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1 **Reporting of suspected dog fighting to the police, RSPCA and equivalents by veterinary**
2 **professionals in the UK**

3

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10

11 **Abstract**

12

13 Dog fighting became unlawful in the UK in 1835, yet it continues today (as reported by the
14 Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals [RSPCA] and Crown Prosecution
15 Service [CPS]), albeit with an unknown prevalence. We used an online questionnaire to (i)
16 determine the occurrence of dogs suspected of use in fighting in UK veterinary practices; (ii)
17 explore relative reporting of incidents to police, RSPCA or equivalent charity by Registered
18 Veterinary Nurses (RVNs) and veterinarians; and (iii) determine factors influencing reporting.
19 Emails (n=2,493) containing the questionnaire were sent to UK veterinary practices: 423
20 questionnaires (159 by RVNs, 264 by veterinarians) were completed. One or more cases of
21 dog fighting were suspected by 14.42% of respondents in 2015; 182 cases suspected in total.
22 Proportionately more RVNs suspected dog fighting than veterinarians (p=0.0009). Thirty two
23 respondents (7.58%, n=422) claimed to have reported suspicions to the police, the RSPCA or
24 equivalent charity previously; 59 respondents (14.15%) had previously chosen not to.
25 Reasons not to report included: uncertainty of illegal activity (81.36%), fear of the client not
26 returning to the practice (35.59%) and concerns regarding client confidentiality (22.03%).
27 Further work is required to address under-reporting of dog fighting by veterinary
28 professionals.

29 [199 words]

30

31 **Introduction**

32

33 Dog fighting is the intentional placement of two or more dogs together for the purpose of
34 fighting (Animal Welfare Act 2006, S8) and can be further defined as the non-accidental
35 attack of one or more dogs on one or more other dogs, often accompanied by the exchange of
36 money by owners and spectators, incorporating a range of offences in law (adapted from
37 Harding 2012 and RSPCA 2017). Dog fighting is associated with multiple welfare concerns.
38 Injuries experienced by fighting dogs typically include deep punctures, lacerations, fractures
39 and de-gloving wounds of the legs, with the presence of wounds and scars at various stages of
40 healing being a key identifying factor (Merck 2012). The training process for high level fights
41 can include the chasing, attacking and killing of bait animals (Tiplady 2013); these are
42 predominantly dogs and cats that may have been stolen, stray, advertised on the internet as
43 “free to good home” or wild animals that are taken by dog fighters for use as practice material
44 (Harding 2012). Surviving bait animals have later been found abandoned and injured and
45 constitute a further welfare concern with the practice (Dinnage et al., 2004, Glendinning
46 2014, Anthony 2016). The electrocution, hanging and drowning of dogs has also been
47 documented as a means of culling dogs that are unsuccessful in fights or suffer irreparable
48 injury (Harding and Nurse 2015, Animal Legal Defense Fund 2017).

49

50 The prevalence of dog fighting in the UK is unpublished, however, in 2015 the UK Royal
51 Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (RSPCA) received 506 complaint calls about
52 suspected dog fighting activity involving 1,389 dogs and made 28 related prosecutions
53 (Lawson 2017). Despite its clear ongoing presence in the UK, the availability of peer-
54 reviewed literature on dog fighting is limited and primarily represented by international
55 research.

56

57 It has been reported that canine recipients of non-accidental injury (NAI; the intentional harm
58 of an animal [McGuinness et al., 2005]) in the UK present to veterinary practice (Munro and
59 Thrusfield 2001). Thus, as a type of NAI, injuries acquired in relation to dog fighting may
60 present to UK veterinary clinics. Where veterinary professionals suspect dog fighting, they
61 are chiefly encouraged to report suspicions to the police (Animal Welfare Act 2006), but may

