

Risk of Clostridioides difficile infection recurrence in the VINCat hospitals: a prospective observational cohort study

Journal:	Future Microbiology
Manuscript ID	FMB-2022-0076.R1
Manuscript Type:	Short Communication
Keywords:	Clostridioides difficile infection, colitis, recurrence, risk factors



1		
2 3	1	Short communication
4	1	Short communication
5 6 7	2	Risk of Clostridioides difficile infection recurrence in the VINCat hospitals: a
8 9 10	3	prospective observational cohort study
11 12 13	4	ABSTRACT
14 15 16 17	5	Background
18 19	6	The 2016 cumulative incidence of Clostridioides difficile infection (CDI) in Spain was reported by
20 21 22	7	European Center for Disease Control (ECDC) to be above the mean of other European countries. The
23 24	8	aim of this multicenter prospective observational cohort study was to examine the risk factors that
25 26	9	determine 90-day CDI recurrence in Catalonia, Spain.
27 28 29 30	10	Methods
31 32	11	The study included 558 consecutive adults admitted to hospital who had a symptomatic, first positive,
33 34	12	CDI diagnosis. Sociodemographic, clinical, and epidemiological variables were recorded. The primary
35 36 37	13	outcome was 90-day CDI recurrence.
38 39 40	14	Results
41 42	15	In this Catalan population, having received more than 1 course of antibiotics in the 30 days prior to
43 44 45	16	CDI diagnosis (OR=2.459, 95% CI: 1.195; 5.060, <i>p</i> =0.015) and active chemotherapy (OR=4.859, 95% CI:
46 47	17	1.495; 15.792, <i>p</i> =0.009) are significant predictors of 90-day CDI recurrence.
48 49 50 51	18	Conclusions
52 53	19	The identification of independent risk factors of 90-day CDI recurrence will enable the optimization of
54 55	20	preventive measures in at-risk populations.
56 57 58 59	21	KEYWORDS

22 Clostridioides difficile infection, colitis, recurrence, risk factors

23 Introduction

Clostridioides difficilele, is a Gram-positive, spore-forming, strict anaerobic bacterium that causes *C*.
 difficile infection (CDI). It is transmitted via the oral-fecal route and it is the main cause of healthcare related infective diarrhea, as well as often being associated with community-acquired cases of colitis
 [1].

C. difficile spores are highly resistant to environmental conditions, including alcohol-based hand washes and many disinfectants, allowing them to remain on surfaces for long periods of time. This is extremely problematic in health-care settings [2], with transmission of *C. difficile* spores occurring for the most part via the contaminated hands of health-care professionals, but also through contact with contaminated surroundings or contaminated medical utensils and devices [3]. In Spain, the mean hospital incidence density of CDI reported in 2016 was 4,26 episodes/10.000 patients- days above the mean European incidence [4].

Recurrence of CDI is very common, and it leads to significant morbidity and increased healthcare costs. After successful treatment of an initial episode, up to 15-35% patients experience disease recurrence with a relapse of CDI symptoms within 3 months [5–7]. Key risks have been previously analyzed, with several factors including age >65 years, severe underlying disease, concomitant use of non-CDI active antibiotics, renal failure, history of previous CDI, possibly continued use of antacid medications, initial disease severity and recent hospitalization being associated with increased risk of recurrence [6,8,9]. Ideally, these risk factors could be used as clinical prediction tools that allow the attending physicians to respond quickly and effectively to reduce the risk of subsequent recurrences [6].

In Catalonia (Spain), the VINCat program (Vigilancia de les Infeccions Nosocomials als hospitals de
Catalunya - Infection Control and Antimicrobial Stewardship Catalan Program), a nosocomial infection
surveillance and control program, has been in operation at acute care hospitals since 2006. It consists
of a network of multidisciplinary hospital teams with the common goal of reducing hospital acquired
infection rates in the region. The program includes an antibiotic stewardship module in which data of

the annual antibiotic consumption by families and molecules are monitored and compared between
hospitals (benchmarking). In addition, different actions are in place to limit the duration of antibiotic
prescription and the use of broad-spectrum antibiotics, especially carbapenems and quinolones in the
general digestive surgery and urology services. experience [10,11].

The objective of the present study carried out at the hospitals in the VINCat program, was to analyze the clinical characteristics of adult patients with CDI in Catalonia and to examine the risk factors that determine 90-day recurrence, to design a risk prediction tool and other future strategies of CDI prevention tailored to the population in this region. This study also aimed to provide recurrence information that may be of use in other geographical areas with populations of similar characteristics to those of Catalonia.

