Title: Effects of sexual dimorphism and estrous cycle on *C. difficile* infections in

rodent models

Running title: *Sex effects on rodent C. difficile infections*

Authors: Jacqueline R. Phan[1], McKenzie Washington[1], Dung M. Do[1], Tiffany V.

Mata[1], Maria Niamba[1], Efren Heredia[1], Robert Soriano[2], Chandler

Hassan[1], Chad L. Cross[3], and Ernesto Abel-Santos[1]*

Affiliation: [1] Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Nevada, Las

Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154

[2] Department of Physical and Life Sciences, Nevada State College,

Henderson, NV 89002

[3] Department of Epidemiology & Biostatistics, School of Public Health,

University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154

Contact: 4505 Maryland Parkway

Campus Box 4003

Las Vegas, NV 89154

Tel: (702) 895-2608

Fax: (702) 895-4072

Email: ernesto.abelsantos@unlv.edu

Abstract

    Clostridioides difficile infection (CDI) is responsible for the majority of identifiable hospital-related antibiotic-associated diarrhea. Susceptibility to CDI and severity of disease varies depending on a variety of factors such as aggressive use of broad-spectrum antibiotics, age, and immune status. Epidemiological studies have consistently shown that female patients are more at risk for CDI than their male counterparts. In this study, we show that female mice developed more severe CDI than males when challenged with spores from three different *C. difficile* strains. CDI sexual dimorphism was still apparent when animals were placed under diet conditions that exacerbated CDI severity. Unlike male mice, females undergo the estrous cycle. Thus, female mice were challenged with *C. difficile* spores when they were at the estrus, metestrus, diestrus, late diestrus/early proestrus, proestrus, or late proestrus/early estrus stages. Animals were scored for CDI sign severity while continuously monitoring their estrous cycle stages. The resulting data showed a striking spike in CDI severity when animals were in proestrus the day before sign scoring. In contrast, animals who were in estrus the day before sign scoring were protected from CDI. Prophylactic treatment of CDI also showed sexual dimorphism with females responding better to treatment than males. Interestingly, infection sexual dimorphism was reversed in hamsters, with male hamsters developing more severe CDI signs than females. In conclusion, we have shown that mice recreate many of the conditions of sexual dimorphism of human CDI.

Background

Clostridium difficile infection (CDI) is responsible for approximately 25% of all

antibiotic-associated diarrhea [1]. CDI has been designated as an urgent threat by the CDC [2].

In the U.S., over 223,900 CDI cases occur annually, with a mortality rate of up to 6.5% and costs

estimated to be $6.3 billion [3]. The incidence of CDI is complicated by the appearance of highly

resistant and hypervirulent strains [4, 5].

CDI treatments are limited. Recent guidelines discourage the use of cheap metronidazole

due to the propensity for triggering relapses [6]. Oral vancomycin is now recommended for

primary CDI [7]. Fidaxomicin is a newer antibiotic that causes fewer CDI relapses, but it is

significantly more costly [8, 9]. Monoclonal antitoxins can reduce CDI morbidity and mortality,

but do not reduce *C. difficile* colonization [10, 11]. Fecal transplantation has been used

effectively as CDI treatment [12] but treatment failure is 20.6-22.6% [13], and can potentially

lead to transfer of other deadly pathogens [14].

Epidemiological studies have shown that antibiotic use is the main risk factor associated

with CDI [15, 16]. Immunocompetence is also strongly correlated with CDI symptom onset [17-

19]. Furthermore, older populations are more susceptible to CDI than younger cohorts [15].

Bacterial infections have known sexual dimorphism [20] with human females tending to

be more susceptible to genitourinary tract infections [21, 22], while human males are more prone

to gastrointestinal [23] and respiratory infections [24].

When adjusted for age, immune status, and antibiotic exposure, sex is also an important

risk factor in human CDI. Contrary to other GI bacterial infections [20], women are more

vulnerable than men to both primary CDI and CDI relapse [25-32]. More recently, CDI has been

flagged as an emerging threat to pregnant and peripartum women [33-36]. Similarly, older

65   women might be at higher risk of developing CDI due to permanent hormonal depletion after

66   menopause. These last two conditions are associated with substantial changes in hormonal levels.

67   An obvious factor underlying human sexual dimorphisms is the fluctuating hormone

concentrations during the interdependent ovarian cycle and uterine (menstrual) cycle [37].

Following menses, the follicular stage of the ovarian cycle is characterized by increased

circulating estrogen that then triggers spikes of luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle stimulating

hormone (FSH), and prolactin (PRL) just prior to the periovulatory period [37]. At the start of

the luteal stage, ovulation occurs with concurrent small increases in PRL [38]. The mid-luteal

stage is characterized by increases of both estradiol and progesterone, followed by a sharp

decrease of both hormones in the premenstrual stage.

75   Similar to humans, female rodents undergo hormonal changes during the estrous cycle

[39]. Estradiol levels increase during the proestrus stage, followed by spikes in LH and FSH

[40]. The estrus stage is dominated by rapid increase of PRL, followed by a sharp decrease to

trigger metestrus entry. The metestrus stage shows a sharp increase of progesterone, with a

smaller simultaneous increase in estradiol. Finally, progesterone levels peak during the diestrus

stage. Testosterone is produced uniformly throughout the estrous cycle, but its circulating

concentration is 10-fold lower than in males [41]. Hence, similar to the human female menstrual

cycle, each estrous cycle stage is characterized by a unique pattern of hormone levels.

83   *C. difficile* forms spores that act as infection vehicles for CDI [42]. Spores do not cause

disease but recognize bile salts to germinate into toxin-producing cells [43-48]. The spore

germination process is a required first step in establishing infection in both humans and animals.

We have shown that steroidal sex hormones, but not prostaglandins, can directly interact with *C.*

difficile spores and modulate germination [49, 50]. Similarly, since spore germination is a

necessary step for disease onset, we have found that sterane analogs can inhibit this process and

prevent CDI onset in rodent models of disease [11, 51-60]. During our search for CDI

prophylactics, we serendipitously observed that male mice tended to develop less severe CDI

than their female counterparts.

In this study, we used rodent models of CDI to assess for sexual dimorphism during

infection. We found that female mice developed more severe CDI signs than males when

infected with three different *C. difficile* strains. Sexual dimorphism was still apparent under diet

conditions known to trigger severe CDI. We also found that at any time point during disease

progression, murine CDI sign severity correlated with the estrous stages that animals were on the

prior day. As a result of this delayed effect, animals were protected from CDI onset if they were

in estrus the day before. In contrast, animals developed deadly CDI signs if they were in

proestrus the day before. CDI prophylaxis also showed clear sexual dimorphism. Even though

male mice developed less severe CDI, they were also more refractory to treatment. On the other

hand, anti-germinants protected female mice from developing CDI during most stages of their

estrous cycle. Interestingly, infection sexual dimorphism was reversed in hamsters, with male

hamsters developing more severe CDI signs than females.

Materials and Methods

Materials: *C. difficile* strains R20291 and 9001966 were donated by Professor Nigel Minton at the University of Nottingham, United Kingdom. *C. difficile* strain 630 was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC). Synthetic bile salt analogs were prepared by Professor Steven M. Firestine at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan, or were previously synthesized in the Abel-Santos laboratory. Rodent diets were purchased from LabDiet (St. Louis, MO, USA). All growth of *C. difficile* strains was done in a Coy Laboratories vinyl anaerobic chamber (5% H_2, 5% CO_2, 95% N_2).

