

This is a repository copy of *Investigating the effect of supplementation on Clostridioides* (*Clostridium*) difficile spore recovery in two solid agars.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/130099/

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Pickering, DS, Vernon, JJ, Freeman, J et al. (2 more authors) (2018) Investigating the effect of supplementation on Clostridioides (Clostridium) difficile spore recovery in two solid agars. Anaerobe, 50. pp. 38-43. ISSN 1075-9964

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2018.01.010

© 2018 Elsevier Ltd. Licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



1 Investigating the effect of supplementation on Clostridium difficile spore

2 recovery in two solid agars

- 3 Pickering DS^{1*}, Vernon JJ¹, Freeman J², Wilcox MH^{1, 2}, Chilton CH¹
- Healthcare Associated Infections Research Group, Molecular
 Gastroenterology, Leeds Institute for Biomedical and Clinical Sciences,
- 6 University of Leeds, West Yorkshire, UK.
- 7 2. Microbiology, Leeds Teaching Hospitals Trust, Leeds, UK.

8 *corresponding author

9 Email; umdsp@leeds.ac.uk

Abstract

Background: A variety of supplemented solid media are used within Clostridium
difficile research to optimally recover spores. Our study sought to investigate
different media and additives, providing a method of optimised C. difficile spore
recovery. Additionally, due to the results observed in the initial experiments, the
inhibitory_effects of three amino acids (glycine, L-histidine & L-phenylalanine) on C.
difficile spore outgrowth were investigated.

17 **Methods:** Spores of five C. difficile strains (PCR ribotypes 001,015,020,027,078)

18 were recovered on two commonly used solid media (BHI & CCEY) supplemented

19 with various concentrations of germinants (taurocholate,glycine & lysozyme). Agar-

20 incorporation minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) testing was carried out for

21 glycine and taurocholate on vegetative cells and spores of all five strains.

22 Additionally a BHI broth microassay method was utilised to test the growth of C.

23 difficile in the presence of increasing concentrations (0,1,2,3,4%) of three amino

24 acids (glycine,L-histidine,L-phenyalanine).

25 **Results:** CCEY agar alone and BHI supplemented with taurocholate (0.1/1%) 26 provided optimal recovery for C. difficile spores. Glycine was inhibitory to spore 27 recovery at higher concentrations, although these varied between the two media 28 used. In agar-incorporated MIC testing, glycine concentrations higher than 2% (20 g/ 29 L) were inhibitory to both C. difficile spore and vegetative cell growth versus the control (mean absorbance = 0.33 ± 0.02 vs 0.12 ± 0.01)(P< 0.001). This indicates a 30 31 potential mechanism whereby glycine interferes with vegetative cell growth. Further 32 microbroth testing provided evidence of inhibition by two amino acids other than 33 glycine, L-histidine and L-phenylalanine.

Conclusions: We provide two media for optimal recovery of C. difficile spores
(CCEY alone and BHI supplemented with 0.1/1% taurocholate). CCEY is preferred
for isolation from faecal samples. For pure cultures, either CCEY or supplemented
BHI agar are appropriate. The inhibitory nature of three amino acids (glycine,Lhistidine,L-phenylalanine) to C. difficile vegetative cell proliferation is also highlighted.

Keywords: Iysozyme, germination, spores, MIC, culture media, taurocholate

40 **1.1 Introduction**

Clostridium difficile is a Gram-positive anaerobe responsible for C. difficile infection
(CDI). CDI can vary in severity; mild diarrhoea is the most common presentation but
some patients may develop pseudomembranous colitis (1) and subsequent toxic
megacolon, a surgical emergency with a high mortality rate (~30-80%) (2). Although
cases of CDI have declined considerably in the UK, from 55,498 cases in 2007/2008
to 13,361 in 2013/2014 (3), it remains an infection of concern and the subject of
considerable research efforts.

48 Different solid media are used for C. difficile recovery according to particular 49 requirements. However the design of all C. difficile isolation media must optimise 50 vegetative outgrowth from C. difficile spores while providing a selective environment 51 to suppress other bacteria present in the sample .CCEY (Cycloserine-cefoxitin egg 52 yolk) agar is a selective medium previously shown to be the most sensitive and costefficient medium for isolating C. difficile from stool samples when compared to 53 54 Cycloserine-cefoxitin fructose agar (CCFA), ChromID C. difficile and tryptone soy 55 agar (TSA) with 5% sheep's blood (4). CCEYL (cycloserine-cefoxitin and 5% 56 lysozyme) is used by the C. difficile Ribotyping Network (CDRN) for the isolation of 57 C. difficile from faecal samples (5) on the basis of evidence suggesting the increased 58 recovery of environmental spores treated with lysozyme (6). CCEYL is suitable for 59 faecal C. difficile isolation due to the antibacterial actions against the normal 60 microflora of cycloserine-cefoxitine. Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) agar with 61 incorporation of taurocholate (a primary bile acid) and glycine in combination has 62 been widely used to recover spores from pure culture. BHI is not suitable for the 63 isolation of C. difficile from faecal samples; it is non-selective media allowing the 64 growth of multiple organisms (7). The effect of bile acids on C. difficile spore

