

## RVC OPEN ACCESS REPOSITORY – COPYRIGHT NOTICE

This author's accepted manuscript may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with [Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving](#).

The full details of the published version of the article are as follows:

TITLE: Eubacterial fluorescence in situ hybridisation and histologic features in 25 dogs with gallbladder mucocele

AUTHORS: Wennogle, S A; Randall, E K; Priestnall, S L; Twedt, D C; Simpson, K W

JOURNAL: Journal of Small Animal Practice

PUBLISHER: Wiley

PUBLICATION DATE: 10 February 2019 (online)

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/jsap.12982>

1 **Eubacterial Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization and Histologic Features In 25 Dogs with**  
2 **Gallbladder Mucocele**

3  
4 SA Wennogle, EK Randall, SL Priestnall, DC Twedt, KW Simpson

5

6 From the Department of Clinical Sciences, College of Veterinary Medicine, Colorado State  
7 University, Fort Collins, CO 80523 (Twedt, Wennogle), the Department of Environmental and  
8 Radiological Health Sciences, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523 (Randall), the  
9 Department of Pathobiology and Population Sciences, Royal Veterinary College, University of  
10 London, Hatfield, AL9 7TA UK (Priestnall), and the College of Veterinary Medicine, Cornell  
11 University, Ithaca, NY 14853 (Simpson).

12

13 Gallbladder mucocele (GBM)

14 Gallbladder (GB)

15 Cystic mucinous hyperplasia (CMH)

16 Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)

17 Cystic mucinous hyperplasia with cholecystitis (CMHC)

18

19 Address correspondence to Dr. Wennogle at [sara.wennogle@colostate.edu](mailto:sara.wennogle@colostate.edu).

20

21 Preliminary data from this project was presented at the American College of Veterinary Internal  
22 Medicine Forum, Denver, CO, June 2016.

23

24

25 Acknowledgments: The authors acknowledge Dr. Ann Hess' contribution to this manuscript.

26 **Abstract**

27

28 **Objectives**– To detect and localise bacteria in gallbladder mucoceles utilizing fluorescence *in*  
29 *situ* hybridization (FISH). To report clinical signs, clinicopathologic abnormalities, sonographic  
30 findings and histopathological findings in FISH+ and FISH- dogs with gallbladder mucoceles.

31 **Materials and Methods** – Retrospective review of signalment, clinical signs, clinicopathologic  
32 and sonographic findings of 25 cases of histopathologically confirmed gallbladder mucocele.  
33 Histopathological sections of GBM were evaluated for cystic mucinous hyperplasia, cystic  
34 mucinous hyperplasia with cholecystitis and rupture. The number and spatial distribution of  
35 bacteria was determined by eubacterial FISH. Gallbladder contents were cultured in 21 dogs.

36 **Results** –Bacteria were detected within or adherent to the gallbladder in eight of 25 (32%) cases  
37 Bacterial culture was positive in one dog. Cystic mucinous hyperplasia with concurrent  
38 cholecystitis was found in 17/25 (68%) of dogs with gallbladder mucocele.

39 **Clinical significance** – FISH was more sensitive for detection of bacteria in gallbladder  
40 mucoceles when compared to bacterial culture of bile. Cholecystitis was common in dogs with  
41 gallbladder mucocele. Further study is required to elucidate the relationship of cystic mucinous  
42 hyperplasia, bacteria and cholecystitis in the aetiopathogenesis and progression of GBM.

43

44 Keywords: gallbladder mucocele, bacteria, FISH, cholecystitis

45

46

47 Gallbladder mucocele (GBM) has emerged as a common and clinically important cause of  
48 extrahepatic biliary disease in the dog. GBM is most frequently reported in older dogs and

49 predisposed breeds include the Shetland sheepdog, Pomeranian, miniature schnauzer, cocker  
50 spaniel, Chihuahua, and Border terrier (Worley *et al.* 2004, Aguirre *et al.* 2007, Crews *et al.*  
51 2009, Malek *et al.* 2013, Gookin *et al.* 2015, Mitzutani *et al.* 2017, Allerton *et al.* 2018). GBM is  
52 characterized by cystic mucinous hyperplasia (CMH) and the accumulation of viscous bile and  
53 mucus in the GB (Neer 1992, Besso *et al.* 2000, Pike *et al.* 2004, Worley *et al.* 2004, Aguirre *et*  
54 *al.* 2007, Malek *et al.* 2013). The underlying cause of GBM formation is not well understood  
55 (Neer 1992, Besso *et al.* 2000, Pike *et al.* 2004) but may involve the excess secretion of  
56 particular gel-forming mucins (Kesimer *et al.* 2015) and dysmotility (Tsukagoshi *et al.* 2012).

57  
58 Bacterial culture has been reported positive in 3-67% of cases of GBM (Pike *et al.* 2004, Worley  
59 *et al.* 2004, Aguirre *et al.* 2007, Mayhew *et al.* 2008, Crews *et al.* 2009, Malek *et al.* 2013,  
60 Policelli *et al.* 2017, Mitzutani *et al.* 2017, Policelli Smith *et al.* 2017). This wide variation may  
61 reflect the use of perioperative antimicrobial therapy, and differences in sampling and culture  
62 based methodologies. The prevalence of bacterial infection in GBM could also be impacted by  
63 concurrent comorbidities such as cholecystitis or cholelithiasis, conditions which have reported  
64 culture positive rates of 35-50% (Mehler *et al.* 2004, Aguirre *et al.* 2007). Concurrent  
65 cholecystitis has been reported in 17-40% of dogs with GBM (Besso *et al.* 2000, Pike *et al.*  
66 2004, Worley *et al.* 2004, Malek *et al.* 2013).

67  
68 Co-morbidities such as bacterial infection and cholecystitis could impact the progression and  
69 outcome of GBM. For example, septic bile peritonitis is significantly associated with mortality in  
70 dogs receiving extrahepatic biliary tract surgery for a variety of causes including cholelithiasis,  
71 cholecystitis, neoplasia, and trauma (Mehler *et al.* 2004). Mural inflammation, erosion and

72 ulceration of the GB could compromise the structural integrity of the GB and predispose to  
73 rupture. Timely recognition of bacterial infection and cholecystitis could influence the medical  
74 management of GBM and reduce perioperative mortality. Further, because cholecystectomy may  
75 be postponed in cases of suspected benign GBM, there is a clear need to better understand the  
76 relationship of concurrent bacterial infection and cholecystitis to GBM.

