

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus Aureus* Nasal Carriage among Health Care Workers in Surgery Department at a Tertiary Care Hospital in Egypt

Mai M. Malek and Doaa A. Abo-Alella*

Department of Medical Microbiology & Immunology- Faculty of Medicine- Zagazig University-Egypt

ABSTRACT

Key words:

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, MRSA, nasal carriage, health care workers

*Corresponding Author:

Doaa Alhussein Abo-Alella
Department of Medical
Microbiology & Immunology-
Faculty of Medicine- Zagazig
University-Egypt
Tel.: +201223512499
doaa.alhussein.1982@gmail.com

Background: High rate of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) nasal carriage among health care workers (HCWs) represents a major risk factor for hospital acquired infections (HAIs). **Objectives:** Our objectives were to determine the rate of MRSA nasal carriage among HCWs in Surgery Department in our hospital, to investigate the antibiotic susceptibility pattern for MRSA isolates and to assess the effectiveness of mupirocin for eradication of MRSA. **Methodology:** A cross sectional study was conducted on 150 HCWs. Nasal swabs were collected for detection of MRSA isolates and their antimicrobial susceptibility pattern by standard bacteriological procedures. **Results:** The carriage rate of MRSA was 14.6%. Nurses showed a significantly higher carriage rate. Using mupirocin, 70% of MRSA carriers were decolonized. **Conclusion:** High rate of nasal carriage of MRSA among HCWs in our surgery department necessitate application of proper infection control measures.

INTRODUCTION

Hospital acquired infections (HAIs) are one of the commonest problems in hospitals throughout the world. About 20% of surgical patients acquire at least one HAI. *Staphylococci* and *Enterococci* are major causes of these infections¹.

The prevalence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) infections has increased dramatically over the past two decades. It has become endemic in many hospitals and is one of the commonest pathogens related to the outbreaks within the healthcare facilities². In a recent study from Egypt, the prevalence of *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) was 46.5% of isolates collected from both patients and sources of infection, 69.9% of them were MRSA³. In another recent study from Egypt, the prevalence of MRSA was 84.6% of *S. aureus* isolates from patients⁴. These data suggest that MRSA represents a major problem in Egyptian hospitals

Nasal colonization is considered crucial in the pathogenesis of MRSA infection acting as the reservoir for infection. It has been reported that the rate of nasal carriage of *S. aureus* and MRSA among hospital personnel varying from 16.8% to 90%⁵.

The risk of MRSA transmission via transiently colonized hands of permanent nasal MRSA carriers in health care workers (HCWs) to the patients or hospital environment is three to six times greater than non-carriers and transient carriers⁶. Poor infection control

measures are usually caught up in both acquiring and transmitting MRSA by HCWs⁷.

It has been recommended to apply regular surveillance and eradication of nasal *S. aureus* and MRSA in addition to standard precautions including, hand wash after visiting every patient, wearing protective mask when coming in contact with the patient harbouring MRSA as infection control policy for this organism⁸.

Awareness of the rate of MRSA carriage and its antimicrobial susceptibility pattern in our locality is required for selection of the suitable empirical treatment for *S. aureus* infections⁹.

METHODOLOGY

Study design:

A cross sectional study was conducted during the period from January to June 2018 in Surgery Department and Medical Microbiology and Immunology Department at Zagazig University Hospitals.

Ethical considerations: The study was approved by Institutional Review Board (IRB) Committee of Zagazig Faculty of Medicine. An informed consent form was signed by each participant.

Subjects

The study involved 150 HCWs including doctors, nurses, and others health care personnel. Their demographic data (name, age sex, working category,

duration of health care employment) were collected using questionnaires.

Exclusion criteria for the population under study were *S. aureus* infections (such as impetigo, skin and soft tissue infections or upper respiratory tract infection), fever, use of antibiotics, use of nasal medications and/or undergoing nasal surgery within the last three months.

Sample collection

Nasal swabs were collected from each participant. The cotton swab, moistured with normal saline, was applied into each nostril to a depth of about one cm and rotated 4–5 times in both directions¹⁰. Samples were transported to the laboratory of Medical Microbiology and Immunology Department within two hours of sampling.