Revie

58 Methods

59 Study design and setting

This multicenter prospective observational cohort study was carried out at the 28 hospitals participating in the VINCat program, that comprise a representative sample of the 3 levels of acute-care hospitals included in the Catalan Health Care System (high-tech hospitals, tertiary referral hospitals and district general hospitals). They account for 40.9% of all adult acute-care hospital beds in Catalonia and amounted to a total of 1,740,846 hospital-days during the study period. The infection prevention and control team within each participating hospital was responsible for C. difficile surveillance and appointed an investigator responsible for the recording and validating of all the studied variables in a standardised questionnaire. Sociodemographic, clinical and epidemiological variables and disease evolution at discharge and after 90 days were recorded for each case. New CDI cases were identified following diagnostic and microbiological testing in addition to reviews of the patients' clinical histories and discussions with the referring teams. Diagnosis and classification of CDI was made following VINCat criteria already described elsewhere [12]. The participating clinical

laboratories were periodically audited to ensure that all CDI cases were consecutively reported. Alldata was reviewed by the study coordinator.

Population and definitions

The study included all consecutive adults (≥18 years at diagnosis) admitted to any hospital area from 1st January until 31st December 2018 that met the study definition of CDI which strictly met VINCat criteria. CDI was defined as the presence of diarrhea (\geq 3 loose stools in \leq 24 hours) or toxic megacolon without any other known cause while meeting at least one of the following criteria: (a) the isolation of a toxin-producing strain in a laboratory stool sample or a positive test result for C. difficile toxins A or B in a laboratory stool specimen [13]; (b) confirmed pseudomembranous colitis by endoscopic, surgical or histological examination. Microbiological testing was performed at each participating hospital's microbiology laboratory. Toxigenic culture of the stool samples was the technique of choice in this study because of its high sensitivity (>95%) [14]. Samples were cultured on selective medium like cycloserine-cefoxitin fructose agar (CCFA), on chromogenic medium like ChromID® C. difficile (bioMérieux), or on non-selective medium like brucella agar or Schaedler agar with 5% sheep blood, vitamin K and hemin, always under anaerobic conditions at 37°C for 48 - 72 hours. This was followed by testing of the isolates via immunoassays to determine their ability to produce C. difficile toxins A and B [13,15].

Colonised but asymptomatic patients (even if they were carriers of a toxin-producing strain), patients
that had suffered previous CDI episodes and those admitted to specific convalescence and palliative
care units were excluded.

Three possible scenarios of CDI acquisition were considered in this study: (i) Hospital-acquired (HA) CDI: infection identified >48 hours after admission to the hospital and before discharge. (ii) Healthcare-associated (HCA) CDI: infection starting in the community or within 48 hours of admission, in patients admitted to a health centre (hospital, nursing home, outpatient dialysis or community health centre) in the 4 weeks prior to the onset of symptoms. (iii) Community-acquired (CA) CDI:

97 infection starting in the community or within 48 hours of admission, with no admission to a health98 centre in the previous 4 weeks.

99 Previous antibiotic treatment was defined as the administration of more than 48 hours of antibiotics
100 during the 30 days preceding hospital admission. This information was obtained from the patients'
101 electronic clinical record.

Patients were followed up for 90 days post-diagnosis of CDI. Recurrence was defined as a second episode (following the same VINCat criteria as the first episode) occurring within 90 days from the onset of a previous episode, provided that CDI symptoms from the first episode had resolved [7]. Cure was defined as treatment response without recurrence of CDI during the follow-up period [16]. Deceased patients during the follow up period were excluded from this analysis.

107 No diagnostic tests were made, or samples taken from any participant in addition to those required 108 by routine care. This study complies with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki and the legal 109 structure according to international human rights and biomedicine and personal data protection 110 legislation. The Ethics Committee of XXXXXX approved the study (ref: *(Blinded for review)*). All data 111 were treated as confidential, and records were accessed anonymously.

112 Statistical analysis

113 Categorical data were presented as frequency (n) and proportions (%) and were analyzed using a 114 Pearson χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test. 2-tailed *p* values of <0.05 were considered statistically 115 significant.

To develop the risk prediction model for 90-day CDI recurrence, variables that were significantly associated with recurrence in the univariate analyses (i.e., *p*< 0.05) and that were clinically relevant were considered in the multivariate Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel test. Results were presented as estimate odd ratios (ORs) and corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs). All analyses were two sided, and significance level was set to 0.05.