77  
78 Fluorescent in-situ hybridization (FISH) is a culture-independent technique that enables  
79 visualization and localisation of intact bacteria in formalin-fixed, paraffin wax-embedded tissues.  
80 FISH has been used to document bacteria in a variety of cells and tissues and in some cases has  
81 been demonstrated to be more sensitive for detection of bacteria when compared to culture  
82 (Simpson *et al.* 2006, Recordati *et al.* 2009, Warren *et al.* 2011, Kornreich *et al.* 2012, Twedt *et*  
83 *al.* 2014). To our knowledge, FISH has not been used previously to detect bacteria in archived  
84 GB samples in dogs.

85  
86 The objectives of this study were to 1) detect, count and localise bacteria in GBMs when  
87 evaluated by FISH and 2) report clinical signs, clinicopathologic abnormalities, sonographic  
88 findings and histopathological findings in FISH+ and FISH- dogs with GBM.

89

90

## 91 **Materials and Methods**

### 92 ***Inclusion Criteria and Case Data Review***

93 Electronic medical records (EMR) at Colorado State University were reviewed for cases of  
94 histopathologically confirmed canine GBM between December 2010 and January 2015. Dogs  
95 were included if their primary diagnosis was gallbladder mucocele with no significant concurrent

96 extra-hepatobiliary disease noted in the EMR, and a complete blood count, biochemical profile  
97 and abdominal ultrasound had been performed within 48 hours prior to cholecystectomy.  
98 Retrospective case review included signalment, clinical signs, clinicopathological abnormalities,  
99 peri-operative outcome, and bacterial culture of bile and antimicrobial use.

100

### 101 ***FISH***

102 Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded histological sections (4  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were mounted on Probe-On Plus  
103 slides (Fisher Scientific) and evaluated by FISH as previously described (Simpson *et al.* 2006).  
104 In short, paraffin-embedded biopsy specimens were de-paraffinized by passage through xylene  
105 (3  $\times$  10 mins), 100% alcohol (2  $\times$  5 mins), 95% ethanol (5 mins) and, finally, 70% ethanol (5  
106 mins). The slides were air-dried. FISH probes 5'-labeled with either Cy3 or 6-FAM (Integrated  
107 DNA Technologies) were reconstituted with sterile water and diluted to a working concentration  
108 of 5 ng/ $\mu\text{l}$  with a hybridization buffer appropriate to the probe. For evaluation EUB338 Cy-3 was  
109 combined with the irrelevant probe non-EUB- 338-FAM (ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGC) to  
110 control for non-specific hybridization. Sections were examined on an Olympus BX51  
111 epifluorescence microscope and images captured with an Olympus DP-7 camera (Olympus  
112 America). The relative number and spatial orientation of bacteria within the section of  
113 gallbladder was also recorded.

114

### 115 ***Ultrasonographic Data***

116 All ultrasound examinations were performed by a board-certified veterinary radiologist or a  
117 veterinary radiology resident under the direct supervision of a board-certified veterinary  
118 radiologist. Written reports, still images, and video clips of ultrasonographic examinations were

119 then retrospectively reviewed by a board-certified veterinary radiologist (EKR) blinded to the  
120 case data. The appearance of the gallbladder, gallbladder wall, adjacent abdominal structures,  
121 and free peritoneal fluid was evaluated. Sonographic features of GBM were defined as stellate or  
122 finely striated bile patterns that differed from biliary sludge by the absence of gravity-dependent  
123 bile movement (Besso *et al.* 2000). The gall bladder wall was evaluated for echogenicity,  
124 presence of oedema, thickening and rupture. A thickened gallbladder wall was defined as more  
125 than 2 mm in dogs (Nyland & Hager 1985). GB wall oedema was defined as a thickened GB wall  
126 with a hypoechoic layer within the GB wall.

127

### 128 ***Histopathological Evaluation***

129 Original histopathologic reports (all by board-certified veterinary pathologists) were reviewed to  
130 confirm a diagnosis of GBM. Following this, archival formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissue  
131 blocks were located for 23/25 cases, sectioned at 4 um and stained with hematoxylin and eosin  
132 (HE) for blinded review by a board-certified veterinary pathologist (SLP) employing WSAVA  
133 criteria for CMH and cholecystitis (Rothuizen 2006). Cholecystitis was defined as the presence  
134 of a neutrophilic and/or lymphoplasmacytic infiltrate in the epithelium or wall of the gallbladder  
135 +/- fibrosis (Rothuizen 2006) and assigned a grade of mild, moderate or severe. Each case was  
136 assigned to one of 4 groups: CMH, CMH with cholecystitis (CMHC), mild, moderate or severe.

137

### 138 ***Statistical Analysis***

139 Descriptive statistics were calculated for the presence/absence of clinical signs,  
140 clinicopathological data, sonographic findings, and histologic findings in FISH+ *versus* FISH-  
141 dogs with GBM.

142 **Results**

143  
144 Twenty-six dogs with a histopathological diagnosis of gallbladder mucocele were identified. One  
145 dog was excluded due to concurrent hemolytic anemia and so 25 cases were included. Tissue  
146 blocks for 23 of 25 cases were available for blinded histopathological review.

147

148 ***Patient Demographics, Clinical and Clinicopathologic Characteristics and Outcome***

149 The median age was 11 (n=25; range, 6-14), with a near even distribution between castrated  
150 male 12 (48%) and spayed females 13 (52%). Breeds included mixed (n=10), Shetland sheepdog  
151 (n=3), miniature schnauzer (n=2), Pomeranian (n=2), and one each of the following: Australian  
152 shepherd, Bernese mountain dog, cocker spaniel, Labrador retriever, Maltese, miniature  
153 dachshund, miniature poodle and Yorkshire Terrier. Due to the retrospective nature of this study  
154 it was not possible to fully determine the presence or absence of potential medical conditions  
155 predisposing to mucocele in every case (Mesich *et al.* 2009, Kutsani *et al.* 2014, Gookin *et al.*  
156 2015). Three mixed breed dogs had a previous diagnosis of hyperadrenocorticism.

157

158 Clinical signs were present in 18 of 25 (72%) dogs with GBM (Table 1). Change in appetite (*i.e.*  
159 hyporexia or anorexia) was most common, 12/25 (48%). Other clinical signs included: vomiting  
160 (11/25;44%), lethargy (9/25;36%), diarrhea (6/25;24%), abdominal pain (4/25;16%), jaundice  
161 (3/25;12%), polyuria/polydipsia (3/25;12%), fever (2/25;8%), and abdominal distension  
162 (1/25;4%).

