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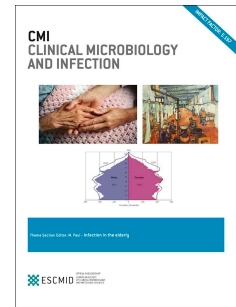


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The *ClosER* Study: results from a three-year pan-European longitudinal surveillance of antibiotic resistance among prevalent *Clostridium difficile* ribotypes, 2011–2014

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1 **The ClosER Study: results from a three-year pan-European longitudinal surveillance**
2 **of antibiotic resistance among prevalent *Clostridium difficile* ribotypes, 2011–2014**

3

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43

44 **ABSTRACT**

45 **Objectives:** Until the introduction of fidaxomicin, antimicrobial treatment for *Clostridium*
46 *difficile* infection (CDI) was limited to metronidazole and vancomycin. The changing
47 epidemiology of CDI and emergence of epidemic *C. difficile* PCR ribotype 027 necessitates
48 continued surveillance to identify shifts in antibiotic susceptibility. ClosER, currently the
49 largest pan-European epidemiological study of *C. difficile* ribotype distribution and antibiotic
50 susceptibility, aimed to undertake antimicrobial resistance surveillance pre- and post-
51 introduction of fidaxomicin.

52 **Methods:** Between July 2011 and July 2014, 39 sites across 22 European countries
53 submitted 2830 *C. difficile* isolates for ribotyping, toxin testing and susceptibility testing to
54 metronidazole, vancomycin, fidaxomicin, rifampicin, moxifloxacin, clindamycin, imipenem,
55 chloramphenicol and tigecycline.

56 **Results:** Ribotypes 027, 014, 001, 078, 020, 002, 126, 015 and 005 were most frequently
57 isolated, while emergent ribotypes 198 and 356 were identified in Hungary and Italy,
58 respectively. All isolates were susceptible to fidaxomicin, with scarce resistance to
59 metronidazole (0.2% [$n=6/2694$]), vancomycin (0.1% [$n=2/2694$]) and tigecycline (0%).
60 Rifampicin, moxifloxacin and clindamycin resistance was evident in multiple ribotypes. Lack
61 of ribotype diversity correlated with greater antimicrobial resistance. Epidemic ribotypes
62 (027/001) were associated with multiple antimicrobial resistance, and ribotypes 017, 018 and
63 356 with high-level resistance. Additional factors may also influence local ribotype
64 prevalence.

65 **Conclusions:** Fidaxomicin susceptibility was retained post-introduction, and resistance to
66 metronidazole and vancomycin was rare. Continued surveillance is needed, with more
67 accurate classification and clarification of ribotype subtypes to further understand their role in
68 the spread of resistance. Other factors may also influence changes in prevalence of *C.*
69 *difficile* ribotypes with reduced antibiotic susceptibility.

70

71 **Introduction**

72 *Clostridium difficile* infection (CDI) is a major cause of nosocomial diarrhoea and a problem
73 in healthcare environments and the community, causing significant morbidity and mortality
74 worldwide [1]. So-called 'hypervirulent' strains, such as those belonging to polymerase chain
75 reaction (PCR) ribotype (RT) 027 [2,3], are increasingly represented among clinical isolates,
76 and the incidence and severity of CDI is rising [4]. A recent report on antimicrobial resistance
77 cites *C. difficile* as a microorganism with an urgent threat level [5].

78 Vancomycin and metronidazole are commonly used treatments for CDI. Fidaxomicin, a
79 macrocyclic antimicrobial with potent anti-*C. difficile* activity, was introduced to the European
80 market in 2011 for the treatment of CDI. European marketing authorisation for fidaxomicin
81 included a commitment to undertake antimicrobial resistance surveillance pre- and post-
82 introduction. The three-year *ClosER* (*Clostridium difficile* European Resistance) *in vitro*
83 surveillance study aimed to: identify and monitor longitudinal susceptibility of
84 contemporaneous *C. difficile* clinical isolates to antibiotics used for CDI treatment and those
85 implicated in selection pressure; establish a comprehensive susceptibility database baseline
86 for ongoing surveillance; and provide data on geographical distribution of clinical *C. difficile*
87 strain types with analysis by region across Europe [6].

88 Presented here are final epidemiological and antimicrobial susceptibility data for *C. difficile*
89 isolates collected over the three-year study period: pre-fidaxomicin introduction (July 2011–
90 June 2012), and post-fidaxomicin introduction (July 2012–July 2014). Preliminary first-year
91 data (pre-fidaxomicin introduction) are described elsewhere [6], but are updated here to
92 include further results from sites/submissions for that period which were previously
93 unavailable.

94

95 **Methods**

96 *Study design*

97 The study design of *ClosER* has been described in full elsewhere [6]. Briefly, 41 sites from
98 28 European countries participated and were asked to submit 25 *C. difficile* isolates or toxin-
99 positive faecal samples from de-duplicated CDI cases each year. No further stipulations
100 were made regarding selection of isolates/samples. Centres were mainly national or regional
101 *C. difficile* referral laboratories selected using the European Study Group on *C. difficile*
102 (ESGCD) network, and with ESGCD approval.

103 Isolates or faecal samples were submitted to a central laboratory (in Leeds, UK) for *C.*
104 *difficile* culture, PCR ribotyping, determination of toxin status by cell culture cytotoxicity
105 assay, and susceptibility to metronidazole, vancomycin, rifampicin, fidaxomicin, imipenem,
106 moxifloxacin, clindamycin, chloramphenicol and tigecycline.

107

108 *Culture and toxin testing*

109 Alcohol-shocked faecal specimens/*C. difficile* isolates were inoculated on to cycloserine-
110 cefoxitin-egg-yolk agar (Lab M, Heywood, Lancashire, UK) with lysozyme and cultured
111 anaerobically for 48 hours at 37°C. Forty-eight-hour anaerobic brain–heart infusion broth
112 culture supernatants of each test isolate were added to a Vero cell culture cytotoxicity assay
113 with *Clostridium sordellii* antitoxin (Pro-Lab Diagnostics, Bromborough, UK) neutralisation.