Sample processing:

The samples were cultured on Mannitol salt Agar (Oxoid, England) plates along with the positive control (*S. aureus* ATCC 25923) and negative control (*Staphylococcus epidermidis* ATCC 12228) to be incubated at 37°C for 48 hours. Mannitol-positive colonies were re-cultured on nutrient agar plates at 37°C for 24 hours. Isolated colonies were identified by Gram stain and colonies suspected to be *S. aureus* were tested for catalase, coagulase and deoxyribonuclease (DNase) production by standard microbiological protocols¹¹. Isolates that were catalase-positive, coagulase-positive and DNase-positive were considered *S. aureus*.

All isolates were tested for their antibiotic susceptibility by disc diffusion method on Müller Hinton Agar (Oxoid, England) plates¹². The antibiotics used were Amikacin (30µg), Azithromycin (15µg), Cefoxitin (30µg), Chloramphenicol (30µg), Ciprofloxacin (5µg), Clindamycin (2 µg), Gentamicin (10µg), Linezolid (15µg), Rifampicin (5µg), Teicoplanin (30µg), Tetracycline (30µg), Trimethoprim/Sulphamethazol (1.25/23.75 µg) and Vancomycin (30 µg) (Oxoid, England). The antimicrobial susceptibility patterns were confirmed by Vitek-2 system with an

AST-GP67 card (Biomérieux, USA). The used antibiotics included Ampicillin, Benzylpenicillin, Cefoxitin, Ciprofloxacin, Clindamycin, Erythromycin, Gentamicin, Levofloxacin, Linezolid, Moxifloxacin, Nitrofurantoin, Oxacillin, Quinupristin/ Dalfopristin, Rifampicin, Streptomycin, Tetracycline, Tigecycline, Trimethoprim/Sulphamethazol and Vancomycin.

Methicillin resistance was evaluated using cefoxitin disks (30µg). *MRSA* ATCC 33591 was taken as positive control while *MSSA* ATCC 25923 was taken as negative control. Zone sizes were interpreted according to Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines: Isolates having zone size ≥ 22 against 30µg cefoxitin disc were considered susceptible to Methicillin while isolates having zone size ≤ 22 against 30µg cefoxitin disc were considered resistant¹³. The results were confirmed by Vitek-2 system where a cut off ≥ 4 ug/ml for oxacillin was considered resistant while, a positive screen for cefoxitin was considered resistant.

Management of nasal MRSA carriage:

Subjects proven to be nasal MRSA carriers were treated with mupirocin cream intranasally two times per day for five consecutive days¹. After treatment, nasal swabs were collected again to confirm successful decolonization.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed by the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 11.0 (IBM, USA). Chi-square test was used where appropriate. P values of <0.05 were considered significant.

RESULTS

The current study detected the carriage rate of *S. aureus* to be (37/150) 24.7 % while the carriage rate of MRSA was (22/ 150) 14.6 %. Regarding risk factors for MRSA colonization (Table 1), nursing staff showed a significantly higher carriage rate of MRSA as compared to doctors and paramedical staff ($p=0.03$).

Table 1: Frequency of *S. aureus* and MRSA among HCWs according to their Demographic Characteristics (n=150)

Characteristics			<i>S. aureus</i>	MRSA	P value
Gender	Female	98	26	15	0.9
	Male	52	11	7	
Working category	Doctor	36	2	1	0.03
	Nurse	99	32	19	
	Paramedical staff	15	3	2	
Duration of health care employment	<1 year	16	2	1	0.98
	2-5 years	37	9	3	
	6-10 years	54	15	10	
	>10 years	43	11	8	

For antibiotic susceptibility testing (figure 1), all MRSA isolates were resistant to ampicillin, benzylpenicillin, cefoxitin and oxacillin. Low resistance pattern was noted towards vancomycin (4.55%), Quinupristin/Dalfopristin (9.09%), rifampicin (18.18%), clindamycin (22.73%) and ciprofloxacin (27.27%) while none of the isolates was resistant to teicoplanin,

linezolid or tigecycline. They revealed variable resistances towards other tested antibiotics (31.82 to 81.82%).

Using intranasal mupirocin ointment 70 % of MRSA carriers were successfully decolonized by while 30% of them were still colonized with MRSA on re-examination.

