

*The Animals and Society Institute is pleased to present this annotated bibliography on animal abuse and juveniles. This is the first of a series of bibliographies on animal abuse and related topics. If you would like to suggest additional peer-reviewed articles to include in this review, please contact Dr. Lisa Lunghofer, [lisa.lunghofer@animalsandsociety.org](mailto:lisa.lunghofer@animalsandsociety.org)*

**Arluke, A. (2012). Interpersonal barriers to stopping animal abuse: Exploring the role of adolescent friendship norms and breeches. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 27(15), 2939-2958.**

*Research question:* How do customary expectations, and the perceived consequences of violating these standards, within adolescent friendships influence the decision to intervene in animal abuse when perpetrated by a close companion?

*Sample:* A convenience sample of 25 students enrolled in introductory sociology or anthropology courses at a large urban university in the eastern part of the United States. Approximately half were female, and the average age when witnessing animal abuse was 14 years old.

*Methodology:* An in-depth, face-to-face interview was conducted with each participant. Questions examined the cruelty incidents; the students' feelings and actions during the incident; and their rationale for their action, or lack thereof, in response to the incident. The researcher coded interview transcripts, identified themes, and modified questions for subsequent interviews based on findings, as appropriate.

*Findings:* Approximately 20 percent of those interviewed intervened in the animal abuse they witnessed, while the rest reported either no or very weak attempts to stop the activity. No respondents reported the abuse to an adult. Participants reported feeling as if they could not intervene when witnessing animal abuse committed by those with whom they had close social relationships for several reasons. First, participants downplayed the abuse in their minds as "dirty play" or a commonly accepted form of testing boundaries, rather than committing actual harm to an animal. Second, bystanders were drawn into the group dynamic, treated not as outsiders, but as an audience to the situation, making it more difficult to withdraw from or publicly oppose the activity. Finally, participants indicated a strong aversion to being called "tattletales," "spoilsports" or similar labels that would result from reporting the abuse to authority figures or even directly standing up to the abuser. Arluke suggests that providing bystander empowerment training at a young age as part of humane education may minimize the fear of social punishment as a result of helping an animal in an abusive situation.

*Limitations:* Participants were asked to recall events, thoughts, and feelings that occurred sometimes years earlier, perhaps compromising the reliability of their reports. The study's reliability in general could be improved with a larger and more diverse sample. Non-intervening

participants' justifications for their behavior may be inaccurate as a result of feeling ashamed of their inaction.

**Arluke, A. (2012). Bystander apathy in animal abuse cases: Exploring barriers to child and adolescent intervention. *Anthrozoös*, 25(1), 5-23.**

*Research question:* What obstacles stand in the way of children and adolescents intervening in cases of witnessing animal abuse, and how do these responses compare to intercession on behalf of human victims?

*Sample:* A convenience sample of 25 students of both genders enrolled in introductory sociology or anthropology courses at a large urban university in the eastern part of the United States. The average time between witnessing abuse and participating in the study was approximately three to five years. Approximately half of the participants intervened in the abusive situation.

*Methodology:* An in-depth, face-to-face interview was conducted with each participant. Questions examined the cruelty incidents; the student's feelings and actions during the incident; and their rationale for their action, or lack thereof, in response to the incident. The researcher coded interview transcripts to extract themes.

*Findings:* Thirty-two percent of participants reported objecting to the animal abuse they witnessed, but only half-heartedly offered any objections, using humor or a questioning tone. Eight percent simply walked away. Only 20 percent attempted direct intervention, while none of the respondents reported the incident to an authority figure. Barriers appeared in three different forms: situational constraints, costs and personal characteristics. With regard to situational constraints, participants downplayed the abuse in their minds as "dirty play" or a commonly accepted form of testing boundaries, rather than committing actual harm to an animal. A few participants recalled normalizing the violence, constructing it as part of everyday life. Additionally, bystanders were drawn into the group dynamic, treated not as outsiders, but as an audience to the situation, making it more difficult to withdraw from or publicly oppose the activity. Social costs also played a role. Participants indicated a strong aversion to being called "tattletales," "spoilspoorts" or similar labels that would result from reporting the abuse to authority figures or standing up to the abuser. In addition, some bystanders avoided confrontation to prevent an awkward situation. Some personal characteristics influenced the decision to intervene, such as age (with older participants intervening more), and those who defined themselves as "animal people" intervening more. Several participants reported a lack of confidence in their ability to say or act in a way that would prove effective in stopping the abusive activity; some reported that they felt they had no allies in the situation, and thus felt uncomfortable stepping forward.

*Limitations:* Participants were asked to recall events, thoughts, and feelings that occurred sometimes years earlier, perhaps compromising the reliability of their reports. The study's reliability in general could be improved with a larger and more diverse sample. In addition, interveners may be over-represented in this sample for reasons of social desirability. Finally, non-

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intervening participants' justifications for their behavior may be inaccurate as a result of feeling ashamed of their inaction.

**Ascione, F. R., Friedrich, W. N., Heath, J., & Hayashi, K. (2003). Cruelty to animals in normative, sexually abused, and outpatient psychiatric samples of 6- to 12-year-old children: Relations to maltreatment and exposure to domestic violence. *Anthrozoos, 16*(3), 194-212.**

*Research question:* What is the relationship between children's cruelty to animals, child abuse, and exposure to domestic violence between parents?

*Sample:* In this large-scale study of children from the United States, Canada, and Europe, the authors drew from three groups: normative children, sampled from pediatric clinics and day care centers (N=540); sexually abused children, referred from clinical settings (N=481); and psychiatric outpatient children, also referred from clinical settings, with no known history of sexual abuse (N=412). Children were between the ages of 6 and 12 years.

*Methodology:* Each child's primary female caregiver filled out three inventories regarding the child's behavior, sexual conduct, and exposure to physical abuse/domestic violence. Measures included the Child Behavior Checklist behavior problems section (Achenbach 1991), the Child Sexual Behavior Inventory (Friedrich 1997), and two questions regarding the child's experience of physical abuse and exposure to domestic violence.

*Findings and implications:* Cruelty to animals in general was much more likely in both the group experiencing sexual abuse and the outpatient psychiatric group; however, in all three groups, the correlation between cruelty to animals and cruelty to other humans reached statistically significant levels. While sexually abusing animals (defined as "touching animals' sex parts") was virtually nonexistent in the normative sample, and reported in less than 1 percent of the psychiatric sample, 6.3 percent of children reporting sexual abuse had sexually touched animals. Children in the normative group were more likely to have been cruel to animals if they had witnessed domestic violence; however, the percentage of children in this group experiencing physical abuse was so low that no analysis was conducted on this variable. Gender differences were found in the psychiatric group and the sexually abused group. In the psychiatric sample, boys were more likely to abuse animals if they were physically abused, but not if they had witnessed domestic violence. Boys in the psychiatric sample who were exposed to both domestic violence and physical abuse were four times more likely to abuse animals than boys exposed to neither type of violence. Among girls in the psychiatric sample, animal cruelty was correlated with physical abuse, but not with witnessing domestic violence or being exposed to both domestic violence and physical abuse. In the sexually abused sample, boys were more likely to abuse animals only when they themselves experienced physical abuse, while girls were more likely to abuse animals when exposed to either physical abuse or domestic violence. This study's results suggest the importance of screening for animal abuse in children being evaluated for psychiatric issues, and those with a history of abuse, either sexual or physical. Conversely, children who abuse animals should be screened for exposure to family violence and psychological problems. In

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addition, study findings suggest that gender differences should be considered in treating these populations. Future studies should consider the role animals may play as buffers or sources of comfort among children exposed to violence, either as victims or witnesses.

