

1 **Title**

2 Molecular epidemiology of *Clostridioides difficile* and risk factors for the detection of
3 toxin gene-positive strains

4

5 **Authors**

6 Yuya Okada, Norihito Kaku, Kosuke Kosai, Naoki Uno, Yoshitomo Morinaga, Hiroo
7 Hasegawa, Katsunori Yanagihara

8

9 **Affiliation**

10 Department of Laboratory Medicine, Nagasaki University Graduate School of
11 Biomedical Sciences, Nagasaki, Japan

12

13 **Corresponding author**

14 Norihito Kaku

15 Department of Laboratory Medicine, Nagasaki University Graduate School of
16 Biomedical Sciences, 1-7-1 Sakamoto, Nagasaki 852-8501, Japan.

17 Tel: +81-95-819-7418

18 Fax: +81-95-819-7257

19 E-mail: kaku-ngs@umin.ac.jp

20

21 **Authorship statement:**

22 All authors meet the ICMJE authorship criteria.

23

24 **Abstract**

25 In this study, we investigated all *Clostridioides difficile* strains isolated from stool
26 samples in Nagasaki University Hospital between January 2012 and December 2014.
27 Toxin genes (*tcdA*, *tcdB* and *cdtA/cdtB*) were analyzed for multiplex PCR in a total of
28 213 strains. In the toxin gene-positive strain, PCR ribotyping was conducted using
29 capillary gel electrophoresis-based PCR and the Webribo database. Patients'
30 backgrounds were analyzed by departments, disorders, antimicrobials, and clinical
31 dates. The positive rates of *tcdA*, *tcdB*, and *cdtA/cdtB* genes were 62.9%, 63.4%, and
32 2.8%, respectively. The most frequent PCR ribotype was 047 (14.1%), followed by
33 014/0 (11.1%) and 002/0 (8.2%). In univariate analysis, the risk factors for the detection
34 of toxin gene-positive strains in patients were older age ($p = 0.0036$), over ≥ 65 years
35 old ($p = 0.0175$), the patients hospitalized at Department of Digestive Surgery ($P =$
36 0.0059), higher CRP level ($P = 0.0395$), and lower albumin level ($p = 0.0014$). In the
37 multivariate analysis, the risk factor for detection of toxin gene-positive strains was the
38 patients hospitalized at Department of Digestive Surgery (OR; 4.62, 95% CI; 1.18-18.0,
39 $p = 0.0274$). In this study, the percentage of toxin gene-positive and *cdtA/cdtB* gene-
40 positive strains was almost the same as that reported in previous studies, but the
41 ribotype was different. In addition, we revealed that the risk factor associated with

42 the detection of toxin gene-positive strains was the patients hospitalized at

43 Department of digestive surgery.

44

45 **Keywords:** *Clostridioides difficile*; molecular epidemiology; risk factor; toxin gene

46

47 **Introduction**

48 *Clostridioides difficile* is a gram-positive anaerobic bacterium and a causative
49 pathogen of antibiotic-associated diarrhea (AAD) [1]. In *C. difficile* infections (CDIs),
50 toxin A and B play important roles [2,3]. Both toxins have cytotoxic activities and
51 induce the release of various immunomodulatory mediators from epithelial cells,
52 phagocytes, and mast cells [2]. Recently, the spread of binary toxin (CDT)-producing
53 strains has raised a major concern in the United States and Europe. CDT-producing
54 strains are highly resistant to fluoroquinolones and increase mortality [4–6]. In
55 European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases (ESCMID)
56 guideline for the diagnosis of CDI, glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) screening test,
57 toxin A and toxin B EIA testing, and nucleic acid amplification tests (NAATs) for
58 toxin genes are recommended[7].

59 Although the sensitivities of NAATs were higher than that of the EIA test, it was
60 difficult to conduct NAATs on all specimens in routine examinations, because of the
61 high cost and labor involved. The first European Society of Clinical Microbiology and
62 Infectious Diseases (ESCMID) guideline recommend a two-step algorithm: first,
63 samples should be analyzed by EIA testing; if the result is positive for GDH and
64 negative for toxin A/B, samples are then analyzed by NAATs[7]. Recently, the fully

65 automated molecular test (FAMT) has been developed, making it easier to perform
66 NAATs [8,9] and allowing for the detection of CDT. Many hospitals are expected to
67 implement the NAATs including FAMT, but there have been few molecular
68 epidemiological studies of *C. difficile* and CDT in Japan[10–12].