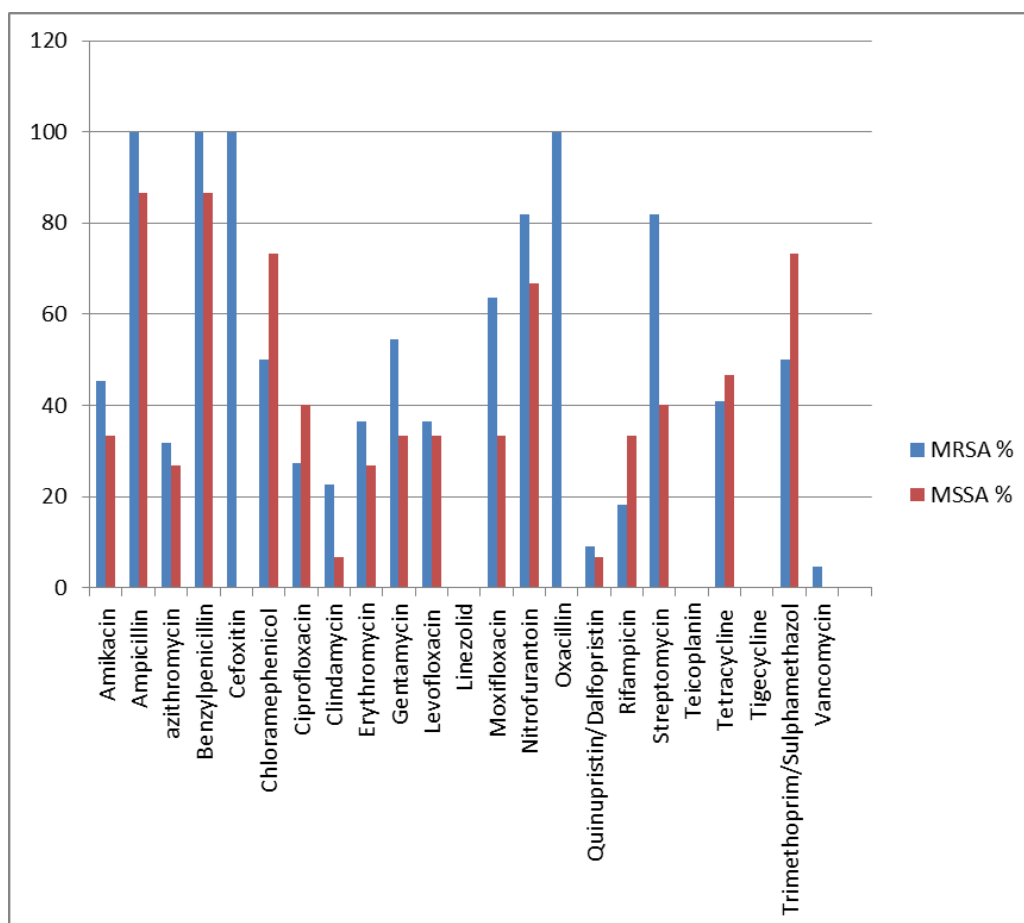


Fig. 1: Percentage of antibiotic resistance among MRSA and Methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA) isolated from HCW

DISCUSSION

S. aureus is a frequent cause of hospital and community acquired infections. MRSA is considered one of the commonest causes of HAI and a major factor contributing to failure of antimicrobial therapy¹⁴.

In hospitals, where misuse of broad-spectrum antibiotics is a common malpractice, there is a huge probability that Methicillin resistant strains of *S. aureus* may develop, and thus lead to a carrier state not only among the patients but also among the health care providers¹⁵. Our study was concerned with the Surgery Department because researches clearly designate the

highest percentage of MRSA nasal carriage to HCWs in surgical departments owing to the greater potential for infections^{16, 17}. HCWs are incriminated as the main sources and disseminators of MRSA infections not only in hospitals but also in the community¹⁸. MRSA nasal colonization rate among healthcare workers has been found to be much more than in the community members¹⁹. Detection of colonized HCWs and assessing the associated risk factors of colonization is an essential step for controlling the spread of MRSA infections in hospitals²⁰. So, this study was conducted to detect the nasal carriage rate of *S. aureus* and MRSA among HCWs in Surgery department of our hospital.

