi-square analysis, the differences were not statistically significant at the $p = .01$ or $p = .05$ level. Therefore, offenders in Class 1 are no more likely to meet victims near a school, park, daycare, or religious institution than offenders in Class 2. As mentioned above, most of the locations for the offenders in Class 2 were residences, and have no relevance to the RR laws. However, those who meet/contact victims in the community, are not more likely to do so within 2,500 feet of those who access victims inside a residence. This indicates how close the restricted landmarks are to residences, and

demonstrates how devastating a RR law in New Jersey would be if implemented, and the vast number of people who might be affected.

Table 13

Percent of Offenders Whose Meet/Contact Location was Less than 2,500 feet to Restricted Landmarks by Class

	Landmark			
Class	School	Park	Daycare	Religious institution
1	90.5	47.6	88.1	92.9
2	84.3	40.0	81.5	86.3

Note. * Pearson χ² significant at the .01 level. ** Pearson χ² significant at the .05 level. Pearson χ² School = 1.037, Likelihood Ratio = 1.135, df=1, p=.309, Pearson χ² Park = .835, Likelihood Ratio =.827, df = 1, p = .361, Pearson χ² Daycare = 1.066, Likelihood Ratio = 1.152, df = 1, p = .302, Pearson χ² Religious Institution = 1.348, Likelihood Ratio = 1.5552, df = 1, p = .246.

C. Offense Location to Landmarks.

Table 14 shows, by class, a contingency table of offenders committing offenses within 2,500 of a school, park or playground, daycare center, or religious institution. The results suggest for all four restricted landmarks, offenders in Class 1 had greater percentages committing offenses within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. However, the percentages between the classes were similar and according to Pearson chi-square analysis, the differences for the schools, daycares, and religious institutions were not statistically significant at the p = .01 or p = .05 level. Therefore, offenders in Class 1 "are no more likely to offend near a school, daycare, or religious institution than offenders in Class 2. As mentioned, most of the offense locations for the offenders in Class 2 were residences, and have no relevance to the RR laws. However,

those who meet/contact victims and/or commit offenses in the community, are not more likely to do so within 2,500 feet of those who commit offenses inside a residence. This again demonstrates how devastating a state-wide RR law in New Jersey would be, as a large number of RSOs may be affected.

When compared to offenders in Class 2, more offenders in Class 1 committed offenses within 2,500 feet of a park. The Pearson chi-square analysis demonstrated a statistically significant difference (Pearson Chi-Square = 4.294, Likelihood Ratio = 4.237, df = 1, p = .038). Therefore, parks and playgrounds appear to be an area where certain sex offenders are more likely to be caught offending.

Table 14

Percent of Offense Locations Less than 2,500 feet to Restricted Landmarks by Class

	Landmark			
Class	School	Park	Daycare	Religious institution
1	86.4	55.6	81.8	88.6
2	83.8	38.7	80.4	85.8

Note. * Pearson χ^2 significant at the .01 level. ** Pearson χ^2 significant at the .05 level. Pearson χ^2 School = .176, Likelihood Ratio = .182, df=1, p=.675, Pearson χ^2 Park = 4.294, Likelihood Ratio = 4.237, df = 1, p = .038, Pearson χ^2 Daycare = .047, Likelihood Ratio = .048, df = 1, p = .828, Pearson χ^2 Religious Institution = .249, Likelihood Ratio = .259, df = 1, p = .618.

D. Residence to Meet/Contact Location.

How far offenders travel from personal residences to meet or contact victims was compared by latent class. Table 15 demonstrates the number of offenders, mean average distance traveled, standard deviation, and the minimum and maximum number of feet traveled from personal residences to meet/contact locations. The large standard

deviations indicate a wide range of distance values, as shown in the minimum and
maximum distance values. Since offenders in Class 2 tend to offend victims in personal
residences and/or family, significant differences between the two classes is expected. As
expected, offenders in Class 1 , traveled significantly further than offenders in Class 2
with a mean of 22,456 feet or about four miles. Offenders in both classes traveled, on
average, well outside a 2,500-foot zone from personal residences to meet or gain access
to victims. Offenders in Class 2 who offend victims outside personal residences, traveled
on average, 16,438 feet (3 miles), well outside most residence restriction law buffer zones
of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet. This suggests offenders who offend family members or
close acquaintances outside personal residences, do not access victims near personal
residences. Offenders traveling great distances from their residence question the
practicality of RR laws, not only for incest offenders, but for all sex offenders.

Table 15

Distance from Residences of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders to
Meet/Contact Locations

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	42	22,456	29,599	0	142,179
2	73	16,438	60,371	0	353,617

Note. The 206 remaining offenders in Class 2 consisted shared a residence with their
victim.

Table 16 shows, by class, the contingency table of whether or not offenders met
or contacted victims within 2,500 feet of personal residences. To determine statistically

significant differences, a Chi Square analysis was conducted. As expected, most (73.8%) offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet to the meet/contact location. When examining offenders who offended victims not living in personal residences, the percentage of offenders travelling more than 2,500 feet increased to 30.1 percent. Therefore, a small percentage of offenders in Class 2 traveled a great distance to meet/contact victims, resulting in the large mean distance of 16,438 feet. Analysis suggests differences in distance travelled are statistically significant (Pearson Chi-Square = 91.103, Likelihood Ratio = 73.178, df = 1, p = .000, n = 248).

Table 16

Percent of Distance from Residence of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2

Offenders to Meet/Contact Locations by Class

	Distance		
Class	$\leq$ 2,500 feet	> 2,500 feet	Total
1	26.2	73.8**	100.0
2	69.9	30.1**	100.0

Note. * Pearson χ^2 significant at the .01 level.** Pearson χ^2 significant at the .05 level. Pearson χ^2= 91.103, Likelihood Ratio = 73.178, df = 1, p = .000, n = 136

E. Residence to Offense Location.

How far offenders travel from personal residences to commit offenses was also compared by latent class. Table 17 demonstrates, by class, the number of offenders, mean average distance traveled, standard deviation, and the minimum and maximum number of feet traveled from personal residences to offense locations. The large standard

deviations indicate a wide range of distance values, as shown in the minimum and maximum distance values. Since offenders in Class 2 tend to commit offenses against family members or victims living in personal residences, significant differences between the two classes is expected. As expected, offenders in Class 1 traveled significantly further than offenders in Class 2 with a mean of 34,242 feet or about six miles. The offenders in Class 2 who offend victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 10,048 feet or nearly two miles. This distance is well outside the buffer zones of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet found in many RR laws. This suggests offenders committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances outside personal residences; do not do so near personal residences. Offenders in both classes traveled, again on average, well outside a 2,500-foot zone from personal residences to commit offenses.

Table 17

Distance from Residences of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders to Offense Locations

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	44	34,242	87,014	0	516,509
2	73	10,048	46,525	0	352,721

Note. The 206 remaining Class 2 offenders shared a residence with their victim.

Table 18 displays the contingency table of whether or not offenders committed offenses within 2,500 feet of personal residences, compared by class. To determine if this was statistically significant, a Chi Square analysis was conducted. When examining

offenders who offended against victims not living in personal residences, the percentage

of offenders traveling more than 2,500 feet increased to 20.5 percent. A small percentage

of offenders in Class 2 traveled long distances to commit offenses, which lead to a mean

distance of 10,048 feet. As expected, most offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500

feet from personal residences to commit offenses. These results are statistically

significant (Pearson Chi-Square = 82.742, Likelihood Ratio = 69.054, df = 1, p = .000, n

= 250). In comparing the distance travelled to meet/contact locations with distance

traveled to offense locations, also suggests offenders in Class 1 meet or contact victims

closer to personal residences, and commit offenses further from personal residence.

Offenders in Class 2 however, meet/contact victims on average, further from personal

residences, and commit the offenses closer to personal residences.

Table 18

Percent of Distance from Residence of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders

to Offense Locations by Class

| Class | Distance | | Total |
	≤ 2,500 feet	> 2,500 feet	
1	31.8	68.2**	100.0
2	79.5	20.5**	100.0

Note. * Pearson χ^2 significant at the .01 level. ** Pearson χ^2 significant at the .05

level. Pearson χ^2 = 82.742, Likelihood Ratio = 69.054, df = 1, p = .000, n = 136.

Geospatial Analysis by Latent Class and County of Commitment

A geospatial analysis was conducted by county, to highlight proximity patterns for offenders. Areas with larger numbers of residents, minors, and larger numbers of schools, parks, daycares, and religious institutions suggest there are a not only a greater number of offenders, but a greater number of potential victims. Therefore, offenders have greater opportunities to meet/contact victims and commit offenses. It is expected due to the characteristics of offenders in Class 2, most would not travel to meet/contact victims. Nearly all of the offenders in Class 1 would travel to meet or contact victims and commit offenses, and most offenses would occur more than 2,500 feet from personal residence. Due to the large number of schools, parks, daycares and religious institutions in the selected counties, nearly all victim meeting/contact locations and offense locations were within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, and religious institution with fewer within 2,500 feet of a park. However, this may be due to urban planning and not due to offenders seeking victims and offending where children are known to congregate.

    A. Essex County.

Table 19 lists the distance traveled in feet from offenders' residences to the meet/contact locations by class for those convicted in Essex County. The large standard deviation suggests a wide range of values for the distances, as shown in the minimum and maximum values. The offenders in Class 1 traveled on average a further distance to meet or establish contact with victims than offenders in Class 2. In Essex County, the offenders in Class 1 traveled on average, well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone to meet victims, traveling an average of 7,559 feet. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average 3,305 feet. This distance is well outside most residence restriction law buffer zones of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet.

This suggests many offenders who offend against family members or close acquaintances outside personal residences, travel a great distance to access victims.

Table 19

Distance from Residence to Meet/Contact Locations of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders in Essex County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	10	7,559	6,882	0	18,327
2	6	3,305	5,129	0	10,375

Note. The 12 remaining offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 2 displays a map of Essex County with the distance offenders traveled from personal residences to meet/contact locations by latent class, along with the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around restricted landmarks. As mentioned previously, Essex is the most densely populated of the six counties. Essex County had the largest number of daycares and religious institutions, second largest number of schools, and third largest number of parks of the six counties. The sample consisted of 35 offenders who were residents of Essex County and 35 offenders were convicted in Essex County. Ten of the offenders who were convicted were offenders in Class 1. All 35 of offenders convicted in Essex County resided within 2,500 feet of a school and daycare, 30 resided within 2,500 feet of a park and all but one resided within 2,500 feet of a religious institution.

Figure 2. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact Location to School, Park, Daycare, and Religious Institution 1,000-ft and 2,500-ft Buffer Zones: Essex County

Note. Missing seven meet/contact locations for Class 2.

Twenty-eight meet/contact locations were identified and geocoded for the 35 offenders convicted in Essex County. All locations were within 2,500 feet of a school, all but one was within 2,500 feet of a daycare and religious institution, and 22 were within 2,500 feet of a park. The residences and meet/contact locations are primarily in the eastern portion of the county, with most located in the southern portion within the cities of Newark, Irvington, and East Orange. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, these cities are the most densely populated areas in the county, with Newark having 11,458.2 persons per square mile, Irvington 18,417.0 persons per square mile, and East Orange 16,378.7 persons per square mile (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012).

The offenders in Class 1 traveled to meet or establish contact with victims, most in public locations, four of which were in restricted locations. Four offenders in Class 1 traveled less than 2,500 feet from personal residence to contact victims, three of which had adult victims. The offenders' residences and meet/contact locations intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for only one offender in Class 1, where the offender traveled less than 2,500 feet (1,223 feet), met his victim within 2,500 of a restricted location (0 feet of a school), and committed the offense less than 2,500 feet from his residence. The results demonstrate for those offenders in Essex County, the offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims, and contact sometimes occurred in restricted locations.

No significant differences were observed between offenders in Class 1 and offenders in Class 2 residing within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare or religious institutions. A higher percentage of offenders in Class 2 resided within 1,000 feet of a school and a daycare. Since these offenders committed offenses against victims who

were family members or acquaintances, it is unlikely residential proximity had any influence on offenders' victim selection. There are no significant differences between offenders in Class 1 and offenders in Class 2 meeting or contacting victims within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare or religious institutions, although two offenders in Class 1 contacted victims inside a school, and two inside a church.

Table 20 lists the distance traveled in feet from offenders' residences to offense locations by class for those offenders in Essex County. As expected, the offenders in Class 1 traveled on average a further distance to commit offenses than offenders in Class 2.The distances to the offense locations are similar to distances to the meet/contact locations. In Essex County, the offenders in Class 1 traveled on average, well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone to commit offenses, with an average of 7,966 feet traveled. The offenders in Class 2 who offend victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 3,305 feet, well outside most residence restriction law buffer zones of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet. This suggests many offenders committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances did so outside personal residences and traveled a great distance to commit the offenses.

Table 20

Distance from Residence to Offense Locations of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders in Essex County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	10	7,966	6,802	0	18,327
2	6	3,305	5,129	0	10,374

Note. The remaining 12 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 3 displays a map of Essex County and shows the distance offenders traveled from personal residences to offense locations and offense locations by latent class. Twenty-eight offense locations were identified and geocoded. All offense locations were within 2,500 feet of a school, all but one was within 2,500 feet of a daycare, 26 were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution and 22 were within 2,500 feet of a park. The offenses also clustered in the eastern part of the county, with most in the southern portion within Newark and Irvington. The offenders in Class 1 committed offenses mostly in public locations, four of which were restricted landmarks. Two offense locations were different locations than where offenders met victims. Five offenders contacted victims on the street, in which only two were minors and both were more than 2,500 feet from personal residences. Only four offenders in Class 1 traveled less than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims, three of which were adults.
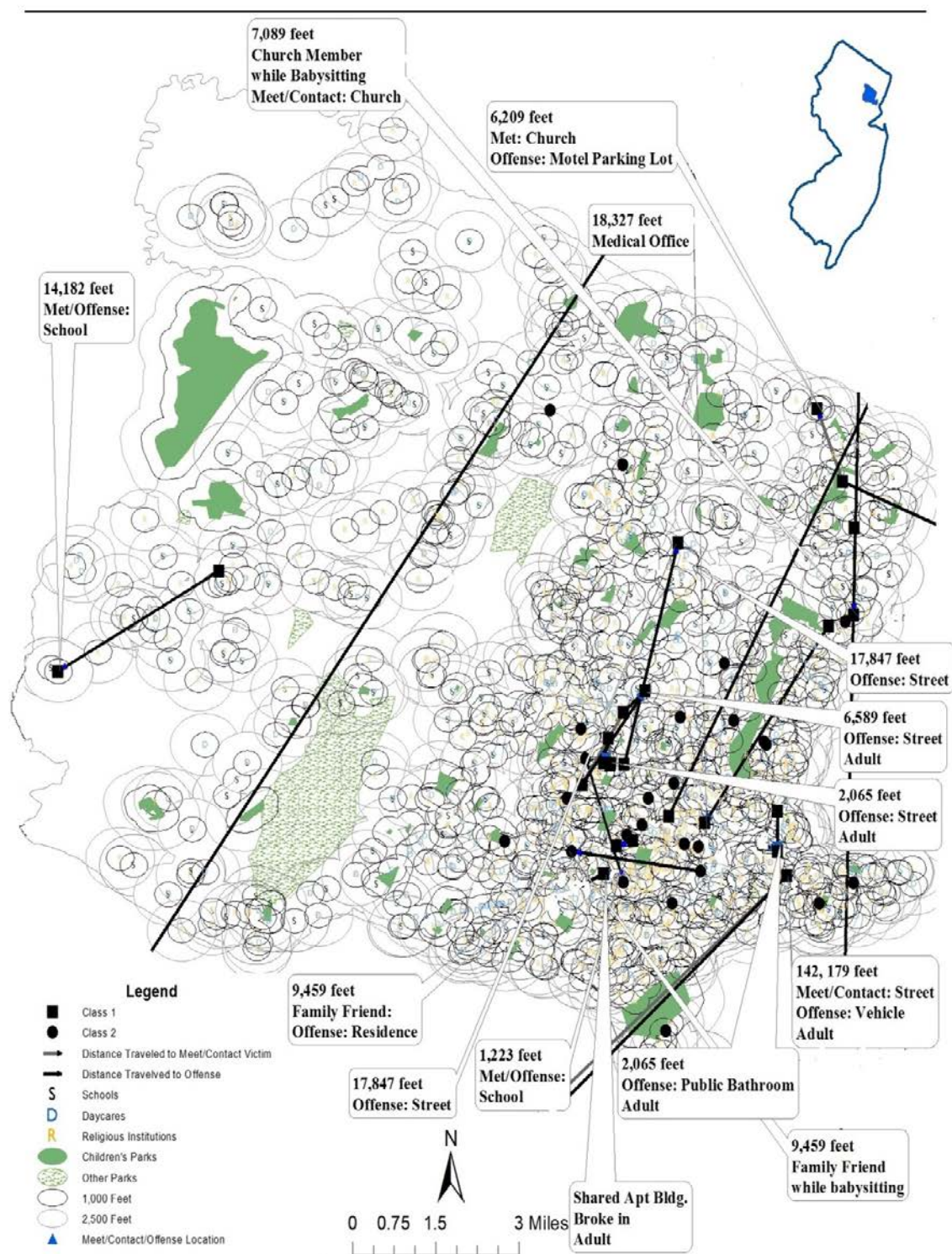
Figure 3. Offender Residence to Victim Meet/Contact and Offense Location: Essex County

Note. Seven missing offense locations for Class 2

These results demonstrate offenders in Class 1 in Essex County traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims and commit offenses, some in restricted landmarks. The offenders' residences and offense locations intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for only one offender in Class 1, where the offender travelled less than 2,500 feet (1,223 feet), committed the offense within 2,500 of a restricted landmark, and traveled less than 2,500 feet from personal residences. There are no significant differences between offenders in Class 1 and offenders in Class 2 committing offenses within either 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare or religious institutions.

B. Bergen County.

Table 21 lists the distance traveled in feet from the offenders' residence to the meet/contact location by class for those convicted in Bergen County. Bergen was one of two counties where the Class 1 offenders, on average, traveled a shorter distance to meet or contact their victims than the Class 2 offenders. Both classes travelled a similar distance that averaged well outside a 2,500-foot zone. In Bergen County, the offenders in Class 1 traveled an average of 30,869 feet, or about six miles to meet/contact victims. The minimum distance offenders in Class 1 traveled was more than 15,000 feet; significantly further than the 2,500 feet of most residence restriction laws. Although the offenders in Class 2 tend to offend family members and close acquaintances, the offenders traveled an average of 11,603 feet, over two miles to contact victims. The offenders in Class 2 who committed offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 34,808 feet, more than six miles. This distance is well outside most residence restriction law buffer zones of 2,500 feet. This suggests many offenders

committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances outside personal residences, travel great distances to access victims.

Table 21

Distance from Residence to Meet/Contact Location of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders in Bergen County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	6	30,869	15,227	15,529	56,231
2	12	34,808	5,129	0	353,617

Note. The 24 remaining offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 4 displays a map of Bergen County and shows the distance the offender traveled from his residence to the meet/contact location by latent class, along with the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around the restricted landmarks. Bergen County is the most populated of the six counties. It has a largest number of schools and parks of the six counties, and the second highest number of daycares and religious institutions. Four hundred ten schools, 83 parks, 412 daycares, and 772 religious institutions were geocoded. Bergen County had 35 sex offender residents and 43 convictions (offenses), seven of which were committed by Class 1 offenders.
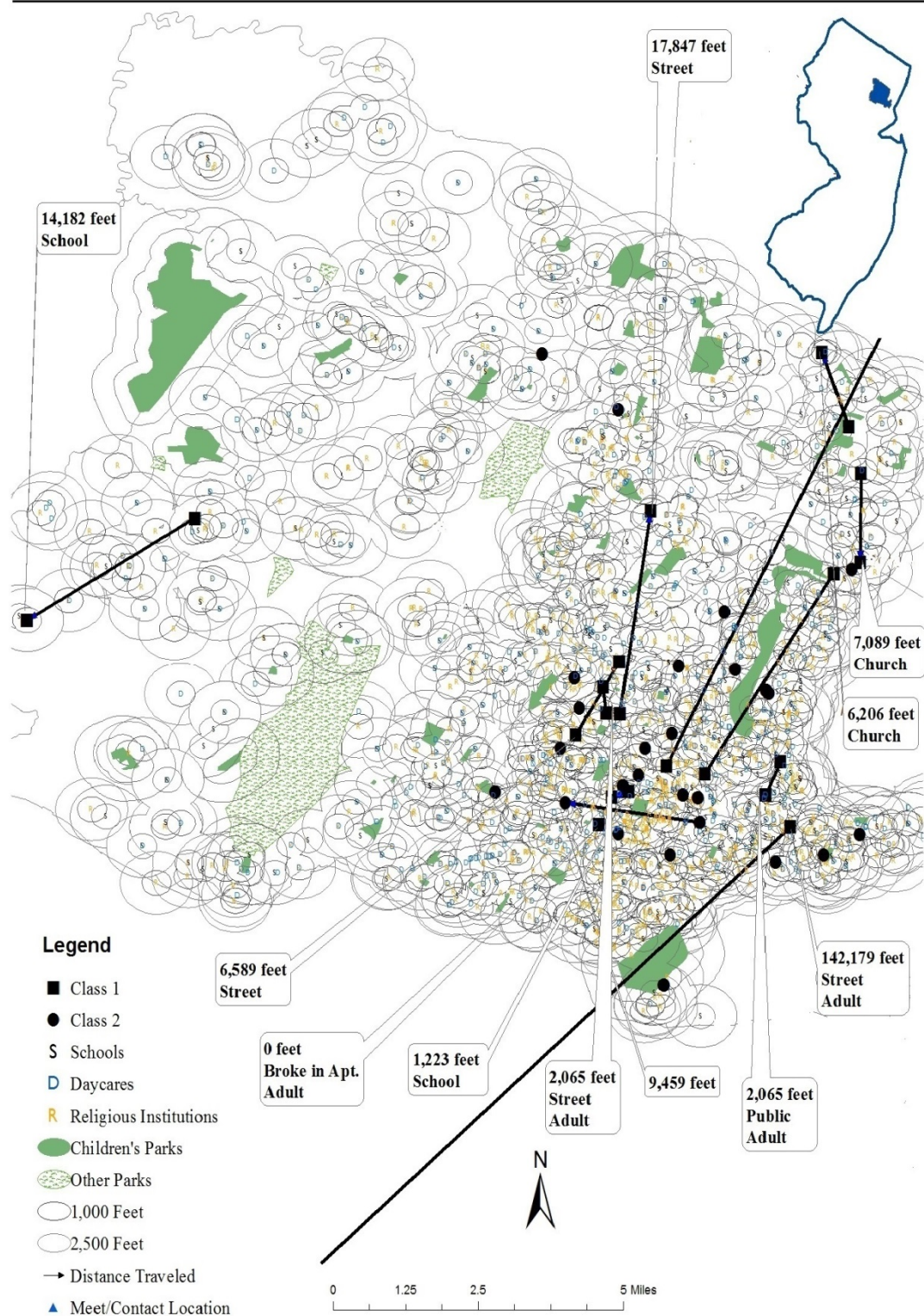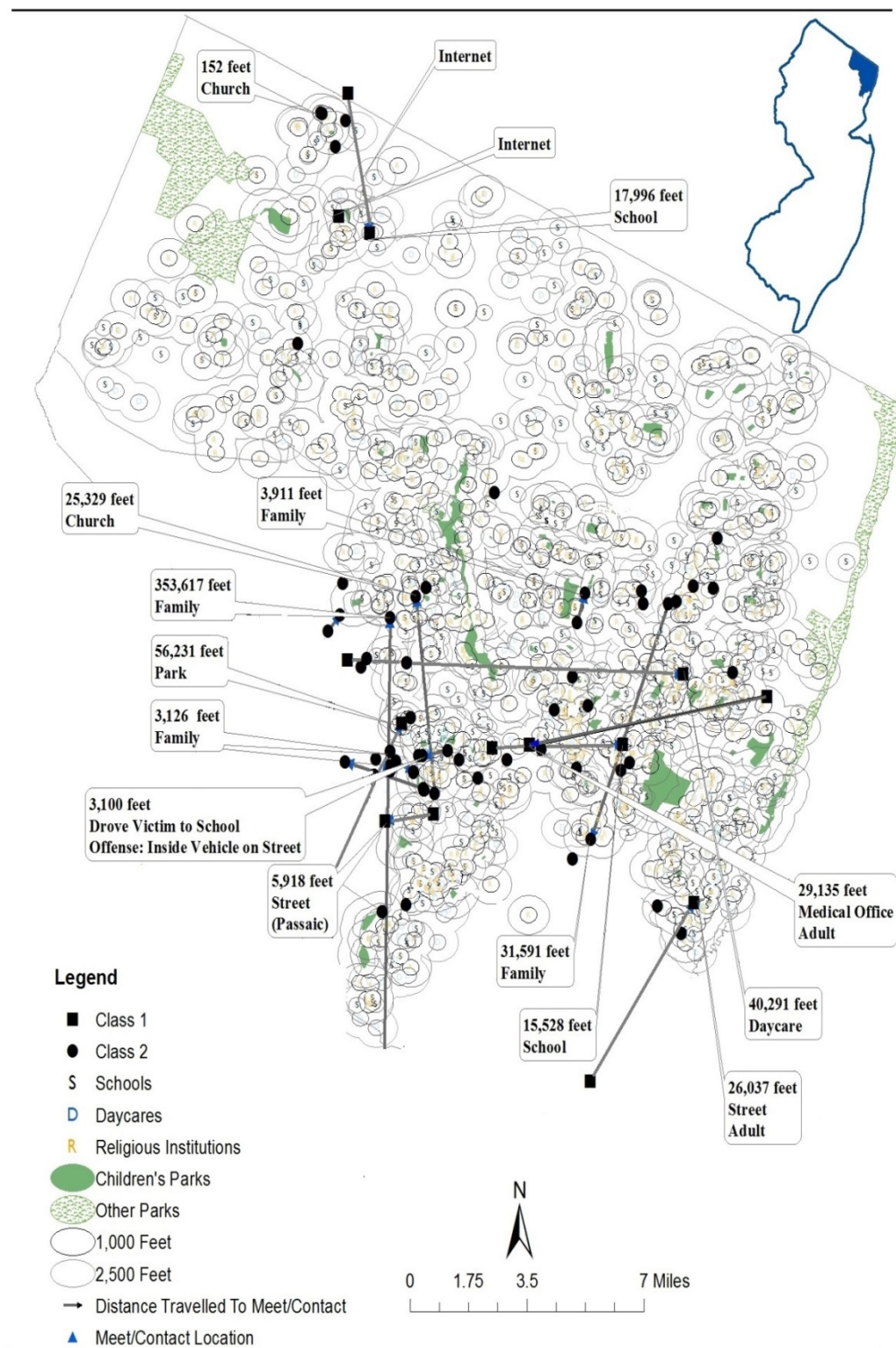
Figure 4. Residence to Victim Meeting/Contact Locations to School, Park, Daycare, and Religious Institution 1,000-ft and 2,500-ft Buffer Zones: Bergen County

Note. One meeting/contact location missing for Class 1: Internet

The sample consisted of 39 offenders who were residents of Bergen County and 43 offenders who were convicted in Bergen County. Forty offenders convicted in Bergen County resided within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 39 resided within 2,500 feet of a school, 35 resided within 2,500 feet of a daycare, and 18 resided within 2,500 feet of a park. Forty-two meet/contact locations were identified and geocoded for the 43 offenders convicted in Bergen County. Forty locations were within 2,500 feet of a school and religious institution, 37 were within 2,500 feet of a daycare, and 21 within 2,500 feet of a park. Most of the offenders' residences and meet/contact locations are in the southern part of the county encompassing a variety of towns. There are some meeting locations clustered in three densely populated cities/towns, Hackensack, Bergenfield, and Garfield (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). All but one of the offenders in Class 1 traveled to contact victims. Of those who did travel to meet/contact victims, all traveled more than ten miles and four were in restricted locations. Two other offenders who contacted victim in a public location had adult victims. The results of those convicted in Bergen County demonstrate the offenders in Class 1 traveled significantly more than 2,500 feet from residence to contact victims, some in restricted locations.