Animals: All procedures involving animals in this study were performed in accordance with the Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals outlined by the National Institutes of Health. The protocol was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (Permit Number: R0914-297). Weaned C57BL/6 mice and weaned Golden Syrian hamsters were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (Wilmington, MA, USA). Mice were housed in groups of five per cage and hamsters were housed individually at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas animal care facility. Upon arrival at the facility, animals were allowed to acclimate for at least one week prior to the start of experimentation. All bedding, cages, food, and water were autoclaved prior to contact with animals. All post-challenge manipulations were performed within a biosafety level 2 laminar flow hood.

C. difficile spore harvest and purification: *C. difficile* cells from frozen stocks were streak plated in an anaerobic chamber onto BHI agar supplemented with 2% yeast extract, 0.1% L-cysteine-HCl, and 0.05% sodium taurocholate (BHIS) to yield colonies (15). After 48 hours, a single colony was inoculated into BHI broth supplemented with 0.5% yeast extract and incubated

for 48 hours. The inoculated broth was then spread plated onto multiple BHI agar plates prepared

as described above. Inoculated plates were incubated for 7 days at 37 °C.

Plates were then flooded with ice-cold deionized (DI) water. Cells and spores were

harvested by scraping bacterial colonies from the plates. The cell and spore mixtures were

pelleted by centrifugation at 8,000 ×g for 5 minutes, resuspended in DI water, and pelleted again.

This washing step was repeated twice more. The cell/spore mixture was then centrifuged through

a 20% to 50% HistoDenz gradient at 18,200 ×g for 30 minutes with no brake (22). Under these

conditions, spores pelleted at the bottom of the centrifuge tube, while cell debris remained above

the 20% HistoDenz layer. Pelleted spores were transferred to a clean centrifuge tube and washed

five times before storing in DI water at 4 °C. To determine spore purity, selected samples were

stained using the Schaeffer-Fulton endospore staining method (23) or were visualized by phase-

contrast microscopy. Spore preparations used were greater than 95% pure.

Estrous cycle tracking in mice: The estrous cycle tracking method performed in this

study was adapted from *McLean et al., 2012* [40]. Mice estrous stages were tracked for at least

one week prior to any manipulation to make sure animals were cycling normally. Animals were

tracked daily for their estrous cycle stage by vaginal lavage at the same time each morning

throughout the duration of the study. Briefly, excess urine is dabbed off using Kimwipes low-lint

wipes. A micropipette was used to lavage 20 µL of DI water into the vaginal orifice of the

animal. The vaginal orifice was flushed 3-4 times using the micropipette until the suspension

appeared mildly cloudy. The 20 µL sample was then transferred onto a clean glass microscope

slide and left to air dry for at least 1 hour. Animals were monitored to ensure there were no signs

of vaginal infection.

Air-dried vaginal sample slides were dipped into a 2% crystal violet solution inside a

Coplin jar for 1 minute. Slides were then moved to a Coplin jar containing fresh DI water to

wash off excess stain. Slides were then dabbed gently with clean wipes, allowed to air dry, and

examined using a compound light microscope at 100x and 400x magnification.

Using vaginal cytology and staining, estrous cycle stages can be identified based on the

presence of either nucleated epithelial cells, cornified (keratinized) anucleated epithelial cells,

leukocytes, or combinations of these cell types (Fig. S1). The proestrus stage is dominated by the

presence of nucleated epithelial cells (blue arrows). In contrast, when animals are in the estrus

stage, cornified anucleated epithelial cells are in abundance (yellow arrows). This stage can also

show the presence of small specks of bacteria adhering to the epithelial cells (black arrow in the

insert). In the metestrus stage, all three major cell types are present. When animals transition to

the diestrus stage, samples contain mostly leukocytes (gray arrows) with scattered appearances

of a few nucleated epithelial cells.

Cytologic characteristics can also show intermediate stages of the estrous cycle (Fig. S1)

[61]. Small, irregular shaped cells (green arrows) can signify the formation of nucleated cells and

are representative of late diestrus/early proestrus. Some lingering leukocytes may also be present

at this stage. Late proestrus/early estrus is usually marked by a transition of nucleated cells to

enucleation leaving a halo-like appearance (pink arrow) in the middle of the cell.

Murine CDI Model: The murine CDI model used in this study was adapted from Chen

et al. [59]. Mice were given three consecutive days of antibiotic cocktail containing kanamycin

(0.4 mg/ml), gentamicin (0.035 mg/ml), colistin (850 U/ml), metronidazole (0.215 mg/ml), and

vancomycin (0.045 mg/ml) *ad libitum* (14). Mice were then given autoclaved DI water for the

remainder of the experiment. On the day prior to *C. difficile* challenge (day -1), mice were given

an intraperitoneal (IP) injection of 10 mg/kg clindamycin. On the day of infection (day 0),

experimental groups were challenged with 10^8 *C. difficile* spores by oral gavage. To test for CDI

prophylaxis, mice were given 50 mg/kg daily gavage doses of either CamSA or CaPA dissolved

in DMSO at 0-, 24-, and 48-hours post-challenge. As control, a group of animals were given neat

DMSO excipient.

177   Mice were observed for signs of CDI twice daily and disease severity was scored

according to a CDI sign rubric adapted from previously published work [54]. According to the

rubric, pink anogenital area, mild wet tail, and weight loss of 8-15% were each given an

individual score of 1. Red anogenital area, lethargy/distress, increased diarrhea/soiled bedding,

hunched posture, and weight loss greater than 15% were each given an individual score of 2.

After adding all scores, animals scoring less than 3 were indistinguishable from noninfected

controls and were considered non-diseased. Animals scoring 3–4 were considered to have mild

CDI. Animals scoring 5–6 were considered to have moderate CDI. Animals scoring greater than

6 were considered to have severe CDI and were immediately culled.

186   **Hamster CDI Model:** The hamster CDI model used in this study was adapted from

procedures reported previously by *Howerton, et al.* [56]. Hamsters were orogastrically dosed

with 30 mg/kg clindamycin 1 day prior to infection (day -1). On day 0, animals were challenged

with 50 *C. difficile* strain 630 spores. Hamsters were also given a subclinical dose of 1 mg/kg

vancomycin daily from day 0 to day 2 to prevent clindamycin-induced colitis. To test for CDI

prophylaxis, hamsters were given a 300 mg/kg daily gavage dose of CaPA dissolved in DMSO

for 11 days beginning on the day of infection. Animals were observed for CDI signs.

Symptomatic animals were immediately culled.

Statistical Analyses: For the murine CDI model, severity of signs was analyzed by box-

and-whisker plots with a minimum of three independent values (n ≥ 3). Single factor ANOVA or

one-tailed *t*-test were performed using *R* ((3.5.0) to assess differences between groups at every

time point. Post-hoc comparisons of significant ANOVAs were calculated using the Scheffe test

for pairwise comparison among all groups. Statistical differences in Kaplan-Meier survival plots

were performed using the log-rank test.

Results

Sexual dimorphism of CDI severity in mice: We infected male mice (n=5) and female mice (n=5)

with three different *C. difficile* strains [50]. One cohort of male and female mice was infected

with spores from *C. difficile* strain 9001966 (ribotype 106). This strain shows slow CDI onset

(Fig. 1A). For both sexes, mice started to develop CDI symptoms on day 2 post-challenge. Male

mice showed varied CDI sign severities during days 2-4, but all animals recovered by day 5.

Female mice, on the other hand, showed more homogenous mild-to-moderate CDI

symptomatology on days 2-3, and all animals recovered by day 4. Even though the CDI timeline

was shorter in female mice, these animals developed statistically more severe signs than their

male counterparts at the peak of infection.

