

1 **Distribution of Mupirocin Resistance in Nasal Carriers of Methicillin-**
2 **Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* Among ICU Healthcare Workers and**
3 **Patients in Rasht, Iran**

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6 **Pegah Alizadeh Pahlavan¹, Hanieh Biglari², Ali Mojtahedi³**

7
8 ¹ ENT and Head and Neck Research Center and Department, The Five Senses Health Institute, School of
9 Medicine, Iran University of Medical Sciences (IUMS), Tehran, Iran

10 ² Microbiology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Guilan University of Medical Sciences, Rasht, Iran.

11 ³ Microbiology Department, School of Medicine, Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.
12

13 **Corresponding Author:** Dr. Ali Mojtahedi (Professor of Medical Microbiology), Microbiology
14 Department, School of Medicine, University of Medical Sciences (IUMS), Shahid Hemmat Highway,
15 Tehran, IRAN; **E. mail:** mojtahedi99.a@gmail.com

16
17 **Abstract**

18
19 Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) represents a significant public health
20 concern, contributing to infections in both community settings and clinical environments.
21 Healthcare professionals, in particular, demonstrate elevated rates of MRSA colonization. This
22 research focused on assessing the resistance to mupirocin prevalence amongst nasal MRSA
23 carriers in intensive care unit (ICU) healthcare workers. Nasal swabs were obtained from
24 hospitalized patients and healthcare staff, and *S. aureus* was identified through biochemical
25 and microbiological tests. Antibiograms were conducted on isolated strains, employing a 30
26 µg cefoxitin disc for MRSA detection, while mupirocin resistance was identified using the disc-
27 diffusion technique (Kirby-Bauer method). The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for
28 mupirocin while the detection of the *mupA* and *mupB* genes was accomplished by polymerase
29 chain reaction (PCR).

30 Of the 81 *S. aureus* isolates collected from nasal carriers, 20 (24.69%) originated from ICU
31 staff, while 61 (75.31%) were from patients. MRSA constituted 77.7% (63/81) of the isolates
32 overall. High-level resistance to mupirocin was detected in 34.56% (28/81) of isolates when
33 tested with a 200 µg mupirocin disc, with the *mupA* gene detected in the same proportion of
34 isolates. Notably, no low-level mupirocin resistance or *mupB* gene presence was identified in
35 this study. Resistance rates to other antibiotics included rifampin (74.07%), penicillin
36 (87.65%), amikacin (34.56%), gentamicin (56.79%), tetracycline (83.95%), erythromycin
37 (100%), and clindamycin (100%). No resistance was observed for linezolid or Synercid.

38 The study revealed higher mupirocin resistance among healthcare workers compared to
39 patients, underscoring the need for regular screening of healthcare staff and comprehensive
40 antibiotic resistance profiling to mitigate MRSA transmission within hospital settings.

41
42 **Key words:** *Staphylococcus aureus*, Mupirocin, Healthcare workers, MRSA
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45 **1.Introduction**

46 *Staphylococcus aureus* represents a prominent relevant cause of infections acquired in both
47 public setting and healthcare facilities. Its ability to colonize the skin and nasal passages makes
48 it a significant contributor to various clinical conditions (1). One of the primary difficulties in
49 managing these infections is the increasing prevalence of antibiotic resistance, particularly
50 MRSA. resistance to methicillin is facilitated through the expression of penicillin-binding
51 protein 2a (PBP2a), which reduces the efficacy of β -lactam antibiotics (2, 3). The initial
52 detection of MRSA occurred in the United Kingdom in 1961, and since then, MRSA has
53 emerged as a significant worldwide public health concern. Infections caused by MRSA often
54 result in prolonged hospital stays due to their severity. Transmission primarily occurs through
55 direct contact, with healthcare workers and contaminated medical equipment serving as key
56 vectors. Around 40 to 60 percent infections acquired in healthcare setting are attributed to
57 healthcare workers, who, along with patients carrying MRSA in their nasal passages, pose a
58 risk of spreading the pathogen to other hospitalized individuals, especially in intensive care
59 units (ICUs) (4). Mupirocin, as well branded as pseudomonic acid A or Bactroban, is an
60 essential antibiotic for treating various staphylococcal skin infections. It is minimally absorbed
61 systemically and is excreted primarily via urine. Mupirocin disrupts bacterial protein
62 production by competitively inhibiting the enzyme isoleucyl-tRNA synthetase activity. The
63 U.S. Food and Drug Administration recommends its use as a nasal topical formulation to
64 eradicate *S. aureus* nasal carriage amongst adult patients and healthcare workers (5). Despite
65 mupirocin's critical role in managing *S. aureus* infections, there remains a significant gap in
66 research regarding mupirocin resistance in northern Iran. This study seeks to fill this void by
67 investigating the prevalence of resistance to mupirocin among nasal carriers of *S. aureus*,
68 focusing on healthcare workers and patients across three ICUs in the region.