This study found the rate of nasal carriage of *S. aureus* to be (37/150) 24.7 % among HCWs which is similar to results reported by a previous studies in Egypt^{21, 22}. Different rates have been reported in different studies internationally (14% to 45% %) ²³⁻²⁶. This wide range between different studies is related to variations in sample size, microbiological technique of sampling, culture and identification, local infection control measures and the local prevalence of *Staph* infections.

The carriage rate of MRSA was (22/ 150) 14.6 % in the present study. Rates comparable to this have been previously reported from Egypt ^{21,22}. However, it is higher than internationally reported rates (~5%) ²³⁻²⁷. This high rate of MRSA nasal carriage can be related to a number of causes. High prevalence of MRSA among patient increases the risk of exposure among the participating HCWs. Suboptimal infection control practices increases the risk of transmission of MRSA between patients and HCWs. These include; lack of active surveillance cultures to identify colonized patients, incompliance of HCWs with hand hygiene and deficient use of protective barrier equipment. Also, it was suggested that screening of HCWs for MRSA is to be done before starting the daily work to avoid detection of short-term, transient MRSA carriage that may occur during a work shift ²⁸ which may be another factor contributing to high MRSA rate in this study.

As our study included HCWs from the Surgery department, the potential risk of MRSA transmission from the HCWs to the patients and surgical wound infection complicating the treatment and recovery, cannot be overlooked.

In this study, nursing staff showed a comparatively higher carriage rate of MRSA as compared to surgeons and paramedical staff which could be explained by the fact that the nursing staff had more frequent patient contact. Also this could indicate better infection control practice implemented by the doctors.

Few antibiotics, including vancomycin, teicoplanin, linezolid, Quinupristin/Dalfopristin and tigecyclin, are available to treat MRSA and they are used as our last resorts²⁹⁻³³. However, there are numerous reports worldwide which shows that resistance patterns to these antibiotics are rising ^{34, 35}. So, in the current study we determined antibiotic susceptibility pattern of the isolates in an attempt to formulate efficient antibiotic policy and infection control programme.

In the current study, antibiotic susceptibility testing of MRSA isolates revealed variable resistances towards most of the tested antimicrobials (31.82 to 81.82%). Low resistance pattern was noted towards rifampicin (18.18%), clindamycin (22.73%) and ciprofloxacin (27.27%), indicating that these antibiotics might be an alternative for empirical therapy of MRSA infections at our hospital. Resistant to vancomycin was 4.55% and to Quinupristin/Dalfopristin was 9.09% which gives a strong alarm about emerging resistance to the reserved

drugs that are considered last line of defense. Luckily, none of the MRSA isolates was resistant to teicoplanin, linezolid or tigecycline.

Mupirocin nasal ointment is considered the best choice for decolonization of nasal carriage. It is used for temporarily eradicating *S. aureus* from nose. When applied intranasally, twice daily for five consecutive days, the elimination rates is about 90% ^{36, 37}.

In our study 70 % of MRSA carriers were successfully decolonized by using intranasal mupirocin ointment while 30% of them were still colonized with MRSA on re-examination. This could be explained by mupirocin resistance ^{38, 39}. Another suggested explanation is extra -nasal colonization with MRSA e.g. in the throat or on the skin which could act as an alternative reservoir for the organism ⁴⁰.

CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

Unless this misuse of antibiotics is controlled in an optimum range and the sterile and sanitary measures are taken by the doctors and the authorities; we may experience a medical crisis. As a result of which the existing antibiotics will no longer be able to fight MRSA infections. Effective precautionary measures should be brought about immediately to prevent an outbreak of MRSA infection in the healthcare setup. These may include increasing awareness among the healthcare workers, medical students and the patients to regularly wash their hands and ensuring proper sanitation as well. The use of the broad spectrum Antibiotics should be decreased to minimum, in order to prevent the evolution of such resistant strains of bacteria. Moreover, the healthcare providers and medical students should follow the necessary protocol to avoid nasal carriage by using masks, gloves and gowns. Those having nasal carriage of MRSA should be adequately treated using antimicrobials like Mupirocin, taking in consideration that follow up is mandatory to ensure the eradication of nasal carriage of MRSA. Continuous surveillance will reduce the burden of treatment cost on to the patients and community.