Most offenders in both classes convicted in Bergen County resided within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, and religious institution, with no significant differences. No offenders in Bergen County had all three locations intersect, where offenders travelled less than 2,500 feet, met victims within 2,500 of a in a restricted location, or committed offenses less than 2,500 feet from personal residences. About half of offenders in Class 2 resided within 2,500 feet from a park, compared to only one offender in Class 1. Since the offenders in Class 2 committed offenses against those known or related to themselves,

it is unlikely residing near a park had any influence on offenders' victim selection. Most of offenders in Class 2 did not meet or contact victims within 1,000 feet of a school, but five offenders in Class 1 did. No differences, by class, were observed for offenders meeting or contacting victims within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a park, daycare, or religious institution; though three offenders in Class 1 met victims at either a park, daycare, or religious institution.

Table 22 lists distances traveled in feet from offenders' residences to offense locations by class for those residing in Bergen County. As expected, the offenders in Class 1 traveled on average a further distance to commit offenses than offenders in Class 2. Distances to offense locations are similar to meet/contact locations. In Bergen County, the offenders in Class 1 travelled well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone to commit offenses, with an average distance of 114,361 feet or more than 21 miles. One offender traveled from Ocean County into Bergen County. With this outlier removed, the average distance traveled was 35,783 feet, or about seven miles. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 101,257 feet (19 miles), well outside the buffer zone of 2,500 feet. This suggests many offenders committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances do not commit offenses near personal residences, some traveling a great distance.

Offenders in Class 1, on average, traveled significantly further to commit offenses than to meet victims. This suggests offenders in Class 1 traveled further from personal residences to commit offenses than to meet or contact victims.

Table 22

Distance from Residence to Offense Locations of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2

Offenders in Bergen County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	6	114,361	197,456	17,966	516,509
2	12	31,568	101,257	0	352,721

Note. The remaining 24 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.
Mean distance traveled for Class 1 with outlier removed (516,509 ft.) is 33,932 feet.

Figure 5 displays a map of Bergen County, showing distances offenders traveled

from personal residences to meet/contact locations and offense locations by latent class.

The map also shows the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around restricted

landmarks. Forty-two offense locations were identified and geocoded. Forty offense

locations were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 39 locations were within 2,500

feet of a school, and 21 locations were within 2,500 feet of a park. The offenses were

also spread throughout the county, with small clusters in the densely populated

cities/towns of Hackensack, Bergenfield, and Garfield. All offenders in Class 1 traveled

to commit offenses and all travelled more than two miles from personal residences. One

offender drove 516,509 feet or more than 97 miles to meet with a victim met online.

When this offender is removed, the mean distance traveled for offenders in Class 1

decreases to 35,783 feet. Another offender met a victim in a school, and committed an

internet-related offense. One offender traveled 56,321 feet or more than ten miles to

commit an offense at a park and another traveled 40,921 feet or approximately eight

miles to commit an offense at a daycare. No offenders had all three locations intersect,

where offenders resided within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks, committed offenses

within 2,500 of personal residences, and offense locations were within 2,500 feet of

restricted landmarks and 2,500 feet from personal residences.
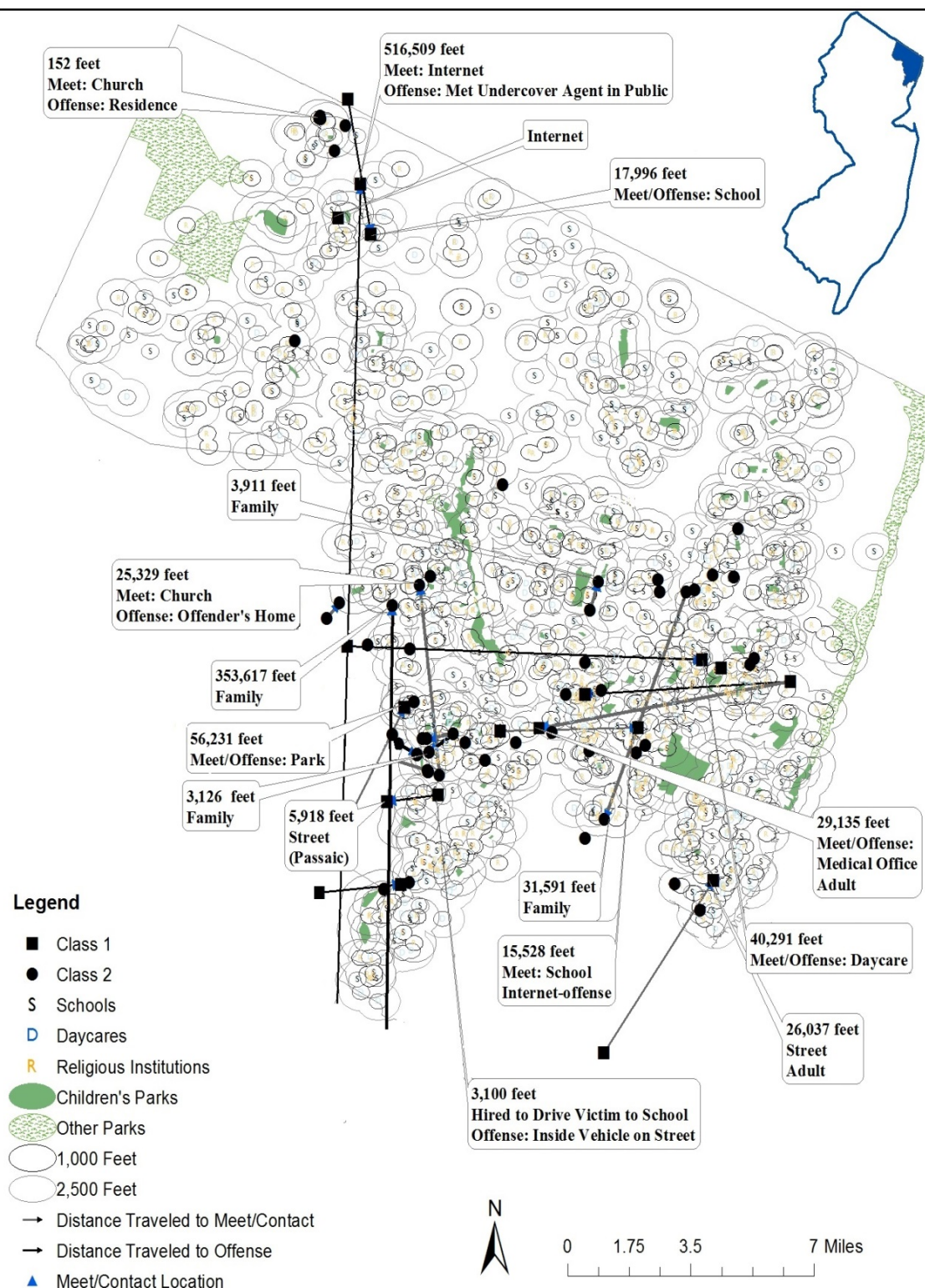
Figure 5. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact and Offense Locations: Bergen County

Note. One meeting/contact location missing for Class 1: Internet

The results for offenders in Bergen County demonstrate offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims and commit offenses, some in restricted landmarks. Most offenders in Class 2 did not commit offenses less than 1,000 feet of a school, whereas most offenders in Class 1 did commit offenses within 1,000 feet of a school. No differences, by class, were observed for offenders committing offenses within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a park, daycare, or religious institution.

C. Passaic County.

Table 23 lists distances traveled in feet from offenders' residences to meet/contact locations by class for offenders in Passaic County. The large standard deviation suggests a wide range of values for the distances, as shown in the minimum and maximum values. As expected, offenders in Class 1 on average traveled significantly further to meet victims than offenders in Class 2. In Passaic County, the six offenders in Class 1 traveled on average, well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone to meet victims, traveling an average of 21,075 feet or about four miles. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 2,650 feet, outside buffer zones of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet. This suggests offenders committing offenses against family members or acquaintances, do not access victims near personal residences.

Table 23

Distance from Residence to Meet/Contact Location of Class 1 and Non-Household

Class 2 Offenders in Passaic County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	6	21,075	23,674	605	66,023
2	19	2,650	6,033	0	22,913

Note. The remaining 20 offenders in Class shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 6 displays a map of Passaic County, showing distances offenders traveled

from personal residences to meet/contact locations by latent class. The map also shows

1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around restricted landmarks. Passaic County is

the smallest of the six counties in this study, is the least populated, and has the smallest

population of residents under the age of 18. Passaic County had the second fewest

number of schools, parks and religious institutions, and the third fewest number of

daycares for the six counties in the study. The sample consisted of 46 offenders who

were residents of Passaic County and 49 offenders who were convicted in Passaic

County. Eight of the offenders convicted were offenders in Class 1. Forty-six offenders

in Passaic County resided within 2,500 feet of a school with 45 residing within 2,500 feet

of a daycare and religious institution and 18 residing within 2,500 feet of park.
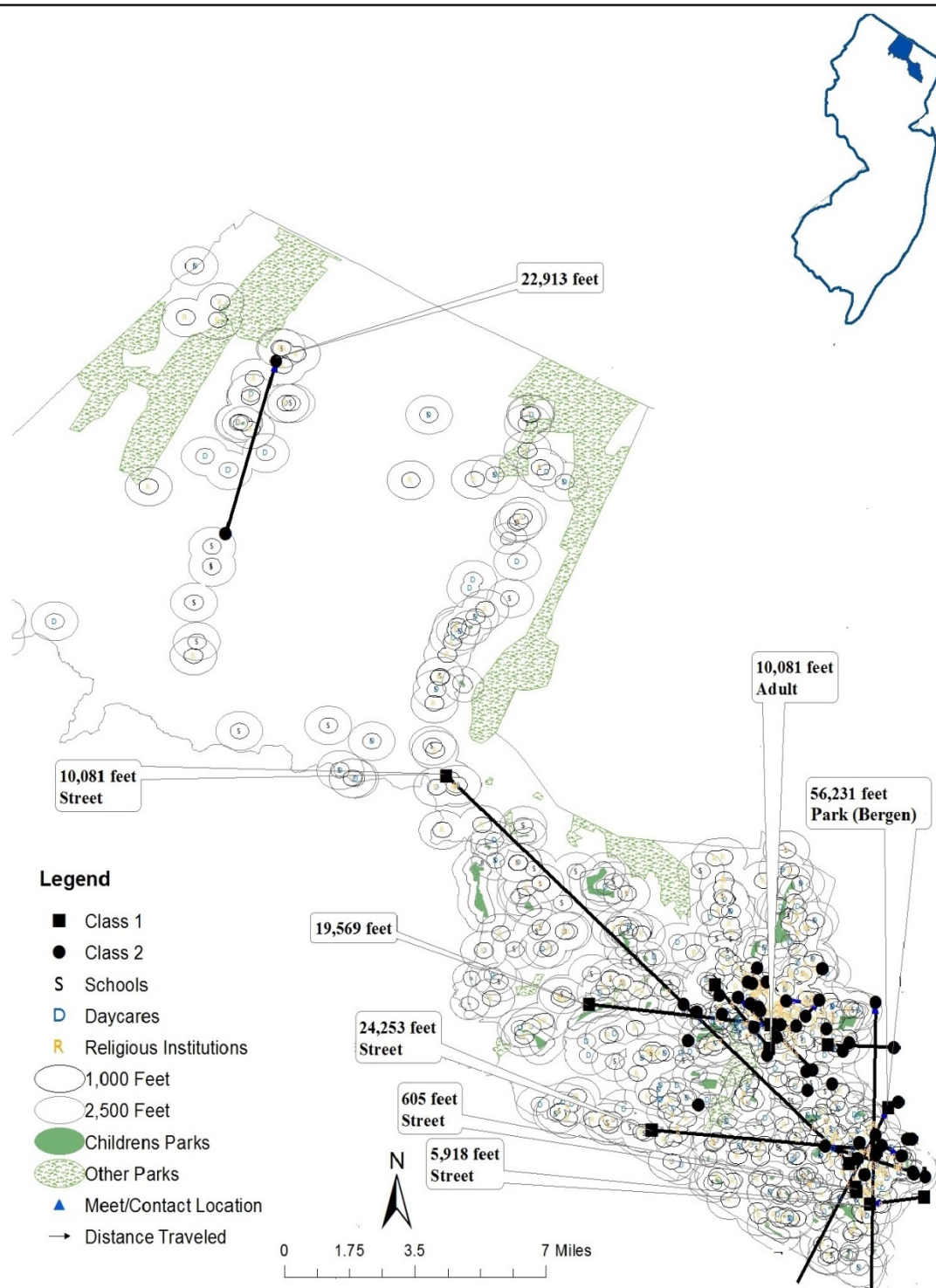
Figure 6. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact Location to School, Park, Daycare, and Religious Institution 1,000-ft and 2,500-ft Buffer Zones: Passaic County
Note. Two meet/contact locations missing for Class 1, and two locations missing for Class 2.

Forty-five meet/contact locations were identified and geocoded. All meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of a school with 44 locations within 2,500 feet of a daycare and religious institution and 16 locations within 2,500 feet of a park. Nearly all offenders' residences and meet/contact locations are located in the southeastern portion of Passaic County, with clusters in the highly populated cities of Patterson and Passaic (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). One offender in Class 2 resided and contacted a victim in Northern Passaic County, and traveled 22,913 feet or about four miles.

Since most offenders' addresses are in the Southern Passaic County, Figure 7 shows distances offenders traveled from personal residences to the meet/contact location by latent class in the southern half of Passaic County. Only one offender in Class 1 traveled less than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact locations. These results suggest the offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims, some in restricted landmarks. Offenders' residences and meet/contact locations intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for only one offender in Class 1, where the offender travelled less than 2,500 feet (605 feet), met a victim within 2,500 of a restricted landmark, committed an offense less than 2,500 feet from a personal residence.

Legend

- ■ Class 1
- ● Class 2
- S Schools
- D Daycares
- R Religious Institutions
- ◯ 1,000 Feet
- ◯ 2,500 Feet
- ⬤ Childrens Parks
- ▨ Other Parks
- → Distance Traveled
- ▲ Meet/Contact Location

Meet/Contact Location: Church

10,081 feet
Met at Employment
Adult

2,559 feet
Family

56,231 feet
Children's Park

353,617 feet
Family

24,253 feet
Street

605 feet
Street

5,918 feet
Street

66,022 feet
Street

3,100 feet

N

0   1   2   4 Miles

Figure 7. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact Location to School, Park, Daycare, and Religious Institution 1,000-ft and 2,500-ft Buffer Zones: Southern Passaic County
Note. Two meet/contact locations missing for both Class 1 and Class 2.

No significant differences were observed between for offenders in Class 1 and in Class 2 residing within 1,000 feet of a school. Nearly all of offenders in Class 2 and most offenders in Class 1 resided within 2,500 feet of a school. No significant differences were observed between offenders in Class 1 and in Class 2 residing within 2,500 feet of a daycare, or park. Most offenders in Class 2 and in Class 1 resided within 2,500 feet of a daycare. Most of the offenders in Class 2 resided within 1,000 feet of a religious institution, whereas most offenders in Class 1 did not. No class differences were observed for offenders residing within 2,500 feet of a religious institution. Since offenders in Class 2 committed offenses against those related or known to them, it is unlikely residing near a school, daycare or religious institution has an influence on offenders' victim selection. There were no significant differences between offenders in Class 1 and in Class 2 meeting or contacting victims within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare or religious institution; although one offender met a victim inside a daycare and one offender met a victim inside a church.

Table 24 lists distances traveled in feet from offenders' residences to offense locations by class for offenders in Passaic County. As expected, offenders in Class 1 traveled on average a further distance to commit offenses than offenders in Class 2. In Passaic County, the offenders in Class 1 traveled an average of 55,184 feet, about ten miles to commit offenses. This is six miles more than the distance travelled to meet/contact victims. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 1,408 feet. This distance is outside most residence restriction law buffer zones of 1,000 feet but inside a 2,500 feet buffer zone. These results suggest offenders in Passaic County committing offenses against

family members or close acquaintances outside the household, do so in close proximity to personal residences.

The offenders in Class 1 traveled, on average, further to commit offenses than to meet/contact victims. Offenders in Class 2, on average, traveled a shorter distance from personal residences to commit offenses than to meet/contact victims. This suggests both offenders in Class 1 and in Class 2 commit offenses in a different location than where offenders meet/contact victims.

Table 24

Distance from Residence to Offense Location of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders in Passaic County

Class	n	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	7	55,184	104,378	0	289,009
2	20	1,408	5,121	0	22,913

Note. The remaining 20 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 8 displays a map of southern Passaic County, showing distances offenders traveled from personal residences to meet/contact locations and offense locations by latent class. The map also shows the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around restricted landmarks. Forty-seven offense locations were identified and geocoded. Forty-six offenders committed offenses within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare and religious institution, and 17 committed offenses within 2,500 feet of a park. The offenses

are also clustered in the cities of Patterson and Passaic. The offenders in Class 1 traveled to contact victims. Seven of these contact locations were in public and two of these were in restricted landmarks. All but one of the offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences. Two offenders in Class 1 committed offenses in personal residences, of which one victim was an adult. Most offenders in Class 1 committed offenses at meet/contact locations; one offender brought a victim to another location before committing the offense. One offender met a victim on the internet, and drove approximately 55 miles out of county to a meet location in a parking lot. The offenders' residences and offense locations intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for only one offender in Class 1. In this case, the offender travelled less than 2,500 feet (605 feet), committed an offense within 2,500 of a restricted landmark, and was less than 2,500 feet from a personal residence.

Figure 8. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact and Offense Locations: Southern Passaic County
Note. One offense location missing for both Class 1 and Class 2.

The results for offenders in Class 1 convicted in Passaic County demonstrate offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims and commit offenses, some in restricted landmarks. No differences were observed between offenders in Class 1 or Class 2 committing offenses within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution, although one offender in Class 1 committed an offense inside of a daycare.

D. Middlesex County.

Table 25 lists distances traveled in feet from offenders' residences to meet/contact locations by class for offenders in Middlesex County. The large standard deviation suggests a wide range of values for the distances, as shown in the minimum and maximum values. The offenders in Class 1 traveled on average, well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone to meet victims, traveling an average of 41,968 feet or about eight miles. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 47,458 feet (9 miles), well outside the buffer zone of 2,500 feet. These results suggest offenders in Middlesex County committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances outside personal residences, travel a great distance to access victims.

Table 25

Distance from Residence to Meet/Contact Location of Class 1 and Non-Household

Class 2 Offenders in Middlesex County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	7	41,968	50,377	633	142,179
2	11	47,458	110,259	0	337,227

Note: The remaining 32 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 9 displays a map of Middlesex County and shows the distance the offender traveled from his residence to the meet/contact location by latent class along with the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around the restricted landmarks. Of the six counties, Middlesex had the third greatest number of schools (304) and daycares (316), and fourth greatest number of and religious institutions (661) and parks (69). Middlesex County is the second largest of the six counties and had the greatest number of residents and offenses. Middlesex County had 51 sex offender residents and 54 convictions (offenses); eight were committed by Class 1 offenders. Forty-seven offenders convicted in Middlesex County resided within 2,500 feet of a school, 44 within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 41 within 2,500 feet of a daycare, and 22 within 2,500 feet of a park.
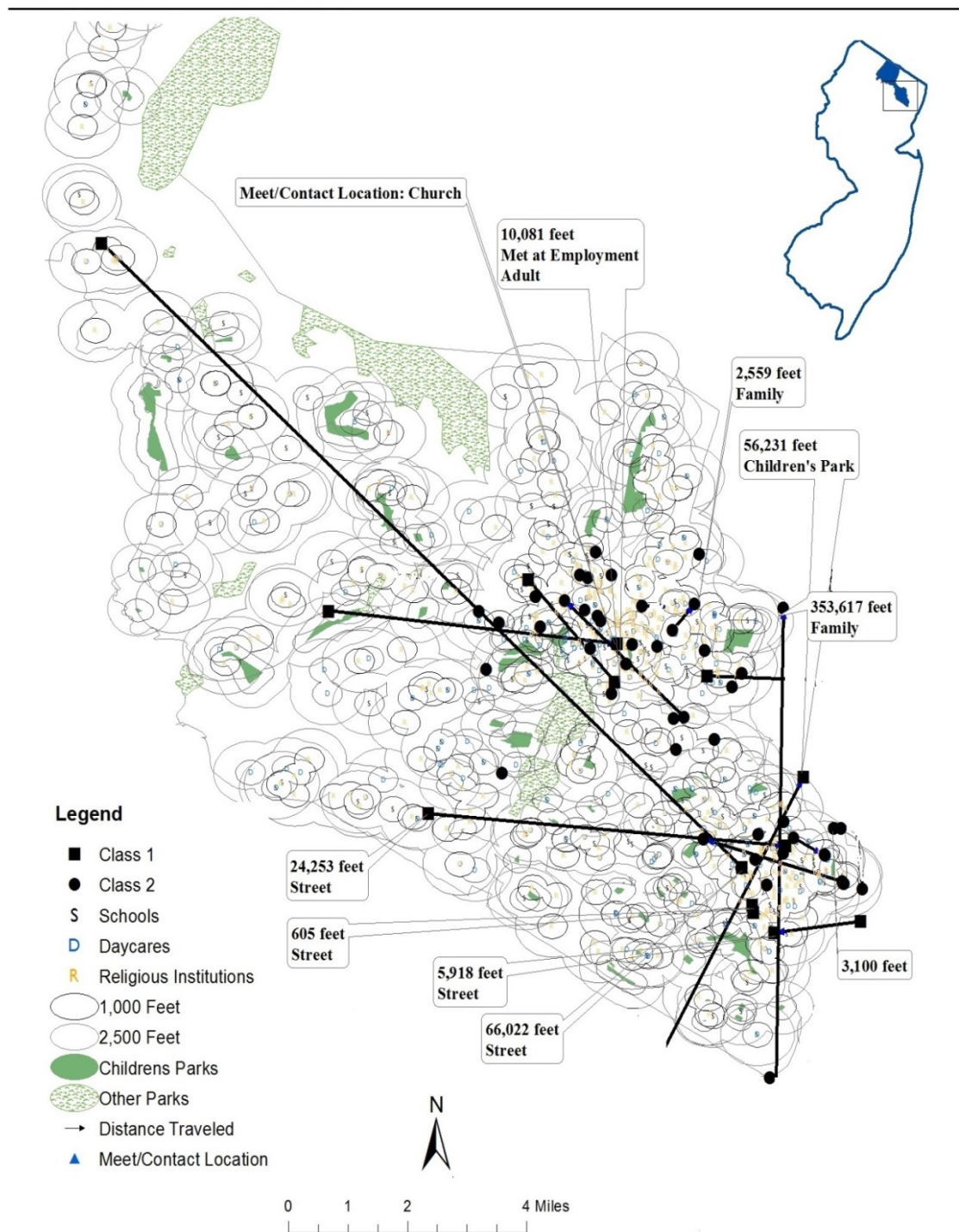
Figure 9. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact Location to School, Park, Daycare, and Religious Institution 1,000-ft and 2,500-ft Buffer Zones: Middlesex County
Note. One missing meet/contact location for Class 1, and five missing locations for Class 2.