69 **2. Materials and Methods:**

70 **2.1. Study design and setting**

71 Nasal swab specimens were collected from both ICU-admitted patients and healthcare staff at
72 two academic medical centers (Velayat and Poursina Hospitals) in Rasht, Iran. Prior to sample
73 collection, every contributor was comprehensively briefed on the aims of the study and
74 provided written agreement. The detection of *S. aureus* was carried out through a series of
75 biochemical and microbiological tests, including Gram staining, coagulase and catalase tests,
76 DNase activity assays, and growth as well as fermentation analysis on Mannitol salt agar plates.

77 **2.2. Phenotypic identification of MRSA and mupirocin resistant *S. aureus***

78 To identify MRSA isolates, a 30 μ g cefoxitin disc (Mast Group, Ltd, U.K.) was employed as a
79 reliable surrogate marker for methicillin resistance detection. Additionally, mupirocin
80 resistance was assessed using discs with concentrations of 5 μ g and 200 μ g (Mast Group, Ltd,
81 U.K.), with isolates cultured on Mueller-Hinton agar (Merck, Germany) following the Kirby-
82 Bauer disk diffusion method. After a 24-hour incubation at 37°C, results were interpreted based
83 on the guidelines established in the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI, 2024)
84 reference tables.

85

86 2.3. Determination of minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC)

87 The established protocols for E-test strips (AB Biodisk, Solna, Sweden) was used for
88 measuring mupirocin MIC. Isolates were categorized as susceptible when demonstrating MIC
89 values ≤ 4 mg/L. Mupirocin resistance was further divided into two categories: low-level
90 resistance (MIC range: 8–256 mg/L) and high-level resistance (MIC ≥ 512 mg/L). The
91 reference strain *S. aureus* ATCC 29213 was utilized for quality assurance, and all findings
92 were evaluated according to the guidelines established by the Clinical and Laboratory
93 Standards Institute (CLSI) breakpoints.

94 2.4. Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing

95 The antibiotic resistance patterns of the isolates was evaluated through the standardized Kirby-
96 Bauer disc diffusion method, with antibiotic discs procured from Mast Company (United
97 Kingdom). The susceptibility of all MRSA isolates was tested against rifampin (AP; 10 μ g),
98 Synercid (quinupristin-dalfopristin) (K; 30 μ g), clindamycin (CD; 2 μ g), erythromycin (E; 15
99 μ g), linezolid (LZD; 30 μ g), penicillin (PG; 10 μ g), amikacin (AK; 30 μ g), gentamicin (GM;
100 10 μ g), tetracycline (T; 30 μ g), and cefoxitin (30 μ g). Testing was conducted on Mueller-
101 Hinton agar in accordance with the protocols set forth by the CLSI. The standard strain *S.*
102 *aureus* ATCC 25923 was incorporated in each testing cycle to ensure accuracy and reliability
103 of the results.

104 2.5. MRSA and mupirocin-resistant *S. aureus*

105 The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification mixture contained 12 μ L of PCR master
106 mix, 10 pmol of each primer (specific sequences listed in Table 1), and 50–200 ng of template
107 DNA obtained through extraction. Sterile double-distilled water was incorporated to attain the
108 final reaction volume of 25 μ L. The thermal cycling protocol comprised an initial denaturation
109 phase at 94°C (10 minutes), followed by 35 amplification cycles (94°C for 1 minute
110 denaturation, 45°C for 1 minute primer annealing, and 72°C for 75 seconds extension),
111 concluding with a terminal extension step at 72°C for 10 minutes.

112 Additionally, the *mecA* gene, along with the *mupA* and *mupB* genes, was amplified to identify
113 MRSA and mupirocin-resistant *S. aureus* strains, respectively (Table 1). The amplification
114 conditions for these genes were similar to those described above, except for the annealing
115 temperatures: 55°C for *mecA* and 60°C for both *mupA* and *mupB*. The PCR amplicons were
116 examined using electrophoretic technique at 100V using 1.5% agarose gel and visualized under
117 a UV transilluminator.

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121 **Table 1:** Oligonucleotide primer sequences and specifications employed in molecular
122 analyses

Target	Primer	Sequence (5' → 3')	Product size (bp)	Reference
<i>mecA</i>	F	TGGCTATCGTGTCAACAATCG	304	(6)
	R	CTGGAACCTTGTTGAGCAGAG		
<i>mupA</i>	F	TATATTATGCGATGGAAGGTTGG	457	(6)
	R	AATAAAATCAGCTGGAAAGTGTG		
<i>mupB</i>	F	CTAGAAGTCGATTTTGGAGTAG	674	(6)
	R	AGTGTCTAAAATGATAAGACGATC		

123

124 2.6. Statistics

125 Based on sample size and data distribution, SPSS™ version 26.0 (IBM Corp, USA) by
126 applying either Chi-square or Fisher's exact tests, was used for statistical analyses. Statistical
127 significance was defined as a p-value less than 0.05.