65 germination has been recognised since 1983, and these interactions are still the focus of much research (8-12). Subsequently, Sorg et al have further investigated 66 67 glycine and taurocholate as stimulatory cogerminants (11) and have recorded the 68 inhibitory nature of secondary bile acids on C. difficile spore germination (13, 14). 69 More recently, Buffie et al (2015) have demonstrated the protective effect of C. 70 scindens against C. difficile (15), due to the conversion of primary to secondary bile 71 acids by 7α -hydroxylation. The inhibitory nature of secondary bile acids has 72 subsequently been supported by in vitro work (16).

In summary, this study seeks to optimise the recovery of C. difficile spores on solidmedia.

75 **1.2 Methods**

76 1.2.1 Spore Production

Spores of five PCR ribotypes (RT 001,015,020, 027 & 078) of C. difficile were
prepared as previously described (17). Spore stocks were enumerated by serial
dilution in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) in a 96-well plate and growth of 20µl
aliquots of each dilution on to CCEYL agar.

81 All experiments were carried out in triplicate unless otherwise stated. All spores were

82 fresh (<30 days old) unless otherwise stated. In all experiments agar plates were

incubated anaerobically at 37℃ and counts of colony forming units (CFU) were

84 carried out at 48 hours post-inoculation. Spore suspensions were vortexed

vigorously and homogenised for 20 seconds prior to use.

86 1.2.2 Recovery of C. difficile spores on solid media

87 A range of C. difficile test recovery agars were prepared. BHI and CCEY were used

as the agar bases and prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions with

89 additions as detailed in table 1. Taurocholate and glycine additions were made prior

90 to autoclaving, but lysozyme was added subsequently.

91 Spore suspensions of the five C. difficile PCR ribotypes were serially diluted (10-fold)

92 in PBS to 10⁻⁹ and 20µl of each dilution were spread on to a range of solid agar

93 plates (Table 1).

94

Media	Additional Additives
BHI / CCEY	Nil
BHI / CCEY	5% lysozyme
BHI / CCEY	0.1% taurocholate
BHI / CCEY	1% taurocholate
BHI / CCEY	0.1% taurocholate, 0.4% glycine
BHI / CCEY	1% taurocholate, 0.8% glycine
BHI / CCEY	1% taurocholate, 4% glycine

Table 1. Solid agar plates utilised in C. difficile spore recovery experiments. Media types and additives are shown.

97

98 **1.2.32.2.3** Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) testing

99 Glycine and taurocholate were tested both independently and in combination (4:1

100 ratio glycine:taurocholate) using an agar-incorporation minimum-inhibitory

101 concentration method, as previously described (18). Briefly, test compounds were

102 weighed out in doubling concentrations and added to individual aliquots of Wilkins-

- 103 Chalgren anaerobe agar or CCEY agar. CCEY agar was supplemented with 2%
- 104 lysed, defibrinated horse blood. Both spore and vegetative (1:10 dilution of 24 hour

105 Schaedler's broth culture) populations of the five C. difficile strains were inoculated

- 106 (~10⁴ cells) on to glycine/taurocholate incorporated agar. Inhibition of growth was
- 107 assessed after anaerobic incubation at 37°C for 48 hours, where the lo west

108 concentration at which visible C. difficile growth was inhibited was recorded as the109 MIC.

110

111 **1.2.4** Broth Microassay of C. difficile inhibition by L-amino acids

112 BHI broths with increasing concentrations (1, 2, 3, 4%) glycine, L-histidine or L-

113 phenylalanine) were prepared and 180ul aliquots distributed into a 96-well plate.

114 Twenty microlitres of spore suspension (~ 5x10⁵ CFU/ml concentration) were

aliquoted in to each well at time zero. Five strains of different ribotypes were utilised

116 (001, 015, 020, 027, 078). Plates were incubated anaerobically at 37℃ for 48 hours.

117 At 0, 24 and 48 hours absorbance readings at 595nm were determined (Tecan

118 Infinite 200 Pro reader). Reads were carried out at 25°C under 1atm of pressure.

119 Negative controls were prepared for each concentration, and the absorbance for the

120 blanks was subtracted from the absorbance of the inoculated wells to determine an

121 accurate absorbance reading based on growth alone. All wells were prepared in

122 triplicate.