62 also contact welfare charities (RSPCA or equivalents¹) or the Local Authority Animal
 63 Welfare Officer (Northern Ireland) (RCVS 2018). Upon receiving a report of serious animal
 64 abuse such as dog fighting, the police will launch an investigation and should sufficient
 65 evidence be obtained to support the suspicion, the case will be handed to the CPS for
 66 prosecution of offenders. The police may also liaise with the RSPCA for assistance during the
 67 investigation (Wooler 2014); the RSPCA has a Special Operations Unit (SOU) that focuses
 68 on complex organised animal crime such as dog fighting and may also prosecute offenders
 69 (Wooler 2014). Prosecution may lead to conviction which can result in financial penalties,
 70 imprisonment and bans from keeping animals (Wooler 2014). Therefore, by appropriately
 71 reporting suspected cases of dog fighting, veterinary professionals could assist in identifying
 72 and prosecuting the human perpetrators and benefit the individual animals by their removal
 73 from the situation. However, it has been suggested that NAI cases are greatly under-reported
 74 by veterinarians to appropriate authorities (the police in the UK), or to welfare charities such
 75 as the RSPCA (Tong 2016). Although evidence is lacking, reasons for this have been
 76 postulated by various authors (Table 1) and can be categorised into uncertainty in identifying
 77 cases and barriers to reporting suspected cases. Tong (2016) suggested difficulty in
 78 identifying NAI as a major reason for under-reporting, which could be underpinned by
 79 inexperience. Conversely, more experienced veterinary staff may be less likely to report
 80 suspicions, as reprisals, such as loss of practice income or legal action (Morgan *et al.*, 2007)
 81 could have greater significance to those with more professional responsibility. To date, a
 82 significant omission in the literature is reporting of NAI of any type by veterinary nurses or
 83 equivalents.

84

Reasons theorised for the under-reporting of animal abuse	Authors
Problems in identifying non-accidental injury	Tong 2016
A lack of formal guidelines on reporting	Tong 2016
A lack of legal protection from reprisals	Tong 2016
Belief that abuse is not seen in practice	Yoffe-Sharp and Loar 2009
A lack of understanding of the process of reporting	Patronek 1997; Yoffe-Sharp and Loar 2009

¹ The RSPCA operate in England and Wales; the Scottish equivalent is the Scottish Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (SSPCA) and the Northern Irish equivalent is the Ulster Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (USPCA)

Concerns about client-vet relationship breakdown	Arkow 1994, Yoffe-Sharp and Loar 2009
Concerns that removal of one victim will result in simple replacement with a new victim	Morgan et al., 2007
Fear of legal action	Arkow 1994, Patronek 1997, Morgan et al., 2007
Fear of loss of income	Patronek 1997, Morgan et al., 2007
Fear of reprisals	Arkow 1994, Morgan et al., 2007
Concerns regarding the difficulty of prosecution	Morgan et al., 2007
A belief that it is not possible or appropriate to get involved	McGuinness <i>et al.</i> , 2005
Fear for the safety of the victim	Arkow 1994
Belief that no action will be taken	Arkow 1994

85 **Table 1: Reasons suggested in literature as explanations for under-reporting of any type**
86 **of NAI by veterinarians.**

87

88 Further information on whether cases of dog fighting are suspected and if/how suspected
89 cases are reported within veterinary practice could aid in understanding of the occurrence of
90 dog fighting in the UK and support improvements in the identification and reporting of cases.
91 The aims of this study were therefore to investigate suspicions and reporting of dog fighting
92 by UK veterinary professionals (both veterinarians and Registered Veterinary Nurses
93 [RVNs]) to the police or to welfare charities (RSPCA, SSPCA, USPCA), and to provide
94 evidence to support factors previously suggested to influence whether or not veterinary
95 professionals report. We hypothesised that; (1) Veterinary professionals are more likely to
96 *suspect* dog fighting has occurred with greater experience; (2) Veterinary professionals with
97 greater experience are less likely to *report* suspicions of dog fighting to authorities; (3)
98 Veterinarians and RVNs are equally likely to *suspect* and *report* dog fighting.

99

100 **Materials and Methods**

101

102 Questionnaire design

103 An anonymous online questionnaire, approved by Royal Veterinary College Ethics
104 Committee (URN 2016 1559), was created in SurveyMonkey™ (Appendix I). An introductory
105 paragraph explained the study and indicated that submission would be taken as consent to use
106 the data supplied in this context. Exclusion questions allowed removal of participants other
107 than veterinarians and RVNs who worked with dogs in their professional capacity during
108 2015 in the UK. A number of additional questions established respondent demographics,
109 experience (years working) and their practice type and location (city, village etc.).

110 Questions regarding dog fighting focussed on the calendar year preceding the year of survey
111 distribution to minimise errors associated with long-term memory and were presented in three
112 sections:

- 113 1) Suspicions of involvement in dog fighting by dogs and clients seen in 2015;
- 114 2) Reporting of suspected cases of dog fighting seen in 2015 to the relevant authorities and
115 views on this;
- 116 3) Choice not to report suspicions and views on deterrents to reporting.