60

2		
3 4	121	The analysis was performed using the IBM SPSS v20 statistical package and R v4.0.4 statistical
5 6	122	software.
7 8	123	
9 10	125	
11 12 13	124	Results
14 15 16	125	Description of patients with CDI
17 18 19	126	Of the 558 inpatients with CDI included in this analysis, 351 (62.9%) were > 65 years old and 256
20 21	127	(45.9%) were men. 230 (41.2%) infections were HA, 170 (30.5%) were CA and 158 (28.3%) were HCA.
22 23	128	285 (51%) patients had been admitted to a healthcare facility in the year prior to the CDI. 142 (25.4%)
24 25	129	patients had diabetes mellitus, 93 (16.7%) presented with oncological disease and 48 (8.6%) were on
26 27 28	130	active chemotherapy at the time of the infection (Table 1).
29 30 31	131	372 (66.7%) patients had received previous antibiotic treatment within 30 days; of them, 184 (49.5%),
32 33	132	had received more than one course of antibiotics in the 30 days prior to the CDI diagnosis. 193 (34.6%)
34 35	133	patients received a penicillin antibiotic, 116 (20.8%) cephalosporins antibiotic, 113 (19.7%) patients
36 37	134	received a course of quinolone antibiotics and 69 (12.4%) patients received carbapenems (Table 1) To
38 39 40	135	treat the CDI episode, 285 (51%) patients received metronidazole and 198 (35.5%) received
40 41 42	136	vancomycin (Table 2). During the episode of CDI and the 90-day follow-up period, 262 (47%) patients
43 44	137	received antibiotic treatment for reasons other than to treat CDI. Of them, 135 patients (51.5%)
45 46	138	received more than 1 antibiotic course in that 90-day period. 95 (17.0%) patients received a penicillin
47 48	139	antibiotic, 99 (17.7%) received cephalosporins, 78 (14%) received quinolones and 77 (13.8%) were
49 50 51	140	prescribed carbapenems. Furthermore, during this period, 378 (67.7%) patients were taking proton
52 53	141	pump inhibitors (Table 2).
54 55 56	142	30 (5.4%) patients were admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU) due to CDI. 66 (12%) patients
57 58	143	presented with a recurrence of the disease within 90 days from the index CDI (Table 1). Recurrence
59 60	144	rates were 9%, 10% and 17% for CA, HA and HCA, respectively.

145 Characteristics associated with 90-day recurrence

Patients who had a recurrence within 90 days following their index CDI were more likely to be > 65 years old (74.2% vs 61.4%, p=0.000), to have an HCA infection (40.9% vs 26.6%, p=0.009), to have been admitted to a healthcare facility in the previous year (66.7% vs 49%, p=0.000), be suffering from oncological disease (24.2% vs 15.7%, p=0.005) or to be on active chemotherapy at the time of the infection (18.2% vs 7.3%, p=0.010).

151 In relation to antibiotic treatment, patients developing recurrent infections were also more likely to 152 have received more than 1 course of antibiotics in the 30 days prior to the CDI diagnosis (73.1% vs 153 45.6%, p<0.001), or to have received a recent quinolone (31.8% vs 18.1%, p=0.008) or cephalosporin 154 (34.8% vs 18.9%, p=0.003) course compared with those in which the CDI had resolved (Table 1). No 155 differences in recurrence rate were observed among patients receiving initial therapy for CDI with 156 vancomycin or with metronidazole (OR 1.1 95%CI 0.6-2.0)

Risk prediction model for 90-day recurrence

In the multivariate model, age >65 years, oncological disease, active chemotherapy, admission to a
healthcare facility in the previous year, HCA of the infection, more than 1 course of antibiotics prior
to diagnosis and recent treatment with quinolones or cephalosporins were included. Of them, only
having received more than 1 course of antibiotics in the 30 days prior to the CDI diagnosis (OR=2.459,
95% CI: 1.195; 5.060, *p*=0.015) and active chemotherapy (OR=4.859, 95% CI: 1.495; 15.792, *p*=0.009)
were significant predictors of 90-day CDI recurrence (Table 3).

Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, this is the largest epidemiological study to investigate predictors for 90day recurrence of CDI in Catalonia [17]. 558 CDI cases were analyzed with 66 (12%) experiencing a recurrent episode within the 90-day follow-up period. Page 9 of 22

Future Microbiology

Although risk factors for CDI among hospitalized patients such as age, prior hospital admission and antibiotic use has been recently reassessed [18] anticipating which patients may suffer from recurrent CDI continues to be a subject of debate. An extensive range of risk factors for severe or recurrent CDI have been described in the literature [6,19] and the aim of our study was to identify which ones were specific to the characteristics of the population in Catalonia to create a rigorous clinical prediction tool that would help the patients in this region. The results from our study are in line with previously published international studies that determined that older age [20–23], continued use of antibiotics after CDI diagnosis or after CDI treatment [20,21] and underlying disease [20,24] are prognostic markers of an increased risk of recurrent CDI. On the other hand initial CDI severity [20,23] and continued use of proton pump inhibitors (PPIs) [20,23] have also been widely reported to increase the risk of CDI and recurrence. In fact, PPIs are among the most commonly used medications and the Food and Drug Administration issued a warning with respect to the utilization of PPIs and risk of developing CDI [25]. However, the use of PPIs did not show statistical significance in our study.

Our multivate model determined that having received more than 1 course of antibiotics in the 30 days prior to the CDI diagnosis was a significant predictor of 90-day CDI recurrence. Thus, these results, we believe that the cumulative exposure and antimicrobial selection caused by the administration of more than one antibiotic group has played a relevant role towards recurrence of CDI. This aligns with previous studies that established that cumulative antibiotic exposure prior to admission is the greatest contributor to the risk of subsequent CDI [26,27]. This could be related to antibiotics altering the intestinal microbiota and subsequently producing an environment where CDI is easily developed [28]. Actions such as antimicrobial stewardship that actively modify prescription behavior for high-risk antimicrobials like cephalosporins and quinolones have been described as an effective method for decreasing C. difficile recurrence rates [29]. In our study, nearly 20% of patients received quinolones which might have contributed to the increased risk of CDI. However, following the formal recommendation against the generalized use of quinolone therapy, from 2017 to 2020 quinolone consumption steadily decreased in VINCat hospitals (data not shown). Furthermore, antimicrobial

stewardship programmes, when implemented alongside infection control measures, have shown to
have a synergistic effect and are therefore recommended for future antimicrobial stewardship
planning [30].