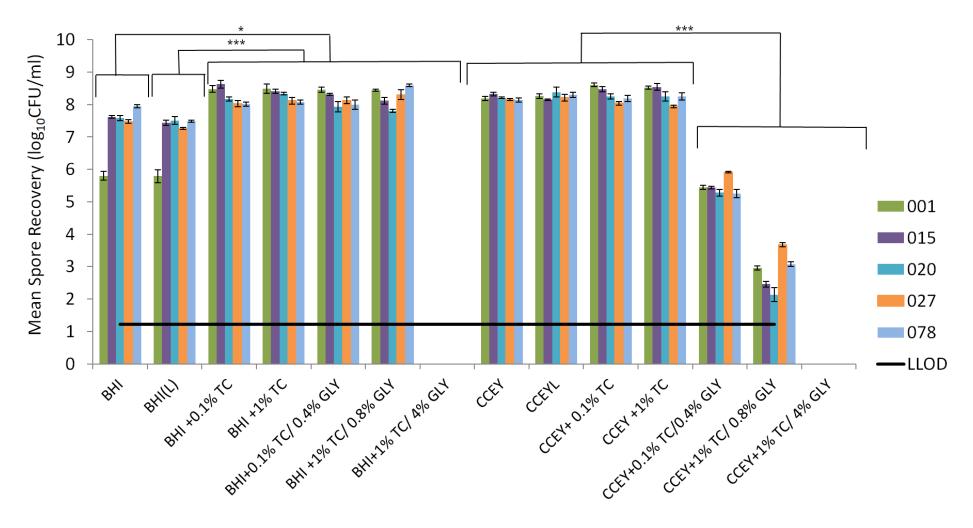
123 **1.2.5 Data analysis**

124 Statistical analysis was carried out on IBM SPSS Statistics 22. Data normality was 125 assessed using histograms and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Levene's test was used 126 for calculating homogeneity of variance. In both experiments, the variance between 127 groups was significantly different (P< 0.001), hence Welch's ANOVA was utilised. 128 Group means were compared using Welch's ANOVA with Games-Howell multiple 129 comparisons. \overline{x} represents the mean spore recovery of all five ribotypes used. All 130 means are reported with standard error of the mean (SEM). P values <0.05 were 131 considered significant, <0.01 highly significant and P< 0.001 extremely highly 132 significant.

134 **1.3 Results**

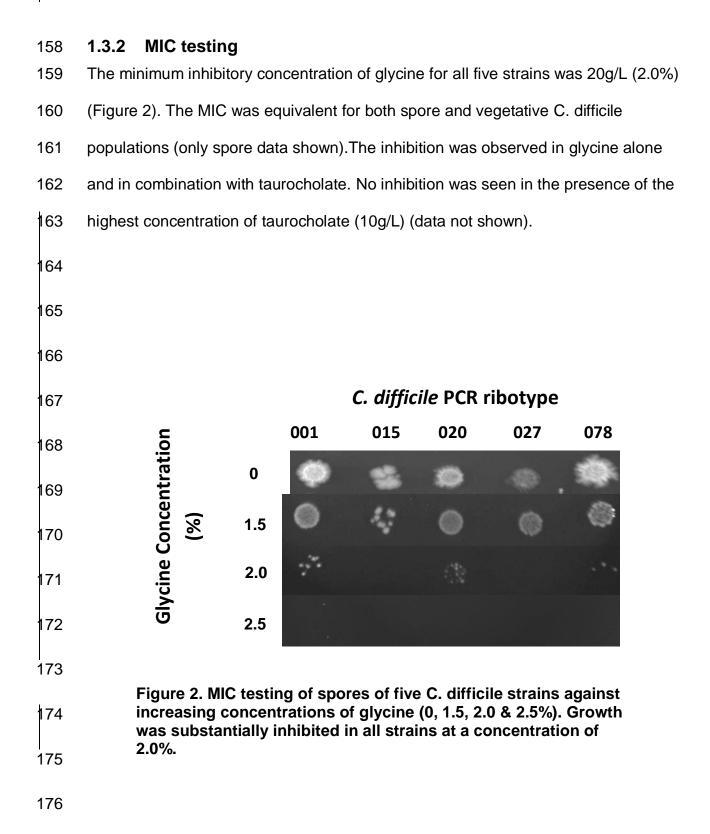
135 **1.3.1 Recovery of C. difficile spores on solid media**