*Limitations:* Survey responses were gathered only from children's primary female caregivers, which may impart bias or inaccuracy. In addition, data on pet ownership were not gathered, thus raising the issue of the extent to which children actually had access to animals. The frequency of physical abuse, animal abuse, and domestic violence was not examined, nor were definitions of these factors standardized.

**Baldry, A. C. (2005). Animal abuse among preadolescents directly and indirectly victimized at school and at home. *Criminal Behaviour & Mental Health, 15(2), 97-110.***

*Research question:* What is the frequency of animal abuse among a sample of preadolescents of both genders, and what is the relationship to various forms of victimization?

*Sample:* Five elementary and middle schools in Rome provided a sample of 268 girls and 264 boys with an average age of just under twelve years old.

*Methodology:* Students completed questionnaires; those with literacy issues were provided with help from two trained research assistants. The Physical and Emotional Tormenting Against Animals (PET) Scale, (Baldry, 2004) was used to measure exposure to animal abuse and actual abuse committed. The Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979), adapted for children (Baldry, 2003), measured exposure to domestic violence. The authors developed four questions to measure actual child abuse by parents, and the Olweus bullying questionnaire (Olweus, 1993) measured direct and indirect bullying and other victimization.

*Findings:* Animal abuse was more often reported by boys (46 percent) than girls (36 percent), a statistically significant difference. Almost 40 percent of children – boys more so than girls – reported physical victimization by their fathers. Maternal abuse, while more common, remained gender neutral, as did parental verbal abuse. Significant gender differences existed regarding direct victimization at school (48 percent of boys versus 37 percent of girls) and bullying (39 percent of boys versus 25 percent of girls), while indirect victimization showed no significant gender differences. Children of both genders who witnessed violence between their parents, or who witnessed animal abuse perpetrated by others, were three times as likely to abuse animals compared with their peers. Physical abuse by fathers was associated with animal abuse in girls but not in boys, while verbal abuse from mothers was associated with animal abuse in boys, not girls. When multiple variables were considered, the strongest predictor of animal abuse among boys was direct victimization at school, followed by indirect bullying. For girls, the strongest predictor was exposure to animal abuse, followed by verbal abuse from a father.

*Limitations:* Self-report may result in underreporting, especially given the social undesirability of the topics under study.

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**Baldry, A. C. (2003). Animal abuse and exposure to interparental violence in Italian youth. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 18*(3), 258-281.**

*Research question:* How does exposure to violence between parental figures and among peers influence acts of animal cruelty among nonclinical youth?

*Sample:* 1,396 youths recruited from central Italy, ranging from 9 to 17 years of age. Nearly 3 percent of initial subjects (N = 40) were disqualified from the study due to failure to complete all questions concerning domestic violence and abuse.

*Methodology:* Self-report questionnaires measured (1) the frequency of committing and witnessing animal abuse, and (2) exposure to domestic violence, either as a witness or a victim. Subjects completed the Physical and Emotional Tormenting Against Animals (P.E.T.) Scale (Baldry, 2002b) for preadolescents and adolescents and the Conflict Tactic Scale (Straus, 1979), modified for youth. In addition, subjects were asked if either parent had ever physically harmed them.

*Findings and implications:* Nearly 51 percent of those surveyed had committed abusive acts toward animals. Boys were much more likely than girls to report having committed animal abuse; 66 percent of boys and 33 percent of girls reported abusing an animal. Almost all respondents who abused animals reported more frequent exposure to domestic violence or cruelty to animals. This was especially true among boys, particularly among those who witnessed their mothers committing acts of animal cruelty. Overall, witnessing peers or parents – particularly mothers – abuse animals was the strongest predictor of youth committing animal abuse, suggesting that modeling may play a role in the development of abusive behavior toward animals. Some differences were found between youth who were only exposed to domestic violence and youth who were both exposed to domestic violence and experienced abuse. Among children who were only exposed to domestic violence, witnessing parents abuse animals was a strong predictor of youth abusing animals. Among children who witnessed domestic violence and were abused themselves, witnessing mothers committing violent acts toward fathers and animals were strong predictors of animal abuse by youth.

*Limitations:* Self-reporting may have resulted in underreporting in this study, as youth may not have been willing to share shameful acts or may not consider some acts abusive. The measure of child abuse was limited in that it included only one question.

**Becker, K. D., Stuewig, J., Herrera, V. M., & McCloskey, L. A. (2004). A study of firesetting and animal cruelty in children: Family influences and adolescent outcomes. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 43*(7), 905-912.**

*Research question:* The study examined the place of firesetting and animal cruelty among a set of other psychological problems; described the relationship between firesetting, animal cruelty, and delinquency in general; and explored the relationship between firesetting and animal cruelty in the context of family function.

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*Sample:* Women who had experienced domestic violence (N = 191) and a comparison group (N = 172) who had not experienced domestic violence, along with one child per woman, between the ages of 6 and 12.

*Methodology:* Initial interviews were conducted in 1990, each lasting approximately two hours. Mother and child were interviewed separately but simultaneously. The interviews covered marital violence, using the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979); harsh parenting, using the Conflict Tactics Scale and the Parent Perception Inventory (Hazzard, et al., 1983); sexual abuse; male partner abuse of pets; parental alcohol abuse; and child psychopathology, including firesetting and animal cruelty, using the Child Assessment Schedule (Hodges et al., 1981) and the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1983). Children's delinquency was measured 10 years later by searching juvenile court records for each child. Prior to examining court records, the youth were interviewed again, answering questions about their participation in either violent or nonviolent delinquency. More than 85 percent of the original sample of youth participated in the follow-up interview.

*Findings and implications:* In terms of family context, marital violence and harsh parenting were associated with animal cruelty. As firesetting and animal cruelty are two readily recognized signs of conduct disorder in children, as expected, animal cruelty correlated significantly with conduct disorder: 29 percent of children who had committed acts of animal cruelty were diagnosed, while only 7.2 percent of those who had not committed these acts were diagnosed. The authors found no correlation between animal cruelty and official reports of referral to juvenile court, except in the case of violent offenses (assault, possession of a weapon, robbery, arson, kidnapping, and murder). Delinquency self-reports of juveniles told a different story: animal abuse was positively correlated with both nonviolent and violent offenses. When controlling for conduct disorder, the correlation between animal abuse and nonviolent crime no longer held, though the association between animal abuse and violent crime remained. These findings suggest that early intervention with children who abuse animals may help to prevent juvenile delinquency, particularly violent offenses.