Fifty meet/contact locations were identified with 48 geocoded. Forty-seven meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 43 locations were within 2,500 feet of a school, 36 locations were within 2,500 feet of a daycare, and 19 locations were within 2,500 feet of a park. One offender offended a victim in a personal residence, and another offender offended a victim approximately 35 miles from a personal residence. However, the address was similar to another address, and therefore, not displayed on the map. The residences and meet/contact locations are spread throughout the county and encompass a number of towns, with two clusters near the densely populated towns of Perth Amboy and New Brunswick (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Most offenders in Class 1 traveled to meet/contact victims, and none occurred at one of the four restricted landmarks. One offender met their victim on the internet. Only two offenders in Class 1 traveled less than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims. These results demonstrate the offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims. The offenders' residences and meet/contact locations intersected in a restricted buffer zone for two offenders.

Most offenders in both classes resided and met victims within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, and/or religious institution. No differences were observed for offenders in Class 1 or in Class 2 either residing or meeting victims within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. No offenders in Middlesex County met or contacted victims inside one of the restricted landmarks.

Table 26 lists distances traveled in feet from offenders' residences to offense locations by class for offenders in Middlesex County. The distances travelled to offense locations are significantly shorter than the distances traveled to meet/contact victims.

This suggests offenders in both classes committed offenses, on average, closer to personal residences than the meet/contact locations. The offenders in Class 1 traveled well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone with an average of 22,082 feet or about four miles. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 18,776 feet (3.5 miles), well outside the 2,500 feet buffer zone. These results suggest offenders committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances outside the household, travel a great distance to commit offenses. Offenders in Class 2, on average, traveled a smaller distance to commit offenses than to meet/contact locations. This suggests offenders in both Class 1 and in Class 2 commit offenses in locations closer to personal residences than meet/contact locations.

Table 26

Distance from Residence to Offense Location of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2 Offenders in Middlesex County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	7	22,082	25,686	0	56,036
2	10	18,776	56,888	0	180,596

Note: The remaining 32 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 10 displays a map of Middlesex County, showing distances offenders traveled from personal residences to meet/contact locations and offense locations by latent class. The map also shows 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around

restricted landmarks. Forty-nine offense locations were identified and geocoded. Forty-two offense locations were within 2,500 feet of a school, 40 locations were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 33 locations were within 2,500 feet of a daycare, and 19 locations were within 2,500 feet of a park. The offense locations were spread throughout the county, with clusters in Perth Amboy and New Brunswick. Of the offenders in Class 1, only one committed an offense at a personal residence. One offender committed an internet-related offense, two offenders traveled less than 2,500 feet and four traveled further than 2,500 feet from personal residences. Although several offense locations were in public, none was at restricted landmarks.
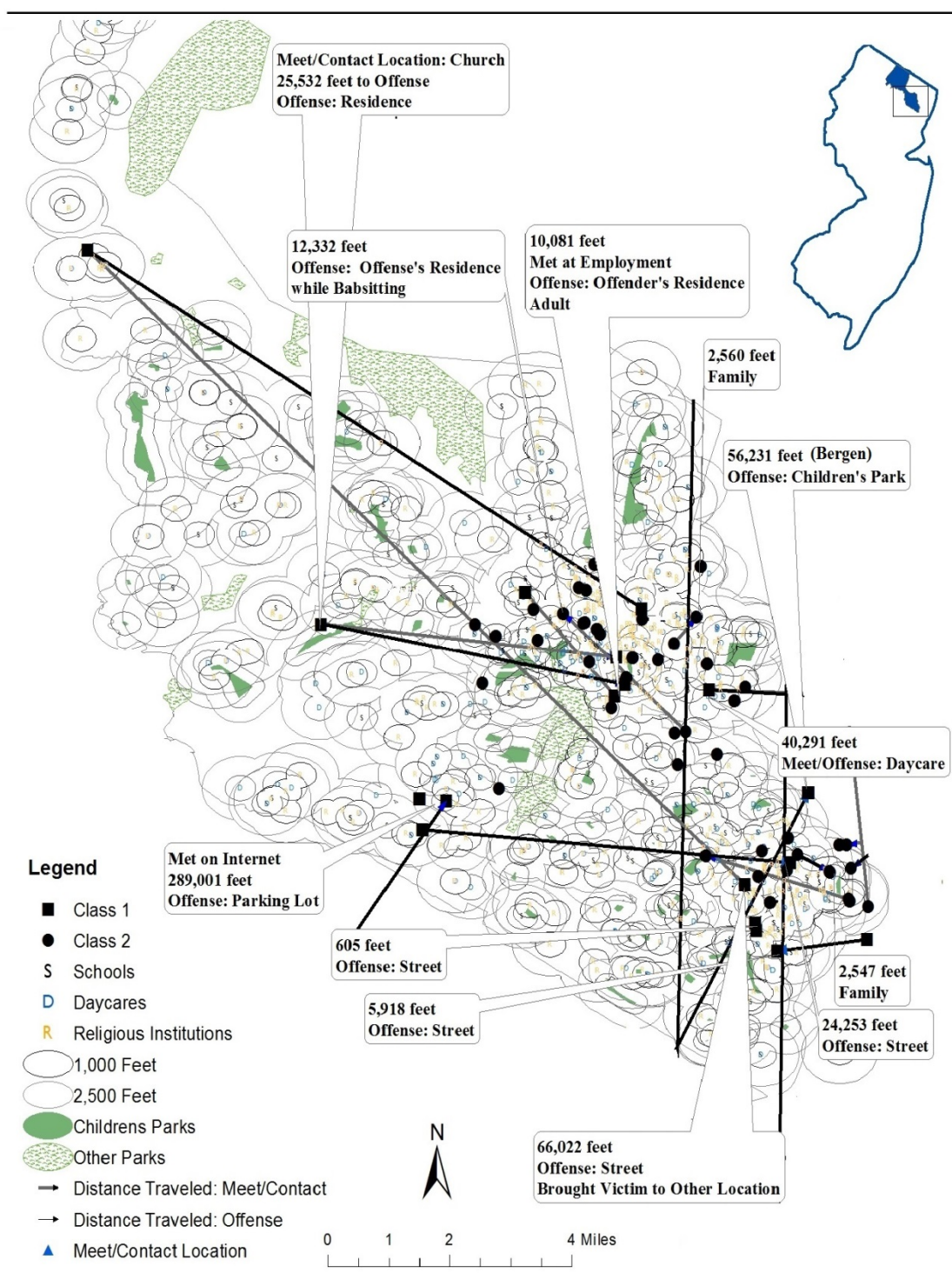
Figure 10. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact and Offense Locations: Middlesex County
Note. One offense location missing for Class 1 and four locations missing for Class 2.

The results for offenders in Middlesex County demonstrate the offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims and commit offenses. Most of the offenders committed offenses within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, or religious institution, with fewer offenses occurring within 2,500 feet of a park. The offenders' residences and offense locations intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for two offenders, in which offenders resided within 2,500 feet of at least one restricted landmark, traveled less than 2,500 feet to commit an offense (633 feet, 1,496 feet), and both locations were within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. No differences were observed for offenders in Class 1 or in Class 2 for committing offenses within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution.

E. Camden County.

Table 27 lists distances traveled in feet from offenders' residences to meet/contact locations by class for offenders in Camden County. The large standard deviation suggests a wide range of values for the distances, as shown in the minimum and maximum values. Camden County had the greatest number of offenders in Class 1. As expected, the offenders in Class 1 traveled significantly further to meet or contact victims than offenders in Class 2. In Camden County, the offenders in Class 1 traveled on average, well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone to meet victims, with an average of 22,747 feet or about four miles. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 14,046 feet (2.5 miles), well outside buffer zones of 1,000 and 2,500 feet. These results suggest many offenders committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances outside personal residences, travel a great distance to access victims.

Table 27

Distance from Residence to Meet/Contact Location of Class 1 and Non-Household

Class 2 Offenders in Camden County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	11	22,747	31,433	0	100,831
2	13	14,046	21,406	0	60,991

Note: The remaining 24 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 11 displays a map of Camden County, showing distances offenders traveled from personal residences to the meet/contact locations by latent class. The map also shows the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around the restricted landmarks. Camden County had the third smallest number of schools and parks, the second smallest number of daycares and the fourth smallest number of religious institutions of the six counties. The sample consisted of 47 offenders who were residents of Camden County and 52 offenders who were convicted in Camden County. Of the 52 offenders convicted in Camden County, 14 were offenders in Class 1. Fort-eight of the offenders convicted in Camden County resided within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 39 resided within 2,500 feet of a school, 31 resided within 2,500 feet of a daycare, and 16 resided within 2,500 feet of a park.
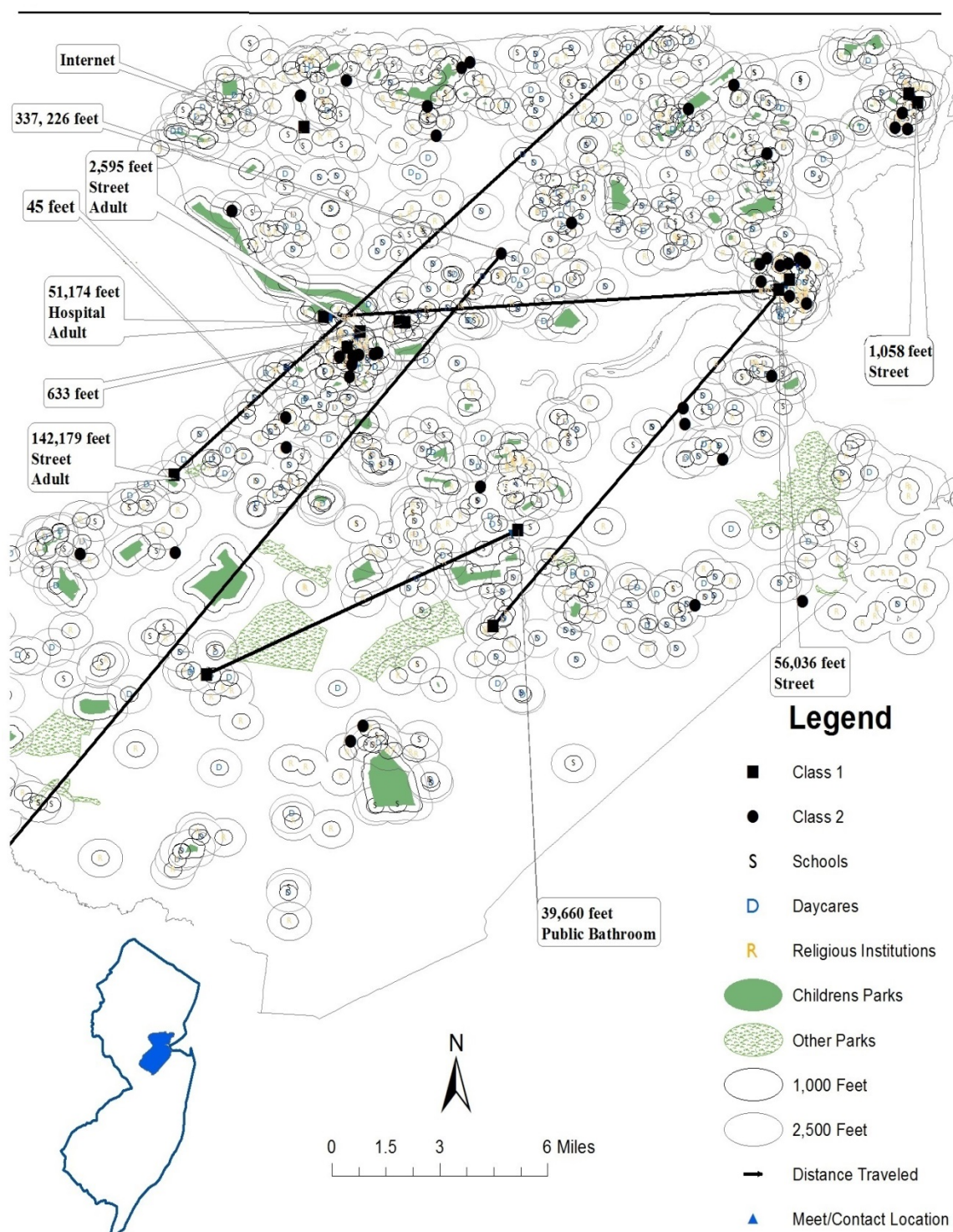
Figure 11. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact Location to School, Park, Daycare, and Religious Institution 1,000-ft and 2,500-ft Buffer Zones: Camden County

Note. Three meet/contact locations missing for Class 1, and one location missing for Class 2.

Forty-eight meet/contact locations were identified and geocoded. Forty-five meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 42 locations were within 2,500 feet of a daycare, 39 locations were within 2,500 feet of a school, and 18 locations were within 2,500 feet of a park. The residences and meet/contact locations tend to be located in the northern and western portion of the county and encompass a number of towns, with several clustered in the moderately populated city of Camden (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). As the map demonstrates, all but three offenders in Class 1 traveled to contact victims. Of the three who did not travel, two offended victims residing in the same apartment building, and one offended an adult in a motel where the offender was staying. The remaining offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims. Most offenders in Class 1 contacted victims in public locations, four of which were restricted landmarks. The offenders' residences and meet/contact locations intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for two offenders, in which offenders resided within 2,500 feet of at least one restricted landmark, traveled less than 2,500 feet to meet/contact victims, and the meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. These two offenders shared an apartment building with victims. The results for the offenders in Camden County demonstrate the offenders in Class 1 traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims, some in restricted landmarks.

Most offenders, regardless of class, resided within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, or religious institution, with fewer residing within 2,500 feet of a park. No significant differences were observed between offenders in Class 1 and in Class 2 residing within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. No differences

were observed between classes for offenders meeting or contacting victims within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a school, however one offender contacted a victim on a school bus. No differences were observed between classes for meeting or contacting victims within 1,000 feet of a park, although two offenders in Class 1 met victims inside a park. Most of the offenders in Class 2 did not meet or contact victims within 2,500 feet of a park, but eight of the 11 offenders in Class 1 did. No differences were observed between classes for offenders meeting or contacting victims within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a daycare, or religious institution, however one offender in Class 1 met a victim inside a church.

Table 28 lists distances traveled in feet from offenders' residences to offense locations by class for offenders in Camden County. In Camden County, the offenders in Class 1 traveled on average well outside a 2,500 foot zone, averaging 16,278 feet or about 3 miles. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses personal outside residences, traveled on average, 8,723 feet (1.6 miles), well outside the buffer zones of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet. This suggests offenders committing offenses against family members or close acquaintances outside the household, travel a great distance to commit offenses.

Offenders in both classes traveled on average a smaller distance to commit offenses than to meet victims. This suggests offenders in Class 1 and in Class 2 residing in Camden County commit offenses in locations closer to personal residences than the meet/contact locations.

Table 28

Distance from Residence to Offense Location of Class 1 and Non-Household Class 2

Offenders in Camden County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	11	16,278	22,293	0	59,773
2	13	8,723	18,427	0	61,037

Note. The remaining 24 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 12 displays a map of Camden County, showing distances offenders

traveled from personal residences to meet/contact locations and offense locations by

latent class. The map also shows the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around

restricted landmarks. Forty-eight offense locations were identified and geocoded. Forty-

six offense locations were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 40 locations were

within 2,500 feet of a daycare and/or school, and 19 locations were within 2,500 feet of a

park. The offense locations tended to be in the northern and eastern portion of the

county. Four of the eleven offenders in Class 1 did not travel to commit offenses. The

remaining offenders in Class 1 traveled more than one mile to commit offenses with three

offense locations at restricted landmarks. The offenders' residences and offense locations

intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for three offenders, in which offenders resided

within 2,500 feet of at least one restricted landmark, traveled less than 2,500 feet to

commit offenses, and the offense locations were within 2,500 feet of a restricted

landmark. Two offenders shared an apartment building with victims, and one offender

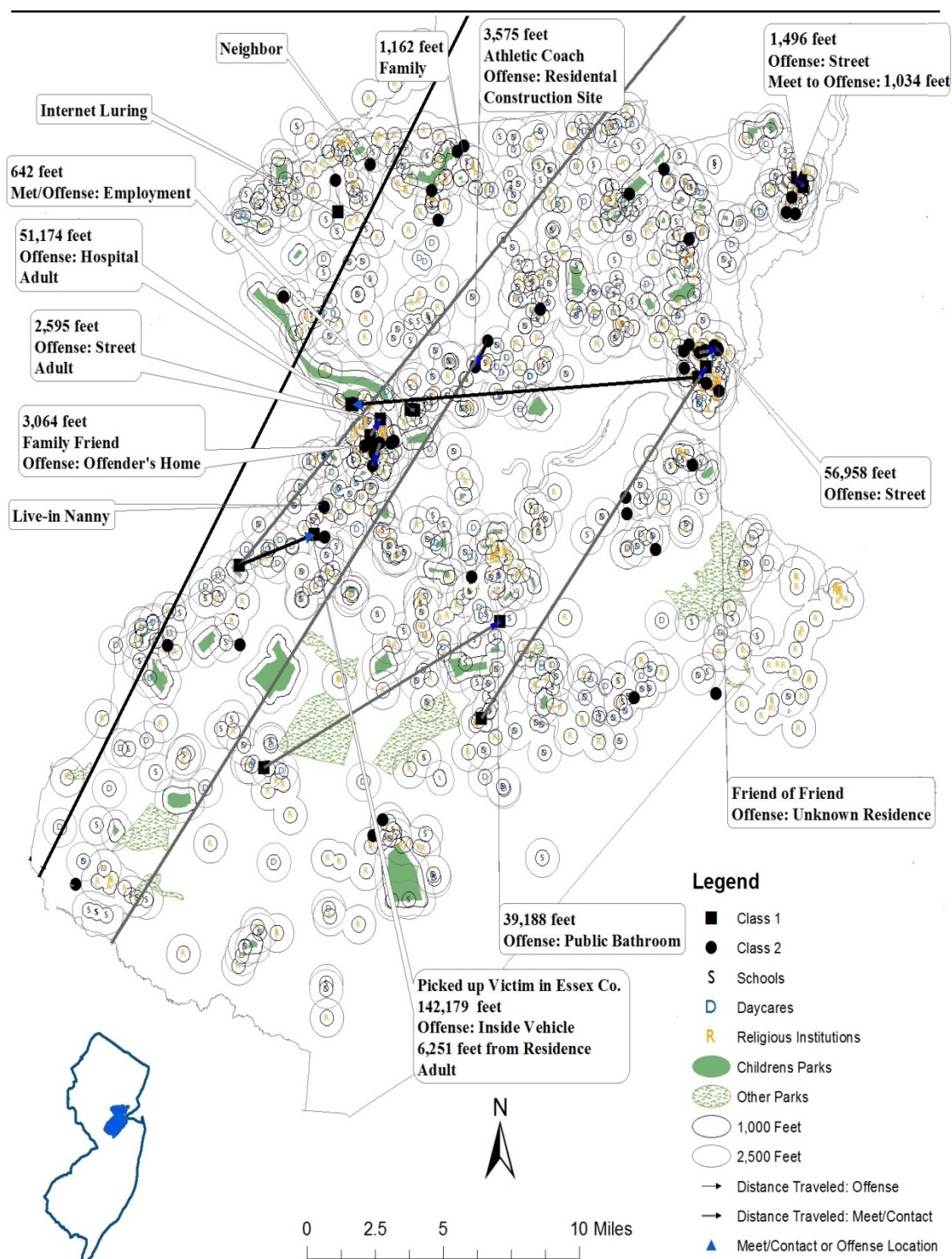brought a victim he met on the street to a personal residence.
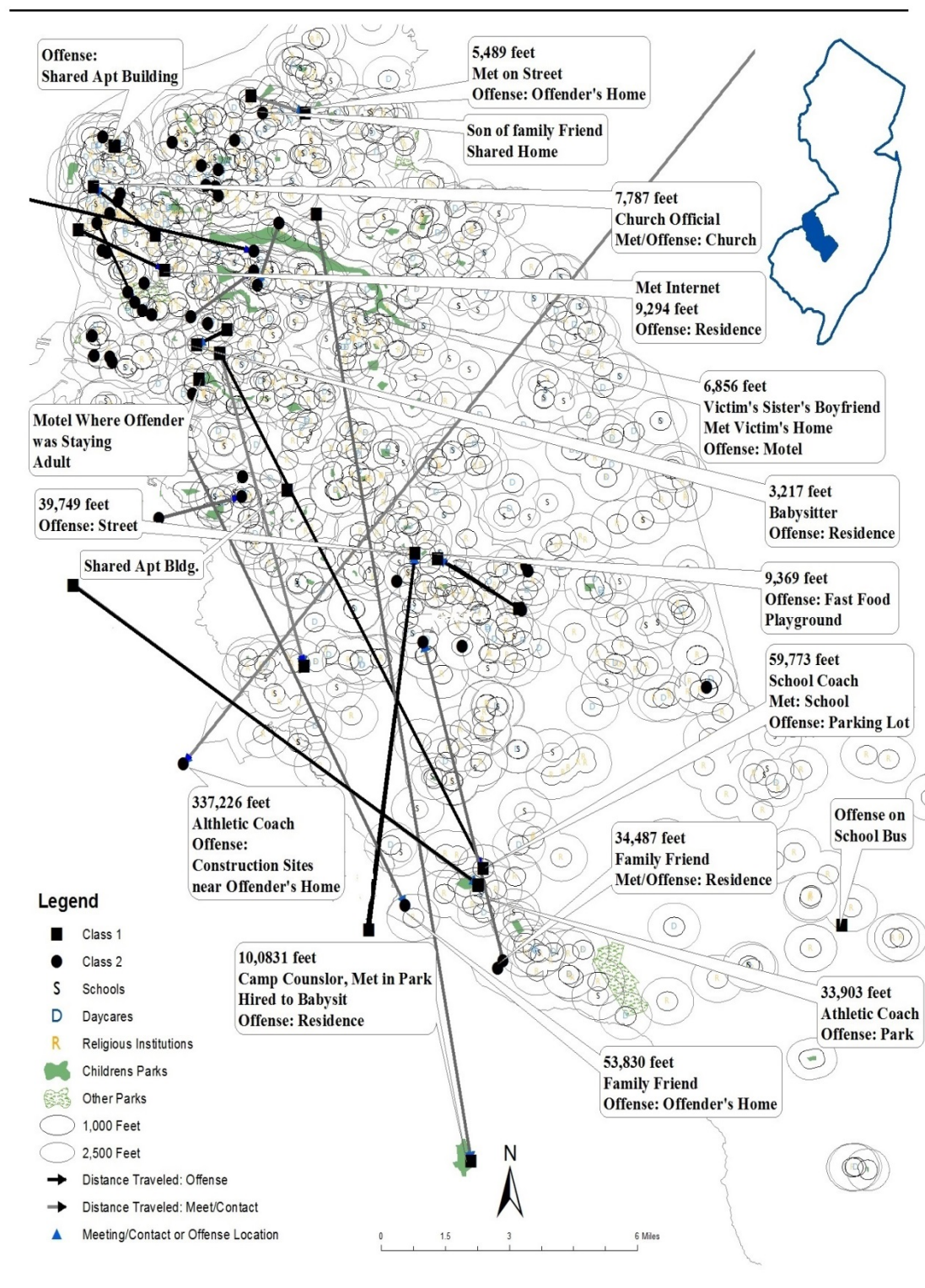
Figure 12. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact and Offense Locations: Camden County
Note. Three offense locations missing for Class 1, and one location missing for Class 2.

No differences were observed between classes for offenders committing offenses within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a school, although one Class 1 offender committed an offense on a school bus. No differences were observed between classes for offenders committing offenses within 1,000 feet of a park. Most offenders in Class 2 did not commit offenses within 2,500 feet of a park, yet eight of the 11 offenders in Class 1 did. No differences were observed between classes for offenders committing offenses within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a religious institution, although one offender in Class 1 committed an offense inside a church. The results for offenders in Camden County demonstrate offenders in Class traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to contact victims and commit offenses, some in restricted landmarks.

F. Ocean County.

Table 29 lists distances traveled in feet from the offenders' residences to meet/contact locations, by class for offenders in Ocean County. The offenders in Ocean County travelled the least distance to meet/contact victims. Ocean County had the smallest number of offenders in Class 1. The offenders in Class 1 traveled an average of 890 feet, well within both a 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot zone, yet three residents met victims on the internet. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 618 feet well inside buffer zones of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet. This suggests many offenders living in Ocean County committing offenses against family members or acquaintances outside personal residences, access victims in close proximity to personal residences.