163



164 There were clinicopathological abnormalities in all 25 dogs. Neutrophilia (12/25; 48%) was the  
165 most common hematological abnormality. Biochemical abnormalities were present in every dog,  
166 with elevated alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity (22/25; 88%) the most common (Tables 1).

167  
168 Aerobic and anaerobic culture of bile was performed in 21/25 (84%) cases. Culture was positive  
169 in 1/21 dogs, yielding *Escherichia coli* in a dog with “CMHC moderate” and clinical findings of  
170 vomiting, neutrophilia with left shift, thrombocytosis, and elevated ALP. Review of medical  
171 records revealed that all dogs received perioperative antibiotics: cefazolin (four of 25; 16%),  
172 cefoxitin (15 of 25; 60%), and ampicillin-sulbactam (six of 25; 24%). The dog with *E.coli*  
173 detected from bile culture was receiving cefoxitin.

174  
175 Perioperative death occurred in three of 25 (12%) cases. Necropsies were not performed. Clinical  
176 signs in these dogs included vomiting alone in one dog, inappetence alone in one dog, and  
177 jaundice, vomiting, diarrhoea, lethargy and inappetence in the third dog. One dog had a  
178 neutrophilia and another had band neutrophilia with a normal neutrophil count. Two of three  
179 dogs were hyperbilirubinemic and hypoalbuminemic. Two of three dogs that died in the peri-  
180 operative period had cholecystitis and were FISH+ but the cause of death was not determined.  
181 The remaining dog suffered respiratory arrest postoperatively and pulmonary thromboembolism  
182 was suspected, but not confirmed.

183

#### 184 ***FISH analysis of GB mucosa***

185 Bacteria that hybridized to the eubacterial FISH probe were detected in eight of 25 (32%) cases.  
186 Bacteria were noted adherent to the GB epithelium and/or invasive within the GB mucosa in all

187 dogs, some dogs also had bacteria visualized within the mucus. Three dogs had less than 10  
188 bacteria visualized; the remainder of the dogs had bacteria visualized as dense clusters or masses  
189 (Table 2; Figure 1). FISH analysis of the dog with *E.coli* cultured in the bile revealed masses of  
190 bacteria within luminal mucus and adhering to the GB wall (Figure 1, D).

191

### 192 ***Sonographic Findings***

193 The sonographic appearance of the GB was consistent with mucocele (Besso *et al.* 2000) in 24 of  
194 25 (96%) cases. The dog lacking sonographic features of GBM was presented for vomiting and  
195 sonography revealed a thickened GB wall with peritoneal effusion so abdominal exploratory was  
196 performed. Seven of 25 (28%) dogs had an abnormal GB wall (hyperechoic [four/25; 16%],  
197 thickened [three of 25;12%], edema[four of 25;16%]). Nine of 25 (36%) had peritoneal effusion  
198 detected on abdominal ultrasound. One of these dogs had a moderate amount of effusion found  
199 diffusely throughout the abdomen; the other eight dogs had trace effusion reported. GB rupture  
200 was suspected based on the original ultrasound in two cases. Ultrasound correctly identified GB  
201 rupture in one of the two cases. The dog that was incorrectly suspected of rupture presented for  
202 lethargy and hyporexia. This dog had hyperbilirubinemia, marked elevations in ALP and ALT,  
203 neutrophilia and band neutrophilia, and sonographic evidence of GBM with a thickened,  
204 hyperechoic, and oedematous GB wall, and a moderate peritoneal effusion (fluid cytology not  
205 performed). Surgical exploration found an intact GB. Histopathological diagnosis was CMHC  
206 (moderate), and no bacteria were evident on culture or FISH.

207

208 In five of 25 (20%) dogs, cholecystitis was listed as suspected in the ultrasound report based on  
209 abdominal ultrasound findings of GB wall abnormality, peritoneal effusion, and/or cystic bile  
210 duct. All five of those dogs had histopathological evidence of cholecystitis. .

211

### 212 *Histopathological Findings*

213 The original and blinded (23 of 25 cases) histopathological examinations indicated a diagnosis of  
214 CMH in all cases. The blinded examination documented CMH alone in eight of 25(32%) cases  
215 and CMH with concurrent cholecystitis (CMHC) in 17 of 25(68%). Cholecystitis was classified  
216 as mild in eight of 17(47%), moderate in seven of 17(41%), and severe in two of 17(12%)  
217 (Figures 2 and 3). In three cases, necrosis of the GB wall was also noted along with cholecystitis  
218 (two moderate, one severe). Seven of eight (88%) FISH+ dogs had CMH with concurrent  
219 cholecystitis; one dog had CMH alone. Cholecystitis was classified as mild in three FISH+ dogs,  
220 as moderate in two FISH+ dogs, and as severe in two FISH+ dogs (Table 1). Rupture of the GB  
221 was not apparent histologically in any of the cases. However, rupture of the GB was documented  
222 at surgery in two of 25(8%) dogs, both with CMHC.

223

### 224 **Discussion**

225

226 In this study we evaluated the utility of FISH to demonstrate bacteria in the gallbladder of a  
227 group of dogs with GBM. In these dogs, FISH was more sensitive for the detection of bacteria  
228 (eight of 25; 32%) than aerobic and anaerobic culture, which was positive in only one of 21  
229 cases.

230

231 The importance of the bacteria identified in GBM by FISH is unclear. The accepted standard for  
232 diagnosis of bacterial infection in the biliary system is aerobic and anaerobic culture and  
233 sensitivity (Neer 1992). Further, this would ideally be correlated with cytologic results in order  
234 to attempt to determine whether the bacteria may be transient, iatrogenic contamination, or true  
235 biliary infection as healthy dogs have been shown to periodically harbor bacteria in the bile with  
236 no obvious clinical relevance (Kook *et al.* 2010). In humans with cholelithiasis and/or chronic  
237 cholecystitis there is also a wide variation in the reported rates of bacterial infection (0 to 73%)  
238 and controversy over the significance of the results (Lemos *et al.* 2010). FISH alone is unable to  
239 definitively prove infection *versus* transient bacteria *versus* iatrogenic contamination. However,  
240 in all of our cases bacteria were visualized adjacent to the GB wall or within the GB  
241 parenchyma, which would suggest pathogenic behaviour of the bacteria.