117 Question formats were primarily multiple-choice, allowing for “other” to be specified using
118 open text comments and open text for those requiring numerical answers. Questions were
119 worded to make explicit whether only situations that applied to the respondents’ direct
120 experience should be selected or (for section 3) when respondents should select situations
121 they felt would influence them in a hypothetical situation. A free text comment box at the end
122 allowed further comments to be made. Pilot testing for readability was performed prior to
123 distribution.

124

125 Questionnaire distribution

126 Questionnaire responses were collected between August and November 2016. Respondents
127 were recruited via social media (online forums including Facebook™ and Twitter™), a letter
128 in the Veterinary Record (Ryder 2016) and by directly emailing all veterinary practices that
129 specified that they treated dogs (2,490) or appeared to be a small or mixed animal practice
130 (89) in the RCVS “find a vet” database (RCVS 2016). An introductory letter explained the
131 need for responses from veterinarians and RVNs, irrespective of whether they had ever
132 suspected dog fighting, and provided the web link to the questionnaire. Two reminder emails,
133 sent approximately one and three months after the initial email, to encourage completion
134 followed up the initial 2,493 successful deliveries.

135

136 Data analysis

137 A total of 514 questionnaires were returned. Prior to analysis, data were cleaned in Microsoft
138 Excel 2010, to remove questionnaires that were grossly incomplete, those not from
139 veterinarians or RVNs, and those who had not worked with dogs in their professional capacity
140 during 2015. This left 423 useable questionnaires; some partially completed such that total
141 numbers of contributing respondents varied between questions.

142

143 GraphPad Prism 7 was used for statistical analysis. Data were not normally distributed,
144 consequently medians and ranges are reported descriptively and non-parametric analyses
145 were used. The modified Wald method was used to calculate confidence intervals (CI). Chi-
146 squared and Fishers Exact tests were used to test for respective relationships between
147 categorical outcome variables: whether or not cases of dog fighting had been suspected
148 (hereafter suspicions of [yes/no]), whether or not a report of dog fighting had been made
149 (yes/no) and whether or not a choice *not* to report a suspicion of dog fighting had been made
150 (hereafter choice not to report [yes/no]); and the categorical explanatory variables: age
151 (collapsed into the categories: ≤ 30 , 31-40, 41-50, ≥ 51 years old), location (town, city,
152 village/rural area), type of practice (independent small animal, small animal chain, mixed
153 animal, small animal referral, charity, other) and profession (veterinarian, RVN). Mann-
154 Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to determine whether with duration of
155 experience (years) altered respectively suspicions of (yes/no), number of cases suspected
156 (none/one or more) and choice not to report (yes/no). A Spearman's rank correlation was
157 used to assess whether the number of cases suspected was correlated with number of years
158 working.

159

160 Thematic analysis of open text responses associated with multiple choice "other" selections
161 and the final free text comment box was conducted; where appropriate, responses were re-
162 allocated into the existing question categories, otherwise new categories were established.
163 Clear misinterpretations of questions and open text responses that were provided by only one
164 respondent and did not fit themes were excluded.

165

166 **Results**

167

168 Of the 423 respondents, 264 (62.4%) were veterinarians and 159 (37.6%) were RVNs, all of
 169 whom had been working in UK veterinary practice in 2015. The majority of respondents were
 170 under 40 years old (71%), living in a town or city and working in independent or chain small
 171 animal practice, with a median of 9 years' experience (Table 2).

172

Variable		Veterinarians n=264	RVNs n=159	Total n=423
Age (years)	≤ 30	81 (30.6%)	92 (57.9%)	173 (40.9%)
	31-40	79 (29.9%)	48 (30.2%)	127 (30.0%)
	41-50	45 (17.0%)	17 (10.7%)	62 (14.6%)
	≥ 51	57 (21.6%)	2 (0.01%)	59 (13.9%)
	No answer	2 (0.8%)	0 (0.00%)	2 (0.5%)
Practice location	Town	129 (48.9%)	80 (50.3%)	209 (49.4%)
	City	61 (23.1%)	50 (31.4%)	111 (26.2%)
	Village/Rural Area	73 (27.7%)	25 (15.7%)	98 (23.2%)
	No answer	1 (0.4%)	4 (2.5%)	5 (1.2%)
Type of practice	Independent Small Animal	141 (53.4%)	68 (42.8%)	209 (49.4%)
	Small Animal Chain	52 (19.7%)	46 (28.9%)	98 (23.2%)
	Mixed Animal	44 (16.7%)	12 (7.5%)	56 (13.2%)
	Small Animal Referral	16 (6.1%)	22 (13.8%)	38 (9.0%)
	Charity	7 (2.7%)	9 (5.7%)	16 (3.8%)
	Other	4 (1.5%)	2 (1.3%)	6 (1.4%)
Experience (years)	Minimum	1	1	1
	Maximum	46	38	46
	Median (inter-quartile range)	12 (17)	6 (8)	9 (13)