Table 29

Distance from Residence to Meet/Contact Location of Class 1 and Non-Household

Class 2 Offenders in Ocean County

Class	n	Mean (feet)	Standard deviation	Minimum (feet)	Maximum (feet)
1	3	890	1,541	0	2,669
2	12	618	1,638	0	5,524

Note. The remaining 21 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 13 displays a map of Ocean County, showing distances offenders traveled from personal residences to meet/contact locations by latent class along with the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around restricted landmarks. Ocean County is the largest of the six counties, is the least densely populated and has the smallest number of landmarks. One hundred twenty-nine schools, 44 parks, 165 daycares, and 245 religious institutions were geocoded for County. The sample consisted of 38 who were residents of Ocean County, and 37 offenders who were convicted in Ocean County, four of which were offenders in Class 1. Ocean County had the smallest percentages offenders residing within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. Nineteen offenders in Ocean County resided within 2,500 feet of a daycare, 16 within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, 14 within 2,500 feet of a school, and seven within 2,500 feet of a park. The personal residences and meet/contact locations are spread throughout the county. All of these locations were in towns with a population density of less than 8,000 persons per square mile.
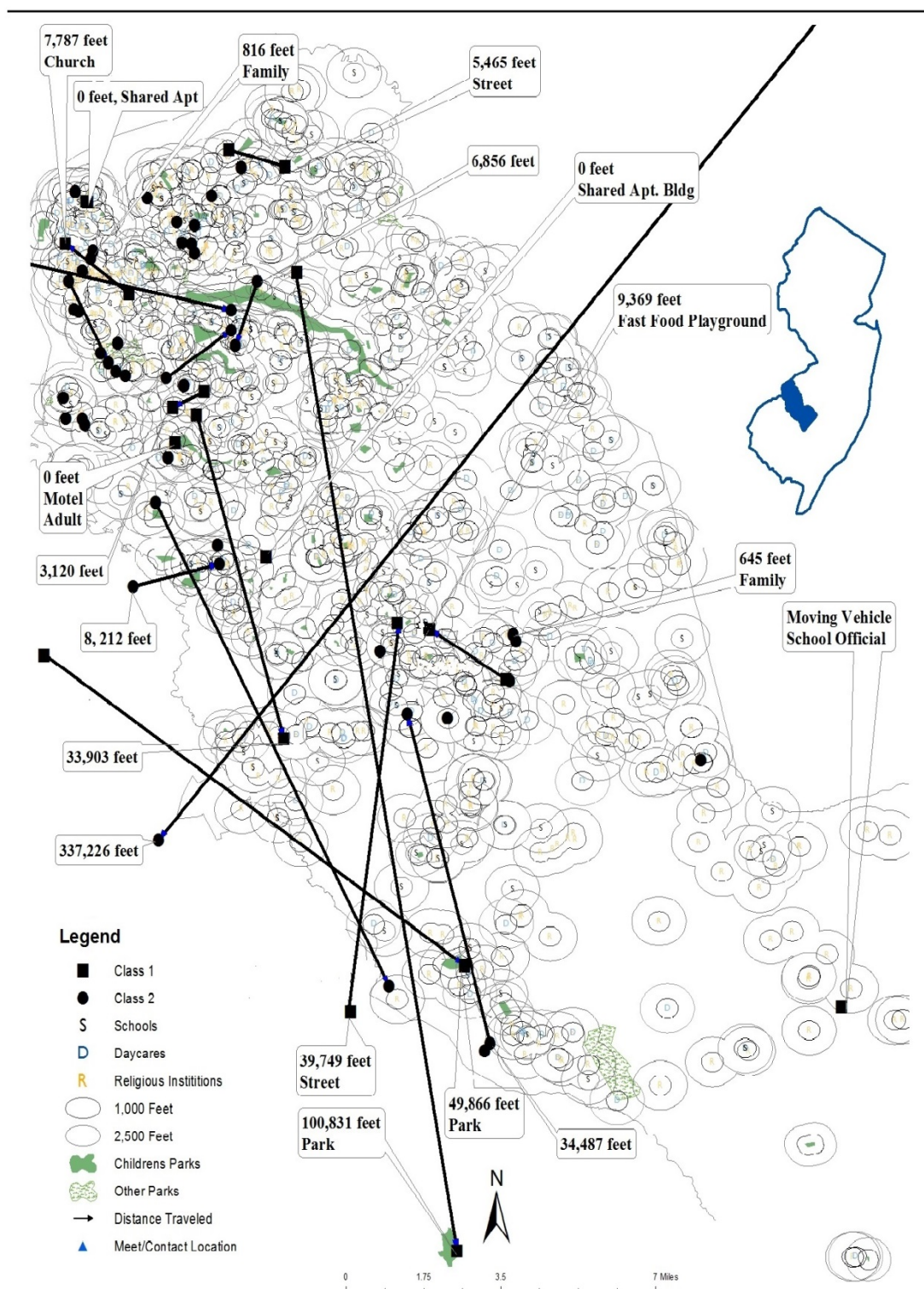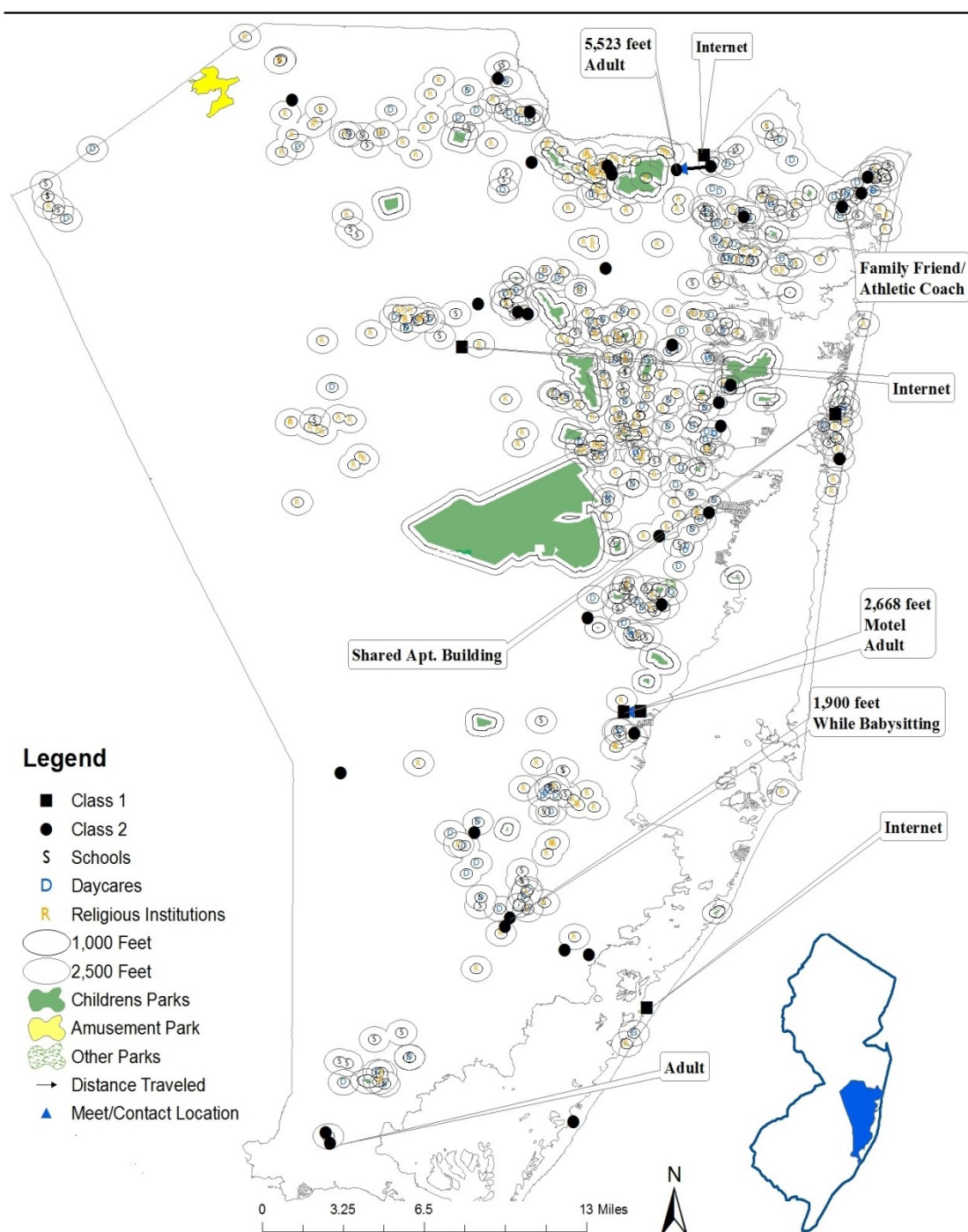
Figure 13. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact Location to School, Park, Daycare, and Religious
Institution 1,000-ft and 2,500-ft Buffer Zones: Ocean County
Note. Three meet/contact locations missing for Class 1: internet.

Thirty-five meet/contact locations were identified for the 37 offenders who were convicted in Ocean County. Three offenders in Class 1 contacted victims on the internet, one of which was convicted in another county. Nineteen meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of a religious institution, eighteen within 2,500 feet of a daycare, 14 within 2,500 feet of a school, and five within 2,500 feet of a park. As the map demonstrates, offenders in Class 1 living in Ocean County tend to meet victims on the internet, and not in restricted landmarks. The offenders' residences and meet/contact locations intersected in a restricted area buffer zone for one offenders, in which offenders resided within 2,500 feet of at least one restricted landmark, traveled less than 2,500 feet to meet/contact victims, and used meet/contact locations within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. This offender shared an apartment building with his victim. No class differences were observed for offenders residing or meeting/contacting victims within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a park, daycare, or religious institution.

Table 30 lists the distance traveled in feet from offenders' residences to offense locations by class for offenders in Ocean County. As expected, offenders in Class 1 traveled further to commit offenses than offenders in Class 2. The offenders in Class 1 traveled on average of 3,884 feet, well outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone. The offenders in Class 2 committing offenses against victims outside personal residences, traveled on average, 460 feet, well inside most buffer zones of 1,000 feet and 2,500 feet. This suggests many offenders committing offenses against family members or acquaintances outside personal residences, commit those offenses in close proximity to personal residences.

Table 30

Distance from Residence to Offense Location of Class 1 and Non-Household

Class 2 Offenders in Ocean County

Class	n	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	3	3,884	6,728	0	11,654
2	12	460	1,594	0	5,524

Note. The remaining 21 offenders in Class 2 shared a residence with their victim.

Figure 14 displays a map of Ocean County, showing distances offenders traveled

from personal residences to meet/contact locations and offense locations by latent class

along with the 1,000-foot and 2,500-foot buffer zones around restricted landmarks.

Thirty-six offense locations were identified and geocoded. Ocean County had the

smallest percentage of offense locations within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks.

Nineteen offense locations were within 2,500 feet of a daycare, 16 were within 2,500 feet

of a religious institution, 14 with 2,500 feet of a school, and 6 within 2,500 feet of a park.

All offense locations were in towns with population density of less than 8,000 persons

per square mile (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). The offenders in Class 1 tended to meet

victims on the internet. One of the offenders met a victim on the internet and committed

offenses in a park near the victim's residence. One offender traveled more than 2,500

feet to meet an adult victim at a nearby motel. Offenders' residences and meet/contact

locations intersected in a restricted buffer zone for one offender. This offender resided

within 2,500 feet of at least one restricted landmark, traveled less than 2,500 feet to

commit offenses (0 feet), and the location was within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. No class differences were observed for offenders committing offenses within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of a park, daycare, or religious institution, although one Class 1 offender committed his offense inside a Bergen County park.
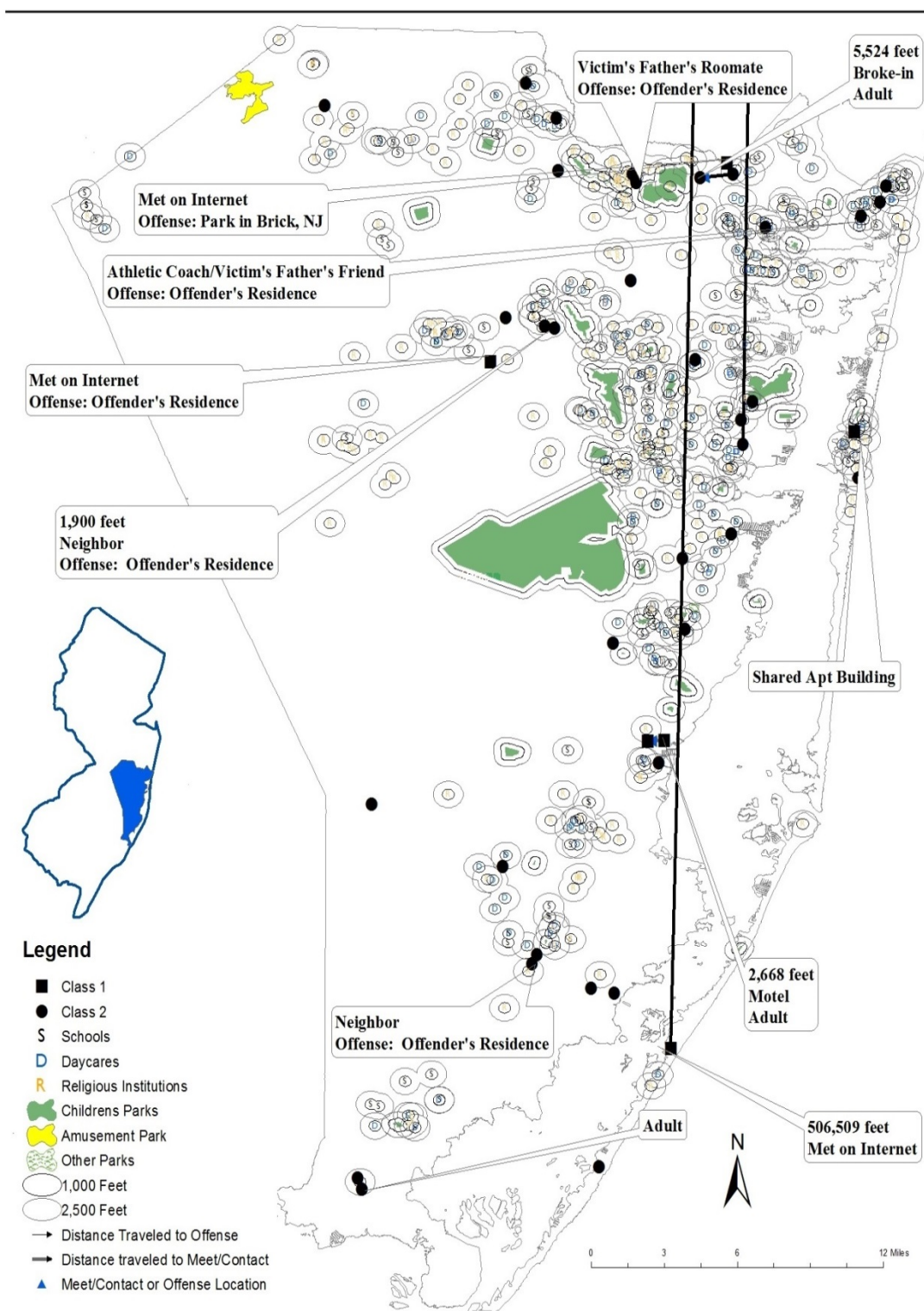
Figure 14. Residence to Victim Meet/Contact and Offense Locations: Ocean County
Note. One missing offense location for Class 1.

The spatial analysis demonstrates differences among proximity patterns between offenders in Class 1 and 2. Most offenders in Class 1 traveled from personal residences to meet or establish contact with victims, most offenders travelled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences, committed offenses in public, and committed 14 of 51 offenses in a restricted location. In contrast, almost all offenders in Class 2 established contact with victims in personal residence. All but nine offenders in Class 1 traveled from personal residences to commit offenses, and of those who did travel, only five offenders traveled less than 2,500 feet. Most offenders in Class 1 committed offenses in public, ten of which occurred in restricted locations. Of the offenders in Class 2 who did travel, only one offense occurred in a restricted location.

In contrast, most Class 2 offenders did not travel from their residence to meet/contact their victim, and most committed their offense inside their own residence. This was expected due to the characteristics of Class 2 offenders. However, of the Class 2 offenders who did offend against non-household victims, many traveled well outside a 1,000-foot and/or 2,500-foot zone from their residence. This analysis demonstrates that the "stereotypical" Class 1 offenders tend to travel outside common buffer zones distances of 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet. It also demonstrated that the "traditional" Class 2 offenders, who tend to offend relatives and close acquaintances, also traveled outside the common buffer zones distances of 1,000 feet or 2,500 when offending a non-household victim. Ocean County, which was the least densely populated, was the only county where the average distances traveled were less than 1,000 feet.

It is unclear whether the number of schools, parks, daycares, and religious institutions influences offenders' access to victims. No consistent patterns were seen

with county size, the number of restricted landmarks within the county, the number of

offenses, or offenses committed by offenders in Class 1. For example, Essex County, the

most densely populated county with the greatest number of religious institutions and

daycares, the second greatest number of schools and parks, but had the smallest number

of offenders and offenses. However, Essex County has the second highest number of

Offenders in Class 1 (10) who traveled the second least number of feet to commit

offenses (3,885 ft.). However, the offenses in Essex tend to cluster in the larger cities,

places with more crime and potential victims. Offenses by offenders in both Class 1 and

2occured in urban and suburban areas, with little to no differences in residential

proximity, victim meet/contact proximity, and offense proximity to restricted landmarks.

The only clear pattern seen was with Ocean County, the least densely populated, having

the smallest number of restricted landmarks, and the second fewest number of offenders

and convictions, with the fewest number of offenders in Class 1.

The spatial analysis demonstrated residing within 2,500 feet of a restricted

location has little influence on offenders in Class 1 gaining access to victims, since most

of these offenders do not meet or commit offenses within 2,500 feet of personal

residences. There is also no pattern regarding the number of schools, parks, daycares,

and religious institutions and the distance offenders travel to meet/contact victims or to

commit offenses. The spatial analysis revealed for eight offenders, personal residences

were within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks, the meet/offense locations were within

2,500 feet of restricted landmarks, and meet/offense locations were within 2,500 feet of

the residence. There does not appear to be any differences among offenders committing

offenses against family members or acquaintances, to offenders committing offenses

against strangers or acquaintances met in public when considering meeting or committing offenses within 1,000 feet or 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. However, a large minority of offenders in Class 1 met or contacted victims and committed offenses inside restricted locations (see table 33). This suggests schools, parks, daycares, and religious institutions are locations for some offenders to gain access to victims. The following chapter on the conjunctive analysis examines this phenomenon in more detail.

Chapter 5: Conjunctive Analysis

A conjunctive analysis (CA) was conducted to provide an aggregated compilation of all possible combinations for offender, victim, and offense characteristic variables simultaneously. CA, in one table, can examine if the three locations (i.e., offenders residences, meet locations, at least one restricted landmark) intersect within a 2,500-foot buffer zone. The CA grouped characteristics of offenders by latent class, and showed the percentage of offenders' residences, meet locations, or committed offenses within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. The spatial analysis revealed for eight offenders, offenders' residences were within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks, the meet/offense locations were within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks, and were within 2,500 feet of offenders' residences Consequently, a 2,500-foot RR law would be considered practicable if sex offenders resided within 2,500 of restricted landmarks, and met or contacted victims or committed offenses within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks near personal residences.

Residence to Landmarks

The first CA table (see Table 31) displays a matrix of offender, offense, and victim characteristics. The six independent variables examined were; meet/contact method, employed/volunteered in a restricted landmark, contact offense, victim age, more than one victim, and distance of residence to meet/contact location. The independent variables in the CA table have multiple attributes (see Appendix B). The meet/contact method contains four attributes: employment, street/public, internet, or indirectly. Whether offenders were employed or volunteered in restricted landmarks, if offenses were contact offenses, and if offenders had more than one known victim were coded as

binary. The victim age variable has three attributes: (a) under 12 years of age, (b) between 12 and 17 years of age, and (c) adult. The distance offenders traveled to meet/contact victims has three attributes: (a) zero feet, (b) less than or equal to 2,500 feet, or (c) more than 2,500 feet. The dependent variables examined in this analysis were coded as binary, offender residing ($\leq$ 2,500 feet) or (> 2,500 feet) from a school, park, daycare, or religious institution.

There are 288 possible different combinations of variables (4 x 2 x 2 x 3 x 2 x 3 = 288), in which the CA provided 54 different case configurations for the six variables, 32 offenders for Class 1 and 22 for Class 2. The N Case lists the number of offenders in the sample with those combinations of variable attributes or case configuration. The E symbolizes Epsilon, and gives a measure of uncertainty for all independent variables in a category. The Epsilon was calculated in the syntax: 1 / (1 + N Cases). The greater the number of N Cases, the lower the Epsilon, and therefore, the lower level of uncertainty. The highest Epsilon displayed is 0.50, for one N Case: (1 / 1 + 1) = (1/2) or 0.50.

Table 31 displays the matrix for the CA, in which there are 32 configurations for the 51 Offenders in Class 1. Therefore, there were no large clusters of Offenders in Class 1, suggesting these offenders vary considerably on the six variables. The largest cluster contained six offenders (configuration 24), who met/contacted victims on the street or in public, victims were adults, and offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to meet victims. Most of these offenders resided within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks. Since these offenders had adult victims, and traveled more than 2,500 feet, it is unlikely residing near restricted locations had any influence on victim selection.

The next cluster contained four offenders, who met victims on the street or in public, victims were under 12, but offenses were non-contact (configuration 25). These offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet to meet victims, yet most offenders lived within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks. It appears these offenders traveled to locations away from personal residences to expose themselves to children in public. There were three clusters of three offenders (configurations 2, 5, 16). The first two clusters met victims through employment/volunteer and were employed/volunteered in restricted landmarks. Three offenders had victims under the age of 12, three had victims who were between 12 and 17 years of age, and had more than one known victim. These offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet to meet/contact victims and lived within 2,500 feet of three restricted landmarks. The third cluster of three offenders (configuration 16) met victims via the internet, did not have physical contact with victims, victims were between 12 to 17 years of age, and had no other known victims. Only one of the three resided within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks. For all four of these Class 1 clusters, residing within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks likely had little to no influence on victim selection because victims were adults, offenders met or contacted victims more than 2,500 feet from personal residences, or offenders met victims at places of employment or via the internet.

Sixteen offenders in Class 1 met victims through places of employment or volunteer duties, 12 of these meeting places were in restricted landmarks. Of the 14 offenders who met minor victims at places of employment, ten had more than one victim. Using the number of N cases, eight offenders who met minor victims at places of employment/volunteer resided within 2,500 feet of all four landmarks, ten resided within

2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks, and three resided within 2,500 feet of only one landmark. Since these offenders met victims at places of employment/volunteer, it is unlikely residing in close proximity to restricted landmarks had any influence on victim selection.

Eight offenders met victims via the internet, three had physical contact with victims, only one victim was under the age of 12, and one offender had more than one known victim. Only one of these offenders met victims on the internet and resided within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks. Three of these offenders resided within 2,500 feet of three landmarks, and two resided more than 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks. It appears offenders who met victims on the internet lived further from schools, parks, daycares and religious institutions, suggesting personal residences in less populated areas, and lacking access to potential victims.

Twenty-one of the 51 offenders in Class 1 met or contacted victims on the street or in public, six committed non-contact offenses, 12 offenders had minor victims and nine had adult victims. Of these 12 offenders with minor victims, only two traveled less than 2,500 feet from personal residences to meet/contact victims. Nine of these 12 offenders resided within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks, 14 resided within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks, and all resided within 2,500 feet of at least two. Since most of these offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to meet victims in public, resided within 2,500 feet of at least one of the restricted landmarks likely had little influence on meeting victims.

Six offenders in Class 1 met victims in a shared apartment building or neighborhood, or indirectly (through a friend or family member of victim). Most of these

offenders resided within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks, and all but one resided less than 2,500 of three landmarks. Since these offenders met victims through someone victims knew and trusted, and three victims were brought to offenders' residences, it is unlikely residing near one of the restricted landmarks had any influence on offenders gaining access to victims.

The 219 offenders in Class 2 had two large clusters and two smaller clusters, suggesting offenders in Class 2 are more similar on the independent variables. The largest cluster consisted of 99 offenders (configuration 42), who offended family members or contacted victims indirectly, were not employed in restricted landmarks, had physical contact with victims, had victims under the age of 12, had no other known victims, and did not travel to contact victims. Most of these offenders resided within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks.

The second cluster of 54 offenders (configuration 49) in Class 2 share all the same variables as the first cluster, except victims were between 12 and17 years of age. Most of these offenders resided within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks. The next cluster consisted of 15 offenders (configuration 38). These offenders shared the same characteristics of the first cluster of 99, but had more than one known victim, and most of resided within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks. The next cluster consisted of ten offenders. These offenders shared the same characteristics of the second cluster of 54, but had victims under the age of 12, and traveled more than 2,500 feet to meet or establish contact with victims. Most of these offenders also resided within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks.

Only three Offenders in Class 2 met victims through places of employment and were employed or volunteered in restricted landmarks. All three offenders had victims between 12 and 17 years of age, two had more than one known victim, and the distance traveled to meet/contact victims varied. None of these offenders resided within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks, and all resided within 2,500 feet of at least two landmarks. Since the offenders Class 2 met victims indirectly or through places of employment, RR laws would not be relevant. Only 12 offenders in Class 1 met/contacted minor victims on the street or in public. Of these 12, two traveled less than 2,500 from personal residences and resided within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks (configuration numbers 18, 20). Therefore, of the 270 sex offenders in the study, only two had victim contact and residential proximity patterns consistent with the rationale behind the implementation of current RR laws.