A second cohort of male and female mice was infected with spores from *C. difficile* strain

630 (ribotype 012). In both male mice (n=10) and female mice (n=10) infected with *C. difficile*

strain 630, CDI sign severity peaked on day 2 post-challenge. Male mice infected with *C.*

difficile strain 630 spores showed less individual variability in CDI symptomatology and shorter

infection progression compared to animals infected with *C. difficile* strain 9001966. Male mice

infected with *C. difficile* strain 630 did not show any signs on day 1 after challenge but showed

moderate CDI signs by day 2. CDI signs for male mice started to resolve by day 3 and

completely disappeared by day 4 post-challenge. In contrast, female mice started to develop mild

CDI signs one day after spore challenge (Fig. 1B). By day 2, female mice showed a notable

increase in CDI sign severity. Similar to male mice, female mice returned to mild CDI signs by

day 3 and were in complete remission by day 5 post-challenge.   Notably, male mice showed

mostly mild-to-moderate sign severity, while female mice showed statistically more severe

symptomatology (Fig. 1B).

A third cohort of male mice (n=10) and female mice (n=10) was infected with spores

from hypervirulent *C. difficile* strain R20291 (ribotype 027). In both male and female mice, CDI

progression was faster than in mice challenged with either strain 9001966 or 630. Male mice

challenged with *C. difficile* strain R20291 started to develop moderate CDI symptoms by day 1

post-spore challenge (Fig. 1C). Male mice remained moderately symptomatic until day 4, when

CDI signs started to resolve. Similar to animals infected with *C. difficile* strain 9001966 and *C.*

difficile strain 630, all male mice infected with *C. difficile* strain R20291 recovered and showed

no CDI signs by day 5. In contrast, female mice challenged with *C. difficile* strain R20291 spores

developed statistically more severe CDI signs than male mice the day after spore challenge (Fig.

1C and 2A). Indeed, while all males infected with *C. difficile* strain R20291 recovered from CDI,

more than half of the female cohort succumbed to the infection (Fig. 2B, $p = 0.049$). Surviving

female mice started to slowly recover from CDI and showed no symptoms by day 4.

Effect of diet on CDI severity in mice: We recently showed that an Atkins-type diet can

exacerbate CDI severity in mice [54]. Male (n=5) and female (n=5) mice challenged with *C.*

difficile strain R20291 while on this high protein/high fat (Atkins-type) diet showed delayed

onset of CDI signs compared to animals fed a standard diet (Fig. 2A). Although female mice fed

an Atkins-type diet did not show statistically more severe CDI signs (Fig. 2A) or survival (Fig.

2B) than female mice fed a standard diet, by day 3 post-challenge all female mice on the Atkins-

type diet had developed severe CDI and had to be culled.

In contrast, once the infection started, challenged male mice fed an Atkins-type diet

developed statistically more severe CDI signs compared to challenged mice fed a standard diet

(Fig. 2A). Indeed, while all male mice on a standard diet survived CDI, 75% of male mice fed an

Atkins-type diet developed signs severe enough to require euthanasia (Fig. 2B). In fact, survival

of male mice on an Atkins-type diet was statistically worse than male mice fed a standard diet

(p=0.025), statistically identical to female mice fed a standard diet, but still statistically better

(p=0.018) than females on the same Atkins-type diet.

Effect of estrous stage on CDI severity: Using vaginal smear cytology, we were able to monitor

the estrous cycle of female mice (Figs. 3 and 4). Animals (n=60) were binned into estrus stage

(blue columns), metestrus stage (orange columns), diestrus stage (green columns), and proestrus

stage (magenta columns). Some animals could not be unambiguously assigned to a specific

estrous stage [61]. These animals showed borderline cytology readings and were thus binned into

two new categories: late diestrus/early proestrus (pink columns) and late proestrus/early estrus

(yellow columns).

258   To determine the effect of the estrous cycle on murine CDI severity, female mice in

259   distinct stages of the estrous cycle were challenged with *C. difficile* strain R20291 spores. We

260   continued to simultaneously monitor the estrous cycle and CDI sign progressions.

261   As the estrous cycle does not stop during the course of the infection, animals could move

262   across different estrous stages while CDI signs are being monitored. As a first approach, we tried

263   to correlate daily CDI signs for each animal with their concurrent estrous stage, but we found no

264   statistical significance between groups (Fig. 3A).

265   Intriguingly, when daily CDI severity was plotted against the estrous stages of the prior

day, we found distinct daily patterns (Fig. 3B). The strongest statistical correlation between CDI

signs and prior day estrous phases was found on day 1 post-infection. Animals that were on

estrus when challenged with *C. difficile* spores (day 0), showed no CDI signs the following day

(day 1). Compared to animals that were in estrus on day 0, animals that were in metestrus,

diestrus, and late diestrus/early proestrus during spore challenge developed statistically higher

CDI severity the following day. Finally, animals that were at proestrus at day 0 developed the

most severe CDI symptoms the day after challenge with more than half reaching the clinical

endpoint.

The effect of prior-day estrous phases on CDI sign severity started to dissipate by day 2

post-challenge. Indeed, on day 2 post-challenge, animals that were on estrus on day 1 showed no

CDI symptoms. In contrast, animals that were on metestrus, diestrus, or late proestrus/early

estrus on day 1 post-challenge showed statistically higher CDI sign severity. Unfortunately, there

was an insufficient number of animals in the proestrus and the late diestrus/early proestrus

groups on day 1 for a complete statistical analysis of CDI severity on day 2 post-challenge.

Furthermore, because of the high CDI-mediated mortality on days 1 and 2, there was an

insufficient number of animals left for statistical analysis on CDI score vs estrous stages on day

3 post-challenge.

To determine if the prior-day estrous effect is independent of the infection time course,

we pooled the data for each estrous stage regardless of the day they were determined. This

allowed us to increase the number of animals in each estrous stage for higher statistical power.

As expected, plotting CDI severity against their concurrent estrous stages showed no statistically

significant differences (Fig. 4A).

In contrast, when CDI severity for each animal was plotted against their prior-day estrous

stage, a similar delayed pattern was observed (Fig. 3B). Indeed, when animals were in estrus at

any day during infection, they showed few CDI signs the next day (Fig. 4B). Animals that were

in metestrus, diestrus, and diestrus/proestrus at any time showed more varied, but similar,

292 intermediate symptomatology 24 hours later. In contrast, animals in proestrus at any time during

293 infection became extremely sick the next day and had to be culled. Any animals in

294 proestrus/estrus showed next-day CDI severity intermediate between proestrus and estrus.

296 *Sexual dimorphism of mouse response to anti-germinant prophylactics:* To evaluate the effect of

297 sexual dimorphism in CDI prevention, male mice (n=5 per group) challenged with *C. difficile*

298 strain 9001966 spores were treated with either DMSO excipient (Fig. 5A, solid blue columns),

299 CamSA (dashed blue columns), or CaPA (checkered blue columns). Even though untreated male

300 mice developed less severe CDI than untreated female mice (Fig. 1A), males did not respond to

301 the CDI prophylaxis activity of either CamSA or CaPA at any time during the infection process

302 (Fig. 5A).

303   In contrast, CaPA-treated female mice (Fig. 5B, checkered pink columns) showed

304 statistically less severe CDI symptoms on both days 2 and 3 post-challenged compared to

305 untreated controls (solid pink columns). CamSA treatment of female mice was less effective and

306 showed protection only on day 3 post-infection (dashed pink columns).

307   CDI prophylaxis by CaPA in female mice (n=10 per group) was also evaluated against

308 the more virulent *C. difficile* strain R20291 (Fig. 5C). Daily pairwise comparison shows that

309 CaPA-treated female mice (checkered pink columns) developed less severe CDI symptoms at

310 days 1 and 2 post-infection compared to control DMSO-treated animals (solid pink columns).