69 In this study, we investigated the molecular epidemiology of *C. difficile*.
70 Additionally, to clarify the patients who were recommended for performance of the
71 NAATs, we investigated and compared the patients' backgrounds between toxin-
72 positive and -negative *C. difficile* to clarify the risk factors for CDI.

73

74

75 **Materials and Methods**

76 *Study design and sample collection*

77 This study was conducted between January 2012 and December 2014. This study was
78 approved by the ethics committee of Nagasaki University Hospital (13062425). We
79 collected *C. difficile* isolated from stool samples between January 2012 and December
80 2014 in Nagasaki University Hospital. To avoid duplicates, only the first isolate from
81 each patient was collected.

82 The patient background information, such as age, gender, length of hospitalization,
83 underlying diseases, history of surgery within 90 days before submission of stool
84 sample, length of hospitalization before submission of stool sample, oral and
85 intravenous administration of antimicrobial agents, use of proton pump inhibitors
86 (PPIs), and use of histamine-2 receptor antagonists (H2 blockers) within 60 days
87 before submission of stool sample, CDI symptoms associated with CDI, and
88 mortality rate were analyzed. We defined administration of metronidazole and oral
89 vancomycin after submission of stool sample as CDI treatment. Because we did not
90 evaluate the Bristol scale in the laboratory during the study period, we investigated
91 the development of diarrhea, based on medical record. We also investigated the
92 laboratory data for white blood cell count ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$), red blood cell count ($\times 10^6/\mu\text{l}$),

93 C-reactive protein (CRP) (mg/dl), blood urea nitrogen (BUN) (mg/dl), serum
94 creatinine (mg/dl), uric acid (UA) (mg/dl), total protein (TP) (g/dl), albumin (g/dl),
95 and lactate dehydrogenase (LD) (U/l) at one day before and after submission of
96 the stool sample.

97

98 *Genetic analysis*

99 In this study, we used the ATCC9689 strain as a positive control. We inoculated all
100 *C. difficile* strains with cycloserine-cefoxitin mannitol agar (CCMA; Nissui
101 Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Japan). The plates were incubated at 37°C for 48–72 h under
102 anaerobic conditions. Bacterial DNA was extracted by using Achromopeptidase
103 solution (Wako Chemical Co., Ltd., Osaka, Japan), 10% Chelex-100 (Bio-Rad
104 Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA), and the boiling method [13]. We confirmed the
105 genes for toxins (*tcdA* and *tcdB*), CDT (*cdtA* and *cdtB*), and 16S rRNA by PCR as
106 previously described [14]. The 16S rRNA primers were as follows: forward 8UA, 5'-
107 AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG-3'; and reverse 1458B, 5'-
108 TACGGTTACCTTGTTACGAC-3' [15].

109 PCR ribotyping was evaluated by capillary gel electrophoresis-based PCR, which
110 was performed according to the protocol of a previous study [16]. In this method, we

111 used the Applied Biosystems 3130 genetic analyzer with POP7 polymer (Applied
112 Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and GeneScan-1200Liz size standard (Applied
113 Biosystems). The size of each peak was determined using Peak Scanner software v1.0
114 (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA), and PCR ribotypes were determined by the
115 Webribo database of the Austrian Agency for Health and Food Safety
116 (<https://webribo.ages.at>).

117 We defined a following situation as outbreak, based on the notification from
118 Regional Medical Care Planning Division, Healthy Policy Bureau, Ministry of Health,
119 Labor and Welfare, Japan (December 19, 2014): same PCR ribotype strain was
120 isolated from three or more patients hospitalized in same ward within 4 weeks.

121

122 *Statistical analysis*

123 The statistical software used in this study was JMP Pro 10.0.2 (SAS Institute Inc,
124 Cary NC, USA). Continuous variables were compared using the Student's *t*-test. The
125 chi-square was used to compare categorical variables. Variables with a *P* value less
126 than 0.20 according to the univariate analysis were considered for inclusion in the
127 forward stepwise multivariate logistic regression analysis.

128

129 **Results**

130 *Genetic analysis*

131 *C. difficile* strains were isolated from a total of 213 (122 men and 91 women)
132 patients during the study period (Fig. 1). The positive rates of *tcdA*, *tcdB*, and CDT
133 genes were 62.9% (n = 134), 63.4% (n = 135), and 2.8% (n = 6), respectively. We
134 defined strains harboring the *tcdA* and/or *tcdB* genes as toxin gene-positive strains.
135 Among the toxin gene-positive strains, the positive rate of CDT gene was 4.4%.