114

115 *Ribotyping*

116 PCR ribotyping, using capillary electrophoresis, was performed on each isolate by the *C.*
117 *difficile* Ribotyping Network Reference Laboratory at Leeds Teaching Hospitals Trust, Leeds,
118 UK [7]. Ribotypes were assigned against the UK *C. difficile* reference library at Leeds.

119

120 *Antimicrobial susceptibility testing*

121 Susceptibility of isolates (minimum inhibitory concentrations [MICs]) to metronidazole,
122 vancomycin, rifampicin, chloramphenicol (Sigma), moxifloxacin (Bayer), clindamycin,
123 tigecycline (Pfizer), imipenem (MSD) and fidaxomicin (Astellas) were determined using a
124 Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute agar incorporation method with Wilkins–Chalgren
125 agar [6,8,9] and breakpoints, as previously described [6].

126

127 *Cumulative resistance scores*

128 MIC results for each isolate were designated susceptible (S), intermediately resistant (I) or
129 fully resistant (R), according to breakpoints, and assigned a score (S=0, I=1 and R=2). A
130 cumulative resistance score (CRS) based on susceptibility to each of the nine antimicrobials
131 tested was then generated for each isolate. Thus, an isolate that was fully susceptible to
132 four, intermediately resistant to two, and resistant to three antimicrobials would generate a
133 CRS of 8 (0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 2 + 2). Isolates were grouped by country, and mean
134 CRSs were generated for each country over the three years.

135

136 **Results**

137 Over three years, 2830 samples/isolates (from 39 sites in 22 countries) were submitted to
138 the central laboratory for testing, yielding 2694 *C. difficile* isolates (95.3%). Of these, 95.6%
139 ($n=2577$) were toxin-positive.

140

141 *PCR ribotyping*

142 In Year 1, 114 known PCR RTs were isolated from samples; in Year 2, 144; and in Year 3,
143 120. The most commonly isolated European RT was RT027, which accounted for: 12.2%
144 ($n=115/943$) in Year 1; 11.8% ($n=112/948$) in Year 2; and 12.6% ($n=101/804$) in Year 3. The
145 prevalence of other RTs is presented in Table 1.

146 RT prevalence differed by region, with certain countries exhibiting highly predominant RTs,
147 and others showing a diverse range of RTs (Fig. 1a–c). RT027 was particularly associated
148 with Denmark, Hungary, Italy and Poland; RTs 018 and 078 with Italy; RTs 176 and 017 with
149 the Czech Republic; and a high prevalence of RT001 with Latvia and Slovakia.

150 Emergent RTs 198 and 356 were also evident, and exclusive to Hungary and Italy,
151 respectively (Fig. 1a–c).

152 RT diversity scores were calculated for each country (total number of RTs detected in that
153 country divided by the number of isolates tested from that country). Scores closest to 1 and
154 0 indicated the greatest and least diversity of RTs, respectively. Belgium submitted the
155 greatest diversity of RTs in Years 1 and 2, with scores of 0.96 and 0.80, respectively.

156

157 *Antimicrobial susceptibility*

158 All isolates were susceptible to fidaxomicin, with geometric mean MICs of 0.04–0.05 mg/L
159 (Table 2a), and a normal unimodal distribution for all study years (Fig. 2). Among prevalent
160 RTs, only RT027 and RT198 showed evidence of increased geometric mean MICs: in Years
161 1–3, from 0.04 to 0.08 mg/L for RT027; and from 0.04 to 0.10 mg/L for RT198 (Table 3).

162 Metronidazole, vancomycin and tigecycline were active against 97.9% ($n=2692/2698$),
163 98.6% ($n=2659/2698$) and 100.0%, respectively, of isolates tested. There was little variation
164 in sensitive, intermediate and resistant isolates collected across Europe during Years 1–3
165 (Table 2b). Reduced metronidazole susceptibility was mainly observed for RT027 and
166 RT198, and is reflected in higher geometric mean metronidazole MICs (Table 3).

167 Higher geometric mean vancomycin MICs were observed for RT018 (2.00 mg/L) and RT356
168 (2.28 mg/L, Year 1 only) (Table 3). No particular RTs were associated with vancomycin
169 resistance.

170 The proportion of isolates showing rifampicin resistance was similar in Years 1 and 2, with a
171 slight reduction in Year 3 (Table 2b). Rifampicin resistance was notable in Hungary (38.7–
172 56.6% [$n=29/75$ – $43/76$]), Italy (36.6–47.0% [$n=34/93$ – $39/83$]) and the Czech Republic
173 (40.0–64.0% [$n=10/25$ – $14/22$]). Rifampicin resistance in Denmark decreased from 40.9%
174 ($n=9/22$) in Year 1, to 18.2% ($n=4/22$) by Year 3, due to a decrease in the number of RT027
175 isolates. In Poland, rifampicin resistance was low in Year 1 (5.0% [$n=1/20$]), but rates
176 increased in Years 2 and 3 (37.9% [$n=11/29$] and 44.0% [$n=11/25$], respectively). Rifampicin
177 resistance was evident in multiple RTs, notably in RT027, RT001, RT018, RT356, RT017,
178 RT176 and RT198 (Table 3).

179 Moxifloxacin and clindamycin resistance was widespread, particularly among some of the
180 more prevalent RTs (Table 3). Moxifloxacin resistance decreased over Years 1–3 from
181 39.5% ($n=372/943$) to 33.5% ($n=269/803$). Clindamycin resistance increased from 49.8%
182 ($n=470/943$) to 64.3% ($n=516/803$) (Table 2b), but showed variations in the proportion of
183 resistant isolates from the same country, possibly due to fluctuations in individual RT
184 prevalence.

185 The majority of isolates were sensitive to imipenem (Table 2b). Geometric mean MICs were
186 marginally higher for RT027 and RT198 than for most other RTs during the study period
187 (Table 3). During Years 2 and 3, there was evidence of decreasing imipenem susceptibility
188 to RT017 (geometric mean MIC: 9.8 mg/L and 10.6 mg/L, respectively) (Table 3). Most
189 isolates were susceptible to chloramphenicol (Table 2b). For RT017, geometric mean MICs
190 increased from 7.66 mg/L (Year 1) to 14.59 mg/L (Year 3) (Table 3). Reduced susceptibility
191 to tigecycline (>0.25 mg/L) was scarce; geometric mean MICs were marginally raised for
192 RT012 in Years 1 and 2 (Table 3).

