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1 **Olfactory variation in mouse husbandry and its implications for refinement and standardisation: UK**
2 **survey of non-animal scents**

3 **Short title: Survey of non-animal scents in mouse husbandry**

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11 **Abstract**

12 With their highly sensitive olfactory system, the behaviour and physiology of mice are not only
13 influenced by the scents of conspecifics and other species, but also by many other chemicals in
14 the environment. The constraints of laboratory housing limit a mouse's capacity to avoid
15 aversive odours that could be present in the environment. Potentially odorous items routinely
16 used for husbandry procedures, such as sanitizing products and gloves, could be perceived by
17 mice as aversive or attractive, and affect their behaviour, physiology and experimental results.
18 A survey was sent to research institutions in the UK to enquire about husbandry practices that
19 could impact on the olfactory environment of the mouse. Responses were obtained from 80
20 individuals working in 51 institutions. Husbandry practices varied considerably. Seventy percent
21 of respondents reported always wearing gloves for handling mice, with nitrile being the most

22 common glove material (94%) followed by latex (23%) and vinyl (14%). Over six different
23 products were listed for cleaning surfaces, floors, anaesthesia and euthanasia chambers and
24 behavioural apparatus. In all cases Trigene™ (now called Anistel™) was the most common
25 cleaning product used (43, 41, 40 and 49%, respectively). Depending on the attribute
26 considered, between 7 and 19% of respondents thought that cleaning products definitely, or
27 were likely to, have strong effects on standardization, mouse health, physiology or behaviour.
28 Understanding whether and how these odours affect mouse welfare will help to refine mouse
29 husbandry and experimental procedures through practical recommendations, to improve the
30 quality of life of laboratory animals and the experimental data obtained.

31 **Keywords: Husbandry; Mice; Olfaction; Survey; Refinement**

32

33 Non-regulated routine husbandry procedures, such as certain methods for handling ¹⁻³ cage-
34 cleaning ⁴ and ear biopsies used for identification marking ⁵ have some impact on mouse wellbeing.
35 Moreover, although UK establishments are expected to comply with the minimum provisions set
36 out by the Home Office ⁶ these only govern certain aspects of husbandry, and different animal units
37 might still differ in the way they carry out some of the tasks. Reports about the influence of the
38 laboratory environment on the outcome of mouse behavioural genetics experiments ⁷⁻⁹ have raised
39 questions about which environmental factors are most relevant ¹⁰. To help identify sources of
40 variation that could affect results, researchers are encouraged to provide more thorough
41 descriptions of all aspects of the experiment, including the apparatus, procedure, strain,
42 environment and husbandry. For example, the National Centre for the 3Rs (NC3Rs) has developed
43 the Animal Research: Reporting In-Vivo Experiments (ARRIVE) ¹¹ guidelines that have been adopted
44 by many journals and research funding bodies. However, perhaps due to our inherent sensory
45 limitations as humans, the olfactory environment that mice are exposed to is generally omitted.

46 Although humans and mice share the same five senses, there are important differences in
47 their perceptual sensitivity. Mice rely on the olfactory system as a major sensory modality ¹²
48 whereas humans rely more on vision and have largely lost olfactory sensitivity ¹³. Some seemingly
49 innocuous or imperceptible olfactory cues could thus cause physiological and behavioural changes
50 in mice, potentially confounding experimental data and/or increasing the severity of procedures.
51 For example, toluene, an organic solvent used in many products such as paints, printing ink, rubber
52 and disinfectants, is a potent stimulant of the trigeminal system, which functions to detect irritants
53 and potentially noxious chemicals. In mice, exposure to toluene causes aversion, measured by a
54 significant decrease in the time spent in an area containing this substance when compared to water

55 ¹⁴. Similarly, when rats were presented with a capped or uncapped permanent marker pen in a two
56 choice Grice aversion test, they showed increased latencies, spent less time and visited less often
57 the box containing the uncapped one, suggesting aversion to the odour or solvent released ¹⁵.