173 **Table 2: Respondent demographics; Numbers (percentages) of respondents in each**
 174 **explanatory variable category, except experience, are presented in rows for each**
 175 **profession and total respondent sample in columns.**

176

177 Suspecting cases of dog fighting

178 14.4% of all respondents suspected at least one case of dog fighting in 2015; a total of 182
179 dogs at a ratio of one suspected case of dog fighting per every 2.3 respondents (approximately
180 0.43 cases per respondent; $n=423$). Figure 1 shows percentage of respondents who suspected
181 at least one dog fighting case in 2015, by profession: veterinarians were approximately 60%
182 less likely to suspect a case of dog fighting than RVNs ($N_{total} = 61$, $\chi^2 = 11.9$, $df = 1$, $p=0.0009$,
183 $OR=0.387$, $95\% CI=0.2261-0.6694$). Of the 264 respondent veterinarians, 26 suspected a total
184 of 78 cases (median [range] = 2[1-10] per respondent) of dog fighting in 2015, averaging one
185 case for every 3.33 veterinarian respondents. Of the 159 RVNs, 35 suspected one or more
186 cases of dog fighting in 2015, totalling 104 dogs (median [range] = 2[1-10] per respondent)
187 and averaging one case per every 1.53 RVN respondents.

188

189 [INSERT FIGURE ONE]

190

191 No associations between whether or not respondents suspected dog fighting in 2015 and age,
192 practice location or number of years working in the profession were found for either
193 veterinarians ($n=258-263$, $\chi^2s < 3.89$, $ps > 0.1432$) or RVNs ($n=157-159$, $\chi^2s < 1.00$, $ps >$
194 0.215). Neither was there any correlation between the number of dogs veterinarians or RVNs
195 suspected and their years' experience, although this was close to significant for the former
196 (veterinarians: $n=25$, $R=0.3874$, $p=0.0557$; RVNs: $n=33$, $R=0.2216$, $p=0.2153$).

197 Of 66 respondents who provided free text further comments at the end of the questionnaire,
198 18.2% did not believe that dogs involved in fighting were taken to veterinary practices, 13.6%
199 did not believe that fighting occurred in their area/practice/clientele and 7.6% believed they
200 had never encountered any dogs involved in fighting.

201

202 Reporting of suspected cases

203 Of 422 respondents, 32 (7.58%, 95% CI = 5.39% to 10.54%) had previously reported one or
204 more suspicions of dog fighting to the police, RSPCA or equivalent charities. There was no
205 significant difference in the proportion of RVNs that had previously reported one or more
206 suspicions ($n=17/159$) compared to veterinarians ($n=15/264$, $p=0.0861$). Of the 66
207 respondents providing free text comments at the end of the questionnaire, 12.1% said they
208 would report any suspicion.

209 Of 417 respondents, 14.15% (n=59, 95% CI = 11.11% to 17.84%) stated they had previously
 210 *chosen not to report* one or more suspicions of dog fighting in the past (Figure 2); the most
 211 frequently cited reason was uncertainty in identifying deliberate dog fighting (81.4%
 212 n=48/59).

213

214 [INSERT FIGURE TWO]

215

216 There was no significant difference in the *choice not to report* suspicions by RVNs
 217 (n=26/157, 16.56%, 95% CI = 11.51% to 23.21%) compared to veterinarians (33/260,
 218 12.69%, 95% CI = 9.15% to 17.32%, p=0.3107). There was no effect of experience on *choice*
 219 *not to report* a suspicion for either profession (veterinarians: n=254, p=0.4472; RVNs: n=157,
 220 p=0.1440).

221

222 When specifically asked about deterrents to reporting suspicions, uncertainty about the
 223 presence of activity (40.43% n=171/423), concerns about client confidentiality (23.40%,
 224 n=99/423) and lack of knowledge of how to report (19.15% n=81/423) were the most
 225 frequently cited across all respondents, irrespective of profession (Table 3). Although not
 226 formally tested due to small numbers, noticeably larger percentages of RVNs cited advice
 227 from their boss or colleagues not to report than did veterinarians. When asked what would
 228 encourage reporting of suspected dog fighting, provision of clear guidance or protocols was
 229 the most popular suggestion made by respondents (12.8%, Table 4).