136 PCR ribotyping was performed on toxin gene-positive strains (Table 1). The most
137 frequent PCR ribotype was the 047 strain (14.1%), followed by 014/0 (11.1%), 002/0
138 (8.2%), 020 (6.7%), and 018 (4.4%). The PCR ribotypes of CDT-positive strains were
139 016 (two strains), 131 (three strains), and 413 (one strain). There was no outbreak of
140 each PCR ribotype in this study.

141

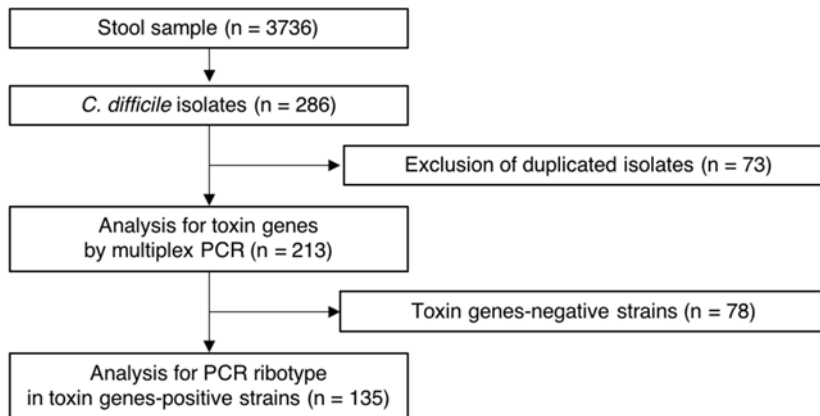


Fig 1. Analysis of *C. difficile* isolates

C. difficile isolated from stool sample of 213 patients were analyzed for toxin genes by multiplex PCR. Toxin genes-positive strains were analyzed for PCR ribotype (n = 135).

142

Table1 PCR ribotype of toxin genes-positive strains

Ribotype	(N)	(%)
047	19	14.1
014/ 0	15	11.1
002/ 0	11	8.1
020	9	6.7
018	6	4.4
043	5	3.7
449	5	3.7
076	4	3.0
209	4	3.0
001	3	2.2
012	3	2.2
056	3	2.2
153	3	2.2
638	3	2.2
015	2	1.5
046	2	1.5
131	2	1.5
404	2	1.5
496	2	1.5
541	2	1.5
660	2	1.5
014/ 5	2	1.5

Other	26	19.3
<hr/>		
Other: less than 1%		

143

144 *Comparison of toxin gens-positive and -negative strains*

145 The patient backgrounds with toxin gene-positive and -negative strains are shown in
146 Table 2. The average age of the patients was significantly higher in patients with toxin
147 gene-positive strains (54.2 years) than in those with toxin gene-negative strains (42.4)
148 ($p = 0.0034$). There were significant differences between the two groups in terms of
149 the inpatient department. The percentage of patients with toxin gene-positive strains
150 who were hospitalized at the Department of Pediatrics was significantly lower in
151 patients with toxin-positive gene (25 patients, 15.6%) than in those with toxin gene-
152 negative strains (25 patients, 32.1%) ($p = 0.0055$). In contrast, the percentage of
153 patients with toxin gene-positive strains who were hospitalized at the Department of
154 Digestive Surgery was significantly higher than in patients with toxin-positive gene
155 strains (27 patients, 20.0%) than in those with toxin gene-negative strains (four
156 patients, 5.2%) ($p = 0.0015$). When analyzing the laboratory data, the serum albumin
157 levels in patients with toxin gene-positive strains was significantly lower (3.0 ± 0.7
158 g/dl) than in those with toxin gene-negative strains (3.3 ± 0.7 g/dl) ($p = 0.0017$).

159 Administration of antimicrobials, PPIs, and H2 blockers and antimicrobial agents is

160 summarized in Table 3. The PPIs, H₂ blockers, and antimicrobial agents were
 161 administered to 84 patients (39.4%), 15 patients (7.0%), and 157 patients (70.5%),
 162 respectively. The percentage of those administered with macrolides was significantly
 163 higher in the patients with toxin gene-positive strains (seven patients, 5.2%) than in
 164 those with gene-negative strains (0 patients, 0.0%) ($p = 0.0107$).