Table 31

Offender, Offense, and Victim Characteristics and the Distance of Offender's Residence to Landmarks by Class, n=270

Conf. no.	Meet Method	Employ Restrict	Contact Offense	Victim Age	>1 Victim	Reside to Meet	Resided ≤2,500ft School	Resided ≤2,500ft Park	Resided ≤2,500ft Daycare	Resided ≤2,500ft Rel. Inst.	E	N Case
Class 1												
1	Employ.	Yes	Yes	< 12	Yes	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
2	Employ.	Yes	Yes	<12	Yes	>2,500	67	67	100	67	0.25	3
3	Employ.	Yes	Yes	<12	Yes	-	0	0	0	100	0.50	1
4	Employ.	Yes	Yes	<12	No	>2,500	0	0	0	100	0.50	1
5	Employ.	Yes	Yes	12-17	Yes	>2,500	100	0	67	67	0.25	3
6	Employ.	Yes	Yes	12-17	No	>2,500	100	50	100	100	0.33	2
7	Employ.	Yes	No	12-17	No	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
8	Employ.	No	Yes	<12	Yes	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.33	2
9	Employ.	No	Yes	12-17	Yes	≤2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
10	Employ.	No	Yes	Adult	Yes	>2,500	0	0	0	100	0.50	1
11	Employ.	No	Yes	Adult	No	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
12	Internet	Yes	Yes	12-17	Yes	-	0	0	0	0	0.50	1
13	Internet	Yes	No	12-17	No	-	100	100	0	100	0.50	1
14	Internet	No	Yes	12-17	No	-	0	50	50	50	0.33	2
15	Internet	No	No	<12	No	-	0	0	0	0	0.50	1
16	Internet	No	No	12-17	No	-	67	33	33	100	0.25	3
17	Street	No	Yes	<12	Yes	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
18	Street	No	Yes	12-17	Yes	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
19	Street	No	Yes	12-17	Yes	>2,500	0	0	100	100	0.50	1

table continues

Conf. no.	Meet Method	Employ Restrict	Contact Offense	Victim Age	>1 Victim	Reside to Meet	Resided ≤2,500ft School	Resided ≤2,500ft Park	Resided ≤2,500ft Daycare	Resided ≤2,500ft Rel. Inst.	E	N Case
20	Street	No	Yes	12-17	No	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
21	Street	No	Yes	12-17	No	>2,500	50	50	100	100	0.33	2
22	Street	No	Yes	Adult	No	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
23	Street	No	Yes	Adult	No	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.33	2
24	Street	No	Yes	Adult	No	>2,500	67	50	83	67	0.14	6
25	Street	No	No	<12	No	>2,500	100	0	75	75	0.20	4
26	Street	No	No	12-17	No	>2,500	50	50	50	50	0.33	2
27	Indirect	Yes	No	<12	No	0	0	100	100	100	0.50	1
28	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	Yes	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
29	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	Yes	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
30	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	No	0	100	0	100	0	0.50	1
31	Indirect	No	Yes	Adult	No	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
32	Indirect	No	No	<12	No	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
Class 2												
33	Employ.	Yes	Yes	12-17	Yes	≤2,500	0	0	100	100	0.50	1
34	Employ.	Yes	Yes	12-17	Yes	>2,500	100	0	100	0	0.50	1
35	Employ.	Yes	Yes	12-17	No	0	100	100	100	0	0.50	1
36	Indirect	Yes	Yes	<12	No	0	0	0	0	0	0.50	1
37	Indirect	Yes	Yes	12-17	No	0	50	0	50	50	0.33	2
38	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	Yes	0	67	33	73	67	0.06	15
39	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	Yes	≤2,500	50	0	100	50	0.33	2

table continues

Conf. no.	Meet Method	Employ Restrict	Contact Offense	Victim Age	>1 Victim	Reside to Meet	Resided ≤2,500ft School	Resided ≤2,500ft Park	Resided ≤2,500ft Daycare	Resided ≤2,500ft Rel. Inst.	E	N Case
40	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	Yes	>2,500	60	40	40	80	0.17	5
41	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	Yes	-	100	75	100	100	0.20	4
42	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	No	0	87	37	83	88	0.01	99
43	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	No	≤2,500	100	25	75	75	0.2	4
44	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	No	>2,500	90	60	90	90	0.09	10
45	Indirect	No	Yes	<12	No	-	100	50	100	100	0.20	4
46	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	Yes	0	100	100	100	100	0.33	2
47	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	Yes	>2,500	50	50	0	50	0.33	2
48	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	Yes	-	100	50	100	100	0.33	2
49	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	No	0	91	40	83	92	0.02	54[a]
50	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	No	>2,500	100	67	100	100	0.25	3
51	Indirect	No	Yes	12-17	No	-	67	33	100	100	0.25	3
52	Indirect	No	Yes	Adult	No	0	50	50	100	50	0.33	2
53	Indirect	No	Yes	Adult	No	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
54	Indirect	No	Yes	Adult	No	>2,500	0	100	0	0	0.50	1

Note. – indicates a missing meet/contact location

Conf.no. = Configuration Number

Rel. Inst. = Religious Institution

Employ= Meet through employment of volunteering

Street = Street or in Public

Indirect= Meet method indirectly or neighbor

[a] One offender residence location missing

Victim Meet/Contact Location to Landmarks

For the social proximity and physical proximity patterns of sexual offending to be consistent with the rationale behind the implementation of a 2,500-foot residence restriction law, offenders must have directly contacted minor victims in public. These public locations must also be within 2,500 feet of offenders' residences, and within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks, which are within 2,500 feet of offenders' residences. The second CA table (see Table 32) displays a matrix for offender, offense, and victim characteristics, and the percentage of offenders who met or contacted victims within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. The same independent variables from Table 31 were used with the additional variable; met/contact location was in a restricted landmark. There are 576 possible different case combinations (4 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 3 x 3 = 576) in which the CA provided 56 different case configurations. Ten case configurations were removed since 23 meet/contact locations were unknown or offenders met victims on the internet. This resulted in 27 different combinations for 42 offenders in Class 1 and 19 combinations for 206 offenders in Class 2. The largest cluster for Class 1 consisted of six offenders (configuration 19) who met/contacted victims on the street, victims were adults, and most offenders' met/contacted victims within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. Since victims were adults and traveled more than 2,500 feet, the proximity to restricted landmarks is likely due to urban planning and had no effect on offenders' victim selection.

There were three clusters of offenders (configurations 1, 3, 20) in Class 1. The first two clusters of three met victims through employment/volunteer duties, were employed or volunteered in restricted landmarks, met victims inside restricted landmarks, and committed contact offenses. Three offenders had victims less than 12 years of age, three offenders had victims between 12 and 17 years of age, and all had more than one known victim. Most of these offenders had meet/contact locations within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks, but were located more than 2,500 feet from offenders' residences. The third cluster of offenders met victims on the street or in public and committed non-contact offenses with victims under the age of 12, but did not make contact of offend in a restricted landmark. Two of these meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks and one was within 2,500 feet of three landmarks but were also more than 2,500 feet from offenders' residences. These offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences, had different victims, meeting locations, and offense types. Although meeting/contact locations may have been in or near restricted landmarks, the distance traveled suggests residing close to restricted landmarks does not influence offenders' victim selection.

Of the 15 offenders in Class 1 who met minor victims at places of employment, two also had adult victims. Of the 13 offenders with only minor victims, 11 offenders had meet/contact locations in restricted landmarks. Four of these locations were within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks, and ten were within 2,500 feet of at least three landmarks. Since 11 offenders were employed in restricted landmarks, and only one traveled less than 2,500 feet from personal residences, being employed with minors in

restricted landmarks has a greater influence on gaining access to victims than residential proximity to these landmarks.

Of the 12 offenders who met/contact minor victims on the street or in public, one was in a restricted location, but was more than 2,500 feet from personal residence. Six meet/contact locations for offenders contacting victims on the street or in public were within 2,500 feet of all four restricted landmarks, nine were within 2,500 feet of three restricted landmarks. However, most of these locations were more than 2,500 feet from offenders' residences. One of the offenders met victims inside restricted landmarks. This location was more than 2,500 feet from personal residence and was within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks.

The 219 offenders in Class 2 resulted in 19 case configurations with three clusters. The three largest clusters (99, 54, 15) had offenders not traveling to meet/contact victims. This suggests either offenders shared residences or apartment buildings with victims, or victims went or were brought to the offenders' residences. Most of the meet/contact locations were within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks and about one-third were within 2,500 feet of a park. Since these offenders offended victims in close proximity, location proximity is likely due to urban planning and offenders residing in urban or densely populated areas with greater numbers of restricted landmarks. Any RR laws in New Jersey would likely result in sex offenders being forced to reside in more rural or less populated areas. Nineteen Offenders in Class 2 traveled more than 2,500 feet to meet/contact victims. However, since these are family members or close acquaintances; this offending pattern is not consistent with the rationale behind RR laws. One of the Offenders in Class 2 met victims through employment/volunteer

duties and the meet/contact location was a restricted landmark. This location was less than 2,500 feet from personal residence and within 2,500 feet of three restricted landmarks. Of the 248 offenders with identified meet/contact locations for offenders in Class 1, 12 offenders met or contacted minor victim on the street or in. Of these 12 offenders, only two (configuration 13, 14) traveled less than 2,500 from residence to the meet/contact location and the meet/contact location were within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark. Therefore, of the 248 offenders with known victim contact locations, only two had victim contact patterns consistent with the rationale behind RR laws. Both of these offenders' victims were in their teens, and not offenses of child molestation against younger children.

Table 32

Offender, Offense, and Victim Characteristics and the Distance of Meet/Contact Location to Landmarks by Class, n=248

No.	Meet Method	Emp Restr	Meet Restri	Contact Offense	>1 Vict	Victim Age	Reside to Meet	≤2,500 School (%)	≤2,500 Park (%)	≤2,500 Day. (%)	≤2,500 R.I. (%)	E	N Case
Class 1													
1	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	33	100	100	0.25	3
2	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<12	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
3	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	33	67	100	0.25	3
4	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	<12	>2,500	0	100	0	0	0.50	1
5	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	12-17	>2,500	100	50	100	100	0.33	2
6	Employ	Yes	Yes	No	No	12-17	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
7	Employ	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
8	Employ	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	≤2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
9	Employ	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	>2,500	100	100	0	100	0.50	1
10	Employ	No	No	Yes	Yes	Adult	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
11	Street	No	Yes	No	No	<12	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
12	Street	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	0	0	0.50	1
13	Street	No	No	Yes	No	12-17	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
14	Street	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	≤2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
15	Street	No	No	Yes	No	12-17	>2,500	50	50	100	100	0.33	2
16[a]	Street	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
17	Street	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
18	Street	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	≤2,500	100	50	100	100	0.33	2
19	Street	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	>2,500	83	33	83	100	0.14	6

table continues

No.	Meet Method	Emp Restr	Meet Restri	Contact Offense	>1 Vict	Victim Age	Reside to Meet	≤2,500 School (%)	≤2,500 Park (%)	≤2,500 Day. (%)	≤2,500 R.I. (%)	E	N Case
20	Street	No	No	No	No	<12	>2,500	100	67	100	100	0.25	3
21	Street	No	No	No	No	12-17	>2,500	100	50	100	100	0.33	2
22	Indirect	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
23	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	12-17	0	100	0	100	0	0.50	1
24	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
25	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
26	Indirect	No	No	No	No	<12	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
27	Indirect	Yes	No	No	No	<12	0	0	100	100	100	0.50	1
Class 2													
28	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	12-17	≤2,500	0	100	100	100	0.50	1
29	Employ	Yes	No	Yes	No	12-17	0	100	100	100	0	0.50	1
30	Employ	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	0	0	0	0	0.50	1
31	Indirect	No	Yes	Yes	No	<12	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
32	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	<12	0	87	37	83	88	0.01	99
33	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	0	67	33	73	73	0.06	15
34	Indirect	Yes	No	Yes	No	<12	0	0	0	0	0	0.50	1
35	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	<12	≤2,500	75	50	75	75	0.20	4
36	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	≤2,500	50	0	50	100	0.33	2
37	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	<12	>2,500	100	67	100	100	0.10	9
38	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	50	100	100	0.17	5
39	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	12-17	0	91	40	83	91	0.02	54
40	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	0	100	100	100	100	0.33	2

table continues

No.	Meet Method	Emp Restr	Meet Restri	Contact Offense	>1 Vict	Victim Age	Reside to Meet	≤2,500 School (%)	≤2,500 Park (%)	≤2,500 Day. (%)	≤2,500 R.I. (%)	E	N Case
41	Indirect	Yes	No	Yes	No	12-17	0	50	0	50	50	0.33	2
42	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	12-17	>2,500	100	67	100	100	0.25	3
43	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	50	0	0	100	0.33	2
44	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	0	50	50	100	50	0.33	2
45	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	≤2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
46	Indirect	No	No	Yes	No	Adult	>2,500	0	0	0	0	0.50	1

[a] Meet/contact location was a motel where offender was staying.

Employ = Meet through employment of volunteering

Street= Street or in public

Indirect= Meet method indirectly or neighbor

Offense Location to Landmarks

Some offenders committed offenses in a location other than personal residences

or where offenders met/contacted victims. In order for the offending pattern to be

consistent with the rationale behind the implementation of a 2,500-foot residence

restriction law, offenders must have directly contacted minor victims in public,

committed offenses within 2,500 feet of personal residences, and offense locations were

within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. Table 33 displays the matrix for the CA of

offender, offense and victim characteristics, and percentage of offenders with those

characteristics who committed offenses within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. There

were seven dependent variables used in this CA but the meet/contact location was in a

restricted landmark variable and the distance traveled from residence to meet location

variable were removed and replaced with offense location was in a restricted landmark

and the distance traveled from residence to offense location. There are 576 possible case

combinations (4 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 3 x 3 = 576) in which the CA provided 62 different case

configurations. Ten case configurations were removed because the offense locations

were unknown or the offender committed an internet-related offense. This resulted in 34

different combinations for 45 offenders in Class 1 and 18 combinations for the 205

offenders in Class 2.

As displayed in Table 33, offenders in Class 1 had one cluster of six offenders,

who met victims on the street, or in public. None of the meeting was in a restricted

location and all victims were adults. Most of the offense locations for these offenders

were within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, and religious institution, and about one-third

within 2,500 feet of a park. There was one cluster of three offenders, with the same

variable combinations as the cluster of six, except victims were under 12 years of age.

The offense locations for these three offenders were within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, park, and religious institution, and one within 2,500 feet of a park. All of these offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to commit offenses.

Of the 12 offenders in Class 1 who met victims through places of employment or volunteer duties, eight were employed in a restricted location, of which five committed offenses in restricted landmarks. Of these five offenders, four had more than one known victim and four traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to commit offenses. All of these offense locations were within 2,500 feet of at least three restricted landmarks. Of the 12 offenders who met/contacted victims on the street or in public, only one was inside restricted locations, but nearly all were within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, and religious institution, with fewer offenses within 2,500 feet of a park. Nine of these 12 offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to commit offenses. Three offenders who met victims on the internet had physical contact with victims, one of which was in a park. Although offenders who meet/contact victims on the street or in public are in close proximity to one of the restricted landmarks, these landmarks are not in close proximity to offenders' residences. Offenders in this study are traveling outside distances of 2,500 feet to commit sex offenses.

The 205 offenders in Class 2 with identified offense locations resulted in 18 case configurations with three clusters. The three largest clusters (103, 54, 19) had offenders not traveling to commit offenses. This suggests offenders committed offenses in shared residences or apartment buildings, or victims traveled to offenders' residences. Fourteen offenders in Class 2 traveled more than 2,500 feet to commit offenses. Since victims for

these offenders are family members or close acquaintances, this offending pattern is not consistent with the rationale behind RR laws. Most of the offense locations for offenders in Class 2 were within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, or religious institution and about one-third were within 2,500 feet of a park. Since these offenders offended victims in close social proximity, locations' physical proximity is likely due to urban planning and offenders' residing in an urban or densely populated area with greater amounts of schools, daycares, parks, and religious institutions.

One of the offenders in Class 2 committed offenses in restricted locations, but traveled more than 2,500 feet from personal residences to commit offenses. Twelve of the offenders in Class 1 met or contacted minor victims on the street or in public at locations that were not places of employment or where they volunteered, but only three offenders committed offenses within 2,500 feet of personal residences (configuration numbers 14, 15, 16). Of the 250 offense locations identified that were identified for offenders in Class 1 and Class 2, only three sex offenders had offending patterns consistent with the rationale behind the implementation of residence restriction laws, the two offenders mentioned previously in the meet/contact section, and one additional offender who met/contacted his victim, a teenage male stranger on the street, and committed the offense inside the offender's personal residence. Therefore, not one of the offenders who met the offending pattern consistent with many RR laws, although a small percentage, were offenses of child molestation against younger children.

The CA provided the ability to view the central offending pattern of variables to ascertain the practicality of RR laws. The overwhelming majority of sex offenders did not directly contact victims in public locations. Most offenders committed offenses

against family members or close acquaintances. Although most offenders resided within 2,500 feet of at least of the restricted landmarks, this fact appears to have had little to no influence on gaining access to victims. Of the offenders who met victims in one of the restricted landmarks, most were employed or volunteered in the landmarks. Offenders working or volunteering in landmarks where children are known to congregate and having continuous contact with appears to be more of a risk factor for reoffending than simply residing in close proximity to landmarks.

Table 33

Offender, Offense, and Victim Characteristics and the Distance of Offense to Landmarks by Class, n=249

Conf no	Meet Method	Emp Restric	Offen Restric	>1 Vict	Contact	Victim Age	Reside to Offense	≤2,500 School	≤2,500 Park	≤2,500 Day.	≤2,500 R.I.	E	N Case
Class 1													
1	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<12	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
2	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
3	Employ	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	50	50	100	0.33	2
4	Employ	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
5	Employ	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
6	Employ	Yes	No	No	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	100	100	0	0.50	1
7	Employ	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	100	0	100	0.50	1
8	Employ	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
9	Employ	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
10	Employ	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	0	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
11	Employ	No	No	Yes	Yes	Adult	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
12	Street	No	Yes	No	No	<12	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
13	Street	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	0	0	0.50	1
14	Street	No	No	No	Yes	12-17	0	0	100	100	100	0.50	1
15	Street	No	No	No	Yes	12-17	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
16	Street	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	≤2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
17	Street	No	No	No	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
18	Street	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
19[a]	Street	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	0	100	100	100	100	0.33	2
20	Street	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	≤2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
21	Street	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	>2,500	67	33	50	83	0.14	6

Conf no	Meet Method	Emp Restric	Offens Restric	>1 Vic	Contact	Victim Age	Reside to Offense	≤2,500 School	≤2,500 Park	≤2,500 Day	≤2,500 R. I.	E	N Case
22	Street	No	No	No	No	<12	>2,500	100	33	100	100	0.25	3
23	Street	No	No	No	No	12-17	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.33	2
24	Internet	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	0	0	0	0	0	0.50	1
25	Internet	No	Yes	No	Yes	12-17	-	-	100	-	-	0.50	1
26	Internet	No	No	No	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	0	0	100	0.50	1
27	Internet	No	No	No	No	<12	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
28	Internet	No	No	No	No	12-17	>2,500	0	100	100	100	0.50	1
29	Indirect	Yes	No	No	No	<12	0	0	100	100	100	0.50	1
30	Indirect	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1
31	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	12-17	0	100	0	100	0	0.50	1
32	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
33	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
34	Indirect	No	No	No	No	<12	0	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
Class 2													
35	Employ	Yes	No	No	Yes	12-17	0	100	100	100	0	0.50	1
36	Employ	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	≤2,500	0	0	100	100	0.50	1
37	Employ	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	0	0	100	0.50	1
38	Indirect	Yes	No	No	Yes	<12	0	0	0	0	0	0.50	1
39	Indirect	Yes	No	No	Yes	12-17	0	50	0	50	50	0.33	2
40	Indirect	No	Yes	No	Yes	12-17	>2,500	0	100	0	100	0.50	1
41	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	<12	0	86	39	83	88	0.01	103
42	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	0	68	37	74	68	0.05	19
43	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	<12	≤2,500	67	67	67	67	0.25	3
44	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	≤2,500	100	0	100	100	0.50	1

Conf no	Meet Method	Emplo Restric	Offense Restrict	>1 Vic	Contact	Victim Age	Reside to Offense	≤2,500 School	≤2,500 Park	≤2,500 Day	≤2,500 R. I.	E	N Case
45	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	50	100	100	0.11	8
46	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	<12	>2,500	100	0	100	100	0.33	2
47	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	12-17	0	91	36	83	91	0.02	54
48	Indirect	No	No	Yes	Yes	12-17	0	67	100	67	100	0.25	3
49	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	12-17	>2,500	100	100	100	100	0.50	1
50	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	0	0	0	100	0	0.50	1
51	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	≤2,500	100	50	100	100	0.33	2
52	Indirect	No	No	No	Yes	Adult	>2,500	0	0	0	0	0.50	1

Note. – indicates a missing offense location

[a] Offense location was a motel where offender was staying.

Employ = Meet through employment of volunteering

Street = Street or in public

Indirect = Meet method indirectly or neighbor

The conjunctive analysis (CA) provided an aggregated compilation of all possible combinations for offender, victim, and offense characteristic variables. The LCA was able to identify two distinct classes of offenders along dimensions of victim, offense, and offender characteristics. Class assignment for each analysis was determined by probability on the variables used in the analysis. The probabilities of class assignment also determined which variables had the strongest predictive power. The CA examined if the three locations, (offend residence, meet location, at least one restricted landmark) intersect within a 2,500-foot buffer zone for restricted landmarks. Additionally, the CA allowed the inclusion of variables not used in the LCA, such as if the offender was employed/volunteered in a restricted landmark, the age groups of the victim, and additional categories for method offenders use to meet/contact victims. The spatial analysis in the LCA demonstrated which geocoded addresses for the offender's residence, meet/contact locations, offense locations, and restricted landmarks intersected in a geographical space.

Finally, the CA allowed examination of other variables with more attributes, such as meet method, meet location, employed in restricted landmark, met/contacted in restricted landmark, offense in restricted landmark, playing a role in victim selection. The CA found results in common with the LCA, but found them using different models composed of different variables. For example, the LCA examined meet/contact method with two attributes (directly, indirectly), whereas the CA allowed more detailed comparisons among the offenders who directly contacted their victim and included three attributes (employment, street/public, internet). The LCA also examined the age category

as binary (minor, adult), whereas the CA allowed more detailed comparisons among the

offenders who victims were minors using two age categories (< 12, 12-17).

Chapter 6: Discussion of Findings, Policy Implications, Goals for Future Research and Conclusion

Discussion of Findings

This chapter provides a discussion of findings from the current study of resident restriction (RR) laws. In addition, this chapter provides policy implications from those findings, goals for future research, and conclusions. The following section provides an overview of the hypotheses used for this study, the results from statistical analysis, and a summary of findings.

Hypothesis 1.

The research questions and analyses in the current study pyramid with a progressive step by step approach from general to specific. The first question guiding the study was a general question of whether sex offenders meet or make initial contact with victims within 2,500 feet of their personal residences. It was hypothesized overall, offenders would meet or have initial contact with victims within 2,500 feet of their personal residences. This is due to the assumption that most sex offenders offend victims whom they share a residence with, or access victims who visit their personal residence. The first goal was to establish where offenders meet or contact victims and whether this occurred within close proximity to where offenders live. After reviewing the results, the first hypothesis is accepted. Nearly half the offenders in the sample shared a residence with their victim, and another 14 percent of offenders accessed victims in their personal residence. The results demonstrated of those offenders who did travel to meet/contact victims, 2.6 percent traveled less than 1,000 feet and 2.6 percent traveled between 1,000 and 2,500 feet. These results are consistent with those found in Duwe et al., (2008) in

that a large percentage of offenses occurred in either a shared residence, or the offender's

personal residence. The current study had a greater percentage of offenders who

committed offenses inside a shared a residence than the sample of offenders in Duwe et

al. (2008). In the current study, 49.6 percent of the offenses occurred in a shared a

residence and 20 percent of the offenses occurred in the offender's personal residence.

Compared to the sample collected by Duwe et al. (2008), 33.9 percent of the offenses

occurred in the offender's personal residence and only 20.1 percent of those from the

occurred in a shared a residence. This is likely due to the differences in sample section

(reconvictions of those released from Minnesota correctional facilities vs. treatment

sample at ADTC).

Hypothesis 2.

The second question guiding this study was whether a subtype of non-incest sex

offenders who directly contact victims in the community can be classified using offender,

offense, and victim characteristics. It was hypothesized by using a latent class analysis

(LCA), a subgroup of offenders could be identified. Since RR laws are predicated

towards those who offend outside personal residences, it was important to analyze

separately the data of offenders who do not offend relatives or close acquaintances in a

personal residence.

The analysis supports the hypothesis, as a subclass of 51 sex offenders was clearly

classified. The results of LCA identified a subgroup of offenders for whom sex offender

laws were designed to protect against, and where additional sex offender legislation

regarding supervision/and or restriction may be appropriate. Class 1 demonstrates the

"stereotypical" sex offender, similar to those described in Gavin (2005). Gavin described these offenders as non-relatives, strangers, and not in positions of trust. The offenders in Class 1 were predominately strangers, with only 19 percent identified as acquaintances, which victims were likely to trust.

Hypothesis 3.

The third question guiding this study contained two parts: 1. Whether non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community meet/contact victims in within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks than those who offend family members or close acquaintances, and 2. Whether non-incest sex offenders who directly contact victims in the community commit offenses within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks than those who offend family members or close acquaintances. Regarding the first part of question three, it was hypothesized that a greater percentage of non-incest offenders meeting victims in the community (Class 1), will meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark than offenders who offend relatives in a residence (Class 2). As the results demonstrated, offenders in Class 1 were more likely than offenders in Class 2 to meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. However, the differences were not statistically significant and this hypothesis must be rejected. I conclude the offenders in Class 1 were, statistically, no more likely to meet/contact victims within 2,500 feet of a school, park, daycare, or religious institution than offenders in Class 2. In other words, those who meet/contact victims in the community are no more likely to do so in close proximity to a restricted landmark than those who access victims within the family or personal residence. These results are

similar to Zandbergen et al. (2010) who found residing near schools and daycares in Florida did not increase the risk of sexual re-offending. Residing near a restricted landmark and consequently selecting victims in a personal residence has no relevance to RR laws. This suggests landmark placement or urban planning of restricted landmarks, and not the availability of potential victims who congregate in or near these landmarks. This also is an indication of how close in proximity residences in New Jersey are to several of the landmarks included in many RR laws. A 2,500-foot RR law in New Jersey would significantly decrease housing options for RSOs, and would likely prevent them from either returning to their residences, or be able to live with other family members upon release from prison if the residences are located within the restricted zones.