193

194 *Multiple antimicrobial resistance*

195 During the study, antimicrobial resistance to three or more antibiotics was evident for RTs
196 001, 106, 018, 356 and 012. RTs 027, 017 and 198 showed resistance to five or more
197 antibiotics, including metronidazole, rifampicin, moxifloxacin, clindamycin, imipenem and
198 chloramphenicol (Table 3).

199

200 *Antimicrobial susceptibility by country* (Fig. S1a,b,c)

201 Poland, Latvia, the Czech Republic and Hungary had consistently high CRSs in all three
202 years. Cyprus also showed a high CRS in Year 1, associated with a high prevalence of
203 RT027; however, scores decreased consistently in subsequent years despite the continued
204 high prevalence of RT027. This was due to decreasing resistance of RT027 isolates over the
205 three years. Sweden consistently had the lowest CRSs in all years (0.88, 0.52 and 1.16).

206 There was a significant inverse correlation between the number of RTs identified in a locality
207 and the mean CRS (Pearson correlation Year 1, $r=-0.55$, $p=0.0095$; Year 2, $r=-0.59$,
208 $p=0.003$; Year 3, $r=0.47$, $p=0.03$). This indicated lower antimicrobial resistance levels in
209 countries with a greater diversity of *C. difficile* RTs.

210

211 **Discussion**

212 This is the largest pan-European study of *C. difficile* RT and antibiotic susceptibility
213 epidemiology to date. Surveillance of over 2800 isolates from 22 European countries
214 showed a diverse array of 144 RTs. The most commonly isolated RTs were broadly similar
215 to those already reported [4,10]. Previously described epidemic or highly prevalent RTs
216 (014/20, 027, 001/072 and 078) [6,10,11] were similar, but inter-country variations were

217 apparent in the relative prevalence of particular strains. This is consistent with the endemic
218 and epidemic spread of *C. difficile* previously documented [10–12].

219 Compared with the most recent surveillance results from EUCLID (a European, multicentre,
220 prospective, biannual, point-prevalence study of CDI in hospitalised patients with diarrhoea),
221 in which the incidence of RT027 was 19% among 1196 *C. difficile* isolates tested [4], our
222 study found a lower incidence (11.8–12.6%) for this RT. This variability may result from the
223 greater number of isolates tested in our study, leading to different levels of prevalence for
224 each RT. Our study also demonstrated that RTs reported previously as highly prevalent
225 (RT001 in Latvia and Slovakia, RT027 in Poland and Hungary, and RT017 and RT176 in the
226 Czech Republic) remained so in those countries.

227 The emergence of RT356 in Italy in Year 1, with its accompanying high levels of
228 antimicrobial resistance, has been described [6,13] (24th European Congress of Clinical
229 Microbiology and Infectious Diseases [ECCMID], abstract R483). PCR banding profiles of
230 RT018 and RT356 are closely related (94% similarity) and genome sequencing of these
231 isolates may inform both strain provenance and resistance development [6]. As reported
232 previously [6], methodological advances have allowed greater RT discrimination, which
233 improves understanding of local fluctuations and highlights the need for a consensus on RT
234 nomenclature.

235 Consistent with previously reported good activity (range 0.007–1.000 mg/L) [14], fidaxomicin
236 was the most widely active CDI treatment in this study, with no clear evidence of reduced
237 susceptibility or resistance. There was scant evidence of decreased susceptibility to
238 fidaxomicin from Year 1 (pre-fidaxomicin introduction) through Years 2 and 3 (post-
239 fidaxomicin introduction). Similarly, a recent US National Sentinel Surveillance Study
240 reported no change in fidaxomicin activity against *C. difficile* ($n=925$ isolates) over 12
241 months following fidaxomicin introduction [15].

242 It has been suggested that so-called 'hypervirulent' *C. difficile* strains (including RT027) may
243 be less susceptible to fidaxomicin than other RTs [14]. Only small differences in fidaxomicin
244 susceptibility were observed between RTs in our study. Notably, the increase in geometric
245 mean fidaxomicin MICs for RT027 was merely 0.04 mg/L over three years. The significance
246 of this observation is questionable, particularly in the context of high faecal fidaxomicin
247 concentrations during therapy (>1000 µg/g), which are >5000-fold higher than the MIC₉₀
248 [16].

249 Reduced metronidazole susceptibility was uncommon across all years, and most evident
250 among RT027 and RT198, as previously described [17] (25th European Congress of Clinical
251 Microbiology and Infectious Diseases [ECCMID], abstract EV0260). RT198 and RT027 are
252 closely related [18]; it is therefore possible that a mechanistic similarity between the two RT
253 subtype influences reduced metronidazole susceptibility. Continued surveillance is
254 necessary to increase knowledge about emerging RTs with genomic similarities to highly
255 virulent and dynamic strains.

256 Vancomycin resistance was scarce and not consistently RT-associated. Again, the clinical
257 significance of higher vancomycin MICs is unclear in the light of high gut vancomycin
258 concentrations *in vivo* [19].

259 Our study confirms previously reported associations between prevalent RTs (e.g. RT027 and
260 RT001) and resistance to moxifloxacin, clindamycin and chloramphenicol [12,20], with some
261 evidence of location clustering (chloramphenicol-resistant RT001 in Germany, The
262 Netherlands and Latvia). To date, imipenem resistance has not been well-documented in *C.*
263 *difficile*, but intermediate and complete resistance was evident throughout our study,
264 particularly in RTs 027,198 and 017.

265 This study underlines the association of well-known epidemic RTs 027 and 001 with multiple
266 antimicrobial resistance, and highlights the association and emergence of other RTs (017,
267 018, 198, 356) with high levels of resistance, as previously described [6]. Increasing multiple

268 antimicrobial resistance was observed in RT198 in Hungary, RT027 in Italy, and RT017 in
269 the Czech Republic, indicating a potential role for local antimicrobial prescribing as a
270 selection pressure.