311   To understand the effect of estrous cycle on CDI prophylaxis, female mice were infected

312 with hypervirulent *C. difficile* strain R20291 (Fig. 5D) and treated with excipient (n=60, solid-

313 colored columns) or CaPA (n=18, checkered-colored columns). Pairwise comparisons showed

314 that animals that were at any time in estrus (blue columns) or metestrus (orange columns) failed

to respond to CaPA-treatment. In contrast, CaPA-treatment resulted in statistically significant

reduction of next-day CDI sign severity for animals that were at any point in diestrus (green

columns), diestrus/proestrus (pink columns), proestrus (magenta columns), and proestrus/estrus

(yellow columns).

Sexual dimorphism in a hamster model: Sexual dimorphism of CDI severity was also evaluated

in the hamster model of CDI (n=5 per group). In contrast to mice, male hamsters showed slightly

higher, but not statistically significant, mortality than females (Fig. 6, p=0.06). Indeed, all male

hamsters were deceased by day 3 (solid blue circles), while 40% of female hamsters survived to

the end of the experiment (solid pink circles). Moreover, when hamsters were treated with CaPA,

male hamster mortality was delayed, but all animals became moribund by day 6 (checkered blue

squares), whereas female hamsters treated with CaPA (checkered pink circles) showed

statistically higher survival rate than CaPA-treated males (p=0.03).

Discussion and Conclusions

Few attempts have been made to understand how sex affects CDI onset and severity. To assess the clinical importance of sex on human CDI, we did an extensive PUBMED search for primary articles relating to CDI risks. We found that most studies (n=87) did not stratify for sex. Of the studies that assessed sex as a variable (n=24), most linked CDI to other comorbidities. These studies tended to have small sample sizes, making it difficult to determine if sex correlated to CDI or to the underlying comorbidity. However, when CDI was the primary diagnosis, multiple large cohort studies showed that women are at higher risk than men of developing symptoms [25, 26, 28, 29, 62]. Indeed, a multicenter retrospective cohort study of over 1 million patients at 150 US hospitals showed that the odds of CDI in women was 1.2 times as likely as in men [62]. Although the correlation between sex and human CDI is clear, testing for susceptibility in women is cost prohibitive and impractical. Yet patient outcomes could be dramatically improved if clinicians could adapt antibiotic treatments to match specific hormone levels.

Even though a combination of clinical and laboratory variables was devised to predict treatment response to CDI therapy [63], a similar scale has not been designed for human CDI severity. However, CDI is not diagnosed unless symptoms are severe enough to warrant clinical intervention. In that sense, CDI diagnosis serves as a surrogate for symptoms severity in humans. Similar to other infection models, murine CDI provides an idealized and controlled (albeit imperfect) model to study disease onset, severity, and progression.

The murine CDI model presents symptoms progression similar to human CDI and responds to the same treatments [64, 65]. We have found that murine CDI follows a well-ordered

progression of disease signs. Based on these observations, we have implemented a rubric for CDI

severity development [51, 58].

In this study, the murine model recapitulates many of the differences in CDI outcome

observed between men and women [25, 26, 28, 29, 62]. For instance, during our investigations

into the factors affecting CDI progression and prophylaxis [51, 57, 58], we serendipitously found

that female mice developed more severe CDI signs than males.

To further test for sexual dimorphism in the murine model of CDI, we infected mice with

three different *C. difficile* strains. These strains represent different ribotypes and were selected

because they show distinct timelines for CDI onset. *C. difficile* strain 9001966 (ribotype 106) is a

clinical strain from the United Kingdom and shows delay onset of murine CDI. *C. difficile* strain

630 (ribotype 012) is a type strain [66, 67] that we have extensively tested for its capacity to

induce CDI symptoms in mice [57, 58]. Finally, *C. difficile* strain R20291 (ribotype 027) is a

hypervirulent strain that causes earlier infection onset and more severe murine CDI signs than

other strains [51].

When animals were infected with any of these strains, female mice developed statistically

more severe CDI than their male counterparts. The timing of these differences varied, but in

every case, the most significant differences in CDI severity coincided with the peak of disease

severity in their respective infection timeline.

In contrast to hamsters [56, 68], murine CDI seldom tends to be lethal [51, 57, 58].

However, we recently showed that an Atkins-type (high-protein/high-fat) diet can greatly

increase murine CDI sign severity and mortality [54]. When animals were fed this diet, mortality

of male mice increased significantly. Even then, male mice were still better off than females fed

the same diet. This shows that the sexual dimorphism of murine CDI is still present under

conditions where CDI is severe.

The most obvious difference between male and female mice is the female estrous cycle.

However, intraday correlation between estrous cycle and CDI severity showed no statistical

differences at any time during the infection. In contrast, estrous stages seem to have a 24-hour

delayed effect on CDI severity. This delay might be due to the time needed for hormones to

affect host physiological responses during infection.

The interplay between estrous phase succession and CDI progression is quite complex. In

female mice, CDI caused by *C. difficile* strain R20291 starts and reaches a maximum of severity

on the day following spore challenge. Surviving animals completely recover by day 4 post-

challenge. In contrast, the estrous cycle can take between 3-6 days to be completed. Furthermore,

the duration of each estrous stage is variable, with proestrus and metestrus lasting as little as 8

hours and diestrus lasting as long as 72 hours [69]. Due to these differential timelines, most of

the animals were infected during metestrus and very few were infected during diestrus. This was

further complicated by the observation that estrous stages showed a 24-hour delayed effect on

CDI severity. Thus, binning animals into different estrous stages for each day reduced our

statistical power for some of the estrous stages.

Nevertheless, our data clearly shows that estrus decreases CDI severity and proestrus

exacerbates CDI signs on the day following spore challenge. We have previously shown that *C.*

difficile spores germinate between 6- and 9-hours post-challenge in the intestines of mice. The

strong association between day 0 estrous phases and day 1 CDI severity could be due to estrous

cycle influencing the initial stages of CDI onset.

On the other hand, the 24-hour delay of estrous cycle effects seems to continue

throughout the infection timeline. This suggests that estrous stages can increase or decrease

female mice susceptibility to CDI also at the later stages of the infection course. It would be

interesting to determine if this prior-day estrous effect is still present when animals are

challenged with *C. difficile* strains (9001966 and 630) that cause slower CDI onset.

Anti-germination approaches represent a new therapeutic venue to prevent CDI onset.

When evaluated against the slow onset *C. difficile* strain 9001966, we found sexual dimorphism

in CDI prophylaxis. Indeed, even though males developed less severe CDI than females, anti-

germination compounds did not affect the course of male infection. In contrast, female mice

were protected from the most severe CDI signs by both CaPA and CamSA, although CaPA

seems to be more effective over time.

CaPA was also active in preventing CDI in female mice infected with hypervirulent

strain R20291. Intriguingly, the effect of CaPA on CDI sign severity shows the same 24-hour

delay following each estrous stage. The only exception to CaPA prophylaxis activity were

animals that came out of estrus and metestrus. The estrous stage independence from CaPA action

is easily explainable since following estrus, animals naturally do not develop CDI, making CaPA

treatment redundant. The refractivity to CaPA of animals coming from metestrus is baffling,

since in all other estrous stages, CaPA was able to completely prevent CDI onset. The metestrus

abnormality in the CDI prevention/estrous cycle axis needs to be investigated further.

Rodent models of CDI have been invaluable to study infection progression as well as to

test for new treatments [64, 70]. Mice are quite resistant to CDI and require pre-conditioning

with aggressive antibiotic treatment [59]. Nevertheless, once CDI is established, the murine

model shows symptom progression that mimics human CDI [70].