230

Deterrents to reporting suspicions of dog fighting stated by respondents	Number respondents (percentage of respondent category)		
	Veterinarians n=254	RVNs n=154	Total n=398
I wasn't certain that illegal activity was occurring (/worried about accusing an innocent client*)	120 (47.3%)	55 (38.2%)	175 (44.0%)
I don't think anything would at all deter me	91 (35.8%)	44 (30.6%)	135 (33.9%)

I didn't want to break client confidentiality	65 (25.6%)	34 (23.6%)	99 (24.9%)
I did not know how to report	51 (20.1%)	30 (20.8%)	81 (20.4%)
My boss advised me not to	26 (10.2%)	48 (33.3%)	74 (18.6%)
I didn't want the client to stop bringing dogs into the clinic	49 (19.3%)	19 (13.2%)	68 (17.1%)
I didn't want the client to notify others that my clinic reports	19 (7.5%)	16 (11.1%)	35 (8.8%)
I did not want to risk having to go to court	20 (7.9%)	8 (5.6%)	28 (7.0%)
I previously had negative experiences when reporting	14 (5.5%)	10 (6.9%)	24 (6.0%)
I thought reporting would be difficult	18 (7.1%)	6 (4.2%)	24 (6.0%)
My colleague/s advised me not to	8 (3.1%)	15 (10.4%)	23 (5.8%)
I did not believe in the worth of the reporting and/or prosecuting system *	10 (3.9%)	0 (0.0%)	10 (2.5%)
I was concerned about dangerous repercussions from client *	7 (2.8%)	2 (1.4%)	9 (2.3%)
I thought reporting would take too long	5 (2.0%)	0 (0.0%)	5 (1.3%)
I feared the dog would be euthanised*	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.4%)	2 (0.5%)
I did not feel reporting was my responsibility*	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.4%)	2 (0.5%)

231 **Table 3: Respondent views on deterrents to reporting dog fighting. Respondents could**
232 **select multiple answers. * denotes themes derived from analysis of the “other” open text**
233 **option. Six respondents were removed from the veterinarians column “I don't think**
234 **anything would at all deter me” and eight from the RVN column as these respondents**
235 **also selected deterrents. Two respondents indicated preference not to answer the**
236 **question.**

237

Top factors suggested by respondents that would encourage reporting	Number respondents (percentage of respondent category)		
	Veterinarians	RVNs	Total
	n=89	n=89	n=234

	n=145		
Specific clear guidance/protocols for the whole process of reporting	20 (7.6%)	10 (11.2%)	30 (12.8%)
Confidence that illegal activity was occurring	14 (5.3%)	9 (10.1%)	23 (9.8%)
Assured anonymity when reporting	14 (5.3%)	6 (6.7%)	20 (8.5%)
Assurance/support from RCVS/VDS that report would not be a confidentiality breach	14 (5.3%)	5 (5.6%)	19 (8.1%)
Confidence the issue would be properly addressed	9 (3.4%)	10 (11.2%)	19 (8.1%)
Easier methods of reporting suspicions	14 (5.3%)	3 (3.4%)	17 (7.3%)

238 **Table 4: Most frequently cited respondent views on factors likely to encourage reporting**
239 **of suspected illegal dog fighting. Respondents could contribute multiple answers.**

240

241 **Discussion**

242

243 The aims of this study were to investigate suspicions and reporting of dog fighting by UK
244 veterinary professionals, and to provide evidence to support factors previously suggested to
245 influence whether or not veterinary professionals report. Of the 423 respondents, 61 (14.4%)
246 suspected an estimated total of 182 dogs in fighting in 2015. This is consistent with a report
247 that 48% of UK veterinarians claimed to have seen or suspected any type of NAI in practice;
248 the majority seeing one to three cases per year (Munro and Thrusfield 2001). Since we cannot
249 know how many actual cases of dog fighting were presented to our respondents it is not
250 possible to determine any error rate in suspicion. Multiple members of staff at one practice
251 could complete the questionnaire (anonymity prevented quantification of this) so several
252 respondents could have referred to a single case leading to duplication and artificial inflation
253 of our estimate. However, consistent with previous studies (Yoffe-Sharp and Loar 2009), a
254 number of respondents did not believe fighting dogs would present to a veterinary practice.
255 Together with the limited respondent sample and the reported lack of confidence in
256 identifying illegal activity, the number of suspected dogs is more likely to be an
257 underestimate. If accurate, our findings suggest a ratio of one suspected case of dog fighting
258 per every 2.3 respondents. The prevalence of dog fighting itself is likely to be greater than
259 this ratio of case per veterinary professional, since few victims are likely to be taken to
260 veterinary practice (Patronek 1997). Fear of seizure of a dog if it is an illegal breed