*Limitations:* Families that had experienced domestic violence and were of low socioeconomic status were overrepresented in the sample, so findings may not generalize to families with fewer risk factors. Due to small sample sizes, gender differences between youth were not examined.

**Boat, B. W., Pearl, E., Barnes, J. E., Richey, L., et al. (2011). Childhood cruelty to animals: Psychiatric and demographic correlates. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 20(7), 812-819.**

*Research question:* Does self-selection of a cruelty to animals marker on a psychiatric intake form correlate with severe behavioral problems?

*Sample:* Fifty-five psychiatric patients at a large Midwestern pediatric facility who reported animal cruelty, as well as a control sample of 55 patients who had not reported a history of animal abuse.

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A majority of the sample were male and Caucasian, with an average age of 11.3 years (range of 3 to 17 years).

*Methodology:* The authors reviewed all psychiatric intake forms from a period of two months in 2006 and examined those who had indicated a history of animal cruelty behavior. Fifty-five inpatients who had not indicated cruel behavior were identified from the sample of intake forms reviewed. Each form was coded for the presence or absence of exposure to various types of violent and anti-social behavior as a victim, witness or perpetrator.

*Findings and implications:* The cruelty group experienced problems with peers more often, and were over more than five times as likely to have been perpetrators of bullying, though no significant differences appeared between the two groups with respect to victimization through bullying. The cruel group experienced sexual abuse to a significantly greater degree, nearly three times that of the control group. The cruel group was more than twice as likely to perform inappropriate sexual actions, but less likely to display suicidal behaviors.

*Limitations:* No standardized definition of animal cruelty existed for this study, since the methodology of determining these behaviors was based on chart review conducted through a psychiatric intake coordinator who was not trained specifically to code animal cruelty for purposes of this research. Though a control group existed, the sample size was relatively small. Information about subjects' access to animals and the presence of pets was not collected.

**Brennen, S., Fielding, W. J., Carroll, M. C., Miller, J. C. M., Adderley, L., & Thompson, M. A. (2010). A preliminary investigation of the prevalence of corporal punishment of children and selected co-occurring behaviours in households on New Providence, The Bahamas. *The International Journal of Bahamian Studies*, 16, 1-18.**

*Research question:* This study examined violence within Bahamian homes, specifically the correlation between childhood corporal punishment and problematic behaviors.

*Sample:* Twelve adult subjects (five males and seven females) ranging from age 18 to 57 were recruited to participate in interviews. A total of 933 subjects completed surveys; however, sample size varied by question due to incomplete forms.

*Methodology:* Semi-structured interviews regarding perceptions of abuse and physical violence formed the basis for twelve case studies. Based on Fielding and Plumridge's previous work in the Bahamas (2010), a questionnaire was created that contained items related to the presence of pets and their treatment; discipline and violence toward children; items on the HITS scale for measuring domestic violence (Sherin, Sinacore, Li, Zitter and Shakil (1998)); aberrant behaviors among the home's residents; and the perception of the home as a safe haven.

*Findings:* More than 77 percent of those surveyed (N = 555) reported corporal punishment of children in the household, while the use of force to train pets was present in nearly one-quarter of homes (N = 405). Domestic violence was present in 23.2 percent of homes (N = 889) and

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deliberate harm of pets occurred in nearly 15 percent of homes (N = 460), with all three forms of violence reported in 11.4 percent of homes with both pets and children (N = 272). When respondents considered spanking children to be abusive, more often than not, the perpetrator of child abuse generally was the same person who was abusive toward pets. In addition, intentional violence toward pets was partially correlated with spanking children, excessive alcohol consumption, and domestic violence in the home.

*Limitations:* Convenience sampling and lack of efforts to balance respondents between male/female and different age groups may have resulted in bias. Other forms of violence (e.g., emotional, sexual) were not studied. Cultural definitions in the definition of “abuse” limit the generalizability of findings.

**Currie, C. L. (2006). Animal cruelty by children exposed to domestic violence. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 30(4), 425-435.**

*Research question:* What is the relationship between exposure to domestic violence and animal cruelty?

*Sample:* Families participating in this study were required to have two children between the ages of 5 and 17, both of whom had been exposed to male-to-female domestic violence, and whose mother had received counseling regarding the violence. A total of 47 mothers and 94 children were included in the study; a control group of 45 mothers and 90 children was also recruited.

*Methodology:* Mothers reported via interview, using the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach, 1991), whether their children were ever cruel to animals.

*Findings and implications:* Children in the group exposed to domestic violence were 2.95 times more likely than their nonexposed peers to have displayed cruelty to animals. In addition, cruelty to animals was significantly correlated with several other problems, including fear of animals and places, feeling unloved, and destruction of personal property. Children in the exposed group who abused animals were significantly older than those in the nonexposed group who likewise abused animals. Unlike several other studies analyzing gender, the proportion of male and female children perpetuating animal cruelty was approximately equal. The author posits that in abusing animals, children have an outlet through which to wield power in an often powerless situation, and in a fashion that is less likely to result in punishment than if the child were to act out against other people.

*Limitations:* This study’s limitations include potential underreporting, as the children’s mothers were the sole source of information, and they may have been unaware of their children’s cruelty, or felt ashamed to admit their children’s actions. In addition, “cruelty” was not defined for the purposes of this study, and information on household pets was not obtained.

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**Dadds, M. R., Whiting, C. & Hawes, D. J. (2006). Associations among cruelty to animals, family conflict, and psychopathic traits in childhood. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 21(3), 411-429.**

*Research question:* This study examined the relationships among animal abuse, family environment, externalizing behavior, and callous or unemotional (CU) behavior in juveniles.

*Sample:* Australian children between the ages of 6 and 13, split approximately evenly between males and females (N = 131), from rural, coastal, and suburban areas of Brisbane.

*Methodology:* The authors mailed surveys to prospective study participants and offered a chance to win a raffle prize in return for returning the completed survey. Animal abuse was measured using the Dadds et al. (2004) Children and Animals Inventory (CAI), a version of Ascione et al.'s (1997) Children and Animals Assessment Instrument (CAAI) modified for self-report. The inventory assesses nine dimensions of cruelty: severity, frequency, duration, recency, diversity (wild, pet, stray, and/or farm animals; invertebrates, cold-blooded vertebrates, and/or warm-blooded vertebrates), sentience, covert, isolate and empathy. Characteristics of CU behavior were measured using the Antisocial Process Screening Device (APSD; Frick & Hare, 2001) and reported by the child's primary caregiver. Family conflict was assessed using the conflict subscale of the Family Environment Scale (Moos & Moos, 1981). Externalizing behavior was measured with the Child Behavior Checklist–Revised Parent Form (Achenbach, 1991).