Malignancy is also a widely recognized risk factor for primary and recurrent CDI [31,32]. Chemotherapy, immunosuppression and frequent exposure to broad-spectrum antibiotics, coupled with regular visits to healthcare facilities, are the most probable cause for the increased risk of CDI in this group of patients [33]. In our study, malignancy itself was not found to be an independent risk factor for recurrent CDI, however, oncological patients undergoing chemotherapy treatment presented a significantly higher risk of recurrence probably due to chemotherapy agents altering the normal gut microbiota composition by causing mucosal inflammation, decreasing the repair capacity of the mucosal epithelium or promoting an anaerobic environment which favors CDI [34–37].

The originality of our study lies in its assessment of the risk of recurrence based on the location of the initial infection. Previous hospitalization is a known risk factor for CDI [1], however, recent studies have reported that a substantial proportion of CDI occurs in the community and its incidence has been increasing [38]. Bearing this in mind, our study investigated whether the location of acquisition of the infection was a key factor in the risk of future recurrence in the Catalan population. The results showed that patients who suffered a recurrence were more likely to have attended a healthcare facility in the previous year. This does not mean that patients had acquired the toxigenic CD in a previous facility. It is not proof of acquisition; it only denotes that they were at higher risk. In fact, this association was not confirmed in the multivariate analysis.

Our study has several limitations that warrant mention. Even if this is a multicenter study, all participating hospitals are located in Catalonia (seven and a half million inhabitants) and the results may not be generalizable. As it is an observational study, treatment decisions are made at the discretion of the treating physician and therefore biased selections may be present in relation to the severity of the disease and the use of metronidazole or vancomycin. Importantly, since 2021,

Future Microbiology

metronidazole is only recommended in CDI when the preferred options, fidaxomicin and vancomycin, are not available [16]. Since our study was carried out before this recommendation, 51% of the patients received metronidazole. In addition, when analyzing the impact of the use of different antibiotics in CDI recurrence risk, all antibiotics from the same class were grouped together and no differentiation was made between narrow and broad spectrum antibiotics or different generations within the same class. The sample size does not allow us to identify strong correlations between clinical factors and the risk of recurrence, despite some of them being well known CDI recurrence risk factors. Furthermore cumulative amount of antibiotics as defined daily doses were not compared between patients with and without recurrence. And finally, the results of this study may be affected by the exclusion of deceased patients from this analysis since death is considered a competing risk and its occurrence hinders analysis of the results.

Besides limitations, the results of our study show the importance of CDI surveillance with data collection and analysis to identify infection trends and risk factors for recurrence. Addressing these factors, might be critical to tailor individualized therapy such as vancomycin tapering or monoclonal antibodies against CD toxins that will keep at-risk patients safe.

234 Conclusions

Our prospective observational study has identified several risk factors linked to CDI recurrence in the Catalan population that will increase the awareness of infection prevention and control teams within the participating organizations, so that policies and preventive measures can be optimized, and recurrence rates can be reduced through prevention protocols in these at-risk populations. Further studies with larger sample sizes are required to dispel any uncertainties regarding the role of the different risk factors in the recurrence of CDI in the Catalan population.

5 241

242 Summary Points

Future Microbiology

3 4	243	•	CDI is the main cause of healthcare-related infective diarrhea, as well as often being
5 6	244		associated to community-acquired cases of colitis.
7 8 9	245	•	Up to 15-35% patients experience disease recurrence with a relapse of CDI symptoms within
9 10 11	246		3 months.
12 13	247	•	An extensive range of risk factors that determine CDI recurrence have been described and
14 15	248		identifying the specific ones that are more likely to affect different populations would be
16 17 18	249		useful.
19 20	250	•	Among the patients admitted to the VINCat hospitals in Catalonia, Spain, having received
21 22	251		more than 1 course of antibiotics in the 30 days prior to CDI diagnosis and active
23 24	252		chemotherapy are significant predictors of 90-day CDI recurrence.
25 26 27	253	•	The identification of these 2 risk factors will enable the optimization of preventive measures
28 29	254		in the at-risk populations.
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58	255		
59 60			