261 (Dangerous Dogs Act 1991) may be a deterrent (Hughes et al., 2011), whilst “professional”
262 dog fighters may operate on their own animals (Ortiz 2010). Our study did not consider the
263 identification of the bait animals used in training (Tiplady 2013); which may be been found
264 alive but injured (Dinnage et al., 2004, Glendinning 2014, Anthony 2016); their quantification
265 in practice may assist in assessing the prevalence of dog fighting.

266

267 This is the first study in the veterinary literature to explore suspicions and reporting of a type
268 of NAI by RVNs. Contrary to our predictions; RVNs were significantly more likely to suspect
269 dog fighting than veterinarians. This difference in suspicion could be related to RVNs’ greater
270 role in inpatient care (BVNA 2015), however, literature comparing the accuracy of veterinary
271 professionals in identifying NAI is not currently available, so false negatives and/or false
272 positives could be associated with either profession. The role of RVNs in identification of
273 NAI warrants further exploration.

274

275 We hypothesised that greater experience of practice would be associated with more suspected
276 cases of dog fighting, as difficulty identifying NAI (Tong 2016) and belief it is not seen in
277 practice (Yoffe-Sharp and Loar 2009), would be likely to reduce. Here, this was unsupported
278 by whether or not respondents suspected cases, but a nearly significant moderate correlation
279 with the number of suspected cases suggests a larger sample could provide some support for a
280 relationship.

281 With respect to *reporting* of suspicions, we found that 14.15% of respondents had *chosen not*
282 *to report* one or more suspicions of dog fighting in the past and our findings further suggest
283 that approximately half of the cases suspected in this study sample were not reported by
284 veterinary professionals; this is consistent with McGuinness et al., (2005) who indicated that
285 the majority of Irish veterinarians surveyed did not feel it appropriate to report suspicions. In
286 contrast to the difference between professions’ *suspicions*, our prediction of no difference
287 between professions in *reporting* was supported. The subsample of reporting individuals was
288 extremely small and a lack of statistical power may explain this inconsistency for RVNs.
289 Alternatively it could suggest that barriers to reporting suspicions impacted more on RVNs
290 than veterinarians. RVNs may not feel responsible for reporting, or may be constrained by the
291 RCVS requirement to first report suspicions of NAI to a senior veterinarian (RCVS 2017a
292 s14.9). The latter interpretation is consistent with proportionately more RVN than veterinarian
293 respondents indicating influences of colleagues and their boss as reasons not to report in our
294 study. If senior veterinarians are reluctant to accept the value of RVNs’ reports or RVNs lack
295 confidence in reporting suspicions to veterinarians (Kinnison *et al.*, 2014) then under-

296 reporting of suspicions of animal abuse by RVNs could occur. Further research is warranted
297 to explore the apparent suspicion-reporting disparity shown by RVNs such that barriers to
298 reporting can be addressed.

299

300 Our prediction that more experienced professionals, to whom fears of loss of income, legal
301 action and reprisals (Morgan *et al.*, 2007) and a belief that no action would be taken by the
302 authorities (Arkow 1994) were likely to be more applicable, would be *less* likely to report
303 suspicions, was not supported. Nor were any effects of age, practice location or profession on
304 reporting. Rather, deterrents to reporting may have been more influential, and those cited by
305 our respondents directly supported nearly all the reasons previously postulated in the
306 international literature (Table 1; except replacement with a new victim [Morgan et al 2007]).

307

308 The factors that our respondents suggested would encourage reporting of suspicions could be
309 incorporated into potential resolutions for commonly cited deterrents in the following areas:

310 *1) Problems identifying cases with confidence*

311 Consistent with other studies (Ascione and Barnard 1998, Green and Gullone 2005) that
312 identified insufficient training in recognising and identifying animal abuse as major
313 obstructions for introducing mandated reporting as a solution for control in their respective
314 countries (Acutt *et al.*, 2015), 40% of our respondents reported uncertainty that illegal
315 activity was occurring. Enhanced education of veterinary professionals to increase awareness
316 of presentation of dogs used in fighting to practice and ability to detect clinical signs of recent
317 and historical fighting with other dogs could improve confidence to report, particularly if
318 empowerment and acknowledgement of responsibility are also engendered (e.g. Jamieson *et al.*,
319 2015). This could be included in the Day One Skills list for veterinarians and RVNs by
320 the RCVS (Robertson 2009, RCVS 2017 b, c).