271 RT027 remained prevalent in Cyprus and became progressively less resistant to some
272 antimicrobials, but retained high levels of fluoroquinolone resistance. Recent evidence
273 suggests that resistance to macrolide–lincosamide–streptogramin antibiotics may confer a
274 fitness cost to *C. difficile*, while others, e.g. fluoroquinolone resistance, do not [21,22].
275 Fluoroquinolone resistance may therefore be maintained even in the absence of
276 fluoroquinolone pressure. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control data show
277 that both fluoroquinolone and macrolide–lincosamide–streptogramin antibiotic consumption
278 in Cyprus decreased to their lowest levels in eight years [23]. This may indicate that
279 antimicrobial pressure is only part of the picture and other factors influence the emergence
280 and decline in prevalence of *C. difficile* RTs.

281 There was a consistent, significant inverse correlation between the number of RTs identified
282 in a locality and the mean CRSs, indicating lower antimicrobial resistance levels among
283 countries with a greater diversity of *C. difficile* RTs. This may be because of the introduction
284 of mandatory reporting programmes, with consequent increased awareness, antimicrobial
285 stewardship and infection control interventions decreasing the rates of endemic RTs.
286 Interestingly, the UK had a low mean CRS and a low RT diversity score, possibly due to the
287 large denominator sample size ($n=123-150$ isolates), which also included the greatest
288 number of RTs from a single country.

289 Selection bias may also be possible, as we requested only 25 patient de-duplicated, toxin-
290 positive faecal samples (or *C. difficile* isolates) collected during each study period, but made
291 no further stipulations. Participating centres were predominantly national or regional *C.*
292 *difficile* reference facilities and therefore some submissions likely included outbreak strains,
293 possibly influencing the data. In addition, there is inherent sensitivity loss in gathering

294 international epidemiological surveillance data. However, the similarity of the predominant
295 RTs between this study and that of Bauer et al. [10], plus the continued presence of
296 antimicrobial resistance phenotypes among certain prevalent RTs, indicate a degree of
297 confidence [3].

298 In conclusion, our study highlights the epidemiological and antimicrobial findings for *C.*
299 *difficile* isolates collected pre- and post-fidaxomicin introduction across Europe. It highlights
300 the high level of retained susceptibility to fidaxomicin across Europe two years post-
301 introduction, and the rarity of resistance to metronidazole and vancomycin. It also reinforces
302 the potential impact of 'hypervirulent' strains of *C. difficile*, such as RT027 and RT001, and
303 emerging RTs (198, 356) on geographical resistance patterns, supporting the hypothesis
304 that increased awareness, infection control and antimicrobial stewardship may result in
305 increased RT diversity and reduced antimicrobial resistance. Ultimately, this study highlights
306 the need for continued surveillance to further understand how the epidemiological landscape
307 may be affected by the introduction of novel antimicrobial agents against CDI.

308

309 Authors' contributions and declaration

310 The material is original and has not been submitted elsewhere.

311 All primary authors have made substantive intellectual contributions to the manuscript,
312 approved the final version for submission, and are able to account for its content.

313 The participants of the Study Group submitted *C. difficile* isolates or toxin-positive faecal
314 samples for testing.

315 All applicable parts of the STROBE guidelines were followed in the reporting of this study.

316

317 Transparency declaration

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355 **References**

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- 437

438 **Tables**

439

440 **Table 1**

441 Percentage prevalence ($\geq 1\%$) of *Clostridium difficile* PCR ribotypes in the 3 years from July
 442 2011 to July 2014 of the ClosER study

443

Year 1 (n=943)			Year 2 (n=948)			Year 3 (n=804)		
Ribotype	n	% prevalence	Ribotype	n	% prevalence	Ribotype	n	% prevalence
027	115	12.2	027	112	11.8	027	101	12.6
001	86	9.1	014	89	9.4	014	85	10.6
078	76	8.1	001	77	8.1	001	63	7.8
014	74	7.8	002	53	5.6	020	44	5.5
020	38	4.0	078	53	5.6	078	43	5.4
126	35	3.7	020	49	5.2	126	41	5.1
002	34	3.6	005	31	3.3	002	35	4.4
015	32	3.4	015	31	3.3	005	31	3.9
005	31	3.3	126	31	3.3	015	22	2.7
106	24	2.5	018	28	3.0	046	19	2.4
023	23	2.4	023	20	2.1	106	18	2.2
018	21	2.2	017	18	1.9	017	15	1.9
356	21	2.2	046	17	1.8	176	13	1.6
012	19	2.0	012	14	1.5	018	12	1.5
011	16	1.7	198	14	1.5	003	11	1.4

017	16	1.7	106	13	1.4	010	11	1.4
046	15	1.6	056	11	1.2	081	11	1.4
087	15	1.6	029	10	1.1	011	10	1.2
056	11	1.2	039	10	1.1	023	10	1.2
			081	10	1.1	070	10	1.2
						012	9	1.1
						198	8	1.0

444 PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

445 Bold type indicates the nine most commonly isolated ribotypes across Years 1–3.

446

447

448 **Table 2a**

449 MIC₅₀, MIC₉₀ and geometric mean MICs of *Clostridium difficile* isolates in the three years of
 450 the ClosER study (July 2011–July 2014)

mg/L	Years	M	V	FDX	RIF	MXF	CLINDA	IMI	CHLOR	TIG
MIC ₅₀	Y1	0.25	1	0.06	0.002	2	4	4	8	0.06
MIC ₅₀	Y2	0.25	0.5	0.06	0.002	2	8	4	4	0.03
MIC ₅₀	Y3	0.25	0.5	0.06	0.002	2	8	4	4	0.03
MIC ₅₀	All years	0.25	0.5	0.06	0.002	2	8	4	4	0.03
MIC ₉₀	Y1	2	2	0.125	32	32	128	8	8	0.06
MIC ₉₀	Y2	1	1	0.125	32	32	128	8	8	0.06
MIC ₉₀	Y3	1	1	0.125	32	32	128	8	8	0.06
MIC ₉₀	All years	1	1	0.125	32	32	128	8	8	0.06
Geometric mean MIC	Y1	0.37	0.76	0.04	0.01	4.79	5.72	4.75	5.82	0.05
Geometric mean MIC	Y2	0.33	0.70	0.05	0.01	3.90	7.61	3.88	5.39	0.04
Geometric mean MIC	Y3	0.29	0.70	0.05	0.01	3.73	9.18	4.17	6.06	0.04
Geometric mean MIC	All years	0.56	1.22	0.05	0.01	4.14	7.26	4.26	5.73	0.04