Even though the hamster is the most used CDI model, disease onset is fulminant [71].

These conditions are rarely seen in human primary CDI. On the other hand, vancomycin

treatment of infected hamsters results in delayed sign onset similar to human CDI relapse [71,

72]. Hence, the two CDI rodent models complement each other and cover the spectrum of human

CDI symptomatology [56, 70].

Because CDI onset and symptomatology diverge in mouse and hamsters, it is not

uncommon to find distinct responses to infection and treatments. Indeed, we recently found that

carbohydrate-rich diets are protective in murine CDI [54], but result in delayed CDI onset in

hamsters [68]. Here we found a similar mirror effect between the two models: while female mice

developed more severe CDI signs, female hamsters were slightly more resistant to CDI-mediated

mortality and responded better to CDI prophylaxis. The causes for these interspecies differences

are currently under investigation.

The contrast between proestrus-mediated and estrus-mediated murine CDI severity could

not be starker. While CDI is most deadly following proestrus, prior-day estrus offers strong CDI

protection to animals. Furthermore, prior-day metestrus and diestrus correlate with more

heterogeneous CDI symptomatology.

An obvious factor underlying CDI sexual dimorphism is the fluctuating hormone levels

during female ovulation [37]. Indeed, CDI-exacerbating proestrus is characterized by large

increases in estradiol, progesterone, LH, and FSH levels and low concentrations of PRL [40].

These spikes in hormone levels then allow entry into the CDI-protective estrus. At this point, the

high concentrations of circulating estradiol, progesterone, LH, and FSH characteristic of

proestrus are severely diminished followed by an increase of serum PRL. The metestrus and

diestrus stages tend to have hormonal levels that fall in between those of proestrus and estrus

[40].

Hormones have strong effects on both human and murine metabolisms [73] and can

affect cell-mediated and humoral immune responses [74-76], as well as susceptibility to bacterial

infections [20]. Changes in sex hormones levels can also affect the gut microbiota [77-79], the

main protective barrier against *C. difficile* colonization [80].

Previous work in the Abel-Santos laboratory has shown that steroidal sex hormones, but

not prostaglandins, can directly interact with *C. difficile* spores and modulate the germination

process [49]. Interestingly, sex steroidal hormones are present at low levels in the intestinal tract

[50]. Due to the heterogeneous environment of the intestinal lumen, there could be localized

areas of higher hormone concentrations where they could interact with *C. difficile* spores.

Together, these data suggest that the estrous cycle and its concurrent hormonal changes

could affect CDI symptomatology directly by modulating spore germination in the intestine

and/or indirectly by globally changing the host's gut microbiome and/or immune status. The

effect of individual hormones on the biovariables that affect CDI severity needs to be

established.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Institute of Health [grant numbers R01-

AI109139 and R16AI175022]. The authors thank Prof. Steve Firestine from Wayne State

University for the synthesis of CaPA, and Prof. Nigel Minton from University of Nottingham for

providing clinical *C. difficile* strains.

Figure 1

Figure 1. *Effect of sex on murine CDI severity.* Box-and-whisker plots of CDI sign severity in

male mice (blue bars) and female mice (pink bars) challenged with *C. difficile* spores from (A)

strain 9001966, (B) strain 630, and (C) strain R20291. Signs of severity were determined daily

based on the CDI scoring rubric reported previously [54]. Animals with a score of <3 were

indistinguishable from noninfected controls and were considered non-diseased. Animals with a

score of 3 to 4 were considered to have mild CDI. Animals with a score of 5 to 6 were

considered to have moderate CDI. Animals with a score of >6 were considered to have severe

CDI and were immediately culled. Dashed line represents the clinical end point. Horizontal bold

lines represent median values, asterisks represent mean values, bars represent interquartile

ranges, whiskers represent maximum and minimum values, and dots represent inner point values.

Daily statistical differences between males and females were determined by one-tailed t-test.

Figure 2

Figure 2. *Effect of Atkins-style diet on murine CDI severity and survival.* (A) Box-and-whisker

plots of CDI sign severity and (B) Kaplan-Meier survival plots for female mice fed a standard

diet (dark pink), male mice fed a standard diet (dark blue), female mice fed an Atkins-type diet

(light pink), and male mice fed an Atkins-type diet (light blue) challenged with *C. difficile* spores

from strain R20291 [54]. For panel A, single-factor ANOVA was performed at every time point

to assess differences among the sign severity means of the different groups. ANOVA results

with *P* values of <0.05 were analyzed *post hoc* using the Scheffe test for pairwise comparison

between daily groups. Columns that are labeled with different letters are statistically different

within the same day. For panel B, statistical survival comparisons of different groups were

performed by log rank test.

Figure 3

Figure 3. *Time-dependent effect of estrous cycle on daily murine CDI severity.* Box-and-whisker plots of daily CDI sign severity plotted against (A) their concurrent estrous stages and (B) their prior-day estrous stages. Animals in estrus (blue bars), metestrus (orange bars), diestrus (green bars), late diestrus/early proestrus (pink bars), proestrus (magenta bars), and late proestrus/early estrus (yellow bars) were challenged with *C. difficile* spores from strain R20291 on day 0. CDI sign severity and estrous cycle stages were determined daily. Signs of severity were determined based on the CDI scoring rubric reported previously [54]. Single-factor ANOVA was performed at every time point to assess daily differences among the sign severity means of the different estrous stages. ANOVA results with *P* values of <0.05 were analyzed *post hoc* using the Scheffe test for pairwise comparison between daily groups. Columns that are labeled with different letters are statistically different within the same day.

Figure 4

Figure 4. *Time-independent effect of estrous cycle on murine CDI severity.* Cumulative box-and-

whisker plots of CDI sign severity caused by *C. difficile* strain R20291 plotted against (A) their

concurrent estrous stages, and (B) their prior-day estrous stages. Animals that were at estrus

(blue bars), metestrus (orange bars), diestrus (green bars), late diestrus/early proestrus (pink

bars), proestrus (magenta bars), and late proestrus/early estrus (yellow bars) at any day were

respectively pooled together. CDI sign severity and estrous cycle stages were determined daily.

Signs of severity were determined based on the CDI scoring rubric reported previously [54].

Single-factor ANOVA was performed to assess differences among the sign severity means of the

different pooled estrous stages. ANOVA results with *P* values of <0.05 were analyzed *post*

hoc using the Scheffe test for pairwise comparison between all groups. Columns that are labeled

with different letters are statistically different.

Figure 5

Figure 5. *Effect of sex and estrous cycle on murine CDI prophylaxis.* (A) Box-and-whisker plots

of CDI sign severity in male mice challenged with *C. difficile* spores from strain 9001966 and

treated with DMSO (blue solid bars), CamSA (blue striped bars), or CaPA (blue checkered bars).

(B) Box-and-whisker plots of CDI sign severity in female mice challenged with *C. difficile*

spores from strain 9001966 and treated with DMSO (pink solid bars), CamSA (pink striped

bars), or CaPA (pink checkered bars). (C) Box-and-whisker plots of CDI sign severity in female

mice challenged with *C. difficile* spores from strain R20291 and treated with DMSO (pink solid

bars), or CaPA (pink checkered bars). (D) Cumulative box-and-whisker plots of CDI sign

severity caused by *C. difficile* strain R20291 plotted against their prior-day estrous stages and

treated with DMSO (solid bars) or with CaPA (checkered bars). Animals that were at estrus (blue

bars), metestrus (orange bars), diestrus (green bars), late diestrus/early proestrus (pink bars),

proestrus (magenta bars), and late proestrus/early estrus (yellow bars) at any day were

respectively pooled together. CDI sign severity and estrous cycle stages were determined daily.