136 Considerable variation in spore recovery was observed between the solid media 137 used (Fig 1). In the absence of any additives, spore recovery was on average 1log 138 CFU/mL greater for CCEY vs BHI (range = $0.1 - 2.4 \log_{10}$ CFU/ml) and was 139 significantly different for all but the 078 strain (P > 0.05). Greatest spore recovery 140 was observed for CCEY ($\overline{x} = 8.2 \pm 0.03 \log_{10}$ CFU/ml) and taurocholate supplemented 141 BHI ($\overline{x} = 8.3 \pm 0.06 \log_{10} CFU/ml$). The addition of lysozyme to either media appeared 142 to have no substantial effect on the recovery of spores (CCEY $\overline{x} = 8.2 \pm 0.03$ vs $8.3 \pm$ 143 $0.04\log_{10}$ CFU/ml, BHI \bar{x} = 7.3 ± 0.18log_{10}CFU/ml vs 7.1 ± 0.20log_{10}CFU/ml) (P > 144 0.05). Spore recovery increased on average by 1logCFU/mL when BHI was 145 supplemented with 0.1 or 1% taurocholate (range = $0 - 2.7 \log_{10}$ CFU/mL), but no equivalent increase was observed in CCEY. Strain dependent differences were also 146 147 evident in regards to this increase, with the 001 strain showing a considerable 148 increase in recovery in response to taurocholate $(5.8 \pm 0.13 \log_{10} CFU/ml vs 8.5 \pm 10.13 \log_{10} CFU/ml vs 8.5 \exp_{10} CFU/ml vs 8.5 \exp_{10} CFU/ml vs 8.5 \exp_{10} CFU/ml vs 8.5 \exp_{10} CFU/ml$ 149 0.08log₁₀CFU/ml) (P<0.0001), in contrast to the negligible difference in the 078 (8.0 150 $\pm 0.08\log_{10}$ CFU/ml vs 8.0 $\pm 0.12\log_{10}$ CFU/ml) (P>0.05). When glycine was 151 incorporated into media alongside taurocholate, it had no substantial effect on spore 152 recovery at 0.4 or 0.8% in BHI. Whereas recovery decreased by ~3log and 153 ~6log₁₀CFU/mL in CCEY at the same concentrations. The 027 strain appeared to be 154 recovered to a greater extent at these concentrations than the other strains. At the 155 inclusion of the 4% glycine concentration, no spore recovery was seen on plates of 156 either medium



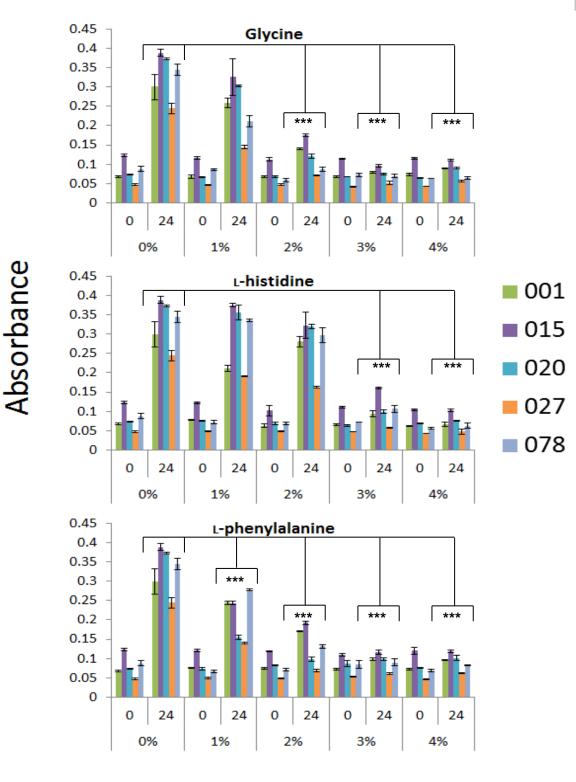
Media Type

Figure 1. Mean (± SE) spore recovery (log₁₀CFU/ml) of spores of five C. difficile strains inoculated on to a variety of solid agars. Spores were serially diluted in PBS to 10⁻⁹ and each dilution spread on to agar plates in triplicate. Plates were read after 48h of anaerobic incubation. TC= taurocholate, GLY= glycine, L = lysozyme, LLOD = lower limit of detection



177 **1.3.3 Broth Microassay of C. difficile inhibition by L-amino acids**

- 178 Glycine, L-phenylalanine and L-histidine completely inhibited growth in all five C.
- 179 difficile ribotypes at higher concentrations (3%) (Figure 3). Glycine and L-
- 180 phenylalanine appeared to inhibit growth to a lesser extent at lower concentrations (
- 181 1% and 2% respectively) compared to L-histidine. At 48 hours, absorbance began to
- 182 decrease for all strains (data not shown), indicating transition from stationary phase
- 183 growth to sporulation/death phase.



Concentration

Figure 3. Mean (\pm SE) growth of five C. difficile strains in BHI with increasing concentrations (0, 1, 2, 3, & 4%) of 3 amino acids. Absorbance readings (595nm) shown are at 0 and 24 hours post-spore inoculation. At higher concentrations of amino acids, growth is inhibited.

186 **1.4 Discussion**

187 CCEY and taurocholate supplemented BHI are comparable for C. difficile

188 recovery

189 We used an agar incorporation method to ascertain the optimal method for recovery 190 of C. difficile spores. Two different solid media, CCEY and BHI were used, with 191 various concentrations of additives (taurocholate, glycine and lysozyme). The 192 response of the spores to the addition of the germinant taurocholate in our study was 193 in accordance with the historical literature (9, 11). When taurocholate was added to 194 BHI, spore recovery increased on average ~1log₁₀CFU/mL. Lower concentrations of 195 taurocholate were not tested but may be as effective as the 0.1%/1% used in the 196 current study; 0.05% taurocholate has previously been investigated and found to be 197 sufficient (19).