1 2 3 4 5 6	256	Ref	erences
7 8	257	Pape	rs of special note have been highlighted as: * of interest; ** of considerable interest.
9 10 11	258	1.	Smits WK, Lyras D, Lacy DB, Wilcox MH, Kuijper EJ. Clostridium difficile infection. Nat. Rev.
12 13	259		Dis. Prim. 2, 1–20 (2016). <mark>https://doi.org/10.1038/nrdp.2016.20</mark>
14 15 16	260	2.	Paredes-Sabja D, Shen A, Sorg JA. Clostridium difficile spore biology: sporulation,
17 18	261		germination, and spore structural proteins. <i>Trends Microbiol</i> . 22(7), 406–16 (2014).
19 20 21	262		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2014.04.003
22 23	263	3.	Cohen SH, Gerding DN, Johnson S, et al. Clinical Practice Guidelines for Clostridium difficile
24 25 26	264		Infection in Adults: 2010 Update by the Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America
27 28	265		(SHEA) and the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA). Infect. Control Hosp. Epidemiol.
29 30	266		31 <mark>(5)</mark> , 431–55 (2010). https://doi.org/10.1086/651706
31 32 33	267	4.	European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Annual Epidemiological Report for 2016
34 35	268		Healthcare-associated infections: Clostridium difficile infections. In: Annual Epidemiological
36 37 38	269		Report on Communicable Diseases in Europe, ECDC, Stockholm (2018).
39 40	270	5.	Singh T, Bedi P, Bumrah K, Singh J, Rai M, Seelam S. Updates in Treatment of Recurrent
41 42 43	271		Clostridium difficile Infection. J. Clin. Med. Res. 11(7), 465–71 (2019).
43 44 45	272		https://doi.org/10.14740/jocmr3854
46 47	273	6.	Kelly CP. Can we identify patients at high risk of recurrent Clostridium difficile infection? Clin.
48 49 50	274		Microbiol. Infect. 18(Suppl 6), 21–27 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1111/1469-0691.12046
51 52 53	275	7.	Bujanda L, Cosme Á. [Clostridium-difficile-associated diarrhea]. Gastroenterol. Hepatol. 32(1),
54 55	276		48–56 (2009). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gastrohep.2008.02.003
56 57 58	277	8.	Debast SB, Bauer MP, Kuijper EJ. European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious
59 60	278		Diseases: Update of the Treatment Guidance Document for Clostridium difficile Infection.

2 3 4	279		Clin. Microbiol. Infect. 20(Suppl 2), 1–26 (2014). <mark>https://doi.org/10.1111/1469-0691.12418</mark>
5 6 7	280	9.	D'Agostino RB, Collins SH, Pencina KM, Kean Y, Gorbach S. Risk Estimation for Recurrent
8 9	281		Clostridium difficile Infection Based on Clinical Factors. Clin. Infect. Dis. 58(10), 1386–93
10 11 12	282		(2014). https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciu107
13 14	283	10.	Gudiol F, Limón E, Fondevilla E, Argimon JM, Almirante B, Pujol M. The development and
15 16	284		successful implementation of the VINCat Program. Enferm. Infecc. Microbiol. Clin. 30(Suppl
17 18 19	285		3), 3–6 (2012). <mark>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0213-005X(12)70089-7</mark>
20 21 22	286	* A d	escription of the nosocomial infection surveillance program that has run the present study
23 24 25	287	11.	Grau S, Hernández S, Limón E, Calbo E, Horcajada JP. Impact of changes in the WHO's 2019
25 26 27	288		update of DDDs on the measurement of adult hospital antibacterial consumption in Catalonia
28 29	289		(Spain), 2008–18. <i>JAC-Antimicrobial Resist</i> . [Internet]. 2(4), dlaa079 (2020) . Available from:
30 31 32	290		https://doi.org/10.1093/jacamr/dlaa079.
33 34	291	12.	Sopena N, Freixas N, Bella F, et al. Impact of a training program on the surveillance of
35 36	292		Clostridioides difficile infection. Epidemiol. Infect. 147, e231 (2019).
37 38 39	293		https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268819001080
40 41 42	294	13.	Mateu L, Fernández-Rivas G, Sopena N. Diagnosis and treatment of Clostridioides difficile
43 44	295		infection. <i>Med. Clin. (Barc).</i> 155(1), 30–35 (2020).
45 46	296		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.medcli.2020.02.005
47 48 49	297	** Re	ecent Spanish review on the diagnosis and treatment of <i>C. difficile</i> infection.
50 51 52	298	14.	Lee HS, Plechot K, Gohil S, Le J. Clostridium difficile: Diagnosis and the Consequence of Over
52 53 54	299		Diagnosis. <i>Infect. Dis. Ther.</i> 10(2), 687 (2021). <mark>https://doi.org/10.1007/s40121-021-00417-7</mark>
55 56 57	300	15.	Crobach MJT, Planche T, Eckert C, et al. European Society of Clinical Microbiology and
58 59 60	301		Infectious Diseases: update of the diagnostic guidance document for Clostridium difficile