451 CHLOR, chloramphenicol; CLINDA, clindamycin; FDX, fidaxomicin; IMI, imipenem; M,

452 metronidazole; MIC, minimum inhibitory concentrations; MXF, moxifloxacin; RIF, rifampicin;

453 TIG, tigecycline; V, vancomycin.

454 MIC₅₀/MIC₉₀, minimum inhibitory concentration at which 50%/90% of isolates are inhibited.

455

456 **Table 2b**

457 Proportions of sensitive, intermediately sensitive and resistant *Clostridium difficile* isolates in
 458 the three years of the ClosER study (July 2011–July 2014)

	Years	M	V	FDX	RIF	MXF	CLINDA	IMI	CHLOR	TIG
Sensitive (%)	Y1	97.9	96.7	100.0	80.5	58.7	37.6	62.7	92.9	100.0
	Y2	98.1	98.8	100.0	82.1	64.5	29.1	77.3	93.1	100.0
	Y3	96.9	99.8	100.0	86.8	66.0	18.3	78.1	91.5	100.0
	All years	97.9	98.6	100.0	83.2	63.1	29.0	72.6	92.8	100.0
Intermediately sensitive (%)	Y1	2.0	2.4		6.0	1.8	12.4	30.1	3.5	
	Y2	1.3	0.6		3.7	1.0	13.7	19.7	2.6	
	Y3	2.6	0.1		1.5	0.5	17.4	19.7	5.1	
	All years	1.9	1.1		3.9	1.1	14.4	23.3	3.7	
Resistant (%)	Y1	0.1	0.9		13.5	39.5	49.8	7.2	3.6	
	Y2	0.1			13.7	34.1	56.7	2.3	3.7	
	Y3	0.5	0.1		11.6	33.5	64.3	2.2	3.4	
	All years	0.2	0.1		13.0	35.8	56.6	4.0	3.6	

459 CHLOR, chloramphenicol; CLINDA, clindamycin; FDX, fidaxomicin; IMI, imipenem; M,
 460 metronidazole; MXF, moxifloxacin; RIF, rifampicin; TIG, tigecycline; V, vancomycin.

461

462 **Table 3**

463 Geometric mean MICs of prevalent *Clostridium difficile* PCR ribotypes in the three years of
 464 the ClosER study (July 2011–July 2014)

	Ribotype	M	V	FDX	RIF	MXF	CLINDA	IMI	CHLOR	TIG
Y1	027	1.41	0.70	0.04	0.472	22.16	3.55	7.13	4.91	0.04
Y2	027	1.47	0.81	0.07	0.303	22.71	4.82	6.94	5.15	0.04
Y3	027	1.24	0.71	0.08	0.351	18.35	6.34	6.69	5.72	0.03
Y1	001	0.47	0.83	0.01	0.007	12.18	48.63	5.18	8.74	0.04
Y2	001	0.33	0.64	0.01	0.006	14.06	41.84	3.48	6.84	0.04
Y3	001	0.38	0.66	0.02	0.006	13.45	54.40	5.08	7.91	0.03
Y1	078	0.27	0.63	0.04	0.003	3.39	2.85	3.18	5.07	0.05
Y2	078	0.21	0.69	0.05	0.003	2.63	4.93	3.04	4.21	0.04
Y3	078	0.19	0.62	0.05	0.003	2.51	6.92	3.09	4.93	0.04
Y1	014	0.27	0.65	0.06	0.002	2.41	5.15	4.31	5.87	0.05
Y2	014	0.25	0.60	0.06	0.003	1.95	4.83	3.16	4.90	0.04
Y3	014	0.22	0.63	0.06	0.003	2.00	8.20	3.77	5.97	0.04
Y1	020	0.31	0.73	0.07	0.002	2.63	6.43	4.80	5.66	0.05
Y2	020	0.27	0.64	0.06	0.002	2.07	4.06	2.96	5.09	0.05
Y3	020	0.22	0.65	0.06	0.002	1.68	6.94	3.42	5.75	0.04
Y1	126	0.23	0.66	0.04	0.003	9.37	15.69	3.62	5.38	0.06
Y2	126	0.23	0.60	0.05	0.003	5.79	25.40	3.10	4.59	0.05
Y3	126	0.17	0.62	0.04	0.003	4.58	15.47	3.05	5.52	0.04
Y1	002	0.24	0.65	0.05	0.002	2.13	6.80	4.00	5.89	0.04
Y2	002	0.25	0.74	0.06	0.003	1.86	5.40	3.04	4.74	0.03
Y3	002	0.19	0.74	0.07	0.002	2.25	7.54	3.55	5.17	0.03
Y1	015	0.20	0.62	0.04	0.001	1.58	3.15	5.30	5.30	0.05
Y2	015	0.23	0.70	0.04	0.003	1.54	1.65	3.23	4.00	0.04