165

Table2 Comparison of the patient background between the patients toxin genes-positive and negative strains

Background	Total (n = 213)	Patients with toxin genes-positive strain (n = 135)	Patients with toxin genes-negative strain (n = 78)	<i>P</i> value
Age	49.9 ± 28.4	54.2 ± 26.5	42.4 ± 29.9	0.0034
< 15 years old	49 (23.0 %)	23 (17.0 %)	26 (33.3 %)	0.0072
≥ 65 years old	91 (42.7 %)	66 (48.9 %)	25 (32.0 %)	0.0159
Sex (male %)	122 (57.3 %)	80 (59.3 %)	42 (53.8 %)	0.4422
length of hospitalization (day)	32.3 ± 55.8	33.2 ± 60.2	30.6 ± 47.2	0.9466
diarrhea (%)	128 (60.1 %)	83 (61.5 %)	45 (57.7 %)	0.5869
abdominal tenderness	59 (27.7 %)	39 (28.9 %)	20 (25.6 %)	0.6086
temperature (≥ 38.5 ° C)	49 (23.0 %)	29 (21.5 %)	20 (25.6 %)	0.4893
previous surgery within 90 days	36 (16.9 %)	25 (18.6 %)	11 (14.1 %)	0.4023
mortality within 90 days	24 (11.3 %)	15 (11.1 %)	9 (11.5 %)	0.9244
Treatment with CDI (vancomycin or metronidazole)	44 (20.7 %)	33 (24.4 %)	11 (14.1%)	0.0663
Department				
Hematology	47 (22.1 %)	30 (22.2 %)	17 (21.8 %)	0.9422
Pediatrics	46 (21.6 %)	21 (15.6 %)	25 (32.1 %)	0.0055
Gastroenterology	44 (20.7 %)	28 (20.7 %)	16 (20.5 %)	0.9684
Digestive Surgery	31 (14.6 %)	27 (20.0 %)	4 (5.2 %)	0.0015

Respiratory medicine	11 (5.2 %)	9 (6.7 %)	2 (2.6 %)	0.1700
Anesthesiology	7 (3.3 %)	4 (3.0 %)	3 (3.9 %)	0.7302
Disorder				
Hematology	54 (25.4 %)	33 (24.4 %)	21 (26.9 %)	0.6895
Liver	41 (19.2 %)	26 (19.2 %)	15 (19.2 %)	0.9959
Kidney	12 (5.6 %)	7 (5.2 %)	5 (6.4 %)	0.7110
Intestinal diseases	27 (12.7 %)	21 (15.7 %)	6 (7.7 %)	0.0858
cardiac	12 (5.6 %)	9 (6.7 %)	3 (3.9 %)	0.3767
Laboratory data				
White Blood Cell ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	7.5 \pm 6.6	7.4 \pm 6.2	7.7 \pm 7.4	0.9546
Red Blood Cell ($\times 10^6/\mu\text{l}$)	3.4 \pm 0.8	3.4 \pm 0.7	3.5 \pm 0.8	0.3977
C-reactive protein (mg/dl)	5.1 \pm 6.1	5.8 \pm 6.5	3.9 \pm 5.1	0.0565
Blood urea nitrogen (mg/dl)	19.1 \pm 15.0	19.8 \pm 16.4	17.8 \pm 11.9	0.5033
Serum creatinine (mg/dl)	0.9 \pm 1.1	1.0 \pm 1.0	0.9 \pm 1.3	0.0659
Uric acid (mg/dl)	4.5 \pm 2.3	4.8 \pm 2.6	4.2 \pm 1.7	0.6126
Total protein (g/dl)	6.2 \pm 1.0	6.2 \pm 1.0	6.4 \pm 0.9	0.2012
Albumin (g/dl)	3.1 \pm 0.7	3.0 \pm 0.7	3.3 \pm 0.7	0.0017
Lactate dehydrogenase (U/l)	246.9 \pm 160.6	244.0 \pm 179.9	252.5 \pm 116.2	0.1717

166

Table3 Comparison of administration of PPI, H2 blocker and antimicrobial agents between the patients with toxin genes-positive and negative strains