1 2	
3 4 302	infection. <i>Clin. Microbiol. Infect.</i> 22- <mark>(Suppl 4)</mark> , S63–S81 (2016).
5 6 303 7	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2016.03.010
8 9 304	* European guidance for the diagnosis of <i>C. difficile</i> infection
10 11 305 12	16. van Prehn J, Reigadas E, Vogelzang EH, <i>et al.</i> European Society of Clinical Microbiology and
13 14 306	Infectious Diseases: 2021 update on the treatment guidance document for Clostridioides
15 16 307	difficile infection in adults. <i>Clin. Microbiol. Infect.</i> 27-[Suppl 2], S1–S21 (2021).
17 18 308 19	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2021.09.038
20 21 309 22	** Latest European guidance on the treatment of <i>C. difficile</i> infection. Provides definitions of
23 310 24	recurrence and cure.
25 26 311 27	17. Rodríguez-Pardo D, Almirante B, Bartolomé RM, et al. Epidemiology of clostridium difficile
28 29 312	infection and risk factors for unfavorable clinical outcomes: Results of a hospital-based study
80 81 313	in Barcelona, Spain. J. Clin. Microbiol. 51(5), 1465–1473 (2013).
32 33 314 34	https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.03352-12
35 36 315 37	* A previous study on risk factors for C. difficile infection in one hospital in Catalonia
38 39 316	18. Davies K, Lawrence J, Berry C, et al. Risk Factors for Primary Clostridium difficile Infection;
40 41 317	Results From the Observational Study of Risk Factors for Clostridium difficile Infection in
42 43 318 44	Hospitalized Patients With Infective Diarrhea (ORCHID). Front. public Heal. 8, Article 293
15 319 16	(2020). <mark>https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2020.00293</mark>
17 18 320 19	19. Welfare MR, Lalayiannis LC, Martin KE, Corbett S, Marshall B, Sarma JB. Co-morbidities as
50 51 321	predictors of mortality in Clostridium difficile infection and derivation of the ARC predictive
52 53 322 54	score. <i>J. Hosp. Infect.</i> 79 <mark>(4)</mark> , 359–63 (2011). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2011.08.015
5 6 323	20. Hu MY, Katchar K, Kyne L, <i>et al</i> . Prospective Derivation and Validation of a Clinical Prediction
57 58 324	Rule for Recurrent Clostridium difficile Infection. <i>Gastroenterology</i> . 136(4), 1206–14 (2009).
59 50 325	https://doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2008.12.038
	15

2			
3 4	326	21.	Garey KW, Sethi S, Yadav Y, DuPont HL. Meta-analysis to assess risk factors for recurrent
5 6	327		Clostridium difficile infection. J. Hosp. Infect. 70[4], 298–304 (2008).
7 8 9	328		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2008.08.012
10 11	329	22.	Chakra CNA, Pepin J, Valiquette L. Prediction Tools for Unfavourable Outcomes in Clostridium
12 13	330		difficile Infection: A Systematic Review. <i>PLoS One</i> . 7(1), e30258 (2012).
14 15 16	331		https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0030258
17 18 19	332	23.	Eyre DW, Walker AS, Wyllie D, et al. Predictors of First Recurrence of Clostridium difficile
20 21	333		Infection: Implications for Initial Management. Clin. Infect. Dis. An Off. Publ. Infect. Dis. Soc.
22 23 24	334		Am. 55(Suppl 2), S77-87 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cis356
25 26	335	24.	Pépin J, Valiquette L, Cossette B. Mortality attributable to nosocomial Clostridium difficile–
27 28	336		associated disease during an epidemic caused by a hypervirulent strain in Quebec. C. Can.
29 30 31	337		Med. Assoc. J. 173(9), 1037–42 (2005). https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.050978
32 33 34	338	25.	Tawam D, Baladi M, Jungsuwadee P, Earl G, Han J. The Positive Association between Proton
35 36	339		Pump Inhibitors and Clostridium Difficile Infection. Inov. Pharm. 12(1) (2021).
37 38 39	340		https://doi.org/10.24926/iip.v12i1.3439
40 41	341	26.	Webb BJ, Subramanian A, Lopansri B, et al. Antibiotic Exposure and Risk for Hospital-
42 43	342		Associated Clostridioides difficile Infection. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 64(4) (2020).
44 45 46	343		https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02169-19
47 48	344	27.	Karaoui WR, Rustom LBO, Bou Daher H, et al. Incidence, outcome, and risk factors for
49 50	345		recurrence of nosocomial Clostridioides difficile infection in adults: A prospective cohort
51 52 53	346		study. <i>J. Infect. Public Health-<mark>[Internet]</mark>.</i> 13(4), 485–490 (2020). Available from:
54 55	347		https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31838001/. <mark>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2019.11.005</mark>
56 57 58	348	28.	Song JH, Kim YS. Recurrent Clostridium difficile Infection: Risk Factors, Treatment, and
59 60	349		Prevention. <i>Gut Liver</i> . 13(1), 16 (2019). https://doi.org/10.5009/gnl18071
	1		