Conflicts of interest:

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

1. Doebbeling BN, Breneman DL, Neu HC, Ali R, Yangco BG, Holly HP, et al. Elimination of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in health care workers: analysis of six clinical trials with calcium mupirocin ointment. Clin Infect Dis 1993;17:466-74

2. Williamson DA, Coombs GW, Nimmo GR. *Staphylococcus aureus* 'Down Under': contemporary epidemiology of *S. aureus* in Australia, New Zealand, and the South West Pacific. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2014;20(7):597-604
3. Sarra MS, Fazil AT, Eman AE, Ahmed MA, Hamada HD, Mohammed ZH. Genotyping of Nosocomial Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* with tracing the Source of Infection: A Guideline Step in Infection Control Strategy at General Surgery Department of Tanta University Hospital. *EJMM*. 2018;27(4):27-35
4. Wafaa KZ, Raghda H. Detection of Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), Vancomycin Intermediate Susceptibility and Vancomycin Resistance Among *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolated From Tertiary Care Hospital in Egypt. *EJMM* 2018;27(3):53-8
5. Gomes I M, Marlow M A, Pinheiro M G, Freitas Mde F, Fonseca FF, Cardoso C A, et al. Risk factors for *Staphylococcus aureus* and methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* colonization among health care workers in pediatrics departments. *Am J Infect Control* 2014;42:918-20
6. Sadek SA, Abdelrahman AT, Abdelkader NG, Abdelrahim MEA. Clinical and Microbiological Effect of Linezolid on Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) Colonization in Healthcare Workers in Egypt. *Middle-East J Sci Res* 2013;15(10):1440-9
7. Giuffrè M, Amodio E, Bonura C, Geraci DM, Saporito L, Ortolano R, et al. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal colonization in a level III neonatal intensive care unit: incidence and risk factors. *Am J Infect Control* 2015;43: 476-81
8. Malini J, Shruti A Harle, Padmavathy M, Umapathy BL, Navaneeth BV, Keerthi Mannan J, et al. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* carriage amongst Health Care Workers. *J Clin Diagn Res*. 2012;6(5):91-3
9. Kaleem F, Usman J, Omair M, Khalid A, Uddin R. The sensitivity pattern of MRSA which was isolated from patients who were admitted in a tertiary care hospital of Pakistan. *Iran J Microbiol* 2010;2(3):141-43
10. Warnke P, Harnack T, Ottl P, Kundt G, Podbielski A. Nasal screening for *Staphylococcus aureus*—daily routine with improvement potentials. *PLoS One* 2014;9(2):e89667
11. Brown DF, Edwards DI, Hawkey PM, Morrison D, Ridgway GL, Towner KJ et al. Guidelines for the laboratory diagnosis and susceptibility testing of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2005;56(6):1000-18
12. Bauer AW, Kirby QMM, Sherns J C, Turik M. Antibiotic susceptibility testing by standardized single disk method. *Am J Clin Path* 1966;45:493-6
13. CLSI. Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. 26th ed. CLSI supplement M100S. Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; 2016
14. Salmenlinna S, Lyytikäinen O, Vuopio-Varkila J. Community acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, Finland. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2002;8:602-7
15. Ventola CL. The Antibiotic Resistance Crisis: Part 1: Causes and Threats. *Pharmacy and Therapeutics* 2015;40(4):277-83
16. Akhtar N. Staphylococcal nasal carriage of health care workers. *J Coll Physicians Surg Pak* 2010;20(7):439-43
17. Shibabaw A, Abebe T, Mihret A. Nasal carriage rate of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* among Dessie Referral Hospital Health Care Workers; Dessie, Northeast Ethiopia. *Int J Infect Dis* 2014;25:22-5
18. Simpson AHRW, Dave J, Cookson B. The value of routine screening of staff for MRSA. *J Bone Joint Surg* 2007;89: 565-6
19. Navidinia M. Detection of inducible clindamycin resistance (MLSBi) among methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolated from health care providers. *J Paramedical Sci* 2015; 6(1):91-6
20. Ben-David D, Mermel LA, Parenteau S. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* transmission: the possible importance of unrecognized health care worker carriage. *Am J Infect Control* 2008;36(2):93-7
21. Hefzy EM, Hassan GM, Abd El Reheem F. Detection of Panton-Valentine Leukocidin-Positive Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* Nasal Carriage among Egyptian Health Care Workers. *Surg Infect* 2016 ;17(3):369-75
22. Mahdi WK, Hassuna NA, Esmail MA, Hammad SS, Abdelwahab SF. Molecular Typing of Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* Colonizing Egyptian Healthcare Workers and Patients. *Int J Curr Microbiol App Sci* 2016;5(6):687-98
23. Moghadam SO, Pourmand MR, Davoodabadi A. The detection of mupirocin resistance and nasal carriage of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* among healthcare workers at University Hospitals of Tehran, Iran. *Iran J Public Health* 2015;44(3):361-8
24. Morgenstern M, Erichsen C, Hackl S, Mily J, Militz M, Friederichs J, et al. Antibiotic resistance of