Variable	Total (n = 213)	Patients with toxin genes-positive strain (n = 135)	Patients with toxin genes-negative strain (n = 78)	P value
PPIs	84 (39.4 %)	54 (40.0 %)	30 (38.5 %)	0.8247
H2 blocker	15 (7.0 %)	9 (6.7 %)	6 (7.7 %)	0.7793
Administration of antimicrobial agents within 60 days	157 (73.7 %)	102 (75.6 %)	55 (70.5 %)	0.4288
Penicillin	49 (23.0 %)	31 (23.0 %)	18 (23.1 %)	0.9848
Cephalosporin	81 (38.0 %)	51 (37.8 %)	30 (38.5 %)	0.9211
1st generation Cephalosporin	17 (8.0 %)	12 (8.9 %)	5 (6.4 %)	0.5139
2nd generation Cephalosporin	7 (3.3 %)	3 (2.2 %)	4 (5.1 %)	0.2625
3rd generation Cephalosporin	15 (7.0 %)	12 (8.9 %)	3 (3.8 %)	0.1478
4th generation Cephalosporin	48 (22.5 %)	28 (20.7 %)	20 (25.6 %)	0.4124

Carbapenems	64 (30.0 %)	40 (29.6 %)	24 (30.8 %)	0.8614
Aminoglycoside	7 (3.3 %)	4 (3.0 %)	3 (3.8 %)	0.7302
Fluoroquinolones	30 (14.1 %)	20 (14.8 %)	10 (12.8 %)	0.6852
Macrolides	7 (3.3 %)	7 (5.2 %)	0 (0.0 %)	0.0107

PPI, proton pump inhibitors

167

168 *Risk factor for detection of toxin gene-positive strains*

169 We compared the background of the patients with toxin gene-positive and -negative
170 strains by univariate and multivariate analyses to clarify the risk factors for the
171 detection of toxin gene-positive strains (Table 4). In the univariate analysis, the risk
172 factors for the detection of toxin genes positive-strain were older age (OR, 0.99; 95%
173 CI, 0.98–1.00; $p = 0.0036$), over ≥ 65 years old (OR, 2.03; 95% CI, 1.13–3.63; $p =$
174 0.0175), patients hospitalized at the Department of Digestive Surgery (OR, 4.63; 95%
175 CI, 1.55–13.8; $p = 0.0059$), higher CRP level (OR, 0.94; 95% CI, 0.89–1.00; $p =$
176 0.0395), and lower albumin level (OR, 2.02; 95% CI, 1.29–3.14; $P = 0.0014$). In the
177 multivariate analysis, the risk factors for the detection of toxin gene-positive strains
178 were patients hospitalized at Department of Digestive Surgery (OR, 4.62; 95% CI,
179 1.18–18.0; $p = 0.0274$).

180

Table 4 Univariate and multivariate analysis of the risk factor for the detection of toxin gene-positive strains

Risk factor	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
	Odds ratio	95 % CI	<i>P</i> value	Odds ratio	95 % CI	<i>P</i> value
Age	0.99	0.98-1.00	0.0036	1.01	0.96-1.06	0.7574
< 15 years old	0.41	0.21-0.79	0.0073	-	-	-
≥ 65 years old	2.03	1.13-3.63	0.0175	1.67	0.44-6.37	0.4495
Department of Pediatrics	0.39	0.20-0.76	0.0056	-	-	-
Department of Digestive Surgery	4.63	1.55-13.8	0.0059	4.62	1.18-18.0	0.0274
Intestinal diseases	2.21	0.85-5.74	0.1032	1.28	0.38-4.28	0.6915
C-reaction protein (mg/dl)	0.94	0.89-1.00	0.0395	0.97	0.91-1.04	0.3974
Albumin (g/dl)	2.02	1.29-3.14	0.0014	1.51	0.80-2.84	0.2010
Administration of 3rd generation Cephalosporin within 60 days	2.44	0.67-8.93	0.1478	7.22	0.85-61.0	0.0694

Multivariate analysis; Predictors with a *P* value < 0.20 in the univariate analysis were included in forward stepwise multivariate logistic regression analysis.

182

183 Characteristics of the patients with CDT gene-positive strains

184 CDT gene-positive strains were cultured from 6 patients (3 men and 3 women). The

185 age range was 5–84 years, and the patients under 18 years included 2 patients. All

186 patients had diarrhea, 3 had temperatures of over 38.5°C, and the white blood cell

187 count was high only in one case (29,700/μl). There were no severe cases, such as

188 pseudomembranous enteritis, in the 6 patients. Treatment with CDI (vancomycin or

189 metronidazole) was administered only in 3 cases. All cases were cured from CDI.