58 Plant-derived scents and essential oils (EO) used to improve the smell of cleaning products
59 have also been reported to have physiological and behavioural consequences in rodents. A variety
60 of EOs has shown antidepressant, anxiolytic, sedative or anxiogenic effects in anxiety-related
61 behavioural tests in mice (Table 1). These reactions appear to be mediated by neural or hormonal
62 mechanisms, including the GABAergic¹⁶, serotonergic ¹⁷ and dopaminergic¹⁸ neurotransmission
63 systems and the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis ¹⁹. Another issue to consider is the
64 potential impact of EOs on the quality of anaesthesia. In mice, inhalation of linalool, lemon oil or
65 jasmine oil during pentobarbitone-induced anaesthesia reduces sleeping time, whereas exposure to
66 terpinyl acetate and phenethyl alcohol increases it ^{20,21}. Additionally, inhalation of linalool reduced
67 body temperature by 3.6°C in the pentobarbitone-anaesthetised mice ²⁰.

68 We carried out a survey to gain information on the diversity of the olfactory environment
69 laboratory mice were exposed to during routine husbandry procedures. Although the survey aimed
70 at the UK, one response from Ireland was also included. The survey focused on the type of glove
71 materials used to handle mice and cleaning products employed to sanitise different areas. We also
72 asked participants specific questions about their personal experience and opinions on the subject.
73 The results can be used to guide researchers as to the most common products currently used to aid
74 standardisation efforts in the short term, and to stimulate research into best practice over the
75 longer term. It should be noted that, while the focus of this questionnaire was on potential
76 olfactory effects on mice, each product could affect mice in other ways too, e.g. toxicity,

77 psychoactive effects, or tactile effects.

78 **Materials and methods**

79 The survey was first launched in February 2012. A request to complete the questionnaire
80 was sent by email to individuals involved in laboratory animal work in the UK. These contacts were
81 obtained through the professional network of the Royal Veterinary College's Named Veterinary
82 Group. A second round was sent in May 2012 to maximise UK coverage, and the survey officially
83 closed in June 2012. During the second round, the survey was distributed using specialist mailing
84 lists (Vets on Line; VOLE and Institute of Animal Technology; IAT) and it was advertised in the
85 Laboratory Animal Science (LASA) Spring Forum magazine. To safeguard anonymity no personal
86 details were asked and respondents were given the option not to disclose the name of their
87 organisation.

88 The questionnaire was created using Survey Gizmo (www.surveygizmo.com), an on-line
89 application that allowed respondents to enter free text and/or to select predetermined answers
90 from lists. A pilot run of the questionnaire was completed by colleagues with knowledge on the
91 field (veterinarians and animal technicians), and their feedback was used to improve its design
92 before the survey was launched.

93 The survey consisted of 34 questions covering 5 main topics: glove use, cleaning products,
94 other animals (covered in López-Salesansky et al. submitted to this journal), staff policies and
95 personal opinions. A full a copy of the survey can be found as supplementary material in Lopez-
96 Salesansky et al. (submitted to this journal). There were 23 multiple-choice questions and 11 open
97 questions. Open questions aimed at providing further details on multiple-choice questions or were

98 used to leave an opinion or a comment. The language of the questionnaire was English. The
99 questions of relevance to sources of non-animal scents included:

- 100 • Demographic information including role of the respondent, type of facility, and type
101 of rodent caging.
- 102 • Whether mice were handled with gloves and what glove material was used.
- 103 • Whether gloves of different materials left a smell on human hands after use
- 104 • What products were used for washing hands in their facilities.
- 105 • What cleaning products were used to clean mouse cages, surfaces/floors,
106 anaesthesia/ euthanasia chambers, behavioural apparatus and surgical equipment
107 after each mouse and at the end of the day. The particular products inquired about
108 were Virkon®, Trigene™, Alcohol, Iodine and Chlorhexidine, with free text for other
109 products.
- 110 • Whether they thought that any products (used currently, or in the past) might
111 adversely affect mice, data quality, or human workers.
- 112 • Whether there were policies in their place of work regulating the use of perfumes
113 and deodorants or personal hygiene products.
- 114 • What perfumes and deodorants they knew of that were used by people working in
115 the facility.
- 116 • How frequently gowns were washed and with what product.
- 117 • Respondents' opinions on the relative importance of odours from cleaning products
118 used to wash mouse cages and specialist equipment with respect to standardisation,
119 mouse health and physiology, and mouse behaviour.