242

243 In attempting to determine the significance of the bacteria seen by FISH, it is important to  
244 consider possible reasons for the discordancy between FISH and bacterial culture results. All  
245 dogs in the study were administered perioperative antibiotics, but it is unclear whether antibiotic  
246 administration would have influenced culture results. In a report of dogs undergoing cystotomy  
247 for urolithiasis the use of perioperative antibiotics did not change culture results when compared  
248 to antimicrobial administration following surgery (Buote *et al.* 2012). However, the dogs in our  
249 study did not all receive the same antibiotic and there may be a differential effect of  
250 antimicrobials on recovery of cultured bacteria. Additionally, it is possible some of the bacteria  
251 seen with FISH were not cultivable with routine culture methodologies. Also, the varied method  
252 of collection of GB contents/bile may affect the ability to consistently identify bacteria. During  
253 the time period of this study, our hospital generally submitted microbiology swabs of GB

254 contents following cholecystectomy for aerobic and anaerobic bacterial culture. Although there  
255 is no concrete evidence to suggest that swabs placed in transport media is inferior to a direct  
256 culture of bile or culture of GB tissue, it is possible this could have contributed to the  
257 discrepancy between bacterial culture results and the positive identification of bacteria using  
258 FISH in this group of dogs.

259  
260 Generally, identification of concurrent bacterial infection of the bile, GB mucosa or liver in cases  
261 of GBM is challenging. Ultrasound-guided percutaneous cholecystocentesis is a common and  
262 typically safe procedure for the collection of bile for the purposes of cytologic evaluation and  
263 culture (Uno *et al.* 2009, Peters *et al.* 2016, Schiborra *et al.* 2017). However, biliary mucocele is  
264 considered by many to be a contraindication to cholecystocentesis as the potential for GB  
265 necrosis secondary to GBM makes rupture of the biliary tract possible (Kook *et al.* 2010). A  
266 recent publication described 201 dogs that had percutaneous cholecystocentesis performed, six of  
267 which had GBM. Two of these dogs had complications from cholecystocentesis, one of which  
268 died from bile peritonitis (Schiborra *et al.* 2017). Aspirate of a GBM for collection of bile  
269 preoperatively is generally discouraged. Based on the results of this study, FISH could be  
270 considered as a complimentary diagnostic tool as it may be more sensitive than bacterial culture  
271 of bile in some instances, and has the added benefit of demonstrating the organism within the  
272 tissue. If a high suspicion of bacterial infection exists and bacterial culture is negative, FISH  
273 could be performed and while awaiting results an appropriate empirical antimicrobial could be  
274 administered to the dog. While FISH is unable to give information on antimicrobial  
275 susceptibility, the use of specialized probes may enable the identification of the bacterial species  
276 to help ensure appropriate choice of antimicrobial in regards to spectrum and penetration of

277 tissue. It remains unclear whether the bacteria seen are pathogenic and potentially contributing to  
278 the aetiopathogenesis or progression of GBM, or whether they are transient or of little clinical  
279 relevance. However, the number of GBM cases with bacteria visualized by FISH is of interest.  
280 Prospective studies utilizing bacterial culture, cytology, and FISH are needed to further evaluate  
281 the relationship between GBM and bacteria.

282  
283 In our cohort of 25 dogs with GBM, we found that only 32% had histological findings restricted  
284 to CMH. Concurrent cholecystitis was a common (17 of 25; 68%) co-morbidity and ranged from  
285 mild in seven of 17 (41%) to moderate-severe in nine of 17 (53%) cases. This is higher than  
286 previous reports of concurrent cholecystitis in 17 to 40% of dogs with GBM (Besso *et al.* 2000,  
287 Pike *et al.* 2004, Worley *et al.* 2004, Malek *et al.* 2013). In theory, cholecystitis in GBM may be  
288 a consequence of inadequate GB emptying and subsequent ischemic or pressure necrosis of the  
289 GB wall. However, only three of 17 dogs with CMHC in the present study had evidence of GB  
290 wall necrosis. This suggests that factors other than wall necrosis, including bile stasis, infarction  
291 or bacterial infection (ascending or enterohepatic) may be involved (Aguirre 2010). We found  
292 that clinical signs and clinicopathological findings were broadly similar in dogs with CMH and  
293 CMHC; however a higher percentage of dogs with CMHC were hyperbilirubinemic versus dogs  
294 with CMH alone. Thus the presence of hyperbilirubinemia may alert the clinician to the presence  
295 of cholecystitis in an otherwise benign appearing GBM. Furthermore, chronic cholecystitis is a  
296 condition that can result in pain, anorexia, vomiting, and weight loss, and the diagnosis may not  
297 always be obvious, especially in patients with other concurrent hepatobiliary disease (Aguirre  
298 2010). Thus, the high proportion of cholecystitis among the dogs in our study is noteworthy, and

299 may support the recommendation for early cholecystectomy, even in dogs with an otherwise  
300 benign-appearing mucocele.

301

302 In our study, three of 25(12%) dogs died in the perioperative period following cholecystectomy.

303 Definitive cause of death was not identified in any case. Two (67%) of these dogs had

304 cholecystitis and were FISH+. The other dog had histopathological evidence of CMH alone and

305 was FISH-. None of these dogs had GB rupture noted surgically or histopathologically. The

306 reason for perioperative death following cholecystectomy for treatment of GBM is not well

307 understood. Although concurrent bacterial infection has not been correlated with perioperative

308 mortality (Besso *et al.* 2000, Pike *et al.* 2004, Worley *et al.* 2004, Aguirre *et al.* 2007, Crews *et*

309 *al.* 2009, Uno *et al.* 2009, Malek *et al.* 2013), the rate of bacterial infection has been variably

310 described (Pike *et al.* 2004, Worley *et al.* 2004, Aguirre *et al.* 2007, Crews *et al.* 2009, Uno *et al.*

311 2009, Malek *et al.* 2013, Mitzutani *et al.* 2017), which may limit the ability to make this

312 correlation. In our two cases of perioperative death with cholecystitis and bacteria detected by

313 FISH, death due to complications of cholecystitis (such as hemodynamic instability) (Amsellem

314 *et al.* 2006, Papazoglou *et al.* 2008) and/or translocation of bacteria from the biliary system and

315 resulting septicemia could be considered as possible causes.

316

317 The limitations of FISH should be considered. A negative FISH result does not exclude the

318 presence of bacteria. Despite enzyme degradation steps, inherent differences in the permeability

319 of different bacteria to FISH probes may lead to a failure to detect some gram positive and acid

320 fast bacteria. The eubacterial FISH probe employed in this study will only detect viable bacteria

321 with intact 16S, it will not recognize dead bacteria. It is important to note the inherent difficulties

322 of studies that utilize subjective histopathology. The use of standardized scoring schemes are  
323 typically employed to reduce subjectivity. However, despite this there is still poor agreement  
324 among histopathologists in studies describing hepatic and intestinal lesions in dogs (Jergens *et al.*  
325 2014, Lidbury *et al.* 2017). Finally, the retrospective nature of this study made it difficult to  
326 accurately determine the incidence of concurrent diseases previously reported to be associated  
327 with GBM (e.g. endocrine disease, hyperlipidemia) (Mesich *et al.* 2009, Kutsani *et al.* 2014,  
328 Gookin *et al.* 2015) and postsurgical outcomes.