190 **Discussion**

191 This study revealed the molecular epidemiology of *C. difficile* and risk factors for
192 the detection of toxin gene-positive strains. In a previous Japanese study, the
193 percentage of toxin gene-positive strains and CDT gene-positive strains was 73% and
194 2%, respectively [10]. In other Japanese study, CDT-gene positive strains was 5% [17].
195 In comparison with the previous studies, the percentage of toxin gene-positive strains
196 that was lower than that of CDT gene-positive strains was nearly the same in this study.
197 The lower percentage of toxin gene-positive strain was caused by a difference in
198 collection of samples. The previous report investigated suspected CDI, but in this
199 study, we investigated all strains cultured from stool samples. Therefore, our study
200 involved the patients with colonization of *C. difficile*. The percentage of CDT gene-
201 positive strain in Japan seemed to be lower than that in other countries: the percentage
202 of CDT gene-positive strain in Colombia was 17.5% [18]; in United Kingdom and
203 Finland, the percentage of CDT gene-positive strains was 16.9% and 37%,
204 respectively. [19,20]. Additionally, in this study, we did not detect NAP1/027 and 078
205 strains, which were reported as the causative pathogens of serious and epidemic CDI in
206 Europe and United States [21]. The PCR ribotype of CDT gene-positive strains in this
207 study was 016, 131, and 413.

208 In this study, we clarified the PCR ribotype in all toxin gene-positive strains. The
209 most frequent ribotypes as revealed by PCR for toxin gene-positive strains were 047,
210 014/0, and 020 in this study. In a previous Japanese study, the ribotypes present at a
211 high frequency were strains 018, 002, 052, and 369 [22]. In other Japanese study, the
212 ribotypes present at a high frequency was strains 449 [17]. The frequent PCR ribotypes
213 varied by the studies in Japan [17, 22]. In the United States, the most frequent PCR
214 ribotypes were strains 002, 014-020, 027, and 053-163 [23], but the most frequent
215 PCR ribotypes were different according to area. Other reports from the United States
216 revealed that the most frequent PCR ribotypes in the northeast, southern, midwestern,
217 and western United States were 027, 014/020, 106, 001, 053, respectively [24]. We
218 hypothesized that ribotypes differed from area to area, and that it is important to
219 conduct surveillance in each area. Additionally, 42% of the PCR ribotype strain 047
220 was detected from the patients at Department of Digestive Surgery in this study, but
221 we did not observe outbreak of the strain. This result was indicating that epidemic
222 ribotypes differed from ward to ward.

223 We investigated the risk factors for the detection of toxin-positive strains by
224 comparing the characteristics of patients with toxin gene-positive and negative strains.
225 In the univariate analysis, there was no significant difference in the administration

226 history of the antimicrobial drugs or the type of antibiotics between the patients with toxin
227 gene-positive and -negative strains. Since the antimicrobial drug administration history
228 was observed at almost the same ratio in both groups, administration of antimicrobial
229 drugs may lead to the colonization of *C. difficile*. In the analysis of laboratory data, the
230 patients with toxin gene-positive strains showed higher CRP and lower albumin levels.
231 However, there were no significant differences in the multivariate analysis. It seems to be
232 difficult to discriminate between the presence or absence of toxin gene-positive strains by
233 using laboratory data. In the multivariate analysis, the risk factors for the detection of
234 toxin gene-positive strains included hospitalized patients at the Department of
235 Digestive Surgery. On the other hand, if *C. difficile* was detected in children, the
236 possibility that they were also positive for toxin genes was relatively low in this study.
237 A previous report revealed that CDI was more frequently caused in solid-organ
238 transplant recipients than in other hospitalized patients, because solid-organ transplant
239 recipients had a several CDI risk factors, such as PPIs, H₂ blockers, age greater than 65
240 years old, severe underlying disease, uremia, gastrointestinal surgery, presence of
241 nasogastric or endotracheal tube, and prolonged hospitalization [25]. The Department
242 of Digestive Surgery in our hospital conducts solid-organ transplants, and it seemed
243 to have had an influence on the higher percentage of toxin gene-positive strains in the

244 Department of Digestive Surgery.

245 There were some limitations in this study. First, we studied only *C. difficile* strains
246 cultured from stool samples, and CDIs diagnosed by only enzyme immunoassays were
247 not included in this study. Second, we could not investigate the Bristol scale. If we
248 could investigate the Bristol scale, we would evaluate the association between
249 diarrhea condition and harboring toxin genes including Bristol scale. Third, we did
250 not determine the PCR ribotype of toxin gene-negative strains. The PCR ribotype of
251 the toxin gene-negative strains remained unknown. It is necessary to understand the
252 tendency to colonized *C. difficile* with toxin negative strains. Therefore, further
253 investigations are needed.