Y3	015	0.19	0.60	0.04	0.002	1.21	3.31	4.13	5.15	0.03
Y1	005	0.26	0.82	0.05	0.003	2.50	4.28	5.12	5.00	0.05
Y2	005	0.23	0.83	0.05	0.002	1.62	4.70	3.10	4.19	0.05
Y3	005	0.22	0.87	0.06	0.003	1.60	5.59	3.42	5.47	0.04
Y1	106	0.65	0.82	0.07	0.002	8.48	6.17	6.54	6.92	0.04
Y2	106	0.40	0.90	0.04	0.004	5.22	14.38	4.95	7.58	0.05
Y3	106	0.37	0.71	0.08	0.003	5.44	8.00	4.67	4.67	0.04
Y1	023	0.19	0.72	0.06	0.003	1.83	0.83	3.65	6.48	0.05
Y2	023	0.25	0.75	0.07	0.002	1.39	1.34	3.59	4.46	0.04
Y3	023	0.22	0.76	0.07	0.002	1.74	1.00	3.25	5.66	0.04
Y1	018	0.41	2.00	0.04	2.072	35.33	4.42	5.56	5.04	0.04
Y2	018	0.31	0.69	0.05	1.111	11.89	7.43	5.80	4.76	0.04
Y3	018	0.20	0.67	0.03	1.425	11.31	8.00	5.34	5.04	0.04
Y1	356	0.61	2.28	0.04	18.871	50.80	8.55	5.86	4.88	0.04
Y2	356	0.57	0.57	0.05	32.000	32.00	13.93	6.06	4.59	0.05
Y3	356	0.13	1.00	0.03	32.000	16.00	32.00	4.00	4.00	0.03
Y1	012	0.27	0.72	0.05	0.005	2.40	51.42	5.36	9.60	0.08
Y2	012	0.39	0.91	0.05	0.002	1.81	55.17	3.81	6.56	0.08
Y3	012	0.29	0.79	0.06	0.002	2.52	69.12	4.00	11.76	0.06
Y1	017	0.27	0.65	0.02	0.925	18.22	43.34	5.91	7.66	0.04
Y2	017	0.22	0.61	0.02	1.187	13.59	39.24	9.81	14.75	0.05
Y3	017	0.22	0.72	0.05	0.420	9.19	50.80	10.56	14.59	0.05
Y1	198	1.19	0.39	0.04	0.006	5.66	0.77	7.34	4.00	0.03
Y2	198	1.64	0.55	0.08	0.015	23.78	12.49	7.61	4.88	0.03
Y3	198	1.68	0.50	0.10	0.004	24.68	4.00	8.00	8.00	0.04
Y1	All isolates	0.37	0.76	0.04	0.008	4.79	5.72	4.75	5.82	0.05
Y2	All isolates	0.33	0.70	0.05	0.009	3.90	7.61	3.88	5.39	0.04

Y3	All isolates	0.29	0.70	0.05	0.007	3.73	9.18	4.17	6.06	0.04
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465 CHLOR, chloramphenicol; CLINDA, clindamycin; FDX, fidaxomicin; IMI, imipenem; M,

466 metronidazole; MICs, minimum inhibitory concentrations; MXF, moxifloxacin; PCR,

467 polymerase chain reaction; RIF, rifampicin; TIG, tigecycline; V, vancomycin.

468 Bold type indicates higher geometric mean MICs of prevalent *Clostridium difficile* PCR

469 ribotypes.

470

471 **Figure legends**

472

473 **Fig. 1.** Percentage prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* PCR ribotypes in 22 European
474 countries. (a) Year 1 of the *ClosER* study. There were no submissions from Finland in Year
475 1. (b) Year 2 of the *ClosER* study. (c) Year 3 of the *ClosER* study. There were no
476 submissions from Finland or Slovakia in Year 3.

477 ^a*C. difficile* ribotypes with prevalence <1% per given year. PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

478

479 **Fig. 2.** Fidaxomicin MIC distribution for all isolates in Years 1, 2 and 3 of the *ClosER* study.
480 MIC, minimum inhibitory concentration.

481

482 **Supplementary Fig. S1.** Distribution of cumulative antimicrobial resistance of *Clostridium*
483 *difficile* in 22 European countries: mean cumulative resistance scores. (a) Year 1 of the
484 *ClosER* study. (b) Year 2 of the *ClosER* study. (c) Year 3 of the *ClosER* study.