The addition of the cogerminant glycine at 0.4% did not increase the recovery of C.
difficile spores further. However, BHI could provide a source of glycine without
additional supplementation, as it is an undefined medium with unknown levels of
amino acids. Therefore additional glycine supplementation may not be necessary.
Taurocholate supplementation yielded no positive effect on spore recovery on
CCEY. This is expected; spore germination may already be optimised in CCEY due

to the presence of cholate, a stimulatory primary bile acid (10).

205 Most strikingly, when glycine supplementation was increased to a higher

206 concentration (4%), spore recovery was completely inhibited to below the level of

207 detection (1.2log₁₀CFU/ml) on both CCEY and BHI. In CCEY, a linear concentration

208 dependent reduction in spore recovery was observed in regard to glycine

209 supplementation. Even supplementation at the lowest concentration used in this 210 study (0.4%) caused a ~3logCFU/mL drop in spore recovery on CCEY. This is in 211 contrast to BHI, where the higher concentration of 0.8% glycine provided no 212 impediment to recovery. BHI and CCEY are likely to contain differing levels of 213 glycine; however, this cannot be verified as this is not detailed by the manufacturer. 214 Finally, 5% lysozyme appeared to offer no additional benefit to spore recovery. 215 Lysozyme has been historically been cited as a non-receptor based germinant (20, 216 21). Previously, research has shown increased recovery of lysozyme treated C. 217 difficile spores from the environment (6).

218 The lack of effect seen in our work may reflect the different context in which 219 lysozyme is used. In this study, lysozyme has been used to initiate germination in 220 freshly produced non-stressed spores. Previous work has used lysozyme to recover 221 spores from surfaces on hospital wards, where spore numbers are likely to be low. 222 Environmental C. difficile spores are likely to be subjected to physical and chemical 223 stresses such as detergents, UV light, desiccation and heat (6). This may potentially 224 increase spore dormancy and reduce the rate of germination. It is possible the 225 action of lysozyme increases germination of these 'stressed' spore populations, 226 whereas the effect is unlikely to be observed in relatively newly produced spores. 227 Previous work supports this hypothesis; lysozyme has been found to have no 228 substantial effect on spore recovery when added to solid agar (19). 229 Our study demonstrates the comparability of some well used media in recovery C. 230 difficile spores. CCEY or BHI supplemented with 0.1% taurocholate appear to be the 231 most effective with the least amount of supplementation. BHI supplemented with 232 0.1% taurocholate is more cost effective (£0.15/plate) than CCEY (£0.25/plate); 233 however it should noted these are estimated costs and there are a range of costs

dependent on supplier and supplement purity. BHI is also not appropriate for
isolation of C. difficile from clinical specimens or mixed cultures due its nonselectivity(7).

237 Glycine and two L-amino acids appear to inhibit C. difficile vegetative growth

238 C. difficile was inhibited by increasing concentrations of glycine (2%) when grown on 239 solid media. Both spores (data not shown) and vegetative cell inocula were used, 240 and the effect observed was comparable in both cases. Both spore outgrowth and 241 vegetative cell proliferation were inhibited in the presence of high concentrations of 242 glycine (~2%) with ribotype variance likely due to natural variation. Differences in 243 germination (22, 23), growth rates (24), sporulation (23, 25), and toxin production 244 (26) between strains of different ribotypes have frequently been reported. Our 245 observations indicate that growth resulting from both spore and vegetative inocula 246 are inhibited by glycine suggesting a mechanism inhibiting the vegetative growth of 247 C. difficile, rather than germination. This is not surprising; glycine has been identified 248 as a cogerminant for C. difficile spores, with recent kinetic data suggesting a 249 sequential binding of taurocholate and glycine to different receptors (27).

250 The inhibitory nature of glycine has been reported in other bacterial species (28). A 251 recent study evaluating glycine as a replacement for sodium bicarbonate in dentistry 252 found lower levels of bacterial colonisation on titanium appliances airbrushed with 253 glycine (29). Synergism between glycine and penicillin has also been reported in H. 254 pylori eradication (30). However, to the best of our knowledge, the glycine-mediated 255 inhibition has not previously been reported C. difficile. It has been established that 256 glycine could interfere with the formation of the bacterial cell wall, by replacing D-257 alanine residues in linking tetrapeptides and affecting downstream subunit cross-258 linkage of the developing peptidoglycan cell wall (31). D-amino acid enantiomers (D-