254

255 Conclusion

256 In this study, the percentages of toxin gene-positive and CDT gene-positive strains
257 were almost the same as those reported in previous studies, but the ribotypes differed.

258 In addition, we revealed that the risk factors associated with the detection of toxin
259 gene-positive strains included patients hospitalized at the Department of Digestive
260 Surgery.

261

262 **Conflict of interest**

263 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

264

265

266 **References**

- 267 [1] Burke KE, Lamont JT. Clostridium difficile infection: a worldwide disease. Gut
268 Liver 2014;8:1–6. doi:10.5009/gnl.2014.8.1.1.
- 269 [2] Rupnik M, Wilcox MH, Gerding DN. Clostridium difficile infection: new
270 developments in epidemiology and pathogenesis. Nat Rev Microbiol
271 2009;7:526–36. doi:10.1038/nrmicro2164.
- 272 [3] Di Bella S, Ascenzi P, Siarakas S, Petrosillo N, di Masi A. Clostridium difficile
273 Toxins A and B: Insights into Pathogenic Properties and Extraintestinal Effects.
274 Toxins (Basel) 2016;8:134. doi:10.3390/toxins8050134.
- 275 [4] Labbé AC, Poirier L, MacCannell D, Louie T, Savoie M, Béliveau C, u. a.
276 Clostridium difficile infections in a Canadian Tertiary Care Hospital before and
277 during a regional epidemic associated with the BI/NAP1/027 strain. Antimicrob
278 Agents Chemother 2008;52:3180–7. doi:10.1128/AAC.00146-08.
- 279 [5] Pépin J, Valiquette L, Alary M, Villemure P, Pelletier A, Forget K, u. a. of

- 280 Disease Severity. Cmaj 2004.
- 281 [6] Swindells J, Brenwald N, Reading N, Oppenheim B. Evaluation of diagnostic
282 tests for Clostridium difficile infection. J Clin Microbiol 2010;48:606–8.
283 doi:10.1128/JCM.01579-09.
- 284 [7] Crobach MJT, Planche T, Eckert C, Barbut F, Terveer EM, Dekkers OM, u. a.
285 European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases : update of
286 the diagnostic guidance document for Clostridium dif fi cile infection. Clin
287 Microbiol Infect 2016;22:S63–81. doi:10.1016/j.cmi.2016.03.010.
- 288 [8] Kosai K, Iwanaga Y, Akamatsu N, Okada Y, Kaku N. Performance evaluation of
289 the Verigene ® Clostridium dif fi cile nucleic acid test , an automated multiplex
290 molecular testing system for detection of C . dif fi cile toxin 2017;23:674–7.
291 doi:10.1016/j.jiac.2017.07.002.
- 292 [9] Morinaga Y, Akamatsu N, Matsuda J, Tateno H. Diagnostic utilities of a fully
293 automated molecular test for toxigenic Clostridium dif fi cile * 2018;24:88–91.
294 doi:10.1016/j.jiac.2017.09.003.
- 295 [10] Kuwata Y, Tanimoto S, Sawabe E, Shima M, Takahashi Y, Ushizawa H, u. a.
296 Molecular epidemiology and antimicrobial susceptibility of Clostridium difficile
297 isolated from a university teaching hospital in Japan. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect

- 298 Dis 2015;34:763–72. doi:10.1007/s10096-014-2290-9.
- 299 [11] Iwashima Y, Nakamura A, Ueda R, Iwashima Y, Nakamura A, Kato H, u. a. A
300 retrospective study of the epidemiology of *Clostridium difficile* infection at a
301 University Hospital in Japan: genotypic features of the isolates and clinical
302 characteristics of the patients. *J Infect Chemother* 2010;16:329–33.
303 doi:10.1007/S10156-010-0066-4.
- 304 [12] Oka K, Osaki T, Hanawa T, Kurata S, Okazaki M, Manzoku T, u. a. Molecular
305 and microbiological characterization of *Clostridium difficile* isolates from single,
306 relapse, and reinfection cases. *J Clin Microbiol* 2012;50:915–21.
307 doi:10.1128/JCM.05588-11.
- 308 [13] Kaku N, Yanagihara K, Morinaga Y, Yamada K, Harada Y, Migiyama Y, u. a.
309 Influence of antimicrobial regimen on decreased in-hospital mortality of patients
310 with MRSA bacteremia. *J Infect Chemother* 2014;20:350–5.
311 doi:10.1016/j.jiac.2013.12.009.
- 312 [14] Persson S, Torpdahl M, Olsen KEP. New multiplex PCR method for the
313 detection of *Clostridium difficile* toxin. A (tcdA) and toxin. B (tcdB) and the
314 binary toxin (cdtA/cdtB) genes applied to a Danish strain collection. *Clin*
315 *Microbiol Infect* 2008;14:1057–64. doi:10.1111/j.1469-0691.2008.02092.x.