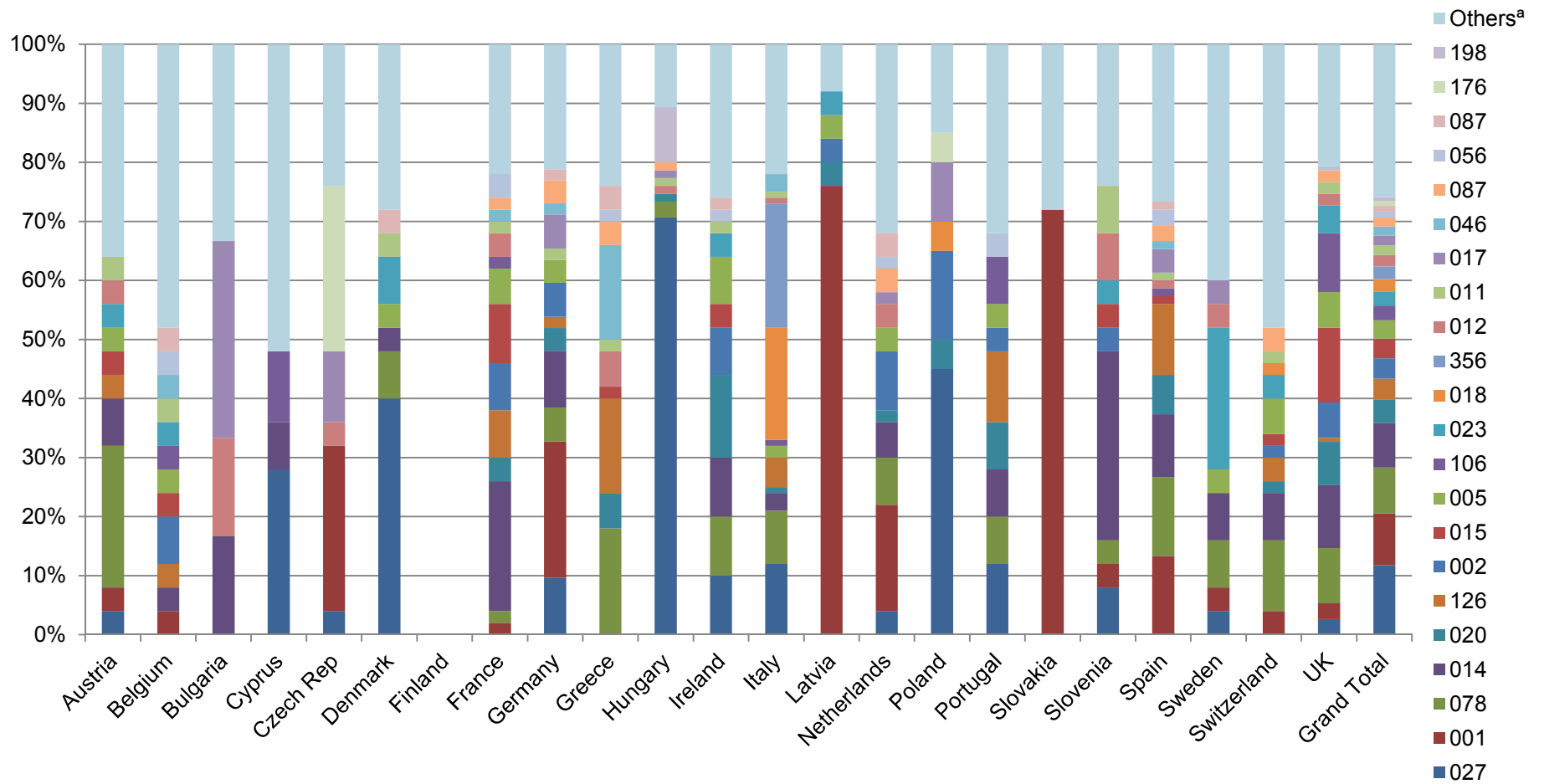


Figure 1a

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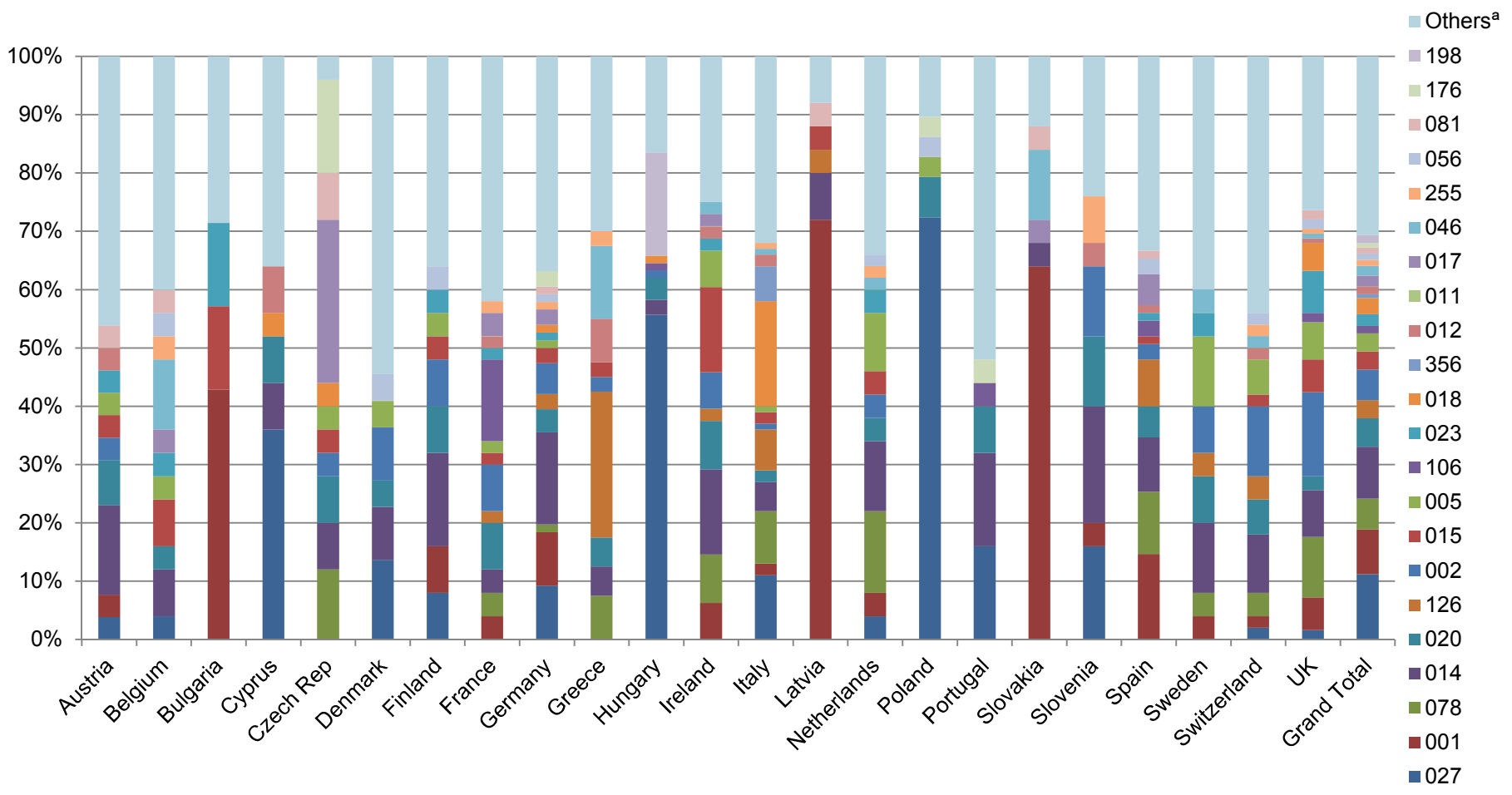