*Findings:* Family conflict did not appear to play a role in children's cruelty toward animals, as reported in some earlier studies specifically examining the relationship between the two (Dadds et al., 2004; Luk et al., 1999; K. S. Miller & Knutson, 1997). Though many studies have demonstrated the link between family dysfunction and childhood animal cruelty, the authors of the present study speculate that the difference is due to sample composition, with clinical rather than community samples constituting studies that have shown an association. In males, cruelty to animals was associated with a general pattern of externalizing conduct when parents assessed behavior, while self-report showed an association between cruelty to animals and CU traits. For females, parental and self-report agreed, showing an association between cruelty and CU traits only. The authors conclude that animal cruelty may be a marker that differentiates children whose pathway to conduct disorder is associated with CU rather than externalizing behavior and family conflict.

*Limitations:* Self- and parental reports may be subject to bias introduced by social desirability. Parents also may not be aware of all of their children's behavior. The homogeneity of the middle-class sample limits the generalizability of findings.

**Duncan, A., Thomas, J. C., & Miller, C. (2005). Significance of family risk factors in development of childhood animal cruelty in adolescent boys with conduct problems. *Journal of Family Violence*, 20(4), 235-239.**

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*Research question:* What are the family risk factors that differentiate children with disruptive behavior disorders who do not abuse animals from those with disruptive behavior disorders who do abuse animals?

*Sample:* Male children (N = 101) ages 8-17, who had received inpatient treatment in a Pacific Northwest facility between 1992 and 2002; had disruptive behavior problems; met standards for conduct disorder or oppositional defiant disorder; and had a legal history.

*Methodology:* Charts were reviewed for two groups: those who had a documented history of animal cruelty (N = 51), and those who had none (N = 50). The presence of family risk factors was assessed, including physical/sexual abuse, paternal alcoholism, paternal inaccessibility, and exposure to domestic violence.

*Findings:* Children who committed acts of cruelty toward animals were significantly more likely to have been physically or sexually abused, and to have witnessed domestic violence.

*Limitations:* Chart review may be less reliable than gathering information from the participants directly, especially with regard to cruelty to animals. In addition, the methodology was retrospective and does not address causality. An examination of both genders could help to illuminate risk factors more clearly. Finally, it is unclear to what extent other disorders, such as depression and attention deficit disorder, affected findings.

**Fielding, W. J., Oenbring, R. A., Brennen, S., Carroll, M. C., Bethel, N., & Minnis, J. (2011). A first look at harm toward animals by Bahamians in childhood. *The International Journal of Bahamian Studies*, 17(2), 27-49.**

*Research question:* (a) Do males and females exhibit similar levels of harm toward animals? (b) What types of animals are victims of harm? (c) Are there any links between childhood harm of animals and the domestic environment in which the children lived? Do children who live in violent homes exhibit a similar level of harm toward animals as those who do not?

*Sample:* 1,558 Bahamian citizens living in the Bahamas. Data were collected using a snowball sampling method. University students received a SurveyMonkey link and were asked to share the link with others who might be willing to complete the survey.

*Methodology:* Respondents were recruited by email and word of mouth and asked to participate in an online survey that essentially followed the Children and Animals Inventory (CAI). The quantitative data were subjected to statistical analysis, and the open-ended questions were examined through discourse analysis, including N-grams. The survey asked about the presence of guns in the home, respondents' recollections of abuse as children, their history of animal abuse and the types of animals they harmed.

*Findings:* The Bahamas has a high level of family violence. More than 90 percent of respondents received corporal punishment as children, and more than 40 percent witnessed domestic violence.

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Pet abuse occurred in more than 20 percent of respondent homes. Respondents who grew up in less violent homes reported fewer incidents of animal abuse. The presence of a gun in the home, domestic violence and corporal punishment all correlated with incidents of animal abuse. The more violence was reported in a home, the more likely children were to harm warm-blooded vertebrates (e.g., cats and dogs). Harm of invertebrates or cold-blooded vertebrates was not seen as problematic for a variety of religious and cultural reasons. Males were more likely than females to harm animals. Although many respondents reported that their childhood abuse of animals was misguided or wrong, discourse analysis found that they downplayed childhood abuse of animals by using phrases that included the word *just*, indicating a linguistic trend in reporting past abuse. Stray animals were more likely to be harmed than pets kept in the home. The study's use of a hierarchical ranking of animals illuminated biases and preferences based on species.

*Limitations:* Women and residents of the Bahamas largest island, New Providence, were overrepresented. Results relied exclusively on self-reporting, which can be misleading due to elapsed time, embarrassment or bias. The CAI, the primary instrument of measurement, may also require modification for audiences outside of the United States in order to account for cultural differences. For example, the word *animal* needed to be clarified in the case of this study.

**Felthous, A. R. (1980). Aggression against cats, dogs and people. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, 10(3), 169-177.**

*Research question:* What are the similarities and differences between those who demonstrate assaultive behavior and those who commit acts of animal cruelty?

*Sample:* 346 male inpatient psychiatric patients were interviewed to determine their level of aggression against people. Those who reported no or incidental animal cruelty and reported the highest levels of aggression, with behaviors continuing after age 15, constituted the "assaultive group" (N = 54). Patients who reported recurrent cruelty to dogs and cats, regardless of aggression level, constituted the "animal cruelty group" (N = 18).

*Methodology:* Participants completed a questionnaire about childhood dynamics thought to influence aggression at a later age. Those who indicated that they had participated in animal cruelty were interviewed about these behaviors.

*Findings and implications:* The animal cruelty group displayed a high level of aggression toward people, with only one participant discontinuing violent behavior after age 15. A majority of both groups reported fighting, temper tantrums, severe physical punishment from parents, violent outbursts, and school absenteeism during childhood. Subjects in the animal cruelty group were significantly more likely than those in the assaultive group to report having an alcoholic father, firesetting (both uncontrolled and destructive), enuresis past the age of 5, absence of a father, and poor school performance. Felthous proposes that cruelty to animals is linked with poor impulse control, which can also be a factor in aggressive behavior, and suggests a more complete psychiatric profile of patients who report engaging in cruelty to animals.

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*Limitations:* The group studied was composed of male psychiatric patients, with no comparison to a normative population or study of gender differences. The sample size is rather small, and those in the assaultive group outnumbered the animal cruelty group three to one.

**Flynn, C. P. (1999). Animal abuse in childhood and later support for interpersonal violence in families. *Society & Animals*, 7(2), 161-172.**

*Research question:* Are college-age adults who perpetrated cruelty to animals as children more likely to approve of corporal punishment for children, and for husbands slapping their wives?

*Sample:* Participants were 267 undergraduate college students enrolled in introductory psychology and sociology classes at a public southeastern university.

*Methodology :* Subjects were given an 18-page inventory based on the Boat Inventory on Animal-Related Experiences and modified for a questionnaire format (Miller & Knutson, 1997). Five separate dimensions of animal abuse were studied: killing a pet (not including euthanasia, hunting, or for food); killing a wild or stray animal; torturing or harming an animal; touching an animal sexually; or engaging in sexual intercourse with an animal. Two questions were added to measure attitudes toward corporal punishment and approval of a husband slapping his wife.