321 *2) Not knowing if it is appropriate to break client confidentiality and/or how to report a case*

322 Fear of breaking client confidentiality and not knowing how to report were deterrents to
323 reporting for 20% of the respondents. Consistent with Tong (2016), our respondents felt the
324 provision of clear, accessible guidelines (including how to deal with issues of client
325 confidentiality) would help to address under-reporting of dog fighting by veterinary
326 professionals. However, formal guidelines are in place: the importance of maintaining client
327 confidentiality is detailed in the Codes of Professional Conduct for both RVNs and veterinary
328 surgeons (RCVS 2017 a,d) and exceptions to this are listed along with guidance on when and

329 how to break client confidentiality and to report suspicions of abuse (RCVS 2017 a,d). It is
330 unclear whether UK veterinary professionals lack confidence in identifying exceptions, or in
331 breaking confidentiality under these circumstances. Consistent with a lack of understanding
332 of the process of reporting (Patronek 1997, Yoffe-Sharpe and Loar 2009) our findings suggest
333 some UK veterinary professionals may be unaware of this information, despite its inclusion
334 within a document to which they must adhere, or that it is insufficient for their needs. These
335 deficits may be addressed within veterinary training and by providing more easily digestible
336 and accessible information for exceptions to maintaining client confidentiality, since clear
337 protocols for the whole process of reporting were suggested.

338 *3) Concern about the ongoing welfare of the patient*

339 Consistent with Arkow (1997) and Yoffe-Sharp and Loar (2009), many of our respondents
340 felt that reporting suspicions of dog fighting would stop the client coming to the clinic, and
341 thus patient care could be affected (Arkow 1994), echoing Australian veterinarians' views in
342 previous research on animal abuse (Acutt *et al.*, 2015; 58%, n=117). It has been proposed
343 that this ethical dilemma could be avoided by making reporting of suspected NAI mandatory
344 (Robertson 2009), but if the veterinarians concerns are founded, this could result in decreased
345 practice attendance and thus negatively impact patient welfare. Research focussed on the
346 feasibility of introducing mandatory reporting in the UK is not available.

347 *4) Negative experience with reporting*

348 A small portion of respondents reported previous negative experience with reporting to the
349 police and/or RSPCA or equivalent. The exact nature of negative experience is unclear, but it
350 is plausible these were associated with understaffing of relevant authorities, no action being
351 taken, unsuccessful outcomes or repercussions from the client (Arkow 1997, Patronek 1997,
352 Morgan *et al.*, 2007). A number of respondents felt that they would be more likely to report
353 suspicious cases if they were assured anonymity and had confidence in the procedure that
354 followed reporting. Given the sensitivity and potential costs to reporting (e.g. client loss,
355 damaging public image), confidence in appropriate action by authority and legal protection
356 from recourse is imperative. For RVNs an additional barrier to confidence in reporting to
357 superiors may be the lack of support from within the team. Further exploration of these
358 difficulties is required to understand how best to support veterinary professionals in these
359 circumstances.

360

361 Although this study collected data from a comparable sample of respondents to previous
362 studies (e.g. Munro and Thrusfield 2001), the questionnaire distribution method (i.e. shared

363 online, emailed to practices rather than individuals, the ability of recipients to forward on
364 emails etc.), disallowed accurate assessment of the response rate and is vulnerable to self-
365 selection bias. It is therefore difficult to be sure how exactly representative of the whole UK
366 veterinary professional population our findings are. Nevertheless, our results are consistent
367 with published findings for other countries (Patronek 1997; Stolt et al., 1997; McGuinness et
368 al., 2005; Acutt et al., 2015), despite differences in legal frameworks, supporting their
369 validity. Furthermore, these findings represent an important source of information on
370 perceived issues with detecting and reporting of dog fighting by relatively early-career
371 veterinary professionals that helps us to better understand barriers to these processes.