329  
330 In conclusion, FISH detected bacteria in eight of 25 (32%) dogs with GBM and was more  
331 sensitive for the detection of bacteria than bacterial culture. Additional investigation is needed to  
332 further determine the relationship between bacteria and GBM and its relation to  
333 aetiopathogenesis or progression of disease, clinicopathologic abnormalities, ultrasound findings,  
334 histopathological findings, and outcome. The high proportion of occult cholecystitis may support  
335 the recommendation for early elective cholecystectomy in dogs with GBM. Additional  
336 investigation is also needed to further elucidate the relationship between GBM and cholecystitis.

337

338 No conflicts of interest have been declared.

339

#### 340 **References**

341 Aguirre, A.L., Center, S.A., Randolph, J.F., et al. (2007) Gallbladder disease in Shetland  
342 Sheepdogs: 38 cases (1995–2005). *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 231,  
343 79-88.

344

345 Aguirre, A. (2010) Diseases of the gallbladder and extrahepatic biliary system. In: *Textbook of*  
346 *Veterinary Internal Medicine*. 7<sup>th</sup> edn. Eds S.J. and E.C. Feldman. Elsevier Saunders, St. Louis,  
347 pp 1691-1693.

348



- 349 Allerton F., Swinbourne F., Barker L., et al. (2018) Gallbladder mucoceles in border terriers.  
350 *Journal of veterinary internal medicine* 32, 1618-1628.  
351
- 352 Besso, J.G., Wrigley, R.H., Gliatto, J.M. et al. (2000) Ultrasonographic appearance and clinical  
353 findings in 14 dogs with gallbladder mucocele. *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 41, 261-271.  
354
- 355 Buote, N.J., Kovak-McClaran, J.R., Loar, A.S. et al. (2012) The effect of preoperative  
356 antimicrobial administration on culture results in dogs undergoing cystotomy. *Journal of the*  
357 *American Veterinary Medical Association* 241, 1185-1189.  
358
- 359 Crews, L.J., Feeney, D.A., Jessen, C.R., et al. (2009) Clinical, ultrasonographic, and laboratory  
360 findings associated with gallbladder disease and rupture in dogs: 45 cases (1997–2007). *Journal*  
361 *of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 234, 359-366.  
362
- 363 Gookin, J.L., Correa, M.T., Peters, A., et al. (2015) Association of gallbladder mucocele  
364 histologic diagnosis with selected drug use in dogs: A matched case- control study. *Journal of*  
365 *veterinary internal medicine* 29, 1464-1472.  
366
- 367 Jergens, A.E., Evans, R.B., Ackermann, M. et al. (2014) Design of a simplified histopathologic  
368 model for gastrointestinal inflammation in dogs. *Veterinary pathology* 51, 946-950.  
369
- 370 Kesimer, M., Cullen, J., Cao, R., et al. (2015) Excess secretion of gel-forming mucins and  
371 associated innate defense proteins with defective mucin un-packaging underpin gallbladder  
372 mucocele formation in dogs. *PloS one*, 10(9), p.e0138988.  
373
- 374 Kook, P.H., Schellenberg, S., Grest, P., et al. (2010) Microbiologic evaluation of gallbladder bile  
375 of healthy dogs and dogs with iatrogenic hypercortisolism: a pilot study. *Journal of veterinary*  
376 *internal medicine* 24, 224-228.  
377
- 378 Kornreich, B.G., Craven, M., McDonough, et al. (2012) Fluorescence in-situ hybridization for  
379 the identification of bacterial species in archival heart valve sections of canine bacterial  
380 endocarditis. *Journal of comparative pathology* 146, 298-307.  
381
- 382 Kutsunai, M., Kanemoto, H., Fukushima, K., et al. (2014). The association between gall bladder  
383 mucoceles and hyperlipidaemia in dogs: a retrospective case control study. *The Veterinary*  
384 *Journal* 199, 76-79.  
385
- 386 Lemos, R., França, P.H.C., Ferreira, L.E., et al. (2010) Detection of bacterial DNA in acute and  
387 chronic cholecystitis. *British Journal of Surgery* 97, 532-536.  
388
- 389 Lidbury, J.A., Rodrigues Hoffmann, A., Ivanek, R., et al. (2017) Interobserver agreement using  
390 histological scoring of the canine liver. *Journal of veterinary internal medicine* 31, 778-783.  
391
- 392 Malek, S., Sinclair, E., Hosgood, G., et al. (2013) Clinical findings and prognostic factors for  
393 dogs undergoing cholecystectomy for gall bladder mucocele. *Veterinary Surgery* 42, 418-426.  
394