*Findings and implications:* Nearly 18 percent of study participants reported abusing an animal at least once, and males were almost four times as likely to have engaged in animal cruelty as females. Most who reported harming or killing an animal had done so more than once; nearly 28 percent of those who reported harming or torturing an animal had done so six or more times. After controlling for factors such as race, gender, physical punishment received from parents, and belief in biblical literalism, those who had engaged in animal abuse more strongly favored corporal punishment. The percentage of students who reported approval of a husband slapping his wife was very small overall, and should be interpreted with caution; however, a significant relationship did exist, with those who had committed acts of animal abuse more approving of this action by a three to one ratio.

*Limitations:* This study was conducted with undergraduate students at a southeastern university and may be influenced by regional differences that cannot be generalized to the rest of the United States. In addition, definitions of cruelty did not specifically exclude socially acceptable killing (e.g., killing mice, snakes, or other “vermin”), so those who reported cruelty to small animals – the largest group reported – may have reported those actions as abuse.

**Flynn, C. P. (1999). Exploring the link between corporal punishment and children's cruelty to animals. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 971-981.**

*Research question:* Is there a relationship between receiving corporal punishment as a child and committing abusive acts toward animals in childhood or adolescence?

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*Sample:* Participants were 267 undergraduate college students enrolled in introductory psychology and sociology classes at a public Southeastern university.

*Methodology:* Subjects were given an 18-page survey based on the Boat Inventory on Animal-Related Experiences and adapted for use in a questionnaire format (Miller & Knutson, 1997). Five separate dimensions of animal abuse were studied: killing a pet (not including euthanasia, hunting, or for food); killing a wild or stray animal; torturing or harming an animal; touching an animal sexually; or engaging in sexual intercourse with an animal. Frequency of corporal punishment was examined, along with parental demographic characteristics, child abuse, and violence between parents.

*Findings and implications:* Nearly 18 percent of participants reported abusing an animal at least once, and males were almost four times as likely to have engaged in animal cruelty as females. Those who had experienced less frequent physical punishment were significantly less likely to have committed animal cruelty. Those who had committed animal cruelty were significantly more likely to have received corporal punishment from fathers during both the preteen and teenage years. Males, in particular, demonstrated this relationship. This pattern held when controlling for experiencing child abuse, witnessing violence between parents, and father's education level, suggesting that animal abuse is not simply tied to family violence or socioeconomic variables. The author suggests that even socially sanctioned aggressive acts toward children may in fact be detrimental to their development of appropriate behavior and in fact encourage them to engage in more socially unacceptable forms of violence.

*Limitations:* While this study does look at correlation, causality is more difficult to determine. In addition, this study was undertaken at a Southern university, and it is unclear to what extent views and use of corporal punishment generalize to other regions of the country. In addition, this group of students may be likely to have lived in rural areas, thus exposing them to more frequent contact with animals and thus more opportunities to act out against them. The study's retrospective nature could influence findings, resulting in underreporting. Finally, as is a common issue in studies of this nature, the definition of animal abuse was not clearly specified.

**Heath, G. A., Hardesty, V. A., & Goldfine, P. E. (1984). Firesetting, enuresis, and animal cruelty. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychotherapy*, 1, 97-100.**

*Research question:* What is the connection between childhood firesetting, enuresis, and animal cruelty?

*Sample size:* The sample included 204 children between the ages of 4 and 16 who were enrolled in outpatient services in a child psychiatric clinic.

*Methodology:* Parents were asked if their child exhibited enuresis, cruelty to animals, or firesetting, using the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1978).

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*Findings and implications:* Of the 204 children, 32 were identified as firesetters, 29 exhibited enuresis, and 28 had committed acts of animal cruelty. With regard to cruelty to animals, the only significant association found was between cruel children and firesetters who did not exhibit enuresis. Children who had been cruel to animals were significantly more likely to exhibit externalized (i.e., conduct) and internalized (i.e., emotional) problems.

*Limitations:* A limitation of this study is parental report, since many parents may deny or be ignorant of their child's cruelty to animals.

**Hellman, D. S., & Blackman, N. (1966). Enuresis, firesetting, and cruelty to animals: A triad predictive of adult crime. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 122, 1431-1435.**

*Research question:* This study tested the hypothesis that the combined presence of enuresis, firesetting, and cruelty to animals in childhood or adolescence predicted violence against fellow human beings.

*Sample:* This study's sample consisted of 84 male prisoners in an acute intensive psychiatric treatment center's Social Maladjustment Unit. Study participants were divided into two groups, one of which contained those who had committed violent crimes against people (e.g., murder, rape, serious assault, armed robbery) and those who had committed relatively nonviolent crimes (e.g., forgery, burglary, auto theft).

*Methodology:* Case review of intensive inpatient evaluations consisting of physical, social, and psychiatric history and psychological tests.

*Findings and implications:* One quarter of all subjects were positive for the triad of symptoms. Of this subgroup, two-thirds were charged with aggressive crimes. Among those in the violent crime group, 74 percent had a history of at least part of the triad of symptoms. In contrast, of the 53 nonviolent criminals, only seven had the full triad and eight had a partial triad. The authors suggest that the child uses animal cruelty as a form of acting out toward his or her abusive or ambivalent parents. Despite this study's age, it remains relevant in that any of the three elements of the triad should be addressed as a potential indicator of children's conduct disorder or other psychopathology.

*Limitations:* This study's age may hamper its applicability; great progress in child psychiatry has been made since 1974 and should be taken into consideration. Sample size and focus only on males limits meaningful analysis.

**Henderson, B. B., Hensley, C., & Tallichet, S. E. (2011). Childhood animal cruelty methods and their link to adult interpersonal violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 26(11), 2211-2227.**

*Research question:* What is the connection between the methods used by children to abuse animals and the number of interpersonal violent crimes committed in adulthood?

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*Sample:* All male inmates from two prisons, one medium security and one maximum security (N = 1800) in a Southern state, were invited to participate. A total of 180 responded and served as subjects.

*Methodology:* A 26-item questionnaire was devised using elements from previous research (Ascione, Thompson, & Black, 1997; Boat, 1994; Merz-Perez et al., 2001; Merz-Perez & Heide, 2004; Tallichet & Hensley, 2004). Questionnaires asked about the number of times the inmate had committed violent crimes, including murder, rape, aggravated or simple assault, and robbery. In addition, the questionnaires asked (for inmates who reported animal cruelty as children (n = 103)), which methods were used to hurt or kill animals: drowned, hit, shot, kicked, choked, burned, and/or had sex with. Correctional facility counselors distributed the surveys to inmates, who returned them to researchers in a self-addressed stamped envelope.

*Findings and implications:* This study repeats another conducted by Hensley and Tallichet in 2009. The only variables that significantly correlated with repeated interpersonal violence were the age at which inmates began abusing animals, with those who began at a younger age more likely to commit acts of interpersonal violence, and bestiality, which was reported by more than one in five inmates. In addition, recurrent cruelty to animals was correlated with bestiality, burning animals, and starting cruel acts at a younger age. This points to the need to closely monitor young children for signs of animal abuse, as some researchers have hypothesized (e.g., Merz-Perez & Heide, 2004) that overpowering animals at a young age may encourage desensitization and inhibit development of empathy. In addition, this study lends support for more research in populations who have sexually abused animals, as other studies have also demonstrated a link between sexual cruelty to animals and violence toward other humans.