259 threonine, D-valine, D-leucine, D-methionine) have been found to have a similar 260 effect on several species including E. coli (32, 33), following a similar mechanism to 261 that proposed for glycine. Although D-amino acids are not ubiquitous in nature, they 262 are increasingly being recognised as important in some bacterial regulatory 263 processes, for instance in bacterial cell wall reorganisation in response to stress and 264 biofilm formation (34). However, our study shows inhibition of C. difficile vegetative 265 growth by not just glycine, but two L-amino acids; L- phenylalanine and L-histidine. 266 Given this discrepancy, it is unclear what the antibacterial mechanism of action is in 267 C. difficile. It is possible that glycine may replace D-alanine in the bacterial cell wall, 268 interfering with downstream cross-linkage of peptidoglycan by short-peptide chains. 269 It seems unlikely that L-phenylalanine or L-histidine could do the same. However, 270 Peltier et al. (2011)(35) recently described the unique nature of the C. difficile 271 peptidoglycan cell wall in addition to the 4-> 3 cross links produced by D,D-272 transpeptidation in other bacteria, the peptidoglycan of C. difficile contains a 273 predominance of 3->3 cross links catalysed by L,D-transpeptidation (35). In light of 274 this amino acid substitutions may be possible.

275 In addition, recent evidence using Vibrio cholera and Bacillus subtilis has 276 established that conversion of L-enantiomers to their D-isoforms could serve as a 277 regulatory mechanism for cell wall remodelling and inhibiting growth in stationary phase cultures (36). Furthermore, the recent identification of an alanine-racemase in 278 279 C. difficile that also accommodates serine as a substrate raises the possibility that 280 other L-amino acids could be converted to their D-isoforms (37). Alternatively, a high 281 concentration of D-amino acids could signal for vegetative cells to cease 282 proliferation.

283 Although potential inhibitory mechanisms are described, it is possible that the effect 284 observed is partly due to the hypertonicity of the solutions. This is likely to account 285 for a degree of inhibition at higher concentrations of amino acids (3%+), as in the 286 case of L-histidine. However, if the inhibition observed were solely due to the 287 hypertonicity of the solutions, one would not necessarily expect differences in 288 inhibition between the different amino acids utilised; inhibition was observed with 1% 289 supplementation of L-phenylalanine In addition, the lowest concentration of glycine 290 supplementation decreased spore recovery on CCEY solid agar. Hishinuma et al 291 (1969) also found that the inhibition produced by 2% glycine was reversible upon 292 addition of L-alanine. Considered together, these data suggest a unique mechanism 293 of inhibition independent of solution hypertonicity (28).

294 The use of an undefined medium (BHI) is a limitation of the present study since the 295 composition of amino acids is not known. Therefore, the concentrations stated in our 296 broth microassay may not be accurate, and other amino acids may be present that 297 could potentially influence C. difficile growth. The inhibitory concentrations obtained 298 via agar-incorporated and broth microdilution methods were also different, however 299 MIC discrepancies between broth microdilution and agar-incorporation methods 300 have previously been reported (38). Despite these limitations, the results 301 demonstrate a real antibacterial effect..

Previous research has highlighted that the majority of protein (90%) is enzymatically degraded and digested in the small intestines, with a small amount passing the terminal ileum (39). Converting previously reported values (40), free amino acids and peptides pass the terminal ileum at 0.2% and 0.7% respectively after ingestion of a 50g meal. These concentrations are below those utilised in the study, although ingestion of larger amounts of protein could increase free peptide concentrations to

therapeutic levels. The feasibility of utilising the described inhibitory effect in an invivo setting is therefore unclear.

- 310 To summarise, we present data supporting the comparability of two commonly used
- 311 media in optimising C. difficile recovery from prepared spore stocks. We also
- 312 highlight the inhibitory nature of some amino acids, including glycine, on the
- 313 vegetative growth of C. difficile. Future work should focus on the elucidation of a
- 314 mechanism for this observed inhibition, and whether other amino acids have this
- 315 inhibitory effect.
- 316

Acknowledgements

The research reported in this manuscript was funded by the University of Leeds as part of a funded PhD project.

- 319
- 3201.Larson, H.E., Price, A.B., Honour, P. and Borriello, S.P. Clostridium difficile and aetiology of321pseudomembranous colitis. *The Lancet.* 1978, **311**(8073), pp.1063-1066.
- Sayedy, L., Kothari, D. and Richards, R.J. Toxic megacolon associated Clostridium difficile
 colitis. *World journal of gastrointestinal endoscopy*. 2010, **2**(8), pp.293-297.
- 3243.PHE. MRSA, MSSA and E. coli bacteraemia and C. difficile infection: annual epidemiological325commentary. Public Health England, July 2015.
- Lister, M., Stevenson, E., Heeg, D., Minton, N.P. and Kuehne, S.A. Comparison of culture
 based methods for the isolation of Clostridium difficile from stool samples in a research
 setting. *Anaerobe.* 2014, **28**, pp.226-229.
- 5. Fawley, W.N., Davies, K.A., Morris, T., Parnell, P., Howe, R., Wilcox, M.H. and Grp, C.W.
 Binhanced surveillance of Clostridium difficile infection occurring outside hospital, England,
 2011 to 2013. *Eurosurveillance*. 2016, **21**(29), pp.48-57.
- Wilcox, M.H., Fawley, W.N. and Parnell, P. Value of lysozyme agar incorporation and alkaline
 thioglycollate exposure for the environmental recovery ofClostridium difficile. *Journal of Hospital Infection.* 2000, 44(1), pp.65-69.
- 335 7. Edwards, A.N., Suarez, J.M. and McBride, S.M. Culturing and Maintaining Clostridium difficile
 336 in an Anaerobic Environment. *Jove-Journal of Visualized Experiments.* 2013, (79), p.8.
- Giel, J.L., Sorg, J.A., Sonenshein, A.L. and Zhu, J. Metabolism of Bile Salts in Mice Influences
 Spore Germination in Clostridium difficile. *Plos One.* 2010, 5(1), p.7.
- Howerton, A., Ramirez, N. and Abel-Santos, E. Mapping Interactions between Germinants
 and Clostridium difficile Spores. *Journal of Bacteriology*. 2011, **193**(1), pp.274-282.
- Wilson, K.H. Efficiency of various bile-salt preparations for stimulation of Clostridium difficile
 spore germination. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*. 1983, **18**(4), pp.1017-1019.