Figure 1b

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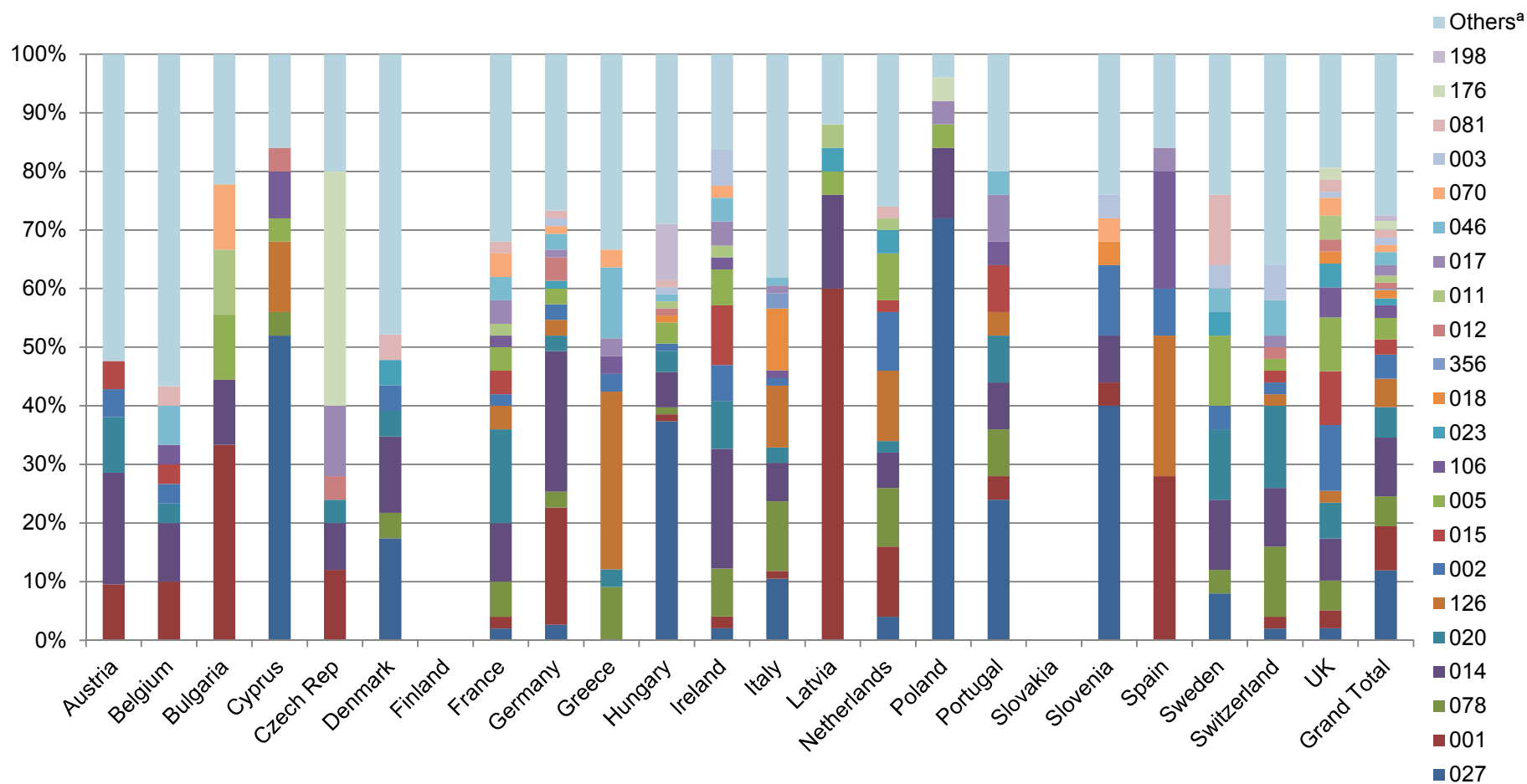


Figure 1c

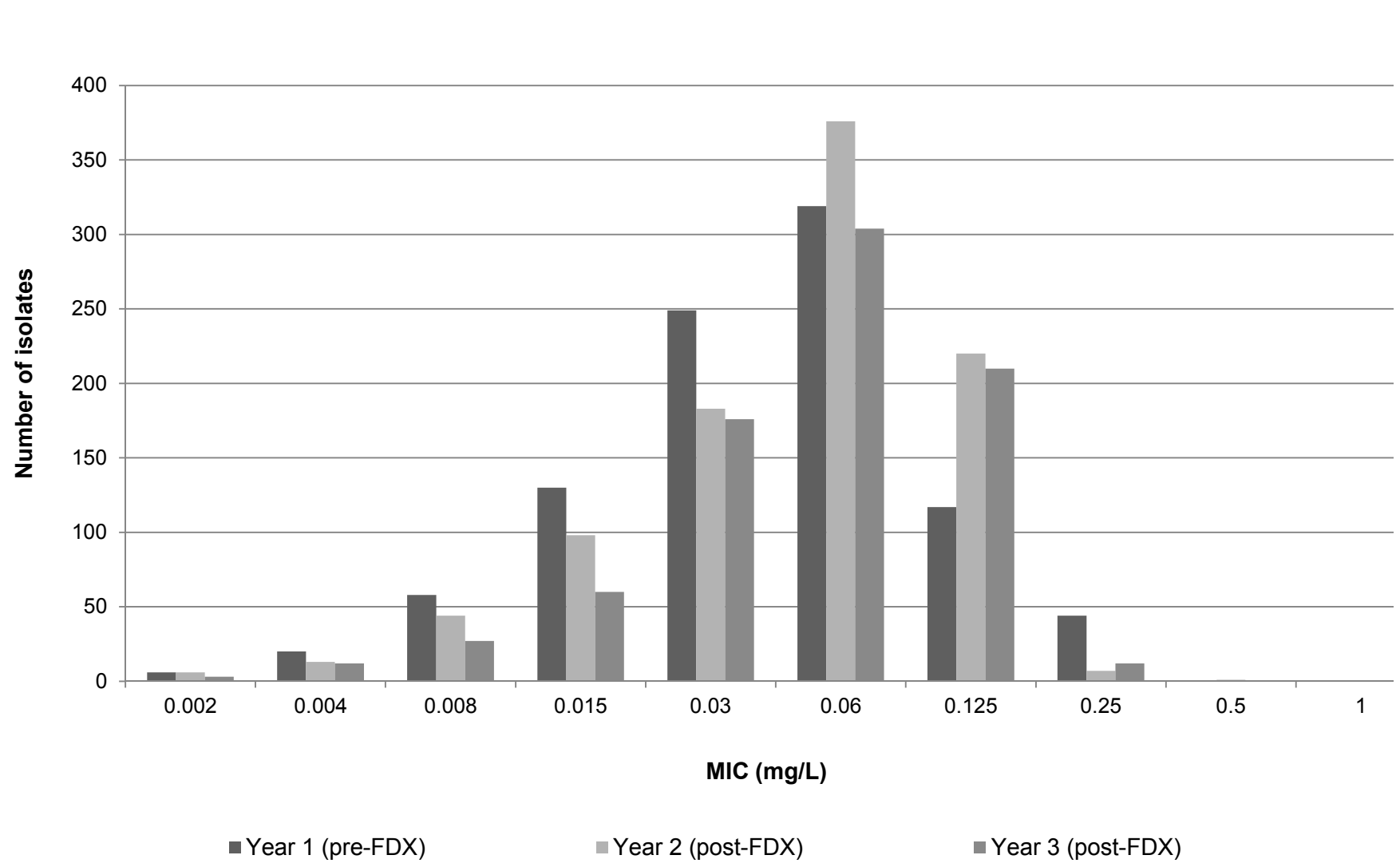


Figure 2

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