- 395 Mayhew, P.D., Mehler, S.J. and Radhakrishnan, A. (2008) Laparoscopic cholecystectomy for  
396 management of uncomplicated gall bladder mucocele in six dogs. *Veterinary surgery* 37, 625-  
397 630.
- 398  
399 Mesich, M.L.L., Mayhew, P.D., Paek, M. et al. (2009) Gall bladder mucoceles and their  
400 association with endocrinopathies in dogs: A retrospective case- control study. *Journal of small*  
401 *animal practice*, 50, 630-635.
- 402  
403 Mizutani, S., Torisu, S., Kaneko, Y., et al. (2017) Retrospective analysis of canine gallbladder  
404 contents in biliary sludge and gallbladder mucoceles. *Journal of Veterinary Medical Science* 79,  
405 366-374.
- 406  
407 Neer, T.M. (1992) A review of disorders of the gallbladder and extrahepatic biliary tract in the  
408 dog and cat. *Journal of veterinary internal medicine* 6, 186-192.
- 409  
410 Nyland, T.G. and Hager, D.A. (1985) Sonography of the liver, gallbladder, and  
411 spleen. *Veterinary Clinics of North America: Small Animal Practice* 15, 1123-1148.
- 412  
413 Nyland, T. G. , Larson, M. M. & Mattoon, J. S. (2015) Chapter 9 – Liver. In: Small Animal  
414 Diagnostic Ultrasound. 3rd edn. Eds J. S. Mattoon and T. G. Nyland. Elsevier Saunders, St.  
415 Louis, pp 332-399.
- 416  
417 Papazoglou , L.G., Mann, F. A., Wagner-Mann, C., et al. (2008) Long-term survival of dogs  
418 after cholecystoenterostomy: a retrospective study of 15 cases (1981-2005). *Journal of the*  
419 *American Animal Hospital Association* 44, 67-44.
- 420  
421 Peters, L.M., Glanemann, B., Garden, O.A. et al. (2016) Cytological findings of 140 bile samples  
422 from dogs and cats and associated clinical pathological data. *Journal of veterinary internal*  
423 *medicine* 30, 123-131.
- 424  
425 Pike, F.S., Berg, J., King, N.W., Penninck, D.G. et al. 2004. Gallbladder mucocele in dogs: 30  
426 cases (2000–2002). *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 224, 1615-1622.
- 427  
428 Policelli Smith, R., Gookin, J.L., Smolski, W., et al. (2017) Association between gallbladder  
429 ultrasound findings and bacterial culture of bile in 70 cats and 202 dogs. *Journal of veterinary*  
430 *internal medicine* 31, 1451-1458.
- 431  
432 Recordati, C., Gualdi, V., Craven, M., et al. (2009) Spatial distribution of *Helicobacter* spp. in  
433 the gastrointestinal tract of dogs. *Helicobacter* 14, 180-191.
- 434  
435 Rothuizen, J. (2006) *WSAVA standards for clinical and histological diagnosis of canine and*  
436 *feline liver disease*. Elsevier Health Sciences.
- 437  
438 Schiborra, F., McConnell, J.F. and Maddox, T.W. (2017) Percutaneous ultrasound- guided  
439 cholecystocentesis: complications and association of ultrasonographic findings with bile culture  
440 results. *Journal of Small Animal Practice* 58, 389-394

441 Simpson, K.W., Dogan, B., Rishniw, M., et al (2006). Adherent and invasive Escherichia coli is  
442 associated with granulomatous colitis in boxer dogs. *Infection and immunity* 74, 4778-4792.

443  
444 Tsukagoshi, T., Ohno, K., Tsukamoto, A., et al. (2012) Decreased gallbladder emptying in dogs  
445 with biliary sludge or gallbladder mucocele. *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* 53, 84-91.

446  
447 Twedt, D.C., Cullen, J., McCord, K., et al. (2014) Evaluation of fluorescence in situ  
448 hybridization for the detection of bacteria in feline inflammatory liver disease. *Journal of feline*  
449 *medicine and surgery*, 16, 109-117.

450  
451 Uno, T., Okamoto, K., Onaka, T., et al. (2009) Correlation between ultrasonographic imaging of  
452 the gallbladder and gallbladder content in eleven cholecystectomised dogs and their  
453 prognoses. *Journal of Veterinary Medical Science* 71, 1295-1300.

454  
455 Warren, A., Center, S., McDonough, S., et al. (2011) Histopathologic features,  
456 immunophenotyping, clonality, and eubacterial fluorescence in situ hybridization in cats with  
457 lymphocytic cholangitis/cholangiohepatitis. *Veterinary pathology* 48, 627-641.

458  
459 Worley, D.R., Hottinger, H.A. and Lawrence, H.J. (2004) Surgical management of gallbladder  
460 mucoceles in dogs: 22 cases (1999–2003). *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical*  
461 *Association* 225, 1418-1422.

462  
463  
464  
465  
466  
467  
468  
469  
470  
471  
472  
473  
474  
475  
476  
477  
478  
479  
480  
481  
482  
483  
484  
485

486 **Table 1.** Selected clinical, clinicopathologic, sonographic and histopathologic abnormalities in  
 487 dogs with gallbladder mucocele that were FISH- *versus* FISH+  
 488

Variable	Reference Interval	FISH+ n=8 Median (range) Proportion	FISH- n=17 Median (range) Proportion
Clinical signs	–	7/8 (88%)	11/17 (65%)
Neutrophilia	2.6-11 (x10 <sup>3</sup> /ul)	10.8 (2.3-22.6) 3/8 (38%)	12.5 (4.5-20) 9/17 (53%)
Increased band neutrophils	0-0.2 (x10 <sup>3</sup> /ul)	0.3 (0-1.7) 4/8 (50%)	0 (0-0.4) 1/17 (6%)
Thrombocytosis	200-500 (x10 <sup>3</sup> /ul)	405 (167-664) 2/8 (25%)	358 (188-735) 3/17 (18%)
Hypoalbuminemia	3-4.3 (G/dl)	3.3 (1.8-4) 3/8 (38%)	3.5 (2.4-4.1) 1/17 (6%)
Hyperbilirubinemia	0-0.2 (mG/dL)	1.4 (0.1-13.9) 5/8 (63%)	0.2 (0-4.5) 5/17 (29%)
Elevated ALP	15-140 (IU/L)	1554 (62-5579) 7/8 (88%)	786 (69-9718) 15/17 (88%)
Elevated ALT	10-90 (IU/L)	472 (23-2776) 6/8 (75%)	162 (26-1477) 13/17 (76%)
Sonography: Peritoneal effusion	–	2/8 (25%)	7/17 (41%)
Sonography: GB wall abnormality	–	4/8 (50%)	3/17 (18%)
CMH	–	1/8 (13%)	7/17 (41%)
CMHC all	–	7/8 (88%)	10/17 (59%)
CMHC mild	–	3/8 (38%)	5/17 (29%)
CMHC moderate	–	2/8 (25%)	4/17 (29%)
CMHC severe	–	2/8 (25%)	1/17(6%)

489 GB wall abnormality includes: hyperechogenicity, increased wall thickness, oedema, or  
 490 discontinuous wall consistent with rupture. GB=gallbladder; CMH=cystic mucinous hyperplasia  
 491 alone; CMHC=cystic mucinous hyperplasia + cholecystitis.  
 492

493 **Table 2.** Number and location of bacteria in FISH+ dogs with GBM.