Signs of severity were determined based on the CDI scoring rubric reported previously [54]. For

panels A and B, single-factor ANOVA was performed at every time point to assess daily

differences among the sign severity means of the DMSO-treated, CaPA-treated, and CamSA-

treated groups. ANOVA results with *P* values of <0.05 were analyzed *post hoc* using the Scheffe

test for pairwise comparison between daily groups. Columns that are labeled with different

letters are statistically different. For panels C and D, daily statistical differences between DMSO-

treated and CamSA-treated animals were determined by one-tailed *t*-test.

Figure 6. *Effect of sex on hamster CDI survival.* Kaplan-Meier survival plot for DMSO-treated

female hamsters (solid pink circles), CaPA-treated female hamsters (checkered pink circles),

DMSO-treated male hamsters (solid blue circles), and CaPA-treated male hamsters (checkered

blue circles) challenged with *C. difficile* spores from strain R20291. Statistical survival

comparisons between groups were performed by log rank test.

Supplementary Information

Figure S1. *Vaginal cytology of murine estrous cycle stages:* Vaginal gavage samples were

stained with crystal violet and examined using a compound light microscope. Estrous cycle

stages can be identified based on the presence of nucleated epithelial cells (blue arrows),

cornified (keratinized) anucleated epithelial cells (yellow arrows), associated bacteria (black

arrow), leukocytes (gray arrows), Small, irregular shaped cells (green arrows), halo-like cells

(pink arrows), or combinations of these cell types. Images for proestrus estrus, late diestrus/early

proestrus, metestrus, and diestrus were acquired at 100X magnification. The image for late

proestrus/early estrus and the insert in the estrus image were acquired at 400X magnification.

References

1.   Dicks LMT, Mikkelsen LS, Brandsborg E, Marcotte H: *Clostridium difficile*, **the**

560   **Difficult "Kloster" Fuelled by Antibiotics**. *Current Microbiology* 2019, **76**(6):774-782.

561   2.   CDC: **Antibiotic Resistance Threats in the United States 2019**. In. Edited by Services

562   USDoHaH. Atlanta, GA.

563   3.   Zhang S, Palazuelos-Munoz S, Balsells EM, Nair H, Chit A, Kyaw MH: **Cost of hospital**

564   **management of Clostridium difficile infection in United States—a meta-analysis and**

565   **modelling study**. *J BMC Infectious Diseases* 2016, **16**(1):447.

566   4.   Ghose C: *Clostridium difficile* **Infection in the Twenty-First Century**. *Emerging*

567   *microbes & Infections* 2013, **2**(9):e62-e62.

568   5.   Olsen MA, Young-Xu Y, Stwalley D, Kelly CP, Gerding DN, Saeed MJ, Mahé C,

569   Dubberke ER: **The Burden of** *Clostridium difficile* **Infection: Estimates of the**

570   **Incidence of CDI from U.S. Administrative Databases**. *BMC Infect Dis* 2016, **16**:177-

571   177.

572   6.   McDonald LC, Gerding DN, Johnson S, Bakken JS, Carroll KC, Coffin SE, Dubberke

573   ER, Garey KW, Gould CV, Kelly C *et al*: **Clinical Practice Guidelines for Clostridium**

574   **difficile Infection in Adults and Children: 2017 Update by the Infectious Diseases**

575   **Society of America (IDSA) and Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America**

576   **(SHEA)**. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2018, **66**(7):e1-e48.

577   7.   Mylonakis E, Ryan ET, Calderwood SB: *Clostridium difficile*-**Associated Diarrhea: A**

578   **Review**. *Arch Intern Med* 2001, **161**(4):525-533.

579   8.   Greig J: **Fidaxomicin in the Treatment of Clostridium difficile-Associated Diarrhoea**.

580   *Clinical Drug Investigation* 2013, **33**(1):93-94.

9.   Bassetti M, Villa G, Pecori D, Arzese A, Wilcox M: **Epidemiology, diagnosis and**

treatment of Clostridium difficile infection. *Expert Review of Anti-infective Therapy*

2012, **10**(12):1405-1423.

10.   Leuzzi R, Adamo R, Scarselli M: **Vaccines against Clostridium difficile**. *Hum Vaccin*

Immunother 2014, **10**(6):1466-1477.

11.   Yip C, Phan J, Abel-Santos E: **Treatment of *Clostridium difficile* Infections**. In:

Antibiotic Drug Discovery: New Targets and Molecular Entities. Edited by Firestine SM,

Lister T. London, UK: The Royal Society of Chemistry; 2017: 1-19

12.   Bakken JS, Borody T, Brandt LJ, Brill JV, Demarco DC, Franzos MA, Kelly C, Khoruts

A, Louie T, Martinelli LP *et al*: **Treating Clostridium difficile Infection With Fecal**

Microbiota Transplantation. *Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology* 2011,

9(12):1044-1049.

13.   Hong AS, Yu WY, Hong JM, Cross CL, Azab M, Ohning G, Jayaraj M: **Proton pump**

inhibitor in upper gastrointestinal fecal microbiota transplant: A systematic review

and analysis. *Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology* 2020, **35**(6):932-940.

14.   Kuijper EJ, Allegretii J, Hawkey P, Sokol H, Goldenberg S, Ianiro G, Gasbarrini A,

Kump P, Costello SP, Keller J *et al*: **A necessary discussion after transmission of**

multidrug-resistant organisms through faecal microbiota transplantations. *The*

Lancet Infectious Diseases 2019, **19**(11):1161-1162.

15.   Eze P, Balsells E, Kyaw MH, Nair H: **Risk factors for Clostridium difficile infections -**

an overview of the evidence base and challenges in data synthesis. *Journal of global*

health 2017, **7**(1):010417-010417.

16.   Freeman J, Wilcox MH: **Antibiotics and Clostridium difficile**. *Microbes and Infection*

1999, **1**(5):377-384.

17.   Bobak D, Arfons LM, Creger RJ, Lazarus HM: **Clostridium difficile-associated disease**

in human stem cell transplant recipients: coming epidemic or false alarm[quest].

Bone Marrow Transplant 2008, **42**(11):705-713.

18.   Arslan H, Inci EK, Azap OK, Karakayali H, Torgay A, Haberal M: **Etiologic agents of**

diarrhea in solid organ recipients. *Transplant Infectious Disease* 2007, **9**(4):270-275.

19.   Sanchez Travis H, Brooks John T, Sullivan PS, Juhasz M, Mintz E, Dworkin Mark S,

Jones Jeffrey L: **Bacterial Diarrhea in Persons with HIV Infection, United States,**

1992-2002. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2005, **41**(11):1621-1627.

20.   Vázquez-Martínez ER, García-Gómez E, Camacho-Arroyo I, González-Pedrajo B:

Sexual dimorphism in bacterial infections. *Biology of Sex Differences* 2018, **9**(1):27.

21.   Fabbian F, Giorgi AD, López-Soto PJ, Pala M, Tiseo R, Cultrera R, Gallerani M,

Manfredini R: **Is Female Gender as Harmful as Bacteria? Analysis of Hospital**

Admissions for Urinary Tract Infections in Elderly Patients. *Journal of Women's*

Health 2015, **24**(7):587-592.

22.   Sonnex C: **Influence of ovarian hormones on urogenital infection**. *Sex Transm Infect*

1998, **74**(1):11-19.

23.   Homma H, Hoy E, Xu DZ, Lu Q, Feinman R, Deitch EA: **The female intestine is more**

resistant than the male intestine to gut injury and inflammation when subjected to

conditions associated with shock states. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol* 2005,

288(3):G466-472.