343 11. Sorg, J.A. and Sonenshein, A.L. Bile salts and glycine as cogerminants for Clostridium difficile 344 spores. Journal of Bacteriology. 2008, 190(7), pp.2505-2512. 345 Francis, M.B., Allen, C.A., Shrestha, R. and Sorg, J.A. Bile Acid Recognition by the Clostridium 12. 346 difficile Germinant Receptor, CspC, Is Important for Establishing Infection. Plos Pathogens. 347 2013, **9**(5), p.9. 348 13. Sorg, J.A. and Sonenshein, A.L. Inhibiting the Initiation of Clostridium difficile Spore 349 Germination using Analogs of Chenodeoxycholic Acid, a Bile Acid. Journal of Bacteriology. 350 2010, **192**(19), pp.4983-4990. 351 Sorg, J.A. and Sonenshein, A.L. Chenodeoxycholate Is an Inhibitor of Clostridium difficile 14. 352 Spore Germination. Journal of Bacteriology. 2009, 191(3), pp.1115-1117. 353 15. Buffie, C.G., Bucci, V., Stein, R.R., McKenney, P.T., Ling, L., Gobourne, A., No, D., Liu, H., 354 Kinnebrew, M., Viale, A., Littmann, E., van den Brink, M.R., Jenq, R.R., Taur, Y., Sander, C., 355 Cross, J.R., Toussaint, N.C., Xavier, J.B. and Pamer, E.G. Precision microbiome reconstitution 356 restores bile acid mediated resistance to Clostridium difficile. Nature. 2015, 517(7533), 357 pp.205-208. 358 16. Thanissery, R., Winston, J.A. and Theriot, C.M. Inhibition of spore germination, growth, and 359 toxin activity of clinically relevant C-difficile strains by gut microbiota derived secondary bile 360 acids. Anaerobe. 2017, 45, pp.86-100. 361 17. Chilton, C.H., Crowther, G.S., Ashwin, H., Longshaw, C.M. and Wilcox, M.H. Association of 362 Fidaxomicin with C. difficile Spores: Effects of Persistence on Subsequent Spore Recovery, 363 Outgrowth and Toxin Production. Plos One. 2016, 11(8), p.13. 364 18. Baines, S.D., O'Connor, R., Freeman, J., Fawley, W.N., Harmanus, C., Mastrantonio, P., 365 Kuijper, E.J. and Wilcox, M.H. Emergence of reduced susceptibility to metronidazole in 366 Clostridium difficile. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy. 2008, 62(5), pp.1046-1052. 367 19. Nerandzic, M.M. and Donskey, C.J. Effective and Reduced-Cost Modified Selective Medium 368 for Isolation of Clostridium difficile. Journal of Clinical Microbiology. 2009, 47(2), pp.397-400. 369 20. Paredes-Sabja, D., Bond, C., Carman, R.J., Setlow, P. and Sarker, M.R. Germination of spores 370 of Clostridium difficile strains, including isolates from a hospital outbreak of Clostridium 371 difficile-associated disease (CDAD). Microbiology. 2008, 154(Pt 8), pp.2241-2250. 372 21. Ionesco, H. Initiation of germination from Clostridium difficile spores by lysozyme. Comptes 373 Rendus Hebdomadaires Des Seances De L Academie Des Sciences Serie D. 1978, 287(6), 374 pp.659-661. 375 22. Heeg, D., Burns, D.A., Cartman, S.T. and Minton, N.P. Spores of Clostridium difficile Clinical 376 Isolates Display a Diverse Germination Response to Bile Salts. *Plos One*. 2012, 7(2), p.9. 377 23. Carlson, P.E., Kaiser, A.M., McColm, S.A., Bauer, J.M., Young, V.B., Aronoff, D.M. and Hanna, 378 P.C. Variation in germination of Clostridium difficile clinical isolates correlates to disease 379 severity. Anaerobe. 2015, 33, pp.64-70. 380 24. Tschudin-Sutter, S., Braissant, O., Erb, S., Stranden, A., Bonkat, G., Frei, R. and Widmer, A.F. 381 Growth Patterns of Clostridium difficile - Correlations with Strains, Binary Toxin and Disease 382 Severity: A Prospective Cohort Study. *Plos One.* 2016, **11**(9), p.10. 383 25. Akerlund, T., Persson, I., Unemo, M., Noren, T., Svenungsson, B., Wullt, M. and Burman, L.G. 384 Increased sporulation rate of epidemic clostridium difficile type 027/NAP1. Journal of Clinical 385 *Microbiology.* 2008, **46**(4), pp.1530-1533. 386 26. Akerlund, T., Svenungsson, B., Lagergren, A. and Burman, L.G. Correlation of disease severity 387 with fecal toxin levels in patients with Clostridium difficile-associated diarrhea and 388 distribution of PCR ribotypes and toxin yields in vitro of corresponding isolates. J Clin 389 Microbiol. 2006, 44(2), pp.353-358. 390 Ramirez, N., Liggins, M. and Abel-Santos, E. Kinetic Evidence for the Presence of Putative 27. 391 Germination Receptors in Clostridium difficile Spores. Journal of Bacteriology. 2010, 192(16), 392 pp.4215-4222.