120 Ethical approval for the survey was granted by the RVC Ethics and Welfare Committee (URN
121 2012 0052H).

122 **Statistical Analysis**

123 Descriptive analysis of multiple-answer, binary and scale questions was done through
124 frequency distribution descriptive statistics using Excel.

125 When the survey was returned partially completed, all questions that were answered
126 were included in the analysis. If more than one individual responded from the same institution
127 (anonymised but distinguishable from each other by the IP addresses), the answers were
128 compared by eye and, if the information provided was clearly different, they were used
129 separately in the analysis, because each institution may have more than one mouse unit. Only
130 one response was discarded due to likely duplication.

131 **Results**

132 **Demographics**

133 Although 57/80 respondents reached the end of the questionnaire, questions were not compulsory
134 and some of them failed to answer them all, with some respondents skipping certain questions
135 even if they reached the end. Therefore a maximum of 80 responses to each question were
136 obtained from 52 different animal institutions within the UK. Responses from non-UK institutions
137 were discarded, except for one response from Ireland. Named Animal Care and Welfare Officers
138 (NACWO) and Unit Managers provided most of the responses (70%). Only 7% of responses were
139 from scientists (Figure 1A). The age of respondents was mainly between 35 and 54 years old (70%)

140 (Figure 1B) and both genders were almost equally represented (females 54%, males 46%). The most
141 common (37/57) type of organisation surveyed was Academic Research institutions.

142 **Gloves and hand washing**

143 Most (70%) of respondents reported always wearing gloves when handling mice. The remaining
144 30% occasionally used bare hands, and one out of the 69 used forceps.

145 The most common glove material used for mouse handling was nitrile (94%) (Figure 1) and
146 25/80 participants used more than one type of gloves in the same institution. Participants reported
147 that latex gloves seemed to leave the most noticeable smell on their hands compared with other
148 materials, with 23% and 42% of respondents reporting a definite smell and a slight smell
149 respectively (Figure 2).

150 There was high variation in hand washing practices with 40/76 of respondents using more
151 than one product for sanitizing their hands. Both antibacterial products and soaps were used either
152 on their own, or in combination. The general term 'soap' was used by 35/76 respondents whereas
153 39 respondents provided a specific commercial brand including Carex™ (9), Deb (9), New Genn™
154 (6), Gojo® (5) and Purell (4). Some of these brands have standard soap and antibacterial varieties,
155 so it was not possible to determine to which product they were referring. With regards to
156 antibacterial use, 18/76 respondents specified using Hibiscrub™ (chlorhexidine), 9/76 specified
157 using alcohol and 10/76 did not provide a specific name. Thus over seven different hand sanitisers
158 were named.

159 **Cleaning practices**

160 Table 3 and Table 4 summarize the frequencies of responses provided regarding cleaning practices
161 and the use of specific cleaning products for sanitizing different areas and pieces of equipment in
162 the animal unit respectively.

163 Most (70%) of the respondents selected the option “other” for cleaning mouse cages. In the
164 free text, they explained that cages were put through the cage washer or washed with a specific
165 cage washer product.

166 Although Trigene™, (re-named Anistel™ in April 2012) was by far most commonly employed to
167 clean surfaces and floors (67%), various commercial and off the shelf cleaning products were also
168 used for this purpose, including Terminator™ one-step disinfectant (1), Sanifex™ (2), Flash™,
169 Novacross™ (1), ‘generic pine’ (1), Grime-go™ (2) and Super Q™ (2). Thus, in total 13 different
170 products were listed for cleaning surfaces and floors (Table 2).

171 Trigene™ was again the product most frequently used to sanitise anaesthesia and euthanasia
172 chambers (37%, 42%) and behavioural apparatus (40%, 49%) between each mouse and at the end
173 of the day respectively.

174 Alcohol was the main product used to clean surgical materials between each mouse (54%)
175 and at the end of the day (39%) and between 20-23% of respondents selected the option “other”
176 for cleaning this type of material, specifying in the free text that washing, autoclaving and hot bead
177 sterilisers were the methods used to sanitise these items.