24. Falagas ME, Mourtzoukou EG, Vardakas KZ: **Sex differences in the incidence and**

severity of respiratory tract infections. *Respir Med* 2007, **101**(9):1845-1863.

25. Lucado J GCEA: **Clostridium difficile Infections (CDI) in Hospital Stays, 2009**. In.

Edited by (US) AfHRaQ. Rockville (MD); 2012.

26. Elixhauser A SC, Gould C. : **Readmissions following Hospitalizations with**

Clostridium difficile Infections, 2009. In. Edited by (US) AfHRaQ. Rockville (MD);

2012.

27. Saffouri G, Gupta A, Loftus EV, Baddour LM, Pardi DS, Khanna S: **The incidence and**

outcomes from Clostridium difficile infection in hospitalized adults with

inflammatory bowel disease. *Scandinavian Journal of Gastroenterology* 2017,

52(11):1240-1247.

28. Choi H-Y, Park S-Y, Kim Y-A, Yoon T-Y, Choi J-M, Choe B-K, Ahn S-H, Yoon S-J,

Lee Y-R, Oh I-H: **The epidemiology and economic burden of Clostridium difficile**

infection in Korea. *BioMed research international* 2015, **2015**:510386-510386.

29. King A, Mullish BH, Williams HRT, Aylin P: **Comparative epidemiology of**

Clostridium difficile infection: England and the USA. *International Journal for*

Quality in Health Care 2017, **29**(6):785-791.

30. Garey KW, Dao-Tran TK, Jiang ZD, Price MP, Gentry LO, DuPont HL: **A clinical risk**

index for Clostridium difficile infection in hospitalised patients receiving broad-

spectrum antibiotics. *Journal of Hospital Infection* 2008, **70**(2):142-147.

31. Johnson S: **Recurrent Clostridium difficile infection: A review of risk factors,**

treatments, and outcomes. *Journal of Infection* 2009, **58**(6):403-410.

32.   Garey KW, Sethi S, Yadav Y, DuPont HL: **Meta-analysis to assess risk factors for**

recurrent Clostridium difficile infection. *Journal of Hospital Infection* 2008,

70(4):298-304.

33.   Rouphael NG, O'Donnell JA, Bhatnagar J, Lewis F, Polgreen PM, Beekmann S, Guarner

J, Killgore GE, Coffman B, Campbell J *et al*: **Clostridium difficile–associated**

diarrhea: an emerging threat to pregnant women. *American Journal of Obstetrics and*

Gynecology 2008, **198**(6):635.e631-635.e636.

34.   Cózar-Llistó A, Ramos-Martinez A, Cobo J: **Clostridium difficile Infection in Special**

High-Risk Populations. *Infectious diseases and therapy* 2016, **5**(3):253-269.

35.   Meda M, Virgincar N, Gentry V, Walker A, Macdonald N, Hooper M, Wells S,

Anderson C, Garner D, Mumtaz S *et al*: **Clostridium difficile infection in pregnant and**

postpartum women in 2 hospitals and a review of literature. *American Journal of*

Infection Control 2019, **47**(1):e7-e14.

36.   Garey KW, Jiang Z-D, Yadav Y, Mullins B, Wong K, Dupont HL: **Peripartum**

Clostridium difficile infection: case series and review of the literature. *American*

Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology 2008, **199**(4):332-337.

37.   Draper CF, Duisters K, Weger B, Chakrabarti A, Harms AC, Brennan L, Hankemeier T,

Goulet L, Konz T, Martin FP *et al*: **Menstrual cycle rhythmicity: metabolic patterns in**

healthy women. *Sci Rep* 2018, **8**(1):14568.

38.   Franchimont P, Dourcy C, Legros JJ, Reuter A, Vrindts-Gevaert Y, Cauwenberge JRV,

Gaspard U: **Prolactin levels during the menstrual cycle**. *Clinical Endocrinology* 1976,

5(6):643-650.

39.   Byers SL, Wiles MV, Dunn SL, Taft RA: **Mouse Estrous Cycle Identification Tool and**

Images. *PLOS ONE* 2012, **7**(4):e35538.

40.   McLean AC, Valenzuela N, Fai S, Bennett SAL: **Performing Vaginal Lavage, Crystal**

Violet Staining, and Vaginal Cytological Evaluation for Mouse Estrous Cycle

Staging Identification. *JoVE* 2012(67):e4389.

41.   Nilsson ME, Vandenput L, Tivesten Å, Norlén AK, Lagerquist MK, Windahl SH,

Börjesson AE, Farman HH, Poutanen M, Benrick A *et al*: **Measurement of a**

Comprehensive Sex Steroid Profile in Rodent Serum by High-Sensitive Gas

Chromatography-Tandem Mass Spectrometry. *Endocrinology* 2015, **156**(7):2492-

2502.

42.   Burns DA, Heap JT, Minton NP: *Clostridium difficile* **Spore Germination: an Update**.

Research in Microbiology 2010, **161**(9):730-734.

43.   Giel JL, Sorg JA, Sonenshein AL, Zhu J: **Metabolism of Bile Salts in Mice Influences**

Spore Germination in *Clostridium difficile*. *PLOS ONE* 2010, **5**(1):e8740.

44.   Francis MB, Allen CA, Shrestha R, Sorg JA: **Bile acid recognition by the** *Clostridium*

difficile **germinant receptor, Cspc, is important for establishing infection**. *PLOS*

Pathogens 2013, **9**(5):e1003356.

45.   Sorg JA, Sonenshein AL: **Chenodeoxycholate is an inhibitor of** *Clostridium difficile*

spore germination. *J Bacteriol* 2009, **191**(3):1115-1117.

46.   Sorg JA, Sonenshein AL: **Bile salts and glycine as cogerminants for** *Clostridium*

difficile **spores**. *J Bacteriol* 2008, **190**(7):2505-2512.

47.   Howerton A, Ramirez N, Abel-Santos E: **Mapping interactions between germinants**

and *Clostridium difficile* **spores**. *J Bacteriol* 2011, **193**(1):274-282.

48.   Ramirez N, Liggins M, Abel-Santos E: **Kinetic evidence for the presence of putative**

germination receptors in *C. difficile* spores. *J Bacteriol* 2010, **192**(16):4215-4222.

49.   Liggins M, Ramirez N, Magnuson N, Abel-Santos E: **Progesterone analogs influence**

germination of *Clostridium sordellii* and *Clostridium difficile* spores *in vitro*. *Journal*

of Bacteriology 2011, **193**(11):2776-2783.

50.   Adlercreutz H, Martin F: **Biliary excretion and intestinal metabolism of progesterone**

and estrogens in man. *Journal of Steroid Biochemistry* 1980, **13**(2):231-244.

51.   Phan JR, Do DM, Truong MC, Ngo C, Phan JH, Sharma SK, Schilke A, Mefferd CC,

Villarama JV, Lai D *et al*: **An Aniline-Substituted Bile Salt Analog Protects both Mice**

and Hamsters from Multiple *Clostridioides difficile* Strains. *Antimicrobial Agents and*

Chemotherapy 2022, **66**(1):e01435-01421.

52.   Yip C, Okada NC, Howerton A, Amei A, Abel-Santos E: **Pharmacokinetics of Camsa,**

a Potential Prophylactic Compound Against *Clostridioides difficile* Infections.

Biochemical Pharmacology 2021, **183**:114314.

53.   Sharma SK, Yip C, Simon MP, Phan J, Abel-Santos E, Firestine SM: **Studies on the**

Importance of the 7α-, and 12α- hydroxyl groups of N-Aryl-3α,7α,12α-trihydroxy-

5β-cholan-24-amides on their Antigermination Activity Against a Hypervirulent

Strain of *Clostridioides (Clostridium) difficile*. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*

2021, **52**:116503.