1 2			
3 4	350	29.	Feazel LM, Malhotra A, Perencevich EN, Kaboli P, Diekema DJ, Schweizer ML. Effect of
5 6	351		antibiotic stewardship programmes on Clostridium difficile incidence: a systematic review
7 8 9 10 11 12	352		and meta-analysis. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 69(7), 1748–1754 (2014).
	353		https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dku046
12 13 14	354	30.	Baur D, Gladstone BP, Burkert F, et al. Effect of antibiotic stewardship on the incidence of
15 16	355		infection and colonisation with antibiotic-resistant bacteria and Clostridium difficile infection:
17 18	356		a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet. Infect. Dis. 17(9), 990–1001 (2017).
19 20	357		https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(17)30325-0
21 22	358	31.	Kamboj M, Son C, Cantu S, <i>et al.</i> Hospital-Onset Clostridium difficile Infection Rates in Persons
23 24 25	359		with Cancer or Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplant: A C3IC Network Report. Infect. Control
26 27	360		Hosp. Epidemiol. 33(11), 1162–5 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1086/668023
28 29			
30 31	361	32.	Delgado A, Reveles IA, Cabello FT, Reveles KR. Poorer outcomes among cancer patients
32 33	362		diagnosed with Clostridium difficile infections in United States community hospitals. BMC
34 35 36	363		Infect. Dis. 17, 448 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-017-2553-z
30 37 38	364	33.	Cornely OA, Mullane KM, Birch T, et al. Exploratory Evaluation of Bezlotoxumab on Outcomes
39 40	365		Associated With Clostridioides difficile Infection in MODIFY I/II Participants With Cancer.
41 42	366		Open Forum Infect. Dis. 7 <mark>(2)</mark> , ofaa038 (2020). https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofaa038
43 44 45	367	34.	Dutta D, Lim SH. Bidirectional interaction between intestinal microbiome and cancer:
46 47	368		opportunities for therapeutic interventions. <i>Biomark. Res.</i> 8(1), Article 31 (2020).
48 49 50	369		https://doi.org/10.1186/s40364-020-00211-6
51 52	370	35.	Khan A, Raza S, A. Batul S, et al. The Evolution of Clostridium difficile Infection in Cancer
53 54 55	371		Patients: Epidemiology, Pathophysiology, and Guidelines for Prevention and Management.
55 56 57	372		Recent Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov. 7 <mark>(2)</mark> , 157–70 (2012).
58 59	373		https://dx.doi.org/10.2174/157489112801619674
60			

3 4	374	36.	Chung MS, Kim J, Kang JO, Pai H. Impact of malignancy on Clostridium difficile infection. Eur.
5 6	375		J. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis. 2016 3511. 35(11), 1771–6 (2016).
7 8 9	376		https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-016-2725-6
10 11 12	377	37.	Anand A, Glatt AE. Clostridium difficile Infection Associated with Antineoplastic
13 14	378		Chemotherapy: A Review. Clin. Infect. Dis. 17[1], 109–13 (1993).
15 16 17	379		https://doi.org/10.1093/clinids/17.1.109
17 18 19	380	38.	Lee E, Song K-H, Bae JY, et al. Risk factors for poor outcome in community-onset Clostridium
20 21	381		difficile infection. Antimicrob. Resist. Infect. Control. 7, Article 75 (2018).
22 23 24	382		https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-018-0365-6
25 26 27	383		
28 29 30	384		
31 32 33			
34 35			
36 37 38			
39 40 41			
42 43			
44 45			
46 47			
48 49			
50 51			
52 53			
54 55			
56 57			
58 59			
60			

1 Risk of *Clostridioides difficile* infection recurrence in the VINCat hospitals: a prospective

2 observational cohort study

3 Table 1. Baseline demographic and epidemiological characteristics of adult inpatients with CDI.

Demographic variables	Total N=558	Resolved CDI N=492	Recurring CDI N=66	P value
Age >65	351 (62.9%)	302 (61.4%)	49 (74.2%)	0.000
Gender (Male)	256 (45.9%)	222 (45.1%)	34 (51.5%)	0.121
Comorbidity factors				
Diabetes Mellitus	142 (25.4%)	123 (25%)	19 (28.8%)	0.398
Renal replacement therapy	22 (3.9%)	17 (3.5%)	5 (7.6%)	0.578
Inflammatory Bowel Disease	31 (5.5%)	25 (2.5%)	6 (9.1%)	0.310
HIV infection	6 (1.1%)	5 (1%)	1 (1.5%)	0.705
Solid organ transplant	17 (3%)	16 (3.3%)	1 (1.5%)	0.492
Oncological disease	93 (16.7%)	77 (15.7%)	16 (24.2%)	0.005
Active chemotherapy	48 (8.6%)	36 (7.3%)	12 (18.2%)	0.010
Immunosuppressive therapy#	51 (9.1%)	46 (9.3%)	5 (7.6%)	0.891
Previous Antibiotic administration*	372 (66.7%)	320 (65%)	52 (78.8%)	0.070
Penicillins	193 (34.6%)	166 (33.7%)	27 (40.9%)	0.250
Cephalosporins	116 (20.8%)	93 (18.9%)	23 (34.8%)	0.003
Quinolones	113 (19.7%)	89 (18.1%)	21 (31.8%)	0.008
Carbapenems	69 (12.4%)	57 (11.6%)	12 (18.2%)	0.126
>1 previous antibiotic (N=372 patients)	184 (49.5%)	146 (45.6%)	38 (73.1%)	<0.001
Etiological variables				
Acquisition				
НСА	158 (28.3%)	131 (26.6%)	27 (40.9%)	0.009
НА	230 (41.2%)	206 (41.9%)	24 (36.4%)	0.301
CA	<u>160</u> <u>170</u>	155 (31.5%)	15 (22.7%)	0.001
	(28.7<u>30.5</u>%)			
PAHCF in the last year	285 (51%)	241 (49%)	44 (66.7%)	0.000
Severity level			1	1
ICU	30 (5.4%)	30 (6.1%)	0%	0.125
Antibiotics treatment			1	I
Metronidazole	285 (51%)	245 (49.8%)	40 (60.6%)	0.095
Vancomycin	198 (35.5%)	174 (35.4%)	24 (36.4%)	0.937