128

129 3. Results

130 Among the 81 *S. aureus* isolates obtained from the nasal carriage of healthcare workers and
131 patients, 20 (24.69%) were sourced from ICU staff, while 61 (75.31%) were derived from
132 patients. Additionally, 25 of the 81 isolates (30.86%) were collected from Velayat Hospital
133 (burn hospital), and 56 of the 81 (69.14%) were obtained from Poursina Hospital. The overall
134 prevalence of MRSA isolates was 77.7% (63 out of 81). Among the 20 isolates collected from
135 ICU staff, 90% (18 isolates) were identified as MRSA, and 10% (2 isolates) were methicillin-
136 sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA). The results from the disc diffusion method were consistent with
137 the PCR amplification of the *mecA* gene.

138 The antibacterial susceptibility tests revealed that 34.56% (28 out of 81 isolates) of the strains
139 exhibited high-level mupirocin resistance, as determined using a 200 µg mupirocin disc.
140 Among these mupirocin-resistant *S. aureus* isolates, 64.28% (18 out of 28 isolates) were
141 collected from patients, and 35.72% (10 out of 28 isolates) were collected from healthcare staff.
142 According to CLSI guidelines, a 200 µg mupirocin disc is used to detect isolates with high-
143 level mupirocin resistance.

144

145 3.1. Detection of MupA and Mupirocin Resistance

146 The *mupA* gene responsible for mediating high-level resistance to mupirocin, was detected in
147 34.56% (28 out of 81) of the mupirocin-resistant *S. aureus* isolates. High-level mupirocin
148 resistance was assessed using 200 µg discs, whereas 5 µg discs were used to detect low-level
149 resistance. Notably, neither low-level mupirocin-resistant isolates nor the *mupB* gene were
150 identified in this study. The *mupB* gene is typically used in conjunction with other targeted
151 primers to identify high-level mupirocin resistance.

152 Among the 81 isolates analyzed, 34.56% (28 isolates) exhibited a MIC of mupirocin \geq 512
153 µg/mL, categorizing them as high-level mupirocin-resistant. Conversely, no isolates
154 demonstrated low-level mupirocin resistance.

155 3.2. Antibiotic Susceptibility Profile

156 All isolates demonstrated susceptibility to linezolid and Synercid. In contrast, all isolates
157 exhibited resistance to erythromycin and clindamycin. The susceptibility rates for other
158 antibiotics were as follows: rifampin (74.07%, 60/81), penicillin (87.65%, 71/81), amikacin
159 (34.56%, 28/81), gentamicin (56.79%, 46/81), and tetracycline (83.95%, 68/81).

160

161 4. Discussion

162 *Staphylococcus aureus* represents a highly pathogenic microorganism capable of causing
163 diverse clinical manifestations ranging from localized cutaneous infections to life-threatening
164 systemic conditions such as joint infections, heart valve inflammation, bone infections, and
165 bloodstream infections. This bacterium commonly colonizes the skin and passages (2, 3)
166 particularly among healthcare workers, where it serves as a significant reservoir for infection
167 transmission to patients, colleagues, and medical equipment (7). In this study, 24.69% (20 staff
168 members) and 75.31% (61 patients) of participants were identified as nasal carriers of *S.*

169 *aureus*. These rates surpass those reported in previous studies by Muhammad Kashif Salman
170 et al. (24%), Chen et al. (19.3%), and Boncompain et al. (30%) (8-10). The prevalence of nasal
171 carriage among healthcare workers and patients varies considerably across regions with
172 differing public health infrastructures. In alignment with this study's findings (61 out of 81
173 isolates), research by Conceição et al. (2013) in Portugal and Weterings et al. (2019) in the
174 Netherlands also reported higher nasal carriage rates among staff compared to patients (11, 12).
175 However, additional research involving expanded sample populations and extended follow-up
176 periods are essential for more definitive conclusions.

177 MRSA is a significant reason of infections in high-risk populations and is classified into
178 healthcare-acquired (HA-MRSA) and community-acquired (CA-MRSA) strains (2, 3).
179 Mupirocin remains an effective antibiotic for eradicating MRSA in carriers and managing
180 infections of the skin and underlying soft tissues, highlighting its importance in infection
181 control strategies (5).

182 In this study, we employed both phenotypic and molecular methods to identify mupirocin
183 resistance among MRSA isolates obtained from the nasal carriage of healthcare workers and
184 patients. Analysis revealed a MRSA colonization prevalence of 77.7% (63/81) within the
185 studied population. A meta-analysis by Dadashi et al. (2018) reported a comparable frequency
186 of MRSA infections in Iran, although at a lower rate of 43.0% (13). The disparity in MRSA
187 prevalence may be attributed to variations in the isolates source, participant demographics, and
188 the specific hospital settings involved.