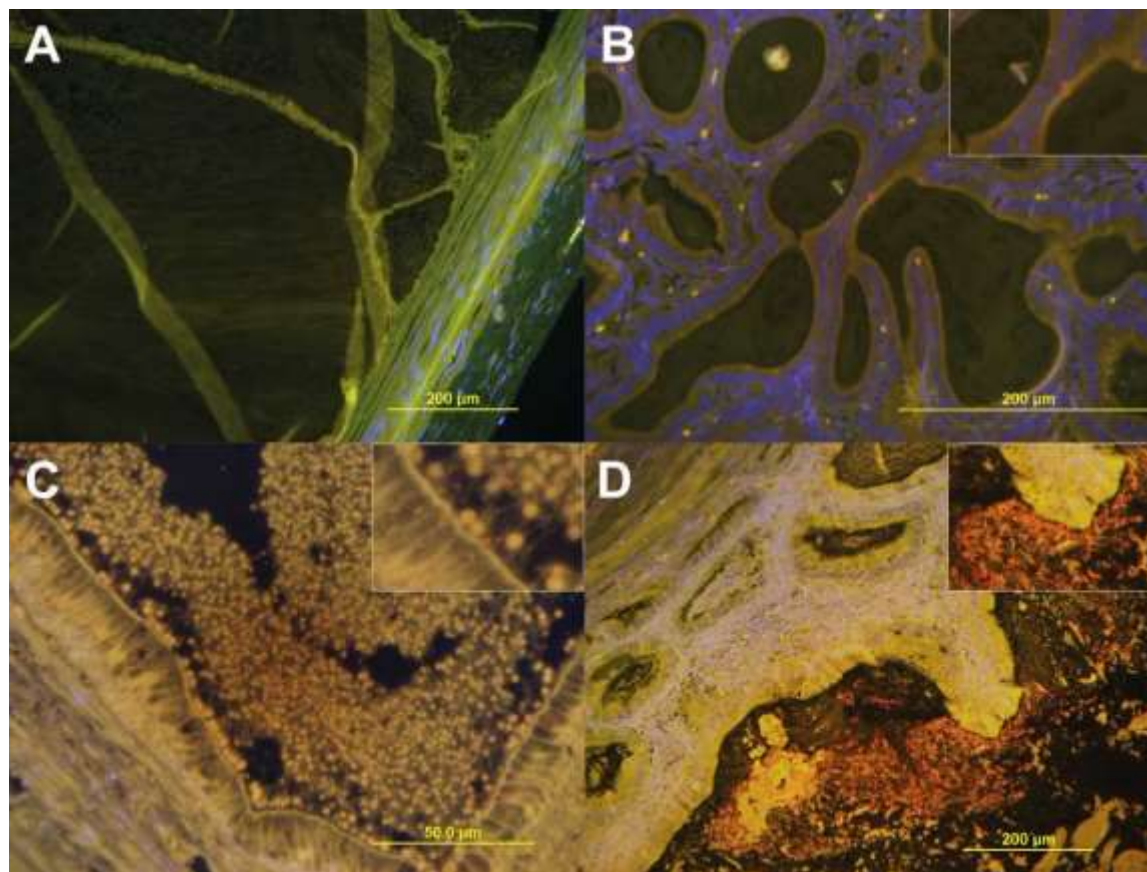
Dog	<10 bacteria	≥10 bacteria	Adherent	Invasive	Within Mucus
1	X			X	
2		X	X	X	
3		X	X		X
4	X		X		
5		X		X	X
6		X	X		X
7		X	X		X
8	X			X	X

494  
495 X symbols denote the dogs listed (dogs 1-8; y-axis) had the characteristics in the x-axis (<10  
496 bacteria, *etc*) in their individual tissue sample  
497  
498  
499  
500  
501  
502  
503  
504  
505  
506  
507  
508  
509  
510  
511  
512  
513  
514  
515  
516  
517  
518

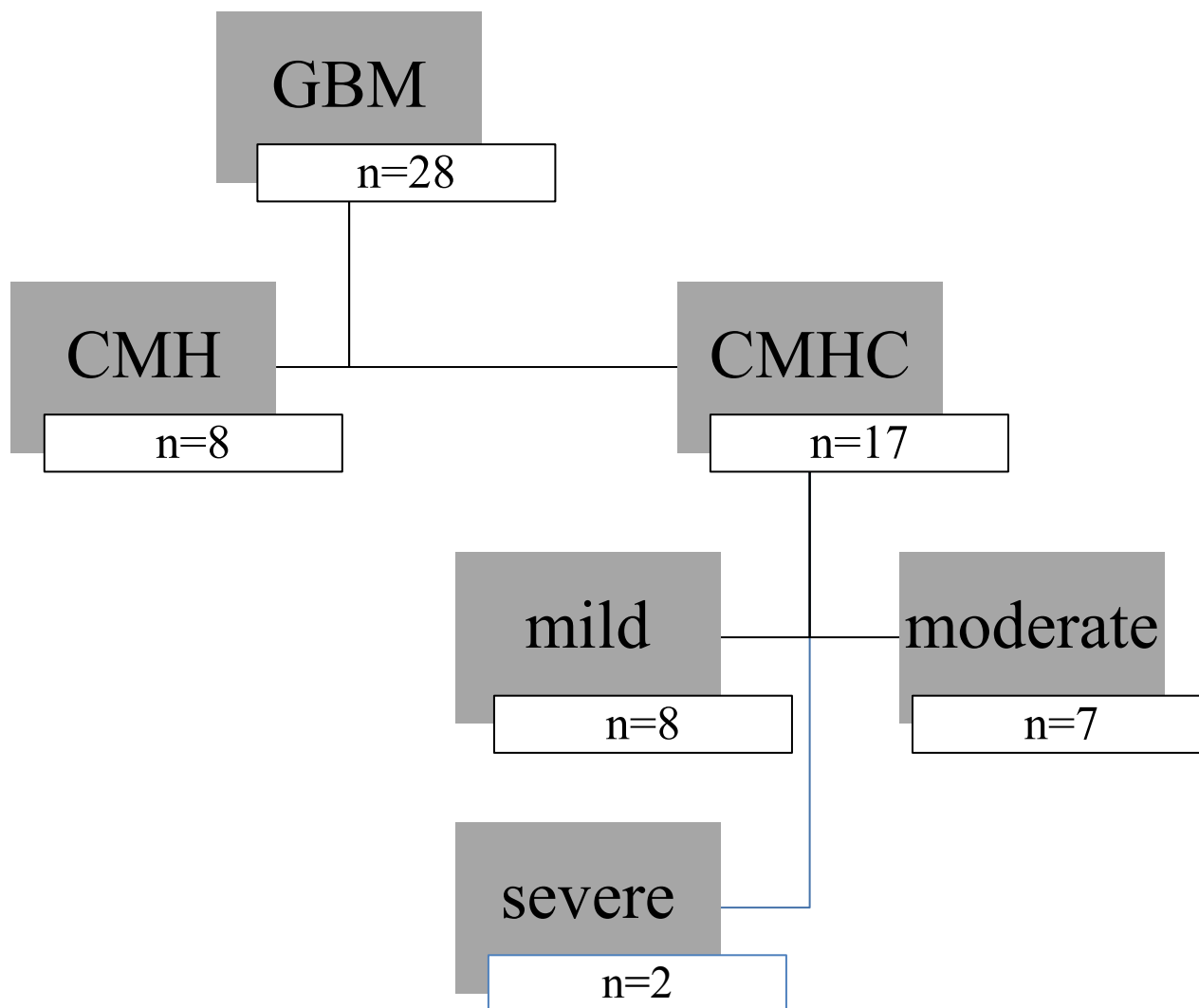
519  
520  
521  
522  
523  
524  
525  
526  
527  
528  
529