372

373 **Conclusion**

374

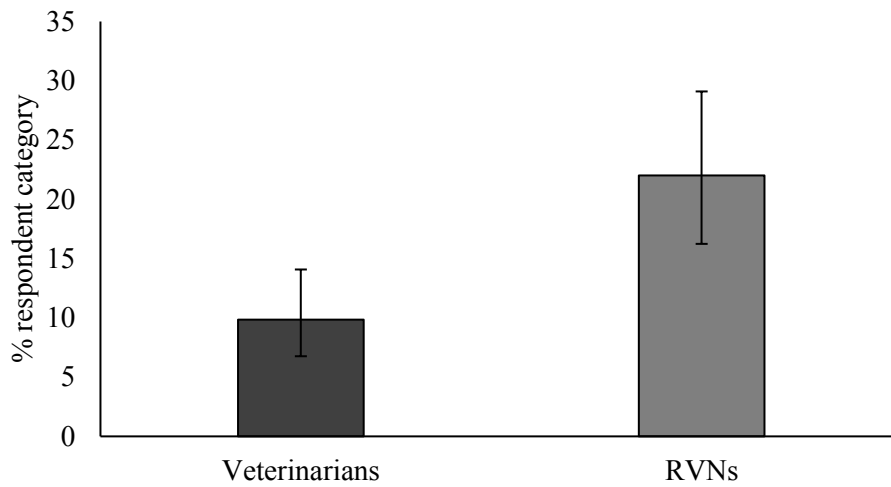
375 This study has revealed that a small, but significant, population of dogs presented to
376 veterinary practice in 2015 were suspected by veterinary professionals of involvement in dog
377 fighting, but as many as half went unreported. No effect of age or experience on suspicion or
378 reporting of dog fighting was found. In the first published comparison of veterinary
379 professions we found RVNs suspected proportionately more cases of dog fighting than
380 veterinarians, but their reporting did not reflect this. This disparity for RVNs requires further
381 exploration, but may be associated with the requirement to report to a superior. Overall the
382 main barriers to reporting cited by all respondents suggest that veterinary professionals' roles
383 in controlling the complex issue of dog fighting require further support via: improved
384 education on identifying non accidental injury; improved understanding of when and how to
385 break client confidentiality to report dog fighting whilst maintaining legal protection; personal
386 and professional ability to deal with conflict associated with impacts on patient welfare; and
387 increased confidence in the authorities responsible for control and prosecution of dog
388 fighting.

389 [3,923 Words]

390

391

Respondents suspecting illegal dog fighting in 2015

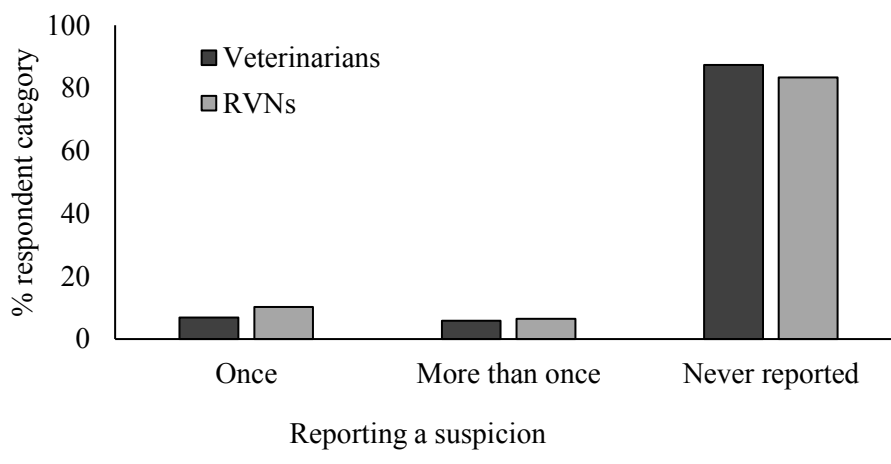


393

394 Figure 1: Percentage of each respondent category who suspected at least one case of illegal
 395 dog fighting in 2015, where 95% confidence intervals are shown as error bars. Veterinarians
 396 n=26/264, 95% CI 6.76% to 14.08%. Registered Veterinary Nurses (RVNs) n=35/159, 95%
 397 CI 16.24% to 29.10%. Sum total n=61/423, 95% CI 11.38% to 18.10%.

398

Respondents suspecting, but choosing not to report illegal dog fighting



399

400 Figure 2: Percentage of each respondent category who had previously suspected illegal dog
 401 fighting and decided not to report it to the police, RSPCA or equivalent once (veterinarians:
 402 n=18, 6.9%; RVNs: n=16, 10.2%), more than once (veterinarians: n=15, 5.8%; RVNs: n=10,
 403 6.4%) or never chosen not to report their suspicion (Veterinarians: n=227, 87.3%; RVNs:
 404 n=131, 83.4%).

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406

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414

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