178 Thirty-nine respondents provided their opinion on whether there were any products used
179 currently, or in the past, that they felt might adversely affect mice, data quality, or human workers.

180 Most of the responses concerned human health, although sometimes it was ambiguous, as it was
181 not specified in the free text. People were mostly worried about the effects of Virkon, alcohol and
182 bleach. Table 5 summarises their responses per product.

183 None of the surveyed participants reported the use of air freshener in the animal facilities.

184 **Staff policies**

185 Half (7/14) of the respondents providing information regarding the existence of in-house
186 policies for staff reported the existence of restrictions on the use of perfumes. The policy either
187 discouraged strong perfumes (2), did not allow them (4) or required consistency of the brand for
188 neurobehavioural studies (1). 4/14 participants also reported restrictions on the use of deodorants
189 or personal hygiene products. In this case, original source products were not allowed (1), and
190 unscented/'not smelly' products were encouraged (2) and in one case consistency of the brand was
191 required for neurobehavioural studies. Across all 14 respondents various common brands available
192 commercially were listed as hygiene products used by staff, including amongst others, Sure™,
193 Sanex™, Dove™, Lynx™, Impulse™ and Mitchum™.

194 Gowns were most commonly washed weekly (20/63) or after each use (16/63) and 7/63
195 reported washing them whenever found dirty (Figure 3). When asked about the product used to
196 wash gowns, Persil™ (11/56) and Ariel™ (6/56) were the two main commercial products used, but
197 other brands were also reported. Additionally, 10/56 did not know what product was used because
198 gowns were sent to an external laundry for washing.

199 Subjects provided their opinion about how important they thought odours coming from a list

200 of sources were regarding experimental standardisation, mouse health and physiology and mouse
201 behaviour. Table 6 summarises their answers. Depending on the aspect of refinement being
202 considered, between 7 and 19% of respondents thought that non-animal sources of odour
203 definitely, or were likely to, have strong effects on standardisation, or mouse health, physiology or
204 behaviour; on the other hand, between 39-72% suggested they were likely to have only weak
205 effects.

206 **Discussion**

207 The results of the survey show a large variation in the way husbandry procedures are carried out
208 across animal units in the UK. The variation is likely to be even greater internationally, as different
209 commercial products will be available in different countries. The survey also allowed people closely
210 involved in the care of laboratory animals to raise any concerns about how certain practices could
211 affect mice and staff members, and showed that opinions varied widely. This reveals a data deficit
212 concerning aspects of husbandry with potential for improved standardization and refinements.

213 Although the majority of respondents wore gloves for handling mice, there was a large
214 proportion (30%) that also used bare hands. This was a surprising finding mainly due to the usual
215 requirement to use PPE imposed by health and safety to prevent the development of laboratory
216 animal allergies ²². Consequently, within the same units, animals might not only be exposed to the
217 smell of different types of glove materials determined by the handler's preference, but also to the
218 scent of the handlers themselves, as well as the hand sanitizing products used to wash hands or
219 gloves. For example, it is common practice to avoid transfer of pathogens between IVCs to disinfect
220 gloves (and surfaces) between cages under the laminar flow cabinet. This is generally carried out

221 with alcohol based sprays or rubs or other disinfecting products. Consequently, the inherent and
222 acquired scents of the handlers could explain differences in results obtained when different
223 handlers carry out the same experiment ²³. Sorge et. al (2014) demonstrated that olfactory
224 exposure to male handlers or their scents induces physiological (increased plasma corticosterone,
225 hyperthermia and decrease in Fos protein-positive neurons) and behavioural (reduced facial
226 grimacing and nocifensive behavior, increased defecation, and increased thigmotaxis in the open
227 field) changes that suggest stress-induced analgesia and increased anxiety ²⁴. However the impact
228 of handling mice with or without gloves has not yet been tested.

229 Cleaning of mouse cages was mainly through the cage washer, using ` available products
230 sold by the cage manufacturers. Again, there may be variation in these products that could not
231 be captured here. Mouse cages provide the most immediate and unavoidable environment to
232 the mouse, and the scent profile of the detergent used could have a chronic behavioural and
233 physiological impact on the animal. Although more remote, the same could be said about the
234 cleaning practices of all the other areas of the animal unit. Surfaces and floors were sometimes
235 cleaned with products that were reported as strong smelling to humans, and with scented
236 commercially available products. Although animals in IVCs might be less exposed to these
237 odours, they are directly exposed to disinfectants used to clean surfaces to avoid cross
238 contamination between cages.