*Limitations:* Limitations of this study include a low response rate (10 percent) and illiteracy among inmates, which may have made it difficult for them to accurately complete the questionnaire. In addition, the focus on the frequency of animal abuse does not provide information on the complex nature of the abuse. In-person interviews would allow researchers to gather a more complete, contextual picture of each inmate's personal history with animal abuse.

**Henry, B. C. (2004). The relationship between animal cruelty, delinquency, and attitudes toward the treatment of nonhuman animals. *Society & Animals*, 12(3), 185-207.**

*Research question:* (1) What is the relationship between committing acts of animal cruelty and participating in other forms of delinquent behavior? (2) What is the relationship between merely observing and actively participating in animal cruelty? (3) What is the relationship between self-reported acts of animal abuse and permissiveness toward cruelty to animals?

*Sample:* Students enrolled in a university Introduction to Psychology course (N = 169), split approximately evenly between females and males, with ages ranging from 17 to 55.

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*Methodology:* A modified version of the Boat Inventory on Animal-Related Experiences (Boat, 1999) measured cruelty to animals, including witnessing abuse, and presence of companion animals in the participant's life, both in childhood and at present. A modified version of the Self-Reported Delinquency Questionnaire (Moffitt, Silva, Lynam & Henry, 1994; Henry, Caspi, Moffitt, Harrington & Silva, 1999) was used to identify the occurrence of 35 different antisocial behaviors. The author devised a 26-question scale, the Attitudes Toward the Treatment of Animals Scale (ATTAS), to determine attitudes of sensitivity toward abused animals.

*Findings:* Nearly 18 percent of participants indicated participation in animal cruelty, with just over 12 percent committing cruelty on more than one occasion. Significantly more males than females reported both committing and witnessing animal cruelty, though many more females reported witnessing cruelty than actively participating. Men also reported significantly more delinquent behaviors, and significantly lower scores on the ATTAS, indicating less sensitivity toward abused animals. Witnessing animal cruelty correlated significantly with committing animal abuse, and a stronger relationship exists for those who witnessed cruelty on more than one occasion. Those who witnessed or participated in animal abuse committed other acts of delinquency significantly more often, both in the past year and over the lifespan. Among men, those who had witnessed animal cruelty had lower ATTAS scores; this effect was reversed for women, with those who had witnessed cruelty having higher ATTAS scores.

*Limitations:* The low number of women reporting acts of animal cruelty (N = 3) precluded further analysis. Difficulty recalling events that may have happened many years prior may compromise reliability, and information on environmental and contextual variables was not gathered. ATTAS scores should be interpreted with caution, since they may measure several factors such as empathy, moral judgment and personality traits. In addition, the validity and reliability of the ATTAS are not yet well established.

**Henry, B. C. (2004). Exposure to animal abuse and group context: Two factors affecting participation in animal abuse. *Anthrozoos*, 17(4), 290-305.**

*Research question:* What are the effects of age of first exposure to animal abuse and group versus solitary perpetration of animal abuse?

*Sample:* Students enrolled in a university Introduction to Psychology course (N = 206), with slightly more males than females and ages ranging from 17 to 46.

*Methodology:* A modified version of the Boat Inventory on Animal-Related Experiences (Boat, 1999) measured cruelty to animals, including witnessing abuse and the social context in which abuse occurred; presence of and attachment to companion animals in the participant's life; age at which animal cruelty was first witnessed; and response to the abuse. A modified version of the Self-Reported Delinquency Questionnaire (Moffitt, Silva, Lynam & Henry, 1994; Henry, Caspi, Moffitt, Harrington & Silva, 1999) was used to identify the occurrence of 35 different antisocial behaviors. The author used his previously constructed 26-question scale, the Attitudes Toward

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the Treatment of Animals Scale (ATTAS), and two additional questions to determine attitudes toward abused animals.

*Findings:* The age at which animal abuse is first witnessed was found to have a significant effect on later participation in abuse, especially among men; those who observed animal abuse before age 13 were much more likely to commit acts of cruelty than those exposed at a later age. These individuals also were shown to participate in other antisocial behaviors more frequently than those who had not witnessed abuse. Those who abused animals alone, even once, had the highest scores on the delinquency scale and the lowest scores on the ATTAS, compared to those who were part of a group that abused animals or never participated in abuse.

*Limitations:* Because so few women reported acts of animal cruelty, females were not included in the analysis. Accurate recall of events may compromise reliability, and information on environmental context was not gathered.

**Hensley, C., & Tallichet, S. E. (2005). Learning to be cruel?: Exploring the onset and frequency of animal cruelty. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 49 (1), 37-47.**

*Research question:* How are demographic characteristics and the influence of childhood experiences with animal cruelty related to the age of onset and recurrence of childhood animal cruelty among an incarcerated population?

*Sample:* 180 male inmates in medium and maximum security prisons in a Southern state.

*Methodology:* Participants were asked to complete a self-administered questionnaire related to their early childhood exposure to animal cruelty and their own participation in acts of animal cruelty. The dependent variables were the frequency with which an inmate had hurt or killed an animal and the age at which an inmate's abuse of animals began.

*Findings:* 103 of 180 participants had engaged in childhood animal cruelty. The younger participants were when they first witnessed animal cruelty, the younger they were when they committed cruelty. Participants committed animal cruelty more frequently when they had witnessed a family member committing cruelty. Additionally, participants who witnessed cruelty at a young age were more likely to commit it with greater frequency.

*Limitations:* Data were gathered through self-reporting, and no control group was included. Illiterate inmates were not included in the study because it relied on pencil and paper questionnaires. There was a low response rate (10 percent), which may have affected the results.

**Hensley, C., Tallichet, S. E., & Dutkiewicz, E. L. (2009). Recurrent childhood animal cruelty: Is there a relationship to adult recurrent interpersonal violence? *Criminal Justice Review*, 34(2), 248-257.**

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*Research question:* Is there a relationship between recurrent animal cruelty in childhood and repeated violent acts against other individuals in adulthood?

*Sample:* Male inmates from two prisons in a Southern state, one medium security and one maximum security (N = 180).

*Methodology:* Questionnaires drawn from a number of studies (Ascione, Thompson, & Black, 1997; Boat, 1994; Merz-Perez et al., 2001; Merz-Perez & Heide, 2004; Tallichet & Hensley, 2004) asked about the number of times the inmate had committed violent crimes, including murder, rape, aggravated or simple assault, and robbery. In addition, the questionnaires asked about the number of times inmates hurt or killed animals in a context other than hunting.

*Findings:* Frequency of animal abuse at a younger age was the only significant predictor of violence toward other humans at a later age.

*Limitations:* Limitations of this study include a low response rate (10 percent) and a possible compromise due to low literacy levels among inmates. The focus on prisoners limits the generalizability of the findings, and the retrospective nature of the study does not allow causal inferences to be made.