54.   Mefferd CC, Bhute SS, Phan JR, Villarama JV, Do DM, Alarcia S, Abel-Santos E,

Hedlund BP: **A High-Fat/High-Protein, Atkins-Type Diet Exacerbates *Clostridioides***

***(Clostridium) difficile* Infection in Mice, whereas a High-Carbohydrate Diet**

Protects. *mSystems* 2020, **5**(1):e00765-00719.

715 55. Yip C, Hassan C, Phan J, Abel-Santos E: **Modulators of Bacterial Spore Germination**.

716   In: *Germination: Types, Process and Effects*. Edited by Mora-Escobedo R, Martinez C,

717   Reynoso R. New York, NY: Nova Science Publisher; 2019.

718 56. Howerton A, Seymour CO, Murugapiran SK, Liao Z, Phan JR, Estrada A, Wagner AJ,

719   Mefferd CC, Hedlund BP, Abel-Santos E: **Effect of the Synthetic Bile Salt Analog**

720   **CamSA on the Hamster Model of *Clostridium difficile* Infection**. *Antimicrobial Agents*

721   *and Chemotherapy* 2018, **62**(10): e02251-02217.

722 57. Howerton A, Patra M, Abel-Santos E: **Fate of Ingested *Clostridium difficile* Spores in**

723   **Mice**. *PloS one* 2013, **8**(8):e72620-e72620.

724 58. Howerton A, Patra M, Abel-Santos E: **A New Strategy for the Prevention of**

725   ***Clostridium difficile* Infection**. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2013, **207**(10):1498-1504.

726 59. Chen X, Katchar K, Goldsmith JD, Nanthakumar N, Cheknis A, Gerding DN, Kelly CP:

727   **A Mouse Model of Clostridium difficile-Associated Disease**. *Gastroenterology* 2008,

728   **135**(6):1984-1992.

729 60. Sun X, Wang H, Zhang Y, Chen K, Davis B, Feng H: **Mouse Relapse Model of**

730   **Clostridium difficile Infection**. *Infection and Immunity* 2011, **79**(7):2856-2864.

731 61. Cora MC, Kooistra L, Travlos G: **Vaginal Cytology of the Laboratory Rat and Mouse:**

732   **Review and Criteria for the Staging of the Estrous Cycle Using Stained Vaginal**

733   **Smears**. *Toxicol Pathol* 2015, **43**(6):776-793.

734 62. Watson T, Hickok J, Fraker S, Korwek K, Poland RE, Septimus E: **Evaluating the Risk**

735   **Factors for Hospital-Onset Clostridium difficile Infections in a Large Healthcare**

736   **System**. *Clin Infect Dis* 2018, **66**(12):1957-1959.

63.   Miller MA, Louie T, Mullane K, Weiss K, Lentnek A, Golan Y, Kean Y, Sears P:

Derivation and validation of a simple clinical bedside score (ATLAS) for

Clostridium difficile infection which predicts response to therapy. *BMC Infect Dis*

2013, **13**(1):148.

64.   Warn P, Thommes P, Sattar A, Corbett D, Flattery A, Zhang Z, Black T, Hernandez LD,

Therien AG: **Disease Progression and Resolution in Rodent Models of Clostridium**

difficile Infection and Impact of Antitoxin Antibodies and Vancomycin. 2016,

60(11):6471-6482.

65.   Hutton ML, Mackin KE, Chakravorty A, Lyras D: **Small animal models for the study**

of Clostridium difficile disease pathogenesis. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* 2014,

352(2):140-149.

66.   Dannheim H, Riedel T, Neumann-Schaal M, Bunk B, Schober I, Spröer C, Chibani CM,

Gronow S, Liesegang H, Overmann J *et al*: **Manual curation and reannotation of the**

genomes of Clostridium difficile 630Δerm and C. difficile 630. *Journal of Medical*

Microbiology 2017, **66**(3):286-293.

67.   Sebaihia M, Wren BW, Mullany P, Fairweather NF, Minton N, Stabler R, Thomson NR,

Roberts AP, Cerdeno-Tarraga AM, Wang H *et al*: **The Multidrug-Resistant Human**

Pathogen *Clostridium difficile* Has A Highly Mobile, Mosaic Genome. *Nature*

Genetics 2006, **38**(7):779-786.

68.   Bhute SS, Mefferd CC, Phan JR, Ahmed M, Fox-King AE, Alarcia S, Villarama JV,

Abel-Santos E, Hedlund BP: **A High-Carbohydrate Diet Prolongs Dysbiosis and**

Clostridioides difficile Carriage and Increases Delayed Mortality in a Hamster

Model of Infection. *Microbiol Spectr* 2022:e0180421.

69.   Ajayi AF, Akhigbe RE: **Staging of the estrous cycle and induction of estrus in**

761   **experimental rodents: an update**. *Fertil Res Pract* 2020, **6**:5.

762   70.   Best EL, Freeman J, Wilcox MH: **Models for the study of *Clostridium difficile***

763   **infection**. *Gut Microbes* 2012 **3**(2):145-167.

764   71.   Mullany P, Roberts A, Douce G, Goulding D: **Refinement of the Hamster Model of**

765   **Clostridium difficile Disease**. In: *Clostridium difficile*. vol. 646: Humana Press; 2010:

766   215-227.

767   72.   Anton PM, O'Brien M, Kokkotou E, Eisenstein B, Michaelis A, Rothstein D, Paraschos

768   S, Kelly CP, Pothoulakis C: **Rifalazil Treats and Prevents Relapse of Clostridium**

769   **difficile-Associated Diarrhea in Hamsters**. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*

770   2004, **48**(10):3975-3979.

771   73.   Comitato R, Saba A, Turrini A, Arganini C, Virgili F: **Sex hormones and**

772   **macronutrient metabolism**. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 2015, **55**(2):227-241.

773   74.   Taneja V: **Sex Hormones Determine Immune Response**. *Front Immunol* 2018, **9**:1931-

774   1931.

775   75.   Klein SL: **The effects of hormones on sex differences in infection: from genes to**

776   **behavior**. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews* 2000, **24**(6):627-638.

777   76.   Shah NM, Lai PF, Imami N, Johnson MR: **Progesterone-Related Immune Modulation**

778   **of Pregnancy and Labor**. *Frontiers in Endocrinology* 2019, **10**(198).

779   77.   Mayneris-Perxachs J, Arnoriaga-Rodríguez M, Luque-Córdoba D, Priego-Capote F,

780   Pérez-Brocal V, Moya A, Burokas A, Maldonado R, Fernández-Real J-M: **Gut**

781   **microbiota steroid sexual dimorphism and its impact on gonadal steroids: influences**

782   **of obesity and menopausal status**. *Microbiome* 2020, **8**(1):136.

78.   Colldén H, Landin A, Wallenius V, Elebring E, Fändriks L, Nilsson ME, Ryberg H,

Poutanen M, Sjögren K, Vandenput L *et al*: **The gut microbiota is a major regulator of**

androgen metabolism in intestinal contents. *American Journal of Physiology-*

Endocrinology and Metabolism 2019, **317**(6):E1182-E1192.

79.   Chen KL, Madak-Erdogan Z: **Estrogen and Microbiota Crosstalk: Should We Pay**

Attention? *Trends in Endocrinology & Metabolism* 2016, **27**(11):752-755.

80.   Shin J-H, Park Y-H, Sim M, Kim S-A, Joung H, Shin D-M: **Serum level of sex steroid**

hormone is associated with diversity and profiles of human gut microbiome.

Research in Microbiology 2019.