189
190 Resistance to Mupirocin amongst MRSA isolated from nasal carriers was observed to be
191 elevated in patients relative to healthcare workers. A conducted study by Dardi Charan Kaur
192 et al. (2014) examined 38 *S. aureus* strains isolated from healthcare workers in a tertiary care
193 rural hospital, of which 20 were identified as MRSA. Their analysis of resistance levels of
194 mupirocin, using 5 µg discs for low-level resistance and 200 µg discs for high-level resistance,
195 revealed that only two isolates were mupirocin-resistant (14).

196 The higher prevalence of resistance to mupirocin amongst healthcare workers might be related
197 to their limited awareness of hand hygiene, contact precautions, and appropriate infection
198 control measures. Mupirocin is commonly employed as a therapeutic agent for diverse
199 cutaneous infections caused by Staphylococcus species. In this investigation, the resistance rate
200 to mupirocin was observed to be 34.56% (15), which aligns approximately with the 40%
201 documented by Shabsayan et al. However, significant variability in mupirocin resistance rates
202 has been observed across different studies (13, 16, 17).

203 Unfortunately, the mupirocin resistance rate in this study was relatively high, likely as a result
204 of the improper application of mupirocin in treating skin infections. The uncontrolled
205 application of mupirocin has been linked to the development of resistance against it, which
206 presents a significant concern in hospitals, particularly in ICUs. In this study, the rate of
207 mupirocin-resistant *S. aureus* among MRSA isolates from ICUs was found to be 34.56%.
208 Notably, the results obtained through the disc diffusion method were consistent with those
209 derived from molecular techniques. In contrast, Kavitha et al. (2019) reported no mupirocin
210 resistance in ICUs; however, their study did not employ molecular methods (18). In line with

211 our findings, Rashidi Nezhad et al. documented a high-level mupirocin resistance rate of 41.4%
212 among hospitalized patients in ICUs in Tehran, Iran (19). Furthermore, Abolfazl Khandan et
213 al. (2018) documented the presence of nasal colonization by *S. aureus* in both ICU personnel
214 and patients, which was effectively eradicated using mupirocin ointment (20). According to
215 CLSI guidelines, the established method for distinguishing between low-level and high-level
216 mupirocin-resistant strains involves determining the MIC and detecting the *mupA* gene via
217 PCR (21).

218 Despite the established methods, some studies have used the disc diffusion technique to
219 differentiate between low-level (5 µg discs) and high-level mupirocin resistance (200 µg discs)
220 among *S. aureus* isolates (13, 16, 17).

221 The rising challenge of antibiotic resistance in bacterial infections is significantly increasing
222 mortality rates, prolonging hospital stays, and driving up healthcare costs, thereby imposing a
223 substantial financial strain on national health systems. Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA)
224 infections, particularly in intensive care units, further complicate the efforts of healthcare
225 providers, affecting both staff and patients (3, 22-24). Over the past few years, identifying
226 genes responsible for antibiotic resistance genes in *S. aureus* has been reported across various
227 regions of Iran (25-27). This trend aligns with global concerns, as antimicrobial resistance has
228 been shown to result in treatment failures, increased resource utilization, and higher healthcare
229 expenditures. For example, studies estimate that infections due to antibiotic-resistant cost the
230 U.S. healthcare system more than \$2 billion annually and contribute to over \$4.6 billion in
231 costs for treating multidrug-resistant pathogens. The economic and clinical impacts underscore
232 the critical imperative to enhance infection prevention protocols and responsible antibiotic use
233 to combat this escalating threat.

234 The discrepancies observed across different studies may be result from variations in infection
235 control practices and treatment approaches adopted across different geographical regions (28).
236 Given that the current study found higher rates of mupirocin resistance among healthcare
237 workers compared to patients, it suggests that mupirocin resistance poses a significant threat
238 in hospital environments. Therefore, routine monitoring of healthcare personnel combined with
239 continuous evaluation of antibiotic resistance trends is vital to avert the spread of MRSA within
240 hospitals. Ultimately, our findings indicate that linezolid and quinupristin-dalfopristin
241 (Synecid) could serve as effective alternatives for treating *S. aureus* infections.

242

243 **Ethics**

244 All ethical guidelines were thoroughly observed during the development of this manuscript.

245

246 **Authors contribution**

247 Acquisition of data, assessment and elucidation of data: **H.B.**

248 Drafting of the manuscript: **P.A.P.**

249 Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: **A.M.**

250

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255 **Data availability**

256 Every piece of data produced or examined in the course of this research is fully contained within this
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261 **Conflict of interest**

262 The authors affirm that there are no conflicts of interest to report.

263

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