The hypothesis for the second part of question three was a greater percentage of non-incest offenders meeting victims in the community (Class 1), will commit offenses within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark than offenders who offend relatives in a residence (Class 2). As demonstrated, offenders in Class 1 had greater percentages committing offenses within 2,500 feet of schools, daycares, and religious institutions. However, differences between offenders in Class 1 and in Class 2 were not statistically significant and this hypothesis must be rejected. The offenders in Class 1 were no more likely to commit offenses within 2,500 feet of a school, daycare, or religious institution than offenders in Class 2. In other words, those who offend victims in the community are no more likely to do so in close proximity to a restricted landmark than those who offend victims within a personal residence. Being that residing near a restricted landmark and consequently selecting victims in a personal residence has no relevance to the RR laws,

suggests urban planning of restricted landmarks, and not the availability of potential victims who congregate in or near these landmarks.

The results demonstrate more offenders in Class 1 commit offenses within 2,500 feet of a park than offenders in Class 2. The Pearson chi-square analysis demonstrated statistical significance (Pearson χ^2 Park = 4.294, Likelihood Ratio = 4.237, df = 1, p = .038). Parks and playgrounds appear to be an area where some offenders are more likely to commit offenses. The statistical significance is below the p=.05 level, therefore, this hypothesis is accepted. Approximately 70 percent of offense locations were offenders' residences or shared residences. This suggests offenders may simply reside in close proximity to landmarks, but these landmarks do not contribute to victim selection. In regards to meeting victims in parks, some offenders may deliberately go to parks for gaining access to victims, but these may be rare occurrences. Other may meet victims in the course of employment or volunteer duties. For example, the current sample contained a town athletic coach and a summer camp counselor who met their victims inside a park.

The results show that 16 (5.9%) of meet/contact locations were one of the four restricted landmarks. In addition, 19 offenders met victims through employment or volunteer duties and 21 offenders met victims either on the street or in public. The results also showed that 11 offense locations were inside one of the four restricted landmarks. Twenty-eight offenders in Class 1 met/contacted victims and 20 percent committed offenses in a restricted landmark. This initiated additional queries examined through conjunctive analysis.

Hypothesis 4.

The fourth question guiding this study also contained two parts: 1. Whether non-incest sex offenders' residences and victim meet/contact locations intersect within a 2,500 foot restricted landmark buffer zone and 2. Whether these same offenders' residences and offense locations intersect within a 2,500 foot restricted landmark buffer zone.

Regarding the first part of question four, it was hypothesized the majority of these offenders both resided and met/contacted victims within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark, but not within 2,500 feet of offenders' residences. Figures 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, and 13 display maps for offenders' residences providing information of distance traveled to meet/contact locations. The maps demonstrated most offenders' residences were within a 2,500-foot buffer zone, and most meet/contact locations were within the same 2,500-foot buffer zone, but offenders traveled more than 2,500 feet from residences to meet/contact victims. Regarding the second part of question four, it was hypothesized the majority of offenders both resided and committed offenses within 2,500 feet of a restricted landmark, but not within 2,500 feet of offenders' residences. Figures 3, 5, 8, 10, 12 and 14 display maps of offenders' residences providing information of distance traveled to the meet/contact locations and offense locations. Most offenders committed offenses where offenders met victims or in offenders' residences. As the maps demonstrated, the geocoded addresses tended to be in densely populated areas, and more likely to have greater numbers of schools, daycares, and religious institutions.

Most offenses were committed in offenders' residences or where offenders had access to their victims. Only four offenders with known meet/contact locations and known offense locations had different residences, meet/contact locations, and offense locations. Two of these offenders resided in Passaic County and the other two resided in Middlesex County. The two offenders in Passaic County both traveled far outside a 2,500-foot buffer zones to meet/contact victims and commit offenses. Of the two offenders in Middlesex County, one offender traveled far outside a 2,500-foot buffer zones to meet/contact victims and commit offenses, and the other traveled less than 1,000 feet. The majority of Class 1 sex offenders met or established contact with victims and committed offenses within 2,500-foot buffer zones of restricted landmarks, yet these locations were more than 2,500 feet from offenders' residences. My results suggests restricting where offenders are allowed to live does little to prevent offenders from accessing victims, as most do not meet/contact victims near personal residences. Therefore, RR laws are unlikely to have a deterrent effect on sexual offenders. The results clearly demonstrate that offenders travel outside a 2,500-foot radius to access victims.

A conjunctive analysis (CA) also was used to address questions related to RR laws. As the results demonstrated, for the 51 offenders in Class 1, only two resided less than 2,500 feet from one of the restricted landmarks and met/contacted victims in a public location within 2,500 feet of personal residences. Of the 42 offenders in Class 1 with known meet/contact locations, only two had victim meet/contact locations less than 2,500 feet from any restricted landmarks and 2,500 feet of personal residences. Of the 45

offenders in Class 1 with known offense locations, only three sex offenders committed offenses in locations less than 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks and 2,500 feet of personal residences.

The results also demonstrated that 12 of 15 offenders had meet/contact locations in restricted locations, were employed or volunteered in restricted locations, and met victims through employment or volunteer duties. Working or volunteering in landmarks where children are known to congregate and having continuous contact with them appears to be more of a risk factor than simply residing in close proximity to these landmarks. To be clear, this does not suggest offenders who work or volunteer with minors are at risk of sexual offending. It is unclear whether these offenders chose to work or volunteer with minors in order to gain access to victims, or if having continuous contact with minors contributes to sexual behavior towards minors.

Residing in close proximity to where children congregate does not appear to contribute to offenders gaining access to victims. Routine Activity Theory states that offenders, like anyone else, have routine activities. Therefore, offenders commit offenses in the course of their daily routines, i.e. travel to work, shopping, socializing, etc. After evaluating the meet/contact method and location types of those who met/contacted their victims in public, this appears to be the case for few. According to RAT, people tend to spend the majority of their time in their residence (Cohen & Felson, 1986). The offenders in Class 2 who offend outside their personal residence, tend to do so outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone. Levenson and Cotter (2005a) quoted a sex offender (see page 76) from their study that surveyed sex offenders regarding RR laws, which noted that sex

offenders can access victims outside a buffer zone simply by walking or driving. This

appears to be the case for those who met/contacted victims and/or committed their

offenses far outside the 2,500-foot buffer zone.

The overwhelming majority of offenders in this study gained access to victims

within personal residences, family, neighborhood/apartment building, or places of

employment. Some offenders did meet or contact victims in public locations (both

indoors and outdoors) but these locations were not near offenders' personal residences.

As mentioned previously, RR laws restrict where offenders can live, but not travel. In

this sample, a small percentage of offenders followed offending patterns consistent with

the implementation of RR laws. It appears RR laws implemented in New Jersey do little

if anything to prevent sex offenders from accessing potential victims or prevent offenders

from reoffending.

Policy Implications

These findings present a number of policy implications worthy of discussion,

including methods of accessing victims, offending patterns of offenders in Class 1, and

sex offender RR laws. Although some states limit RR laws to certain sex offenders, other

states subject all sex offenders to such laws. Sex offenders are consequently, subjected to

the various negative consequences outlined in Chapter two, regardless of victims' age and

offenders' relationship to victims. Even with a relatively small treatment sample, there

was a great deal of variability among offenders in regards to victim selection, method of

meeting or contacting victims, and the locations where they met or contacted victims. A

blanket policy, even if only applied to offenders similar to the offenders in Class 1, would

not be a useful tool to prevent future offenses when the victim contact and residential

proximity patterns are inconsistent with many RR laws. If a state or region were to

implement a RR law, or revise a current one it would be more efficient to apply the law

on a case by case basis.

Broadly implemented countywide RR laws also do not take into consideration the

variability of city/town demographics. For example, Essex County the most densely

populated and has the greatest number of restricted landmarks of the six counties. If a

RR law were to be implemented, the restricted land area would affect some areas in

Essex County more so than the others. For example, the city of Newark, according to the

U.S. Census Bureau, is the most populated city in New Jersey, in which 79.9 percent of

the housing units are multi-unit structures (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Compared to

Montclair, NJ, a town less than ten miles north of Newark, has only 20.5 percent of its

housing structures are multi-unit (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Not only is a greater

amount of physical land restricted, but also greater amount of housing options. A RR law

if implemented in Essex County would greatly affect the urban areas, and prevent RSOs

from finding affordable housing. RR laws, if implemented, should take into

consideration the consequences of such laws, and the devastating effect they would have

on housing options. Depending on factors such as population density, the number of

included restricted landmarks, and the number of multi-unit housing structures, reducing

the buffer zone to 500 feet may be an option to reduce the negative consequences.

Although it is assumed that sex offenders will travel more than 500 feet from their

residence in their daily activities, it might at least reduce the number of potential victims

walking by the offender's residence to and from school, to the playground, etc. This may reduce a sex offender's ability to lure potential victims inside their residence, similar to how Megan Kanka was lured into Timmendequas' residence to see his new puppy.

Similarly, a statewide RR law does not take into consideration the variability of county demographics. As mentioned, Essex County is most densely populated and had the greatest number of restricted landmarks of the six counties examined. Ocean County was the least densely populated and had the least number of restricted landmarks. Therefore, the negative consequences regarding available housing or being able to return to one's home upon release would be gravely different for those residing in Essex County versus Ocean County. Allowing states or counties variability regarding the assignment of buffer zones in RR laws may reduce the negative affects of the laws without eliminating them completely. Eliminating RR laws may be difficult, as they tend to be popular among community residents and the legislature.

As mentioned previously, sex offenders tend to have lower recidivism rates, as demonstrated by Langan, Schmitt, and Durose (2003), Langan and Levin (2002) and Harris and Hanson (2004). However, those deemed as compulsive and repetitive will likely be at an increased risk of reoffending without treatment. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) is the preferred mode of treatment for sex offenders. This treatment model seeks to reduce the risk of reoffending through cognitive restructuring. CBT assists in relapse prevention or recidivism prevention by assisting offenders to identify person-specific sequences of events that have previously lead them to offend, e.g. cognitive distortions, deviant sexual arousal (Dolan, 2009). Considering the current

study contains a treatment sample, and the offense was according to the NJ Statute, "Characterized by a pattern of repetitive, compulsive behavior …" (NJSA 2C:47-1), many offenders have *sequences of events* to sexual offending, and these events, as mentioned are typically identified in the course of CBT in sex offender treatment. For some offenders, residing in close proximity to a children's park or playground may be a recognizable *event*, where some offenders may consider avoiding establishing residence in close proximity to one. For others, residing in a low-income apartment building with a high percentage of single mothers of minor children might lead to deviant sexual arousal and "trigger" one to reoffend, and perhaps choose other housing options. For other offenders, working or volunteering with minors, where one has continued access may elicit sexual fantasies (deviant sexual arousal) that may lead to a *sequences of events* that the offender may not be able to control over time. These situational factors of restricting where the offender resides or works may be addressed in treatment, but could only be enforced though formal community supervision.

Communities implementing or planning to implement RR laws should make these laws applicable only to those offenders who offend against strangers or acquaintances according to the methods used to meet/contact victims. To reduce the negative effects on offenders and families, communities should refrain from implementing RR laws on those who offend relatives or household members. It appears counterintuitive to implement broad policies applicable toward a small proportion of the sex offender population, especially when such policies limit offenders' ability to successfully reintegrate into society. Policies pertaining to sex offenders should be applied subjectively to those who

have offending patterns meeting criteria for RR laws.

As mention previously, employment restrictions, may be more appropriate for some offenders as a form of impulsive control or "trigger" avoidance. Nineteen offenders in this study had meet/contact methods through employment or volunteer duties, in which thirteen of the meet/contact locations were at one of the restricted landmarks, suggesting possible employment or volunteer restrictions for some offenders. Although restricting offenders' employment opportunities would have similar negative consequences regarding successful community reintegration, discretion should be used when considering this type of restriction. As discussed in Ward and Brown (2004), when offenders sustain jobs and maintain social bonds or "human goods" they are more likely to become invested in communities and conform to community norms. The lack of human goods, including housing, employment, and support systems are known to increase the likelihood of recidivism for offenders (Ward & Brown, 2004). It would appear such restrictions should only be made applicable to those with offending patterns consistent with such policies, and for offenders considered at high-risk of reoffending if employed or having continued access to minors. An alternative to RR laws, such as anti-loitering zones, might be considered, as these policies are less intrusive to offenders' quality of life, and would better facilitate successful community reintegration. Since RR laws only restrict where an offender can reside, other possible restrictions, such as electronic monitoring with Global Position System (GPS) may be an option for some offenders. This option would be costly, require formal community supervision, and should only be applied to offenders considered not only high-risk, but had previous

offending patterns of traveling to certain locations to access victims such as parks/playgrounds.

One concern, however, is six offenders in this sample had meet/contact locations in religious institutions. Religious institutions were included in the spatial analysis as one of the restricted landmarks. Although these locations may not necessarily be places where children congregate, in relation to the number of adults attending, they are places of trust for church elders and often have community groups with large numbers of children and teenagers. However, creating laws restricting sex offenders from attending services or volunteering in religious institutions would be in violation of the U.S. Constitution's First Amendment.

Consistent with previous research (Zgoba et al, 2010; Duwe et al., 2008), a small percentage of offenders in this study committed offenses against strangers. Policies such as RR laws focus attention on, "stranger danger," where results from this study showed the actual danger might be in the victims' own homes. Considering the participants in the study by Gavin (2005) did not think an offender could be a family member unless prompted, suggests that the community in general may be uninformed about the reality of sexual offending. It appears that sex offender legislation emphasizes stranger offenses, and not enough emphasis or education on the more common types of offenders. The goal of sex offender legislation should be to decrease not only the number of future victims, but the number of future offenses against a victim. Often, sexual offending by a relative continues because the victim is not believed when the offense is disclosed to the parent, usually the mother. In one case in the current sample, intervention to end the offending

did not occur until the victim disclosed the abuse to a school official, who then contacted

the New Jersey Department of Youth and Family Services. Another case in the current

sample in which further abuse may have been prevented was a victim was being sexually

abused by her brother, who was approximately ten years older. When their mother

became aware of the abuse, the offender was sent to live with their grandmother.

However, the victim went to the grandmother's residence daily after school, where her

older brother would babysit her, and the abuse continued. The offender later sought out a

co-defender via a classified advertisement. The lack of intervention not only prolonged

the abuse against the victim in this case, but lead to the victim being assaulted by a

stranger invited into the residence.

Similar to drug prevention programs in school such as the Drug Abuse Resistance

Education (D.A.R.E), age-appropriate education programs in school would be a

consistent method to educate children on sexual abuse and/or rape, although sex abuse

education should begin taught at a younger age than drug abuse education. Children

should also be informed that school is a safe place to disclose sexual abuse. Some

victims in the current sample were threatened by the offender if they disclosed the

offense. Children need to be informed that it is safe for them to disclose the abuse to a

teacher or school counselor, despite any threats made by the offender.

In several cases in the sample, the mother of the victim was abused by the same

family member when she was a minor. Education of familial sexual offending and due

diligence on the part of parents can help keep children safe from sexual victimization,

opposed to community members placing this responsibility on the legislator in the form

of passing laws. Sex abuse education for parents should also include learning to identify

common signs or characteristics exhibited by victims who are being abused. It is

important to note that not all sex offending against children can be prevented, but much

of it can be prevented from becoming prolonged abuse. For example, one victim in the

current study was being scolded by his father for poor grades and behavior problems

before the victim finally admitted he was being sexually abused by his uncle for several

years. It is important for parents not only to recognize signs of abuse, but know what

resources are available to them if they do suspect their child is being sexually abused.

For example, the National Institute of Health has information for parents and community

members to educate regarding various forms of abuse, internet safety, and information on

recognizing the signs and symptoms of sexual abuse (Child Welfare, 2013, retrieved

April 8, 2014 from childwelfare.gov).

Alerting victims to "stranger danger" or targeting stranger sexual victimization

through legislation gives community members a false sense of security. This emphasis

on strangers is inaccurate, as it is not the reality of sexual offending and does not protect

children against sexual offending against those the victim is well acquainted with.

Community members may feel safe residing in a "sex offender-free zone," but they

themselves may be living with sex offenders, living next door to unregistered or

undetected sex offenders, or unknowingly inviting sex offenders into their home on a

regular basis. As the current study and other similar studies have demonstrated, RR laws

do not reflect the reality of sex offending, and clearly are not effective ways to protect

children. As mentioned, it is not feasible to think that all sexual offenses can be

prevented, but the most preventable offenses are the ones that occur inside one's residence.

The overall goal for any sex offender legislation should be not to "punish" offenders further, but to increase the protection of the vulnerable members of the community, mainly children. Sex offender policy should be more comprehensive opposed to one blanket policy if the goal is to truly "protect" children and not "punish" offenders. RR laws have been used as an additional tool or safety net for sex offenders, but casting too wide a net appears to be doing more harm than good.

It is important to mention the internet may be a burgeoning method for offenders to meet victims, particularly with the growing popularity of social media websites. This is concerning, as the internet allows sex offenders to access a large number of potential victims. Having the ability to meet victims on the internet essentially can make RR laws obsolete. In the current study, sex offenders who met victims via the internet drove the furthest distances to meet their victims in person, ranging from over 9,000 feet to nearly 98 miles. Duwe et al. (2008) examined reoffenses for offenders who were released from prison from 1990 to 2002 and reincarcerated for new sex offenses prior to 2006, when the internet was available and widely used for some of period of time. Only 1.2 percent of offenders in that study used the internet to meet victims. The offenses in the current study occurred more recently, with more than 90 percent of offenses occurring since 2000, and 40 percent occurring from 2008 to 2012. The number of offenders in the current study who met victims via the internet was nearly twice of those in Duwe et al. (2008). Though still a small percentage in relation to other victim meet/contact methods,

future research should examine if the internet is a growing method for offenders to meet victims.

Sex offenders' searching the internet for victims is a concern for many stakeholders. For example, New Jersey introduced a bill in 2007 (P.L. 2007, C.219) to limit sex offender's use of the internet. Other states, such as Indiana, struck down laws banning certain registered sex offenders from using social media websites as the laws were deemed in violation of the First Amendment (Doe v. Marion County, Indiana 12–2512, 2013). One of the consequences for RR laws mentioned in Chapter two was sex offenders being forced into rural communities. If RR laws prohibit offenders from residing in more urbanized area because of available housing being in proximity to restricted landmarks, offenders may utilize the internet to seek victims. As seen with Ocean County, New Jersey, offenders who meet victims via the internet tend to reside more than 2,500 feet from schools, daycares, or parks. This suggests the offenders reside in rural areas, with less access to potential victims. Future research regarding this topic would need to be conducted to determine if offenders who meet victims via the internet do so because they reside in areas with fewer potential victims, or for other reasons such as social anxiety or out of convenience.

Another policy implication of sex offender legislation, particularly when the laws tend to be strict, is they might actually deter or prevent sex offenders from seeking professional help. Some sex offenders recognize that their sexual fantasies are deviant, and act on their fantasies due to their inability to control their behavior. With other impulsive control disorders, i.e. gambling, sex addiction, or even when a sex addiction

results in engaging in illegal behaviors such as frequenting prostitutes, those affected by

such disorders can willingly seek treatment with few consequences. However, those

whose impulse control behaviors involve harming the welfare of children; potentially

face severe consequences if professional treatment is sought. Mental health professionals

are required by law in all states to report child abuse and neglect, which includes the

New Jersey Statute, Children-juvenile and Domestic Relations Courts – Report of abuse

9:6-8.10. A sex offender seeking treatment who has not entered the criminal justice

system, will subsequently enter the system. In other words, seeking assistance for their

recognized problem runs the risk of being arrested, charged, and possibly convicted and

incarcerated. If they latter two occur, they also risk registration and notification, and RR

laws in some states, in addition to the negative consequences of such outlined in Chapter

2. Therefore, strict sex offender legislation may have an opposite effect by preventing

sex offenders from seeking assistance to end their illegal sexual behavior early in their

offending career.

Another policy implication concerns how sex offender legislation may influence

other policy. As mentioned on page two, "sex offender-free zones" stemmed from

previous "drug-free zones" and "gun-free zones" around schools. If RR bills for drug or

gun offenders were to be drafted and passed, due to the negative unintended

consequences noted for RR laws for sex offenders, it is recommended these laws not be

too restrictive. A buffer-zone of 500 feet may be adequate prevent children from being

lured to purchase or sell drugs as they walk by the offender's residence. A pilot study

should first be conducted to determine the most effective distance with the least amount

of negative collateral consequences.

Thus far, there have not been any bills introduced to restrict where drug offenders or gun offenders can reside, but other legislation has followed suit in establishing registries. For example, New York State enacted the Drug Dealer Registration Act in 2009, Bill S4022**.** The Act sought to, "establish a drug dealer registry which will require individuals who are found guilty of certain drug offenses to register for a five year period with the division of criminal justice services (Drug Dealer Registration Act, 2009, retrieved April 10 from http://open.nysenate.gov/legislation/bill/S4022-2009). The law was designed with the intent to prevent drug dealers from continuing their illegal actives anonymously under an alias. The drug offender registry, similar to the sex offender registry, contains the offender's name, any known aliases, birth date, sex, race, height, weight, eye color, driver's license number, photograph, and convicted offense (Drug Dealer Registration Act, 2009, retrieved April 10 from http://open.nysenate.gov/legislation/bill/S4022-2009).

Goals for Future Research

One of the limitations of this study is sample selection. A latent class analysis was conducted to identify categorize offenders. The LCA was able to identify two sex offender categories; however, the sample was not diverse enough to create more than two classes. Future research could use a more diverse sample and include non-treatment offenders or those in or were in the general prison population. For example, those incarcerated at ADTC have been deemed amendable to treatment. In other words, they agree they are in need of treatment and are willing to comply with treatment plans.

Those who are unwilling to participate in treatment are not eligible to be incarcerated at

ATDC and are placed in the general population. Future research could benefit from

examining the offending patterns of offenders in the general population, those who would

otherwise be incarcerated at ATDC but refuse or are not amenable to treatment.

Including those from the general population may also increase the number of non-incest

and sexually violent offenders in the sample. Future research could also benefit from a

randomized design of convicted sex offenders to ensure sample selection and victim,

offender, and offense characteristics are not inter-related. A more diverse sample than

the current sample could include additional variables that were not included in this study

(e.g. general offense history, socio-economic status, alcohol or drug abuse history, level

of education completed, mental functioning, mental health history, or abuse history), to

determine if offenders in a more diverse sample meet the offending pattern criteria in

most RR laws or if there are any other risk factors. This study could also be repeated

using a sample of reincarcerated sex offenders, including those from the general

population.

Although the New Jersey State Supreme Court struck down RR laws in 2009,

New Jersey legislators continue to fight for the "protection of children." There are

currently two Bills before the New Jersey Legislature. Bill S570 passed in the State

Senate on 6/27/2013, which would permit municipalities to enact ordinances regulating

where sex offenders may reside, including certain childcare centers and bus stops. An

identical bill, Bill A1342 was introduced on 1/10/2012 as has yet to be voted on. This

Bill would require the Attorney General to defend challenges to municipal ordinances

establishing residence requirements for convicted sex offenders (New Jersey Legislature,

retrieved July 3, 2013 from

http://www.njleg.state.nj.us/2012/Bills/A1500/1342_I1.HTM). As seen in Figure 1,

many states continue to enforce RR laws for sex offenders. The act of simply

implementing legislation is not sufficient to protect children, as this may only provide a

false sense of security to community members. It is suggested these states not only

examine the offending patterns of offenders to determine how and where sex offenders

are accessing victims, but also to adopt a strategy for assessing the efficacy of RR laws.

States should also implement a consistent method to evaluate the process and outcome of

these residence restriction laws. For example, the state of New York implements

residence restriction laws countywide. A county comparison or a multi-level design

could describe differences among counties that have residence restriction laws to those

that do not.

The results of this study facilitated exploring other methods offenders use to gain

access to victims, specifically through employment, volunteering, or the internet. It is

unclear if offenders who prefer minors select occupations or volunteer at locations with

access to victims. More research on this would be necessary to determine if RR laws

would be appropriate. This would likely have to be conducted via offender interviews,

which then run the risks associated with self-reported data, including inaccuracies.

Internet restriction might also be appropriate for some offenders, depending on offense

histories and offending patterns. This however would be difficult to enforce, as the use of

the internet allows one to remain anonymous and they are methods to access the internet

in public locations such as libraries. As mentioned above, research regarding the purpose for using the internet to gain access to victims would need to be explored. If an offender using the internet out of convenience, the offender may simply use other methods. However, if an offender has social anxieties and is uncomfortable approaching victims in public, the internet is a method to help eliminate those anxieties. Therefore, internet restriction would likely be more effective for this type of offender to prevent or reduce victim access.