- commensal *Staphylococcus aureus* and coagulase-negative staphylococci in an international cohort of surgeons: a prospective point-prevalence study. PLoS One 2016;11(2):e0148437
25. Price JR, Cole K, Bexley A, Kostiou V, Eyre DW, Golubchik T, et al. Transmission of *Staphylococcus aureus* between health-care workers, the environment, and patients in an intensive care unit: a longitudinal cohort study based on whole-genome sequencing. Lancet Infect Dis 2017;17(2):207-14
 26. van Vugt JL, Coelen RJ, van Dam DW, Winkens B, Derikx JP, Heddema ER, et al. Nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* among surgeons and surgical residents: a nationwide prevalence study. Surg Infect 2015;16(2):178-82
 27. Dulon M, Peters C, Schablon A, Nienhaus A. MRSA carriage among healthcare workers in non-outbreak settings in Europe and the United States: a systematic review. BMC infectious diseases 2014; 14(1):363-77
 28. Vonberg RP, Stamm-Balderjahn S, Hansen S, Zuschneid I, Ruden H, Behnke M, et al. How often do asymptomatic healthcare workers cause methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* outbreaks? A systematic evaluation. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2006;27:1123-7
 29. May J, Shannon K, King A, French G. Glycopeptide tolerance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Antimicrob Chemother 1998; 42: 189-97
 30. Ruef C. Epidemiology and clinical impact of glycopeptides resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Infection 2004; 32: 315-27
 31. Wilcox MH. Update on linezolid: the first oxazolidinone antibiotic. Expert Opin Pharmacother 2005; 6: 2315-26
 32. Gemmell CG, Edwards DI, Fraise AP, Gould FK, Ridgway GL, Warren RE. Guidelines for the prophylaxis and treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) infections in the UK. J Antimicrob Chemother 2006; 57: 589-608
 33. Appelbaum PC. The emergence of vancomycin-intermediate and vancomycin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Clin Microbiol Infect 2006; 12: 16-23
 34. Kaur DC, Chate SS. Study of antibiotic resistance pattern in methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* with special reference to newer antibiotic. J Glob Infect Dis 2015;7(2):78- 84
 35. Hsieh YC, Lin YC, Huang YC. Vancomycin, teicoplanin, daptomycin, and linezolid MIC creep in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* is associated with clonality. Medicine. 2016;95(41):e5060
 36. Harbarth S, Liassine N, Dharan S, Herrault P, Auckenthaler R, Pittet D. Risk factors for persistent carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Clin Infect Dis 2000; 31:1380-5
 37. van Rijen M, Bonten M, Wenzel R, Kluytmans J. Mupirocin ointment for preventing *Staphylococcus aureus* infections in nasal carriers. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2008; issue 4: CD006216
 38. Udo EE, Jacob LE, Mathew B. Genetic analysis of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* expressing high- and low-level mupirocin resistance. J Med Microbiol 2001; 50:909-15
 39. Caffrey AR, Quilliam BJ, Laplante KL. Risk factors associated with mupirocin resistance in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Hosp Infect 2010; 76: 206-10
 40. Mollema FP, Severin JA, Nouwen JL, Ott A, Verbrugh HA, Vos MC. Successful treatment for carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and importance of follow-up. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2010;54(9):4020-5