**Figure 1. FISH analysis of gall bladder mucocele.**

(A) FISH of GMB and CMH with Cy3-EUB-338 (red) 6-FAM-Non-EUB-338 (green) reveals a smooth villus lining with no bacteria visualized (B) FISH of GBM CMHC (moderate) with Cy3-EUB-338 (red) and 6-FAM-Non-EUB-338 (green) reveals the presence of four bacteria (red) within the gallbladder epithelium (insert) (C) GBM CMHC (severe) with clusters of bacteria (red) within intraluminal debris and the gallbladder epithelium (insert) (D) GBM CMHC (moderate) with masses of bacteria (red) within the gallbladder mucus and adjacent to the gallbladder wall (insert). DAPI (4',6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole) stained nuclei are blue



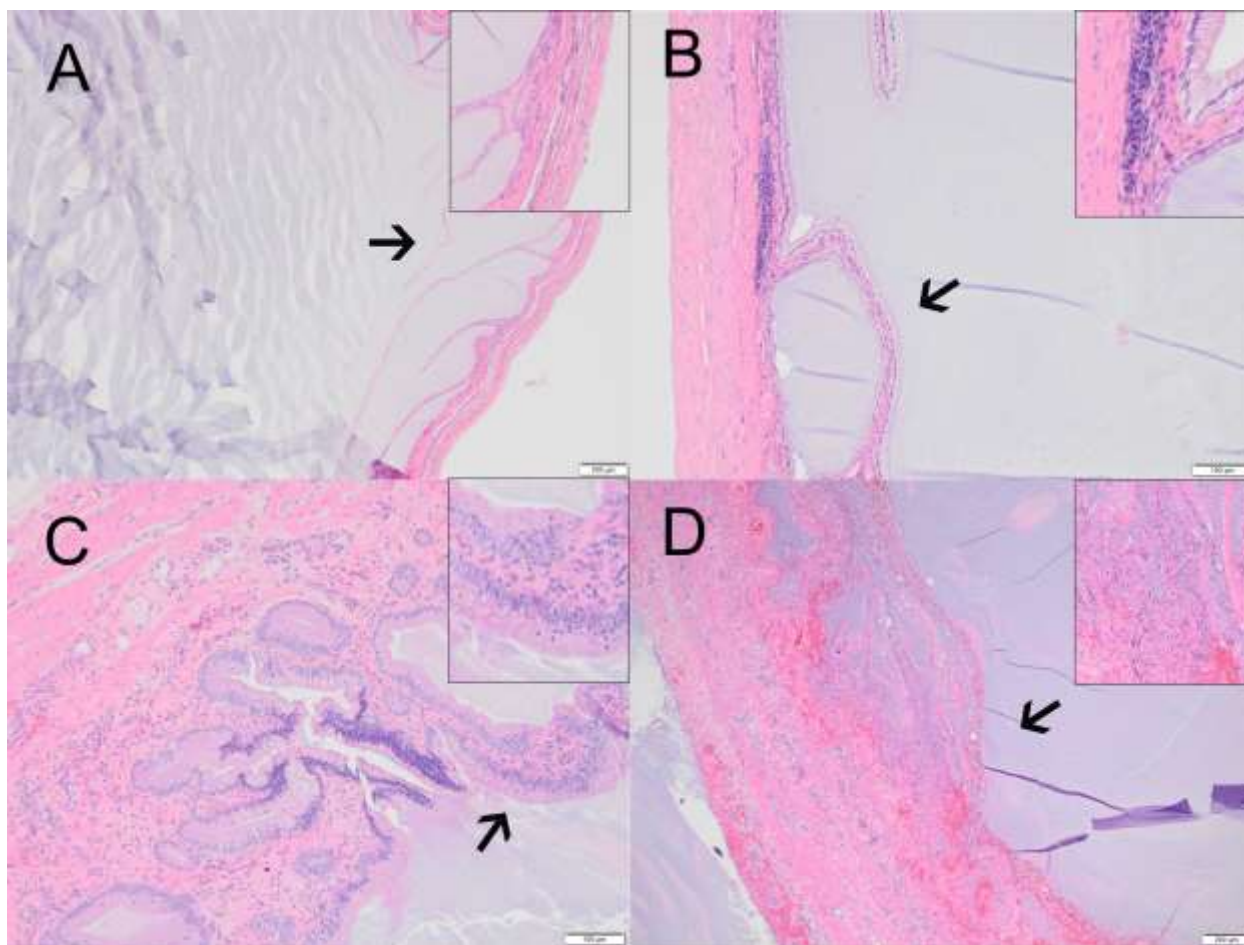
530  
531  
532  
533  
534  
535  
536  
537  
538  
539  
540  
541  
542



543  
544  
545  
546  
547  
548  
549  
550  
551  
552  
553  
554  
555  
556  
557  
558  
559  
560  
561

**Figure 2.** Histopathological characteristics in 25 dogs with GBM. GBM gallbladder mucocele, CMH cystic mucinous hyperplasia alone, CMHC cystic mucinous hyperplasia with cholecystitis

562  
563 **Figure 3.** Photomicrograph of gallbladder biopsy sections of dogs with gallbladder mucocele.  
564 Hematoxylin-eosin stained section showing (A) no significant cellular infiltrates within the  
565 gallbladder epithelium with thin villus projections (arrow) into luminal mucus (CMH) (B) mild  
566 cellular infiltrates within the gallbladder epithelium with thickened, more cellular villus  
567 projections (arrow) into luminal mucus (CMHC-mild) (C) moderate cellular infiltrates within the  
568 gallbladder epithelium with thicker and loculated villus projections (arrow) into luminal mucus  
569 (CMHC-moderate) (D) marked cellular infiltrate with areas of necrosis within the gallbladder  
570 epithelium with blunting, thickening, and cellular infiltration of the villus projections (arrow)  
571 into the luminal mucus (CMHC-severe)  
572



573  
574