In sex offender research, geocoding and spatial analysis regarding offending patterns is relatively recent. This methodology can also be used for other sex offenses against adults. The current sample had nine offenders who sexually assaulted older teens or adults on the street. Geocoding and spatial analysis of these types of crimes could determine if they tend to occur in close proximity to the offenders' personal residence, or near other criminogenic locations such as bars, liquor stores, and examine other characteristics of the environment.

Conclusion

The concerns addressed in this study regarding RR laws were whether restricted landmarks (schools, parks, playgrounds, daycares, religious institutions) are indeed domains for sex offenders to meet and/or gain access to victims. In addition, if offenders meet and/or gain access to victims in close proximity to offenders' residences, this study addressed any differences among offenders who meet or contact victims in close proximity to personal residences and to a school, park, daycare, or religious institution.

These concerns were addressed because of the growing amount of research on the implications or negative consequences of sex offender legislation, in particular the RR laws discussed in Chapter Two. RR laws assume offenders offend against victims met in close proximity to offenders' residences. If offenders reside in close proximity to where children congregate, the law attempts to prevent the two from intersecting. This study sought to provide insight and details about the social proximity and physical proximity sex offenders had to victims, and the patterns of sexual offending among a sample sex offenders. A sample of males who are or were incarcerated at the Adult Diagnostic and Treatment Center in Avenel, New Jersey were selected to allow the inclusion of those who committed more serious sexual offenses or repetitive sexual offenses.

The present study clearly demonstrated most offenders resided within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. After examining how far offenders traveled to meet victims and methods used to meet victims, I conclude residential proximity to landmarks does not contribute to victim selection. The study also demonstrated most offenders meet victims within 2,500 feet of restricted landmarks. After examining the methods in which offenders met or contacted victims, I conclude contact between the two is likely due to urban planning, not offenders seeking out victims. I found most offenders who met victims inside one of the restricted landmarks were either employed or volunteered in landmarks. Being employed or volunteering in landmarks appears to be more of a risk factor for offenders than residing in close proximity to landmarks. This conclusion is consistent with Zandbergen et al (2010), who did not find offending differences among those who lived closer to schools and daycares than among those who lived further from

such locations. I conclude physical proximity to places where children congregate has little to no effect on victim access. Instead, it appears social proximity to potential victims has a greater effect. Offenders accessed victims through family, significant others, acquaintances, employment or volunteer duties, on the internet, or daily activities in the community.

This study determined victim contact and residential proximity patterns consistent with many RR laws were applicable to less than one percent of sex offenders. Duwe et al. (2008) failed to find any sex offenders who fit the offending pattern of RR laws. After examining the two cases that fit the offending pattern consistent with most RR laws, similarities between the two offenses were noted. Both offenders in these cases were in their 20s, and both victims were females in their late teens. Both victims were violently attacked on the street and sexually assaulted. Both victims were approached while walking down the street. Although the offenses occurred in a restricted landmark buffer-zone, considering the ages of the victims (one offender stated in the police report he believed the victim was an adult) and their situation when approached by the offenders (alone in public with lack of guardians), it does not appear the presence of landmarks where children tend to congregate had a significant effect on their victimization. These offenses appeared opportunistic on the part of the offender, where the three factors of RAT intersected.

Other offenses among the offenders in Class 1 appeared to be opportunistic, and occurred according to the factors consistent with RAT. The offenders appeared to be in the midst of their daily routine activity (i.e. at their place of employment, shopping, etc.)

when the crossed paths with a suitable victim who was not supervised by an adult (public

restroom, doctor's office exam room). Although devastating to the victim and the

victim's family, offenses such as these are rare occurrences. Having individuals alter

their behavior and their sense of well-being while in public because of the slight

possibility that something such as this can happen does not seem logical. There were also

two offenders in this sample who appeared have to traveled deliberately to a location

where children congregate (park/playground). However, these offenders were arrested

for lewdness, as they were committing lewd acts while watching children play. It is

likely that these offenders were engaging in behavior for their own sexual gratification,

did not intend to physically harm the victims.

The current study, in combination with previous research suggests RR laws are

implemented as a "knee-jerk" reaction to offenders who are likely statistical outliers.

This study suggests broadly implemented RR laws are not practicable as they only apply

to a small percentage of offenders and lead to unnecessary negative consequences

hindering reintegration into society. This study reveals ideas supporting the conclusion

RR laws are not consistent with the overwhelming majority of sexual offending cases.

These laws are likely ineffective in preventing the occurrence of sex offenses for even the

most high risk sex offenders.

RR laws do not appear to be the solution in protecting children and preventing

RSOs from reoffending. In order for the offenders in this sample to meet the offending

pattern for most RR laws, the buffer zones would have had to increase to 22,456 feet, or

about four miles, the mean distance travelled for the offenders in Class 1 to meet/contact

their victims. This obviously is not a feasible distance for such a policy, and would essentially prevent sex offenders from residing anywhere but in rural areas.

An important note is the characteristics of the State of New Jersey selected for the study. As stated previously New Jersey is a densely populated state, with an average of 1,195.5 persons per square, (the U.S. average is 87.4 persons per square). Compared to other states, it is assumed that New Jersey has more potential victims in close proximity to where offenders reside, yet offenders still on average traveled about four miles outside their residence to access victims. In other words, it is not surprising if offenders in other states such as Florida, with an average 2010 population density of 350.6 persons per square mile, or Minnesota, with an average 2010 population density of 66.6 persons per square mile travel outside a 2,500-foot buffer zones, as seen with Zandbergen et al. (2010), and Duwe et al. (2008) (U.S. Census Bureau).

Ocean County was distinctly different that the other five counties when examining the offenses at the county-level. Ocean County was the largest, least densely populated, had the fewest number of restricted landmarks, and had the largest ratio (3:12) of offenders in Class 1 to Class 2 who did not share a residence with their victim. Two offenders who resided in Ocean County and one offender who resided just outside of Ocean County contacted their victims on the internet, in which two drove long distance to access them in person. One offender in Class 1 who met his victim on the internet invited the victim to his personal residence. Although too small a number to draw definite conclusions, it does bring into question that even if offenders do not reside in locations

with a large number of potential victims, they are able to access victims through other means (personal residence, family, internet).

The next two largest counties, both in population and size (square miles) were Bergen County and Middlesex County. Offenders convicted in both of these counties traveled the furthest to meet/contact their victims, both for offenders in Class 1 and the non-household offenders in Class 2. Bergen County has a greater population density than Middlesex County, and the offenders in Bergen County, on average traveled a shorter distance than those convicted in Middlesex. This pattern was also noted with Essex County. Essex County is the most densely populated, and the offender in Class 1 and non-household offenders in Class 2 convicted in Essex County traveled the shortest distance to meet/contact their victims.

The remaining two counties (Passaic and Camden) were also compared, and Passaic County was more densely populated than Camden, where offenders in both Class 1 and Class 2 traveled shorter distances to meet/contact victims. Passaic County was second to Essex County for the distance the offenders in Class 1 traveled to meet/contact victims, and offenders in Class 2 were second to Ocean County, which had the shortest distance traveled to meet/contact locations for the Class 2 offenders. This supports the assumption that the more densely populated an area is, the greater the number of potential victims and therefore, the shorter distance the offender needs to travel to access victims. Although, the offenders in these populated areas traveled the shortest distance, as mentioned previously, they exceed most maximum RR law buffer zones of 2,500 feet.

Sex offenders have the ability to travel, and the ability to access victims through several methods and types of locations during their daily activities. Although most offenders who met/contacted victims in public did so within a few miles of their residence, far outside a 2,500-foot buffer zone. This study concludes that a 2,500-foot buffer zone does little if nothing to prevent offenders from gaining access to potential victims. The results of this study suggests social proximity i.e. victim-offender relationship and method of meeting victim, and not physical proximity to victims being a risk factor to having access to victims. The meet/contact locations and offense locations that occurred in a restricted landmark were likely due to the offender's social network, and not residential proximity. This questions the practicality of broadly implemented RR laws for all types of sex offenders, not just incest sex offenders. Offenders in general have the ability to travel to gain access to victims, and a simple buffer zone of prohibited residential locations does not adequately protect children from becoming potential victims.

As stated on page 249, New Jersey Bills S570 and A1342 were recently drafted to restrict where registered sex offenders can reside. Particular members of the New Jersey State legislature will continue to lobby for RR laws. New Jersey has several sex offender policies in place, and does not need more sex offender legislation or a broadly implemented RR law. The state currently has a three-tier SORN law, a SVP law that involuntarily civilly commits sex offenders after they complete their sentence, and has a designated correctional facility designed to provide sex offender treatment while offenders are serving their sentence. The current policies in addition to developing

education programs for children and parents to bring awareness to the more common types of sexual offending may better assist in preventing future sex offenses.

This study concludes that a great deal of emphasis and confidence are placed on sex offender laws to protect community members from sexual victimization. However, these laws only apply to a small percentage of sex offenders. As mentioned previously in the study by Ragusa-Salerno and Zgoba (2012), 88.6 percent of their sample of sexual offenders would not even be eligible for registration and even fewer would be subject to registration and notification under New Jersey's Megan's Law. The current study examined general sex offending patterns of sex offenders in which those who fit the offending patterns of most RR was less than one percent. Resources may be better spent by placing more emphasis on the more common types of sexual offending to effectively protect children from victimization.

Appendix A- Description of Location Information

Appendix A Table 1.

Description of meet/contact location information located in offenders' file

Meet/contact location type	Address (address or intersection)	Name of location	Name of location and street name	Street name and description of location	Detailed description of location	Missing	Total
Shared residence	133					1	134
Offender residence	39					0	39
Victim residence	27					4	31
Other residence	3					8	11
Shared apt 259ldg..	7					0	7
Street/outdoors	12			2		0	14
Public/indoors	1	6	1			0	8
Motel		1	1			0	2
School		4	1			1	6
Park		2				1	3
Daycare		1				0	1
Religious Institution		6				0	6

Internet						8	8
Total	222	20	3	2	0	23	270

Appendix A Table 2.

Description of offense location information located in offenders' file

Offense Location Type	Address (address or intersection)	Name of location	Name of location and street name	Street name and description of location	Detailed description of location	Missing	Total
Shared residence	133					1	134
Offender residence	54					0	54
Victim residence	21					5	26
Other residence	3					10	13
Street/outdoors	11		1	4	1	0	17
Public/indoors		6	2			0	8
Motel		2	1			0	3
School		3				1	4
Park		3				1	4
Daycare		1				0	1
Religious Institution		2				0	2
Internet						4	4

| Total | 222 | 17 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 22 | 270 |

Appendix A Table 1 lists the meet/contact location types, and the amount of address/location detail found in the offenders' files. Twenty-three of these locations were not identified from the information in the file, eight of which were on the internet. According to Duwe et al. (2008), when seeking to identify the initial contact locations in their study, it often took an extensive review of the offenders' files, as these locations were not consistently found in one place or one document, in which 13 locations were not found (G. Duwe, personal communication, April 16, 2014). Similarly, the current study reviewed several documents in the file to identify the meet/contact location for each offender. Some file documents contained the full address or an intersection, especially if it was a residential location or a violent sexual assault on the street. Offenses that occurred on the street or in public often listed the meet/contact address in the police reports, as it was often the same address as the offense. Several meet/contact locations in the files were mentioned by name (e.g. Name of Hospital, name of City/Town). To identify an exact address, Google Maps (street view and/or aerial view), Electronic Yellow Pages, and/or the website of the establishment was used to identify the exact address for geocoding. Some locations provided a street name along with a description of the location (e.g. Street Name near bridge, railroad tracks, and bushes, or Name of Fast Food Restaurant on Street Name and Name of Town). Google Maps (street view and/or aerial view) was used to identify the location and an exact address to geocode. Similarly, when Duwe et al. (2008) encountered this missing address information in their study, the Google search engine was used to conduct a search of the location to identify the address (G. Duwe, personal communication, April 22, 2014).

Two hundred twenty-two of the files had the full address or intersection of the meet/contact locations, the remaining locations had to be identified using Google Maps (street view and/or aerial view), Electronic Yellow Pages, and/or the website of the establishment to identify the exact address for geocoding. Of 270 meet/contact locations in the sample, 134 were shared residences, 39 were offenders' residences, 31 were victims' residences, seven were a shared apartment building, and 11 were other residences. Two shared residence, four victims' residences, and eight other residences were not found in the file. Sixteen of the meet/contact locations were one of the restricted landmarks. These addresses were already compiled, and were identified by the landmark name and the city/town of the landmark.

Appendix A Table 2 lists the offense location types, and the amount of address/location detail found in the offenders' files. The offense locations were often the same locations identified previously as the meet/contact locations. Twenty-two offense location addresses were not identified in the file; unlike the study by Duwe et al. (2008), who did not have any missing offense locations (G. Duwe, personal communication, April 16, 2014). However, four of the 22 missing locations were internet-related offenses. Two hundred twenty-two of the files had the full address or intersection of the offense location, the remaining addresses had to be identified using Google Maps (street view and/or aerial view), Electronic Yellow Pages, and/or the website of the establishment to identify the exact address for geocoding. Several offense locations in the file were mentioned as the name of the establishment (e.g. Name of Motel, name of Town). Some files contained information that provided a street name, and a description

of the location (e.g. parking lot on Street Name, behind a dumpster). Google Maps (street view and/or aerial view) was used to identify the location and an address to geocode. On one occasion, a detailed description of the offense location was found in the file (e.g., parking lot near specific athletic field at Name of College). To identify the location and an exact address for geocoding, Google Maps (street view and/or aerial view) was used. Of the 270 offense locations, 134 were shared residences, 54 were offenders' residences, 26 were victims' residences, and 13 were other residences. One shared residence was missing, five victims' residence, and ten other residences were missing and could not be identified.

Appendix B- Description of Variable Coding

Codebook

No.	Variable	Label	Level of Measurement	Description
1	CountyRes	County of Residence	Categorical	0 = Essex 1 = Bergen 2 = Passaic 3 = Middlesex 4 = Camden 5 = Ocean 6 = Mercer 7 = Atlantic 8 = Hudson 9 = Hunterton 10 = Gloucester 11 = Monmouth 12 = Out of State
2	CountyCommit	County of Commitment	Categorical	0 = Essex 1 = Bergen 2 = Passaic 3 = Middlesex 4 = Camden 5 = Ocean
3	PopDensityCountyReside	Population Density County Reside	Continuous	The number of persons per square mile residing in the county where the offender was convicted, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, 2012.
4	PopDensityCountyCommit	Population Density County Commit	Continuous	The number of persons per square mile in the county where the offender resided at the time of offense, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, 2012.

5	PopDensityCityReside	Population Density City Residence	Continuous	The number of persons per square mile residing in the city where the offender was residing at the time he committed his offense, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, 2012.
6	PopDensityCityMeet	Population Density City Meet	Continuous	The number of persons per square mile residing in the city where the offender met/contacted his victim, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, 2012.
7	PopDensityCityCrime	Population Density City Crime	Continuous	The number of persons per square mile residing in the city where the offender was committed his offense, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, 2012.
8	PopDensityCountyUnder18	Population Density County under 18	Continuous	The number of persons per square mile under the age of 18 residing in the county where the offender was convicted, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, 2012.
9	OffenseYears 2	Offense Years (Group)	Categorical	The variable indicates the year the offense

				occurred. Coded as followed: 0 = 1990-1999 1= 2000-2003 2= 2004-2007 4 = 2008-2012
10	AgeOffender6	Age Offender6	Categorical	The variable indicates the age of the offender at the time of offense. Coded as followed: 0 = Under 24 1 = 25-29 2 = 30-34 3 = 35-39 4 = 40-49 5 = 50 and over
11	Age35andup	Age 35 and up	Categorical	The variable indicates the age of the offender at the time of offense. Re-coded dichotomous variable: 0 = No 1= Yes
12	RaceEthnicity4	Race/Ethnicity4	Categorical	The variable indicates the race of the offender Coded as followed: 0 = White/Caucasian 1 = Black/African 2 = American Hispanic 3 = Asian/Other
13	DRaceWte	DRaceEthnicity= White/Caucasian	Categorical	The variable indicates the race of the offender Re-coded dichotomous variable:

				0 = No 1= Yes
14	RelationshipS tat8	Relationship Status 8	Categorical	The variable indicates the relationship status of the offender at the time of offense Coded as followed: 0 = Single 1 = Single in Relationship 2 = Married 3 = Separated 4 = Separated in Relationship 5 = Divorced 6 = Divorced in Relationship 7 = Widowed
15	DRelStat4_M	Relstat4=Married	Categorical	Dichotomous variable whether the offender was married at the time of offense 0 = No 1= Yes
16	BioChildren5	Biological Children5	Categorical	The variable indicates whether the offender fathered children of his own, and had then the time of offense. Coded at followed: 0 = None 1= 1 2 = 2 3 = 3 4 = 4 or more
17	KnownBioChi ldren2	Known Biological Children2	Categorical	Dichotomous variable recoded whether the offender had fathered children at the time of offense

				0 = No 1= Yes
18	EmployRestrict	Employed Restricted	Categorical	The variable indicates whether the offender is employed or volunteer in a school, park, daycare, or religious institution the time of offense 0 = No 1= Yes
19	EmployMinorsd	Employed directly with Minors	Categorical	The variable indicates whether the offender is employed or volunteer directly with minors the time of offense 0 = No 1= Yes
20	VictimAge3	Victim Age 3	Categorical	The variable indicates the age of the victim Coded as followed: 0 = under 12 1= 12-17 2 = Adult
21	DVAgeAdult	DVictimAge3=Adult	Categorical	Dichotomous variable recoded indicating whether the victim was an adult 0 = No 1= Yes
22	DVAge_U12	DVictimAge3=under 12	Categorical	Dichotomous variable recoded indicating whether the victim was under the age of 12. 0 = No 1= Yes

23	VictimGender	Victim Gender	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the gender of the victim. 0 = Male 1= Female
24	VictGender3	Victim Gender 3	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the gender of the victim Coded as followed: 0 = Male 1 = Female 2= Virtual Female
25	VOR17	Relationship to Victim 17	Categorical	The variable indicates the relationship of the victim and offender. Coded as followed: 0 = Stranger 1= Bio Father 2= Stepfather 3 = Mother's Live-in Boyfriend 4 = Mother's Boyfriend (non-live in) 5 = Adoptive/Foster Father 6 =Brother/Half-brother 7 =Cousin/Second Cousin 8 =Uncle/Great Uncle 9 =Grandfather 10 = Friend of Family 11 = School Official 12 = Religious Official 13 = Daycare/Babysitter 14 = Neighbor 15 = Athletic Coach (non-school)

				16 = Other Acquaintance
26	VOR4	Relationship to Victim 4	Categorical	The variable indicates the relationship of the victim and offender. Re-coded as followed: 0 = Incest/Family 1= Step/Foster/ Live-in BF 2 = Acquaintance 3 = Stranger
27	VOR3	Relationship to Victim 3	Categorical	The variable indicates the relationship of the victim and offender. Re-coded as followed: 0 = Stranger 1 =Acquaintance 2= Relative
28	VictimStranger	Victim was Stranger	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the victim was a stranger 0 = No 1= Yes
29	Household	Household Member	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the sexual act the offender performed on the victim involved physical contact. 0 = No 1= Yes
30	OffenseActs6	Offense Acts 6	Categorical	The variable indicates the sexual act the offender performed on the victim.

				Coded as followed: 0 = Intercourse 1= Oral Sex 2 = Fondling with penetration 3 = Fondling no penetration 4= Exposing/Masturbation/ Luring 5 = Internet Luring
31	ContactOffense	Contact Offense	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the victim was a household member. 0 = No 1= Yes
32	MultipleIncident	Offense Multiple Incidents Same Vic	Categorical	The variable indicates whether the offender committed multiple offenses upon the same victim 0 = No 1= Yes
33	ForceRestrain	Offense Force or Physical Restraint	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the sexual act the offender performed on the victim involved physical force or restraint. 0 = No 1= Yes
34	Threats	Offense Threat Physical Harm	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the sexual act the offender performed on the

				victim involved threat of physical harm. 0 = No 1= Yes
35	Weapond	Offense Weapon Used	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the sexual act the offender performed on the victim involved a weapon. 0 = No 1= Yes
36	Weapon2	Offense Type of Weapon	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicated the type of weapon used. Coded as followed: 0 = Gun 1= Knife 2 = Other
37	ForceThreat	Offense Physical Force or Threat	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the sexual act the offender performed on the victim involved physical force or threat of physical harm. 0 = No 1= Yes
38	Statutory	Offense Statutory	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the sexual act the offender performed on the victim involved was a statutory offense 0 = No 1= Yes

39	ContactMethod9	Victim Meeting/Contact Method9	Categorical	The variable indicates the method the victim and offender met or came into contact. Coded as followed: 0 = through victim's mother 1= through victim's father 2= through victim's other family member 3 = through victim's friend/acquaintance 4 = Victim was family member 5 = Street/public 6 = through employment/volunteer 7 = neighborhood/apt building 8 = internet
40	MeetMethod5	Meet Method 5	Categorical	The variable indicates the method the victim and offender met or came into contact. Coded as followed: 0 = Employment 1= Street/public 2= Neighbor 3 = Internet 4 = Indirectly
41	ContactMethod3	Victim Meeting/Contact Method 3	Categorical	The variable indicates the method the victim and offender met or came into contact. Re-coded as followed: 0 = Vict was Family 1= Through Vict Parent

				2 = Not Through family
42	Directcontact	Directly contacted victim	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates the offender met their victim directly or indirectly (through another person) 0 = No 1= Yes
43	VicMeetCont Loca13	Location of Meeting/Contact Type 13	Categorical	The variable indicates the type of location where victim and offender met or came into contact. Coded as followed: 0 = Shared Residence 1= Offender's 2= Residence 3 = Victim's Residence 4 = Other Residence 5 = Street/Public 6 = Shared Apt Bldg 7 = Restricted Location 8 = Internet
44	VicMeetCont Loca3r	Location of Meeting/Contact Type 3r	Categorical	The variable indicates the type of location where victim and offender met or came into contact. Re-coded as followed: 0 = Shared Res 1= Res Not Shared 2 = Non Res
45	VicContactRe strict	Location of Meet/Contact Restricted	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender

				met or contacted the victim in a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. 0 = No 1= Yes
46	OffenseLocat Type12	Location of Offense Type 12	Categorical	The variable indicates the type of location where the offense took place. Coded as followed: 0 = Shared Residence 1= Offender's 2= Residence 3 = Victim's Residence 4 = Other Residence 5 = School/School bus 6 = Daycare 7 = Park 8 = Religious 9 = Public-outdoors 10 = Public-indoors 11 = Motel 12 = Internet
47	OffenseLocat NonResidence	Location of Offense NonResidence	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offense took place in a non-residential location. 0 = No 1= Yes
48	OffenseRestri c	Location of Offense Restricted	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offense took place in a school, park, daycare, or religious institution. 0 = No

				1= Yes
49	DCrimeLoca_Net	DOffenseLocatType3=Internet	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offense was an internet-related crime 0 = No 1= Yes
50	DCrimeLoca_Res	DOffenseLocatType3=Residence	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offense took place in a residential location. 0 = No 1= Yes
51	dPriorSexArrest	Prior Sex Arrests	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender has a prior arrest for a sexually related offense. 0 = No 1= Yes
52	dPriorSexConvict	Risk Prior Sex Convictions	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender has a prior conviction for a sexually related offense. 0 = No 1= Yes
53	TotalKnownVic	Victims Total Known	Continuous	The number of know victims the offender has committed sexually-related crimes against
54	TotContactVics2	Victims Total > 1	Categorical	Dichotomous variable recoded

				indicating whether the offender had two or more contact victims 0 = No 1= Yes

55	d2orMoreCon tV	2 or more Cont Vics	Categorical	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender has two or more known victims that the offender has committed contact sexual offenses. 0 = No 1= Yes

Independent Variables

56	ProxResidenc etoVictim	Proximity Residence to Meet/Victim	Continuous	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to the location where the offender met/contact their victim.

57	ProxResideto Offense	Proximity Residence to Offense	Continuous	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to the location where the offender committed the offense.

58	ProxResidenc etoVictim9	Proximity Residence to Meet/Victim9	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to the location where the offender met/contact their victim. Coded as followed: 0 = 0 ft 1 = < 1000 feet

				2 = 1000–2500 feet
				3 = 2501 feet –1 mile
				4 = 1–2 miles
				5 = 3–5 miles
				6 = 6–10 miles
				7 = 11–20 miles
				8 = > 20 miles
59	Prox Reside to Meet3	Proximity Residence to Meet/Victim9	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to the location where the offender met/contact their victim. Coded as followed: 0 = 0 ft 1 = 1- 2,500 feet 2 = >2500 feet
60	ProxResideTo Offense9	Proximity Residence to Offense9	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to the location where the offense occurred. Coded as followed: 0 = 0 ft 1 = < 1000 feet 2 = 1000–2500 feet 3 = 2501 feet –1 mile 4 = 1–2 miles 5 = 3–5 miles 6 = 6–10 miles 7 = 11–20 miles 8 = > 20 miles
61	Prox Reside to Off 3	Prox Reside to Off 3	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to the location where the offense occurred. Coded as followed: 0 = 0 ft 1 = 1- 2,500 feet

				$2 = >2500$ feet
62	ProxResideto vic25K	Proximity to Meet Victim 2500ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender met or contacted their victim within 2500 feet of their residence. $0 =$ No $1 =$ Yes
63	ProxResideto Offense25K	Prox of reside to offense 2500ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender committed the offense within 2500 feet of their residence. $0 =$ No $1 =$ Yes
64	ProxResideTo School8	Proximity Residence to School8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to nearest school. Coded as followed: $0 = < 1,000$ feet $1 = 1,000–2,500$ feet $2 = 2,501$ feet –1 mile $3 = 1–2$ miles $4 = 3–5$ miles $5 = 6–10$ miles $6 = 11–20$ miles $7 = > 20$ miles
65	ProxResideTo Park8	Proximity Residence to Park8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to nearest park. Coded as followed: $0 = < 1,000$ feet $1 = 1,000–2,500$ feet $2 = 2,501$ feet –1 mile

				3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
66	ProxResideTo Dayc8	Proximity Residence to Daycare8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to nearest daycare. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
67	ProxResideTo Relig8	Proximity Residence to Religious Instit.8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offender's residence to nearest religious institution. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
68	ProxResideSc h25K	Prox Reside to Sch 2500ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender resides within 2500 feet of a school. 0 = No 1= Yes
69	ProxResideto	Prox Reside to	Categorical	Dichotomous

	Relig25K	Relig Instit 2500 ft	Missing Info = 999	variable indicates whether the offender resides within 2500 feet of a religious institution. 0 = No 1= Yes
70	ProxResidePark25K	ProxReside to Park 2500 ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender resides within 2500 feet of a park. 0 = No 1= Yes
71	ProxResidetoDay25K	Prox Reside to Daycare 2500 ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender resides within 2500 feet of a daycare. 0 = No 1= Yes
72	ProxMeetVictimToSch8	Proximity Meet/Victim Location to School8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the victim meet/contact location to nearest school. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
73	ProxMeetVictimToPark8	Proximity Meet/Victim Location to Park8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the victim meet/contact location to nearest park.

				Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
74	ProxMeetVict imToDay8	Proximity Meet/Victim Location to Daycare8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the victim meet/contact location to nearest daycare. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
75	ProxMeetVict imToRelig8	Proximity Meet/Victim Location to Religious 8.	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the victim meet/contact location to nearest religious institution. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
76	ProxMeettoD ay25K	Prox meet to Day 2500ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender met or contacted their

				victim within 2500 feet of a daycare. 0 = No 1= Yes
77	ProxMeettoPark25K	Prox Meet to Park 2500ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender met or contacted their victim within 2500 feet of a park. 0 = No 1= Yes
78	ProxMeettoRelig25K	Prox Meet to Relig Instit 2500 ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender met or contacted their victim within 2500 feet of a religious institution. 0 = No 1= Yes
79	ProxMeettoSch25K	Prox Meet to Sch 2500 ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender met or contacted their victim within 2500 feet of a school. 0 = No 1= Yes
80	ProxOffenseToSchool8	Proximity Offense to School8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offense location to nearest school. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles

				6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
81	ProxOffenseT oPark8	Proximity Offense to Park8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offense location to nearest park. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
82	ProxOffenseT oDay8	Proximity Offense to Daycare8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offense location to nearest daycare. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles 7 = > 20 miles
83	ProxOffenseT oRelig8	Proximity Offense to Religious 8	Categorical Missing Info = 999	The variable indicates the proximity of the offense location to nearest religious institution. Coded as followed: 0 = < 1,000 feet 1 = 1,000–2,500 feet 2 = 2,501 feet –1 mile 3= 1–2 miles 4 = 3–5 miles 5 = 6–10 miles 6 = 11–20 miles

				7 = > 20 miles
84	ProxOffenseto Day25K	Prox Offense to Daycare 2500 ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender committed the offense within 2500 feet of a daycare. 0 = No 1= Yes
85	ProxOffenseto Park25K	Prox Offense to Park 2500ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender committed the offense within 2500 feet of a park. 0 = No 1= Yes
86	ProxOffenseto Relig25K	Prox Offense to Relig 2500ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender committed the offense within 2500 feet of a religious institution. 0 = No 1= Yes
87	ProxOffenseto Sch25K	Prox Offense to School 2500 ft	Categorical Missing Info = 999	Dichotomous variable indicates whether the offender committed the offense within 2500 feet of a school. 0 = No 1= Yes

References

Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act, 42 U.S.C. § (2006). Retrieved January 11, 2011 from www.ojp.usdoj.gov/smart/sorna.htm.

Adam Walsh Reauthorization Act of 2011 H.R. 2870. Retrieved January 11, 2011 from www.govtrack.us/congress/bill.xpd?bill=h109-4472&tab=reports

Adkins, G., Huff, D., & Stageberg, P. (2000). Iowa sex offender registry and recidivism. Des Moines, IA: Iowa Department of Human Rights, Division of Criminal Justice Planning and Statistical Analysis Center.

American Psychiatric Association: The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition. Arlington, VA, American Psychiatric Association, 2013. Web. access date: 1 June 2013 from dsm.psychiatryonline.org.

Association for the Treatment of Sexual Abusers, Civil Commitment of Sexually Violent Predators. Retrieved March 25, 2012 from http://atsa.com/civil-commitmentsexually-violent-predators.

Bagley, A. (2008). An era of human zoning: Banishing sex offenders from communities through residence and work restrictions. *Emory Law Journal*, 57(5), 1347-1392.

Barnes, J., Dukes, T., Tewksbury, R. & De Troye, T. (2009). Analyzing the impact of a statewide residence restriction law on South Carolina sex offenders. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 20(1), 21-43.

Barnoski, R. (2005b). Sex offender sentencing in Washington State: Has community notification reduced recidivism? Olympia, WA: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

Baxter, D., Marshall, W., Barbaree, H., Davidson, P., & Malcolm, P. (1984). Deviant sexual behavior: Differentiating sex offenders by criminal and personal history, psychometric measures, and sexual response. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 11(4), 477-501.

Beauregard, E., & Leclerc, B. (2007). An application of the rational choice approach to the offending process of sex offenders: A closer look at the decision-making. *Sex Abuse*, 19, 115-133.

Beauregard, E., Rossmo, D., & Proulx, J. (2007). A descriptive model of the hunting process of serial sex offenders: A rational choice perspective. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22, 449–463.

Blood, P., Watson, L., & Stageberg, P. (2008). State legislation monitoring report. Des Moines, IA: Criminal and Juvenile Justice Planning.

Brannon, Y., Levenson, J., Fortney, Y., & Baker, J. (2007). Attitudes about community notification: A comparison of sexual offenders and the non-offending public. *Sex Abuse*, 19, 369–379.

Brown, K., Spencer, K. & Deakin, J. (2007). The reintegration of sex offenders: Barriers and opportunities for employment. *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 46(1), 32-42.

Burchfield, K. & Mingus, W. (2008). Not in my neighborhood: Assessing registered sex offenders' experiences with local social capital and social control. *Criminal Justice and Behavior,* 35, 356-374.

Casady, T. (2009). A police chief's viewpoint: Geographic aspects of sex offender residency restrictions. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 20(1), 16-20.

Center for Sex Offender Management. Retrieved on December 7, 2010 from www.csom.org/train/juvenile/7/7_4.htm.

Chajewski, M. & Mercado, C. (2009). An evaluation of sex offender residency restriction functioning in town, and city-wide jurisdictions. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 20(1), 44-61. Civil Commitment of Sexually Violent Predators. Retrieved March 24, 2012 from http://atsa.com/civil-commitment-sexually-violent-predators.

Child Welfare, 2013, retrieved April 8, 2014 from childwelfare.gov.

Cohen, L., & Felson, M. (1986). Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activity approach. *American Sociological Review*, 44 (4), 588-608.

Comartin, E., Kernsmith; P. & Kernsmith, R., (2009). Sanctions for sex offenders: Fear and public policy. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation*, 48(7), 605 – 619.

Connecticut Dept. of Public Safety v. Doe, 538 U.S. 1 (2003)

Cooper, R. (2011). The North Carolina sex offender & public protection registration programs. Retrieved January 11, 2011 from http://ncdoj.gov/Protect-Yourself/Find-SexOffenders/SexOffenderRegPrograms.aspx.

Corrigan, R. (2006). Making meaning of Megan's Law. *Law & Social Inquiry*, 31(2), 267–312.

Datz, A. (2009). Sex offender residency restrictions and other sex offender management strategies: The probation officer perspective in Florida. SLP-13. Retrieved November 15, 2011 from http://www.fdle.state.fl.us/Content/Florida-Criminal-Justice-Executive-Institute/Programs/Senior-Leadership-Program/topic-corrections---detention.aspx.

Doe v. Marion County, Indiana 12–2512 (2013). Retrieved January 21, 2014 from http://caselaw.findlaw.com/us-7th-circuit/1621340.html.

Doe v. Miller, 405 F.3d 700 (2005).

Doe v. Pataki, 940 F. Supp.603 (1996).

Doe v. Portiz, 142 N.J. 1, 662A.2d 367 (1995).

Dolan, M. (2009). Recent advances in therapy for sexual offenders. *F1000 Medicine Reports* 1(45). Retrieved April 9, 2014 from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2924729/#!po=6.25000.

Drug Dealer Registration Act, S4022, (2009)

Duwe, G. & Donnay, W. (2008). The impact of Megan's Law on sex offender recidivism: The Minnesota experience. *Criminology*, 46(2), 411-446.

Duwe, G., Donnay, W., & Tewksbury, R. (2008). Does residential proximity matter? A geographic analysis of sex offense recidivism. *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 35, 484-504.

Farley, L. (2008). Adam Walsh Act: The scarlet letter of the twenty-first century, *The Washburn Law Journal,* 47, 471-503.

Federal Megan's Law 42 U.S.C. § (1996).

Florida Department of Law Enforcement. Retrieved January 11, 2011 from http://offender.fdle.state.fl.us/offender).

Freeman, N. (2009). The public safety impact of community notification laws rearrest of convicted sex offenders. *Crime & Delinquency*, 18, 1-27. Retrieved July 20, 2010 from http://cad.sagepub.com/.

Gaines, J. (2006). Law enforcement reactions to sex offender registration and community notification. *Police Practice and Research*, 7(3), 249–267.

Gavin, H. (2005). The social construction of the child sex offender explored by narrative. *The Qualitative Report*, 10 (3), 395-413.

Gebhard, P., Gagnon, J., Pomeroy, W., & Christenson, C. (1965). Sex offenders: An analysis of types. New York: Harper & Row.

G.H. v. Township of Galloway, and Township of Cherry Hill v. Barclay and Finguerra, A-64/65 (2009).

Goode, E., & Ben-Yehuda, N. (1994). Moral panics: Culture, politics, and social construction. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 20, 149-171.

Grinberg, E. (2011). 5 years later, states struggle to comply with federal sex offender law. Retrieved September 24, 2011 from www.cnn.com/2011/CRIME/07/28/sex.offender.adam.walsh.act/index.html?hpt= hp_c2.

Groth, A. (1979). Sexual trauma in the life histories of rapists and child molesters. *Victimology*, 4, 10-16.

Groth A. & Birnbaum H. (1978). Adult sexual orientation and attraction to underage persons. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 7(3), 175-81.

Groth, A. & Birnbaum, J. (1979). Men who rape : The psychology of the offender. Plenum Press, New York.

Grubesic, T. (2010). Sex offender clusters. *Applied Geography*, 30(1), 2-18.

Grubesic, T., Mack, E., & Murray, A. (2007). Geographic exclusion spatial analysis for evaluating the implications of Megan's Law. *Social Science Computer Review*, 25(2), 143162.

Hanson, R., and Morton-Bourgon, K. (2004). Predictors of sexual recidivism: An updated meta-analysis. Ottawa, ON: Public Works and Government Services.

Harris, A., & Hanson, R. (2004). Sex offender recidivism: A simple question (No. 2004–2003). Ottawa, ON: Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada.

Holder, E. (2010). Office of Labor Management Standards, Department of Labor. *Federal Register*, 75(93), 27362-27366.

Hughes, L. & Kadleck, C. (2008). Offender community notification and community stratification. *Justice Quarterly*, 25(3), 469-495.

Jacob Wetterling Crimes Against Children and Sexually Violent Offender Registration Program. 42 U.S.C (1994).

Jennings, W., Zgoba, K., and Tewksbury, R. (2012). A comparative longitudinal analysis of recidivism trajectories and collateral consequences for sex and non-sex offenders released since the implementation of sex offender registration and community notification. *Journal of Crime and Justice,* 1-9.

Jessica Lunsford Act, 1012.465 F.S. (2005)

Kabat, A. (1998). Scarlet letter sex offender databases and community notification: Sacrificing personal privacy for a symbol's sake. *American Criminal Law Review*, 35, 333- 370.

Kang, S. (2012). The Consequences of Sex Offender Residency Restriction: Evidence from North Carolina. Retrieved May 14, 2012 from www.econ.duke.edu, 1-43.

Kansas v. Hendricks, 117 S. Ct. 2072 (1997).

Langan, P., & Levin, D. (2002). Recidivism in prisoners released in 1994. Washington, DC: Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Langan, P., Schmitt, E., & Durose, R. (2003). Recidivism of sex offenders released from prison in 1994. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Letourneau, E., & Armstrong, K. (2008). Recidivism rates for registered and non-registered juvenile sexual offenders. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*, 20(4), 393-408.

Letourneau. E., Bandyopadhyay, D., Sinha, D., & Armstrong, K. (2008). The influence of sex offender registration on juvenile sexual recidivism. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 5, 1-17. Retrieved July 20, 2010 from http://cjp.sagepub.com/.

Letourneau, E., Levenson, J., Bandyopadhyay, D., Sinha, D., & Armstrong, K. (2009). Effects of South Carolina's sex offender registration and notification policy on adult recidivism. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 16, 1-25. Retrieved July 20, 2010 from http://cjp.sagepub.com/.

Letourneau, E., Levenson, J., Bandyopadhyay, D., Armstrong, K. & Sinha, D. (2010). Effects of South Carolina's sex offender registration and notification policy on deterrence of adult sex crimes. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 37, 537-552.

Levenson, J., Brannon, Y., Fortney, T., & Baker, J. (2007). Public perceptions about sex offenders and community protection policies. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy*, 7(1), 137-161.

Levenson, J, & Cotter, L. (2005a). The impact of sex offender residence restrictions: 1,000 feet from danger or one-step from absurd? *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Cognitive Criminology* 49(2), 168-178.

Levenson, J, & Cotter, L. (2005b). The effect of Megan's Law on sex offender reintegration. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 21(1), 49-66.

Levenson, J., D'Amora, D., & Hern, A. (2007). Megan's Law and its impact on community re-entry for sex offenders. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law,* 25, 587–602.

Lieb, R., & Nunlist, C. (2008). Community notification as viewed by Washington's Citizens: A ten-year follow-up (No. 08-03-1101). Olympia: Washington State Institute for Public Policy.

Maghelal, P., Olivares, M., Wunneburger, D., & Roman, G. (2008). Where are they? A spatial inquiry of sex offenders in Brazos County. *URISA Journal*, 20(1), 29-60.

Mancini, C., Shields, R., Mears, D., & Beaver, K. (2010). Sex offender residence restriction laws: Parental perceptions and public policy. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 38, 1022–1030.

Meloy, M., Miller, S., & Curtis, K. (2008). Making sense out of nonsense: The deconstruction of State-level sex offender residence restrictions. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 33, 209–222.

Mercado, C., Alvarez, S., & Levenson, J. (2008). The impact of specialized sex offender legislation on community reentry. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*, 20(2), 188-205.

Miethe, T., Hart, T., & Regoeczi, W. (2008). The conjunctive analysis of case configurations: An exploratory method for discrete multivariate analysis of crime data. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 24, 227-241.

Minnesota Bureau of Criminal Apprehension. Minnesota Predatory Offender Registration. Retrieved December 7, 2010 from https://por.state.mn.us/.

Morrison, S. (2008). Creating sex offender registries: The religious right and the failure to protect society's vulnerable. *American Journal of Criminal Law*, 35(1), 23-89. Retrieved July 20, 2010 from www.works.bepress.com.

MPR News. Sex offender laws have unintended consequences. Retrieved February 2, 2011 from http://minnesota.publicradio.org/display/web/2007/06/11/sexoffender1

Mustaine, E., Tewksbury, R., & Stengel, K. (2006a). Social disorganization and residential locations of registered sex offenders: Is this collateral consequence? *Deviant Behavior*, 27(3), 329 – 350.

Mustaine, E., Tewksbury, R., & Stengel, K. (2006b). Residential location and mobility of registered sex offenders. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 30(2), 177-192.

Newark Public Schools. Retrieved May 13, 2012 from http://www.nps.k12.nj.us/newarkpublicschools/site/default.asp.

New Jersey Legislature. Retrieved July 3, 2013 from http://www.njleg.state.nj.us/2012/Bills/A1500/1342_I1.HTM.

New Jersey Sexually Violent Predator Act, P.L. 1998. c. 71 N.J.S.A. 30:4-27.24 to 27.38.

New Jersey Statute, Children-juvenile and Domestic Relations Courts - Report of abuse 9:6-8.10.

New York Division of Criminal Justice Services. Retrieved January 11, 2011 from http://criminaljustice.state.ny.us/nsor.

Nobels, M., Levenson, J., & Youstin, T. (2012). Effectiveness of residence restrictions in preventing sex offense recidivism. *Crime & Delinquency*, 58(4), 491-513.

Norman-Eady, S. (2007). Sex offenders' residency restrictions. OLR Research Report. Retrieved on December 7, 2010 from www.cga.ct.gov/2007/rpt/2007-R-0380.htm.

Norman-Eady, S. (2009). Local ordinances restricting sex offenders from certain areas. Retrieved April 21, 2013 from http://www.cga.ct.gov/2009/rpt/2009-R-0277.htm.

Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. Retrieved on January 11, 2011 from www.govtrack.us/congress/bill.xpd?bill=h109-4472&tab=reports. retrieved January 11, 2011 www.ojp.usdoj.gov.

Ordinances regarding residency restrictions for sex offenders.   Retrieved April 21, 2013 from (http://www.mainelegislature.org/legis/statutes/30-A/title30-Asec3014.html).

Prescott, J., & Rockoff, J. (2008). Do sex offender registration and notification laws affect criminal behavior? University of Michigan Law School, The John M. Online Center for Law & Economics Working Paper Series, 85. Retrieved July 20, 2010 from http://law.bepress.com/umichlwps/olin/art26/.

Presley, M. (1999). Jimmy Ryce Involuntary Civil Commitment for Sexually Violent Predators' Treatment and Care Act: Replacing criminal justice with civil commitment. *Florida State University Law Review*, 26, 487-516.

Ragusa-Salerno, L., & Zgoba, K. (2012): Taking stock of 20 years of sex offender laws and research: an examination of whether sex offender legislation has helped or hindered our efforts. *Journal of Crime and Justice*, DOI:10.1080/0735648X.2012.662069.

Robbers, M. (2009). Lifers on the outside: Sex offenders and disintegrative shaming. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 53(1), 5-28.

Sample, L. & Kadleck, C. (2008). Sex offender laws: Legislators' accounts of the need for policy. *Criminal Justice Policy Review,* 19, 40-62.

Sandler, J., Freeman, N., & Socia, K. (2008). Does a watched pot boil? A time-series analysis of New York State's sex offender registration and notification law. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 14(4), 284–302.

Schiavone, S. & Jeglic, E. (2009). Public perception of sex offender *s*ocial policies and the impact on sex offenders. *International Journal of Offender Therapy & Comparative Criminology*, 53(6), 679- 695.

Sex Offender Residency Restrictions. Retrieved April 21, 2013 from http://www.leominster-ma.gov/pdf/ofender-ordinance-2011.pdf).

Smith v. Doe, 538 U.S. 84 (2003). State of New Jersey Department of Children and Families. Retrieved May 13, 2012 from http://www.state.nj.us/dcf/divisions/licensing/laws.html.

Socia, K. (2011). The policy implications of residence restrictions on sex offender housing in Upstate NY. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 10 (2), 351-389.

Socia, K. (2012). The efficacy of county -level sex offender residence restrictions in New York. *Crime & Delinquency*, 58(4), 612-642.

State of New Jersey Department of Children and Families. Retrieved May 13, 2012 from http://www.state.nj.us/dcf/divisions/licensing/laws.html.

Sutherland, E. (1950). The diffusion of sexual psychopath laws. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 56(2), 142-148.

Tewksbury, R. (2005). Collateral Consequences of sex offender registration. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 21(1), 67-81.

Tewksbury, R., Jennings, W. & Zgoba, K. (2012). A longitudinal investigation of the effectiveness of SORN on recidivism: The New Jersey experience. *Behavioral Science & the Law*, 30(3), 308–328.

Tewksbury, R. & Mustaine, E. (2006). Where to find sex offenders: An examination of residential locations and neighborhood conditions. *Criminal Justice Studies*, 19(1), 61–75.

Tewksbury, R., & Mustaine, E. (2008). Where registered sex offenders live: Community characteristics and proximity to possible victims. *Victims & Offenders*, 3(1), 86–98.

Tewksbury, R., Mustaine, E., & Stengel, K. (2008). Examining rates of sexual offenses from a routine activities perspective. *Victims & Offenders*, 3(1), 75 – 85.

Tewksbury, R., Mustaine, E., & Stengel, K. (2007). Residential concentrations of rural registered sex offenders. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 31:49–63.

Tewksbury, R. & Zgoba, K. (2009). Perceptions and coping with punishment: How registered sex offenders respond to stress, internet restrictions, and the collateral consequences of registration*. International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 26,1-16.

Truman, J. (2011). Criminal victimization, 2010. U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Uggen C., & Hlavka, H. (2008). Does stigmatizing sex offenders drive down reporting rates?   Perverse effects and unintended consequences. *Northern Kentucky Law Review*, 35(4), 347-369.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2012). Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/data/2012.

U.S. Department of Justice. Office of Justice Programs. Retrieved January 11, 2011 from http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/.

U.S. Department of Justice. Office of Justice Programs. SORNA. Retrieved January 11, 2011 from http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/smart/sorna.htm.

U.S. Department of Justice. SORNA Extensions Granted. Retrieved January 11, 2011 from www.ojp.usdoj.gov/smart/pdfs/SORNA_Extensions_Granted.pdf.

U.S. v. Comstock, 560 U.S. (2010)

Vásquez, B., Maddan, S., & Walker, J. (2008). The influence of sex offender registration and notification laws in the United States : A time-series analysis. *Crime & Delinquency* 54, 7. Retrieved July 20, 2010 from http://cad.sagepub.com/.

Veysey, B., Zgoba, K., & Dalessandro, M. (2008). A preliminary step toward evaluating the impact of Megan's Law: A trend analysis of sexual offenses in New Jersey from 1985 to 2005. *Justice, Research & Policy*, 10(2), 1–18.

Walker, J., Golden, J., & Van Houten, C. (2001). The geographic link between sex offenders and potential victims: A routine activities Approach. *Justice Research and Policy*, 3(2), 15-33.

Walker, J. (2007). Eliminate residency restriction laws for sex offenders. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 6(4), 863-870.

Ward, T., & Brown, M. (2004). The Good Lives Model and conceptual issues in offender rehabilitation. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, 10(3), 243 -257.

Ward, T., & Gannon, T. (2006). Rehabilitation, etiology, and self-regulation: The comprehensive good lives model of treatment for sexual offenders. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 11, 77– 94.

Wright, R., (2008). Sex offender post incarceration sanctions: Are there any limits? *New England Journal on Criminal & Civil Confinement*, 34, 17-50.

Yung, C. (2007). Banishment by a thousand laws: Residency restrictions on sex offenders. *Washington University Law Review*, 85, 101-157.

Yung, C. (2009). The emerging criminal war on sex offenders. *Harvard Civil Rights-Civil Liberties Law Review*, (45), 435- 481.

Zandbergen, P., Levenson, J., & Hart, T. (2010). Residential proximity to schools and daycares: An empirical analysis of sex offense recidivism. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 37, 482-502.

Zevitz, R., Crim, D, & Farkas, M. (2000). Sex offender community notification: Managing high-risk criminals or exacting further vengeance? *Behavior Sciences and the Law*, 18, 375-391.

Zgoba, K. (2004). Spin doctors and moral crusaders: the moral panic behind child safety legislation. *Criminal Justice Studies*, 17(4), 385–404.

Zgoba, K. (2011). Residence restriction buffer zones and the banishment of sex offenders: Have we gone one step too far? *Criminology & Public Policy*, 10(2), 391-400.

Zgoba, K., Levenson, J. & McKee, T. (2009). Examining the impact of sex offender residence restrictions on housing availability. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 20(1), 91-110.

Zgoba, K., Veysey, B., & Dalessandro, M. (2010). An analysis of the effectiveness of Community Notification and Registration: Do the best intentions predict the best practices? *Justice Quarterly*, 27(5), 667-691.

<div align="center">**Curriculum Vitae**</div>

Date and Place of Birth
June 3, 1975
Buffalo, New York

Secondary School Attended
Academy of the Holy Names
Albany, New York
High School Diploma (May, 1994)

Universities Attended
State University of New York at Albany
Albany, New York
Bachelor of Arts – Psychology – (May, 1998)

Russell Sage College, Sage Graduate School
Albany, New York
Master of Arts – Forensic Psychology – (May, 2004)

Rutgers University
Newark, New Jersey
Master of Arts – Criminal Justice – (May, 2009)

Rutgers University
Newark, New Jersey
Doctor of Philosophy – Criminal Justice – (May, 2014)

Academic Positions

2008-2011   Part-time Lecturer   School of Criminal Justice, Rutgers University
2008-2008   Adjunct Professor   Department of Law and Society, Ramapo College

Courses Instructed
Criminology, Rutgers University
Introduction to Criminal Justice, Rutgers University
Corrections, Rutgers University
Delinquency and Juvenile Justice, Rutgers University
Criminal Justice Research Methods, Rutgers University
Forensic Psychology and Law, Ramapo College