**Maier J., & Pierpoint H. (2011). Friends, status symbols and weapons: The use of dogs by youth groups and youth gangs. *Crime, Law and Social Change*, 55(5), 405–420.**

*Research question:* What is the nature of animal use and abuse in youth groups and gangs? How do intrinsic (companionship) and extrinsic (status) motivations for dog ownership contribute to animal abuse?

*Sample:* Twenty-five “hard to reach” youth dog owners, all of whom belonged to a youth group and half of whom belonged to a gang. Additional data were gathered from seven professionals who either work with dogs or youth.

*Methodology:* Researchers identified and recruited hard to reach youth dog owners by shadowing youth workers. Youth who agreed to participate in the study were interviewed regarding their attitudes and habits towards their dogs and other dogs. The data was hand recorded and analyzed using NVivo8 software, which helped to establish recurring themes in the interviews. In addition to the youth interviews, interviews with professionals who either work with youths or dogs were conducted and analyzed using the same methods.

*Findings:* Despite media reports to the contrary, most youths described their dogs as possessing intrinsic value and reported keeping dogs as companions. Professionals were more likely to describe youths as owning dogs for status, ignoring the companionship dimension. When asked about past animal abuse, nearly half the youths (n=9) interviewed admitted to hurting animals, mostly small pets. They believed that some violence was necessary in the process of training a dog, and saw many acts of animal violence as socially acceptable, even beneficial to the animal. Status

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dogs are often a representation of the owner's masculinity, and their perceived toughness has social bearing on the rank of the human who owns them. However, the media is biased in its reporting on status dogs, and neglects to highlight the fact that many youths love their dogs and treat them as valuable members of the group. The dichotomy between intrinsic dog ownership and extrinsic has turned the complex relationship between youths and their dogs into a political issue that criminalizes youths and their dogs, resulting in legislation such as the Dangerous Dogs Act, which supports the euthanasia of all dogs who meet certain breed criteria. The relationship between youths and dogs is laden with contradictions, including the fact that dogs, while holding some status as valued companions, are also viewed as inanimate objects and subjected to various forms of abuse.

*Limitations:* The study was based on a small convenience sample of youths, making it difficult to generalize findings.

**Mellor, D., Yeow, J., Norul Hidayah, M., & Nor Fizlee, M. H. (2008). The relationship between childhood cruelty to animals and psychological adjustment: A Malaysian study. *Anthrozoos*, 21(4), 363-374.**

*Research question:* What are the behavioral and psychological factors that influence childhood cruelty to animals?

*Sample size and composition:* Children of Malay descent between ages 6 and 12 (N = 379) and their parents participated in the study.

*Methodology:* Parents and children were asked to complete the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire to describe the child's behavior over the past six months, including conduct problems, hyperactivity-inattention, emotional symptoms, peer problems, and pro-social behavior. Parents also completed the Children's Attitudes and Behaviors Toward Animals questionnaire, measuring their child's general attitudes and behavior toward animals, including 13 questions specifically examining cruelty to animals in either a typical or malicious context.

*Findings and implications:* Unlike many studies of this type carried out in the United States, gender differences were not found with respect to cruelty to animals. For both boys and girls, parent-reported hyperactivity/inattention behaviors were correlated with malicious cruelty toward animals, prompting the researchers to conclude that more attention should be paid to parent reports of these tendencies. This is especially important given research suggesting that the majority of children diagnosed with ADHD also meet full diagnostic criteria for oppositional defiant disorder/conduct disorder, which has been strongly linked with cruelty to animals (e.g., e.g., Offord, Boyle and Racine 1991; Ascione 1993; Frick et al. 1993). Self-reported conduct issues correlated with typical animal cruelty for girls, and both typical and malicious animal cruelty for boys, suggesting that animal cruelty may be one of a number of maladaptive behaviors exhibited by children.

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*Limitations:* Results from this study may not be generalizable due to cultural differences, even within Malaysia. Parental reporting assumes that parents witness all child acts of animal cruelty, which is not necessarily true. As with many of the studies addressing animal cruelty among children, this study examined correlation only.

**Merz-Perez, L., Heide, K. M., & Silverman, I. J. (2001). Childhood cruelty to animals and subsequent violence against humans. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 45(5), 556-573.**

*Research question:* Are violent offenders more likely than nonviolent offenders to have committed recurrent acts of animal cruelty during childhood?

*Sample:* Male inmates, 45 violent and 45 nonviolent, from a Florida correction facility were recruited for this study.

*Methodology:* Through face-to-face interviews using the Survivors' Coping Strategies Survey (Heide and Solomon, 1991) and the Children and Animals Assessment Instrument (Ascione, Thompson, & Black, 1997), the researchers gathered information on demographic and social history, and information about acts of animal cruelty committed toward pet, wild, farm, and stray animals; frequency and severity of the acts of cruelty; and the perpetrator's response to his own actions. Researchers also reviewed each participant's case history and disposition.

*Findings and implications:* Merz-Perez, Heide, and Silverman proposed that seven of the nine motivations for animal cruelty named by Kellert and Felthous (1985) would predict a progression from animal cruelty to violence toward people. These seven motivations include: to control an animal; to express aggression through an animal; to enhance one's own aggressiveness; to shock people for amusement; to retaliate against another person; displacement of hostility from a person to an animal; and nonspecific sadism. The percentage of violent inmates who committed acts of cruelty to pets was significantly greater than the percentage of nonviolent participants who committed such acts (26 versus 7 percent). Dogfighting was the most serious (and only) form of cruelty toward pets reported by nonviolent offenders. No significant differences were found between violent and nonviolent offenders with respect to wild animals or farm animals. No violence toward stray animals was reported by nonviolent offenders, compared with 6 percent of violent offenders. Despite the lack of statistical significance, qualitative data gathered pointed to differences such as less remorse and more cruel activity committed by violent offenders. In general, remorse or negative emotions were expressed less frequently by violent offenders. The results point to the fact that animal cruelty, while not automatically an indicator of future violence toward humans, may be a warning sign of other antisocial behavior. Moreover, more frequent and severe forms of cruelty enacted by children may indicate a more violent disposition toward other people.

*Limitations:* This study's small sample size may have resulted in failure to reach statistically significant levels in potentially important comparisons with regard to farm and wild animals.

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**Slavkin, M.L. (2001). Enuresis, firesetting, and cruelty to animals: Does the ego triad show predictive validity? *Adolescence*, 36(143), 461-466.**

*Research question:* Is the presence of animal cruelty and enuresis in juvenile firesetters significantly associated with recurrent firesetting?

*Sample:* Juveniles aged 3-18 who were referred to an arson intervention program (N = 888).

*Methodology:* Slavkin reviewed records of juvenile firesetters, obtained through interview upon intake into the arson intervention program, to determine if enuresis and cruelty to animals were related to repeat firesetting. The records included items regarding demographics, firesetting incidents, firesetting behavior in general, and the presence or absence of psychological counseling. Instruments used included the Family Fire Risk Interview Form (Fineman, 1997), the Juvenile Fire Risk Interview Form (Fineman, 1997), and the Parent Fire Risk Questionnaire (Fireman, 1997).