Antibiotic treatment (Not for CDI)	262 (47.0%)	226 (45.9%)	36 (54.5%)	0.188
Cephalosporins	99 (17.7%)	86 (17.5%)	13 (19.7%)	0.658
Penicillins	95 (17.0%)	83 (16.9%)	12 (18.2%)	0.790
Quinolones	78 (14.0%)	70 (14.2%)	8 (12.1%)	0.643
Carbapenems	77 (13.8%)	65 (13.2%)	12 (18.2%)	0.272
>1 antibiotic (N=262 patients)	135 (51.5%)	116 (51.3%)	19 (52.8%)	0.872
Proton pump inhibitors	378 (67.7%)	326 (66.9%)	49 (74.2%)	0.229

CA: community acquired; CDI: *Clostridioides difficile* infection; HA: hospital acquired; HCA: healthcare associated; HIV: human immunodeficiency virus; ICU: intensive care unit; PAHCF: previous admission to a healthcare facility

*Previous antibiotic administration is defined as the administration of antibiotic treatment for >48h during the 30 days prior to CDI diagnosis

for the purposes of this study the term immunosuppressive therapy includes being on chemotherapy for cancer, being within one year out from receiving a hematopoietic stem cell or solid organ transplant, untreated HIV infection with CD4 T lymphocyte count < 200, combined primary immunodeficiency disorder, and receiving >20mg/day prednisolone for more than 14 days.

https://mc04.manuscriptcentral.com/fm-fmb

1 Risk of *Clostridioides difficile* infection recurrence in the VINCat hospitals: a prospective

2 observational cohort study

3 Table 2. CDI treatment and other treatments during CDI and the follow-up period

Treatment	Total	Resolved CDI	Recurring CDI	P value
	N=558	N=492	N=66	
Antibiotics treatment				
Metronidazole	285 (51%)	245 (49.8%)	40 (60.6%)	0.095
Vancomycin	198 (35.5%)	174 (35.4%)	24 (36.4%)	0.937
Other treatments during CDI and the f	ollow-up period	1		I
Antibiotic treatment (Not for CDI)	262 (47.0%)	226 (45.9%)	36 (54.5%)	0.188
Cephalosporins	99 (17.7%)	86 (17.5%)	13 (19.7%)	0.658
Penicillins	95 (17.0%)	83 (16.9%)	12 (18.2%)	0.790
Quinolones	78 (14.0%)	70 (14.2%)	8 (12.1%)	0.643
Carbapenems	77 (13.8%)	65 (13.2%)	12 (18.2%)	0.272
>1 antibiotic (N=262 patients)	135 (51.5%)	116 (51.3%)	19 (52.8%)	0.872
Proton pump inhibitors	378 (67.7%)	326 (66.9%)	49 (74.2%)	0.229

CA: community acquired; CDI: *Clostridioides difficile* infection; HA: hospital acquired; HCA: healthcare associated; HIV: human immunodeficiency virus; ICU: intensive care unit; PAHCF: previous admission to a healthcare facility

*Previous antibiotic administration is defined as the administration of antibiotic treatment for >48h during the 30 days prior to CDI diagnosis # For the purposes of this study the term immunosuppressive therapy includes being on chemotherapy for cancer, being within one year out from receiving a hematopoietic stem cell or solid organ transplant, untreated HIV infection with CD4 T lymphocyte count < 200, combined primary immunodeficiency disorder, and receiving >20mg/day prednisolone for more than 14 days.

1 Title: Risk of *Clostridioides difficile* infection recurrence in the VINCat hospitals: a 2 prospective observational cohort study

4 Table 3. Multivariate analysis of the risk factors associated with 90-day CDI recurrence.

Variables	OR	95% CI	p-value
Age>65	2.024	0.996;4.11	0.051
Oncological disease	0.602	0.225;1.609	0.312
Active chemotherapy	4.859	1.495;15.792	0.009
Previous Cephalosporins administration	1.568	0.815;3.018	0.178
Previous Quinolone administration	1.512	0.769;2.974	0.230
>1 Previous antibiotic	2.459	1.195;5.060	0.015
PAHCF in the last year	0.487	0.220;1.080	0.077
НСА	1.308	0.630;2.716	0.472
CA	1.031	0.420;2.530	0.947
CA: community acquired; CI: cor to a healthcare facility within th		care associated; OR: odds ratio	o; PAHCF: previous admission