394 Various Microorganisms. Agricultural and Biological Chemistry. 1969, 33(11), pp.1577-1586. 395 29. Cochis, A., Fini, M., Carrassi, A., Migliario, M., Visai, L. and Rimondini, L. Effect of air polishing 396 with glycine powder on titanium abutment surfaces. Clinical Oral Implants Research. 2013, 397 **24**(8), pp.904-909. 398 30. Minami, M., Ando, T., Hashikawa, S.N., Torii, K., Hasegawa, T., Israel, D.A., Ina, K., Kusugami, 399 K., Goto, H. and Ohta, M. Effect of glycine on Helicobacter pylori in vitro. Antimicrob Agents 400 Chemother. 2004, 48(10), pp.3782-3788. 401 31. Hammes, W., Schleife.Kh and Kandler, O. Mode of action of glycine on biosynthesis of 402 peptidoglycan. Journal of Bacteriology. 1973, 116(2), pp.1029-1053. 403 32. Trippen, B., Hammes, W.P., Schleifer, K.H. and Kandler, O. Mode of action of D-amino acids 404 on the biosynthesis of peptidoglycan Arch Microbiol. 1976, **109**(3), pp.247-261. 405 Caparros, M., Pisabarro, A.G. and de Pedro, M.A. Effect of D-amino acids on structure and 33. 406 synthesis of peptidoglycan in Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol. 1992, 174(17), pp.5549-5559. 407 34. Cava, F., Lam, H., de Pedro, M.A. and Waldor, M.K. Emerging knowledge of regulatory roles 408 of d-amino acids in bacteria. Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences. 2011, 68(5), pp.817-831. 409 35. Peltier, J., Courtin, P., El Meouche, I., Lemee, L., Chapot-Chartier, M.P. and Pons, J.L. 410 Clostridium difficile Has an Original Peptidoglycan Structure with a High Level of N-411 Acetylglucosamine Deacetylation and Mainly 3-3 Cross-links. Journal of Biological Chemistry. 412 2011, 286(33), pp.29053-29062. 413 36. Lam, H., Oh, D.C., Cava, F., Takacs, C.N., Clardy, J., de Pedro, M.A. and Waldor, M.K. D-amino 414 acids govern stationary phase cell wall remodeling in bacteria. Science. 2009, 325(5947), 415 pp.1552-1555. 416 37. Shrestha, R., Lockless, S.W. and Sorg, J.A. A Clostridium difficile alanine racemase affects 417 spore germination and accommodates serine as a substrate. 2017, 292(25), pp.10735-418 10742. 419 38. Hastey, C.J., Dale, S.E., Nary, J., Citron, D., Law, J.H., Roe-Carpenter, D.E. and Chesnel, L. 420 Comparison of Clostridium difficile minimum inhibitory concentrations obtained using agar 421 dilution vs broth microdilution methods. Anaerobe. 2017, 44, pp.73-77. 422 39. Chung, Y.C., Kim, Y.S., Shadchehr, A., Garrido, A., Macgregor, I.L. and Sleisenger, M.H. 423 Protein digestion and absorption in human small intestine. *Gastroenterology*. 1979, **76**(6), 424 pp.1415-1421. 425 40. Adibi, S.A. and Mercer, D.W. Protein digestion in human intestine as reflected in luminal, 426 mucosal, and plasma amino acid concentrations after meals. Journal of Clinical Investigation. 427 1973, **52**(7), pp.1586-1594. 428

Hishinuma, F., Izaki, K. and Takahashi, H. Effects of Glycine and d-Amino Acids on Growth of

393

28.