239 The most common product used for surface and equipment cleaning was Trigene™ that,
240 in 2012, changed its name to Anistel™, maintaining the same formulation. This product is
241 available in a 500 ml ready to use spray with a lavender scent, or in a 5 L concentrated

242 formulation that can be 'unscented' or have an apple, lavender, eucalyptus or citrus scent ⁽²⁵⁾.
243 Unfortunately, the survey did not question whether the Trigene™ formulation was unscented
244 or which type of scent was used. This leaves the possibility that variation between animal units
245 was even greater than described here. It also makes standardization to the most common
246 product difficult; if a diversity of Anistel™ formulations is used, then the single most common
247 product could actually be Virkon for surfaces and floors, or alcohol for behavioural equipment.

248 The method used for cleaning anaesthesia and euthanasia chambers could have an
249 especially important impact on the welfare of the mouse being subsequently anaesthetised or
250 euthanised. Because mice can detect alarm odours from stressed individuals ²⁶, it is possible
251 that wiping down the chamber with the wrong product between mice, might not adequately
252 remove these olfactory cues, possibly increasing the amount of anaesthetic required and
253 making the experience potentially more harmful for the animal. Moreover, 13/67 people
254 reported either wiping down with water (11) or rarely washing (2) anaesthesia and euthanasia
255 chambers.

256 On the other hand, it is possible that cleaning this equipment with alcohol could have
257 an impact on the pharmacology of anaesthetic agents and on the speed of euthanasia. Alcohol
258 acts as a central nervous system depressant in a similar way to anaesthetic drugs²⁷. In an
259 experiment where rats were given an intra-peritoneal injection of alcohol before inhalation
260 anaesthesia with halothane, the concentration of the anaesthetic was reduced by 50% at the
261 onset of anaesthesia and by 20 % when cardiac arrest occurred ²⁸. A similar effect was found in
262 mice, with up to a 70% reduction in the anaesthetic required for surgical anaesthesia at the

263 highest intraperitoneal dose of alcohol (4 mg/kg)²⁹. Additionally, both studies found an
264 increase tolerance to anaesthesia when alcohol was ingested chronically. It should be noted,
265 however, that the concentrations of alcohol inhaled from a wiped surface are likely to be much
266 lower than those administered in those studies.

267 When mice are used in behavioural experiments it is desirable that the behaviours
268 displayed are not misleadingly affected by extraneous cues in their environment, to improve
269 replicability. As with anaesthesia and euthanasia chambers, different products were used to
270 clean behavioural equipment between mice and at the end of the day, but mainly Trigene™,
271 alcohol and water. Mouse models of alcoholism have shown a variety of behavioural
272 consequences to its acute or chronic administration and to its withdrawal, including increased
273 aggression³⁰ and memory deficits³¹. Although the concentrations that might be inhaled
274 following handling or equipment cleaning will be orders of magnitude less than the above
275 studies, they may still lead to subtle variations in behavior concentrations that have not been
276 studied.

277 Out of 20 responses, 6 participants indicated that their place of work had a policy restricting
278 the use of perfumes and 4 indicated a restriction in personal hygiene products. Approximately 30
279 different brands of perfumes and deodorant were used, all of which have very different olfactory
280 profiles. Most of these products are formulated with plant essential oils, reported as having various
281 effects on rodent physiology and behaviour^{18,32-36}(Table 4). Regulating the use of personal hygiene
282 products might prove particularly challenging, due to the different preferences of people and little
283 is known on the particular effects that they could have in the animal unit.

284 In summary, this survey explores the variability of the olfactory environment that the
285 laboratory mouse is routinely exposed to as a result of differences on husbandry practices between
286 animal units. There is clearly much research required to determine which products should be used
287 for best practice in terms of refinement and standardisation, but in the meantime, it will be
288 important for researchers to report any potentially relevant details in their publications as these
289 could affect the interpretation of their results.

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