*Findings and implications:* While the presence of enuresis was not related to reoffending, those who were cruel to animals were more likely to repeat firesetting. Slavkin suggests that rather than predicting future firesetting behavior, animal cruelty is part of a constellation of delinquent behaviors. The study indicates a need to further investigate the linkages between delinquent behaviors and cruelty to animals.

*Limitations:* Collection of data on family and other contextual variables in the juvenile's life would facilitate a better understanding of the factors contributing to firesetting and cruelty to animals.

**Tallichet, S. E., Hensley, C., & Singer, S. D. (2005). Unraveling the methods of childhood and adolescent cruelty to nonhuman animals. *Society & Animals*, 13(2), 91-108.**

*Research question:* This study aimed to understand the demographic and situational factors associated with animal cruelty among children and adolescents, the method used to commit animal abuse, and the frequency of such acts. The study also considers how cruelty methods used by children predict future violence toward humans.

*Sample:* Male inmates in two medium-security correctional facilities and one maximum-security correctional facility in a Southern state were recruited to complete surveys; 261 completed the questionnaire out of 2,093, yielding a 12.5 percent response rate.

*Methodology:* Participants were given a 39-question survey that asked about whether and how often they had drowned, hit or kicked, shot, choked, burned, and/or had sex with animals in their childhood or adolescence. In addition, inmates were asked if they had ever been convicted of a violent crime (actual or attempted), including murder, rape, and aggravated assault. Finally, information was collected on demographic factors such as race, education level, and residence while growing up, emotional reactions to committing abuse, and the age at which cruelty to animals first occurred. The variables were taken from previous studies on this topic (Arluke et al., 1999; Ascione, Thompson & Black, 1997; Boat, 1994; Flynn, 1999; Merz-Perez & Heide, 2003; Merz-Perez et al., 2001).

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*Findings and implications:* Nearly 43 percent of those surveyed reported abusing animals as a child or adolescent. The most common method was shooting, followed by hitting or kicking. Those who did not report being upset by committing animal cruelty were more likely to engage in bestiality. Inmates who first committed acts of cruelty at a younger age were more likely to continue the behavior. The researchers found no correlation between methods of animal cruelty and later interpersonal violence. The authors suggest a potential cultural acceptance of shooting animals, as it was by far the most frequent method of abuse committed, and those who engaged in it were less likely to feel remorse.

*Limitations:* The limitations of the study include a low response rate (12.5 percent), validity of self-reports of crimes committed or attempted, and exclusion of illiterate inmates or those with limited reading comprehension skills.

**Tapia, F. (1971). Children who are cruel to animals. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, 2(2), 70-77.**

*Research question:* What are the contextual factors and psychological makeup of children who committed acts of cruelty to animals?

*Sample:* Eighteen children who had repeatedly demonstrated cruelty to animals and were being treated at the Child Psychiatry department of the University of Minnesota School of Medicine. All of the children in the study were males, and the average age was 9.5 years.

*Methodology and tools:* The author reviewed case files of each participant.

*Findings and implications:* Disturbances in the child's home life were extremely common, and some of the children had brain damage or other organic brain dysfunction. The author suggests that these children are conduct-impaired and demonstrate aggression combined with poor impulse control. Most of the children also displayed related behaviors such as bullying, fighting, loss of temper, destructiveness, and firesetting. A troubled home life and aggressive parents – either toward the child or each other – were cited as the most common factors influencing participants negatively. Despite its age, this early study's description of juvenile animal abusers remains consistent with much of the research done more recently.

*Limitations:* The small sample size is a key limitation of the study.

**Thompson, K. L. & Gullone, E. (2006). An investigation into the association between the witnessing of animal abuse and adolescents' behavior toward animals. *Society & Animals Forum*, 14(3), 221-243.**

*Research question:* How frequently do adolescents witness animal abuse, and who commits the abuse? In addition, do those who witness animal abuse commit cruel acts toward animals more often? Finally, do these associations vary based on the frequency of witnessing cruelty?

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*Sample:* Students recruited from both public and parochial secondary schools (N = 281). The sample comprised 168 females and 113 males.

*Methodology:* Animal abuse was measured using the Dadds et al. (2004) Children and Animals Inventory (CAI), a version of Ascione et al.'s (1997) Children and Animals Assessment Instrument (CAAI) modified for self-report. The inventory assesses nine dimensions of cruelty: severity, frequency, duration, recency, diversity (wild, pet, stray, and/or farm animals; invertebrates; cold-blooded vertebrates; and/or warm-blooded vertebrates), sentience, covert, isolate and empathy. In addition, the authors added questions concerning witnessing cruelty to animals. Thompson & Gullone's (2003) Children's Treatment of Animals Questionnaire (CTAW) was used to measure humane conduct toward companion animals.

*Findings:* Just over 57 percent of participants reported witnessing animal abuse, most often by a stranger. Those who witnessed abuse reported committing acts of cruelty significantly more often than those who did not. If the individual observed abusing animals was a friend, relative, parent or sibling, the levels of abuse reported were significantly higher, whereas those who reported observing an abusive stranger had significantly lower levels of cruelty. Frequency of witnessing cruelty also appeared to play a role, with those who witnessed abuse frequently reporting abusive behavior significantly more often. Humane behavior scores did not differ between those who had and those who had not witnessed cruelty, suggesting that youths were no less likely to treat their companion animals humanely as a result of having witnessed animal abuse.

*Limitations:* Social desirability may play a role in adolescents' self-reporting, resulting in underreporting of abuse. Parental consent was low for this study, with only 20 percent of parents giving consent for their children to participate. As a result, the more dysfunctional families may be underrepresented. Finally, because information on the species of animal abused was not collected, conclusions cannot be drawn about the relationship between the type animal children witness being abused and the type of animal they abuse.

**Wax, D. & Haddox, V. (1974). Enuresis, firesetting, and animal cruelty in male adolescent delinquents: A triad predictive of violent behavior. *Journal of Psychiatric Law*, 2(1), 45-72.**

*Research question:* What are the contextual factors surrounding the triad of behaviors composed of enuresis, firesetting, and animal cruelty, and how does the presence of the triad influence conduct?

*Sample:* The authors of this study observed behavior in 46 juvenile subjects involved with the California Youth Authority. Six of the subjects displayed what the authors refer to as "the triad:" enuresis, firesetting, and cruelty to animals. These six subjects constitute the study sample.

*Methodology:* Case review consisted of psychiatric evaluation via interview, psychological testing, and examination of any available supporting documentation.

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*Findings and implications:* Each of the six subjects displayed extremely aggressive and sexually inappropriate behaviors. Further, most of the subjects grew up in unstable home environments and showed signs of immature psychological development. The authors note that the triad behaviors generally indicate poor impulse control and, as a result, potentially dangerous outcomes. Despite its age, this study is consistent with more recent studies that have found a relationship between animal cruelty and other forms of delinquent behavior.

*Limitations:* The small sample size is a key limitation of the study.

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