- 316 [15] Funato M, Kaneko H, Ohkusu K, Sasai H, Kubota K, Ohnishi H, u. a. Refractory
317 chronic pleurisy caused by *Helicobacter equorum*-like bacterium in a patient with
318 X-linked agammaglobulinemia. *J Clin Microbiol* 2011;49:3432–5.
319 doi:10.1128/JCM.00478-11.
- 320 [16] Indra A, Huhulescu S, Schneeweis M, Hasenberger P, Kernbichler S, Fiedler A,
321 u. a. Characterization of *Clostridium difficile* isolates using capillary gel
322 electrophoresis-based PCR ribotyping. *J Med Microbiol* 2008;57:1377–82.
323 doi:10.1099/jmm.0.47714-0.
- 324 [17] Tokimatsu I, Shigemura K, Osawa K, Kinugawa S, Kitagawa K, Nakanishi N,
325 u. a. Molecular epidemiologic study of *Clostridium difficile* infections in
326 university hospitals: Results of a nationwide study in Japan. *J Infect Chemother*
327 2018;24:641–7. doi:10.1016/j.jiac.2018.03.015.
- 328 [18] Salazar CL, Reyes C, Atehortua S, Sierra P, Correa MM, Paredes-Sabja D, u. a.
329 Molecular, microbiological and clinical characterization of *Clostridium difficile*
330 isolates from tertiary care hospitals in Colombia. *PLoS One* 2017;12:e0184689.
331 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0184689.
- 332 [19] Berry CE, Davies KA, Owens DW, Wilcox MH. Is there a relationship between
333 the presence of the binary toxin genes in *Clostridium difficile* strains and the

334 severity of *C. difficile* infection (CDI)? *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*
335 2017;36:2405–15. doi:10.1007/s10096-017-3075-8.

336 [20] Mentula S, Kotila SM, Lyytikäinen O, Ibrahim S, Ollgren J, Virolainen A.
337 *Clostridium difficile* infections in Finland, 2008–2015: trends, diagnostics and
338 ribotypes. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2017;36:1939–45.
339 doi:10.1007/s10096-017-3017-5.

340 [21] Clements AC, Magalhães RJS, Tatem AJ, Paterson DL, Riley T V. *Clostridium*
341 *difficile* PCR ribotype 027: assessing the risks of further worldwide spread.
342 *Lancet Infect Dis* 2010;10:395–404. doi:10.1016/S1473-3099(10)70080-3.

343 [22] Riley T V., Kimura T. The Epidemiology of *Clostridium difficile* Infection in
344 Japan: A Systematic Review. *Infect Dis Ther* 2018:1–32. doi:10.1007/s40121-
345 018-0186-1.

346 [23] Rao K, Walk ST, Micic D, Chenoweth E, Deng L, Galecki AT, u. a.
347 Procalcitonin Levels Associate with Severity of *Clostridium difficile* Infection.
348 *PLoS One* 2013;8:e58265. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0058265.

349 [24] Tickler IA, Goering R V., Whitmore JD, Lynn ANW, Persing DH, Tenover FC.
350 Strain types and antimicrobial resistance patterns of *Clostridium difficile* isolates
351 from the United States, 2011 to 2013. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*

352 2014;58:4214–8. doi:10.1128/AAC.02775-13.

353 [25] Dubberke ER, Burdette SD. Clostridium difficile infections in solid organ

354 transplantation. Am J Transplant 2013;13:42–9. doi:10.1111/ajt.12097.

355

356 **Figure legend**

357 **Fig 1. Analysis of *C. difficile* isolates**

358 *C. difficile* isolated from stool sample of 213 patients were analyzed for toxin genes by multiplex PCR.

359 Toxin genes-positive strains were analyzed for PCR ribotype (n = 135).