

Prevalence of Nasal Carriage Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* with *mecA* Gene among Healthy Primary School Boys in North of Iran; A Cross-Sectional Study

Shaghayegh Rezai¹, Fatemeh Peyravii Ghadikolaii², Mohammad Ahanjan³, Reza Valadan⁴, Fatemeh Ahangarkani⁵, *Mohammad Sadegh Rezai⁶, Ali Asghar Nadi Ghara⁷

¹MSc of Microbiology, Department of Biology, Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Qaemshahr, Iran. ²Assistant Professor, Department of Biology, Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Qaemshahr, Iran. ³Associate Professor, Department of Microbiology, Pediatric Infectious Diseases Research Center, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran. ⁴Assistant Professor, Molecular and Cell Biology Research Center, Department of Immunology, Faculty of Medicine, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran. ⁵PhD Student in Medical Mycology, Antimicrobial Resistance Research Center, Student Research Committee, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran. ⁶Associate Professor, Pediatric Infectious Diseases Research Center, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran. ⁷PhD of Biostatistics, Department of Biostatistics, School of Health Sciences, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran.

Abstract

Background: Nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) has a key role in the epidemiology and pathogenesis of infection. In this study we aimed to investigate the occurrence of the methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and *mecA* gene among healthy primary school boys in North of Iran.

Materials and Methods: This cross-sectional study was conducted from January 2017 to July 2017 in Sari city located in the North of Iran. Nasal swabs were taken from 277 healthy primary school boys. *S. aureus* strains were identified according to the standard microbiological procedures and presence of *spa* gene. Agar screen method was used to determine MRSA. All MRSA isolates were examined for the existence of the *mecA* and *spa* gene by using Multiplex Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) method.

Results: The prevalence of nasal carriage of MRSA was 29.24%. The existence of the *mecA* gene among MRSA strains was 49.38%. The rate of resistant isolated to cefoxitin, vancomycin, cefixime, cefalotin, clindamycin, cefazolin, co-amoxiclav, amoxicillin, cotrimoxazole and cefalexin antibiotics were 48.14%, 39.50%, 98.76%, 96.29%, 54.32%, 91.35%, 97.53%, 95.06%, 7.40%, and 100%, respectively.

Conclusion: The high rate of Community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (CA-MRSA), and presence of *mecA* gene, and resistance to critically antibiotics against MRSA is a therapeutic concern and needs to strategies to prevent community spread of *S. aureus*.

Key Words: Children, *mecA*, Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, Nasal.

*Please cite this article as: Rezai Sh, Peyravii Ghadikolaii F, Ahanjan M, Valadan R, Ahangarkani F, Rezai MS, et al. Prevalence of Nasal Carriage Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* with *mecA* Gene among Healthy Primary School Boys in North of Iran; A Cross-Sectional Study. Int J Pediatr 2017; 5(12): 6515-25. DOI: [10.22038/ijp.2017.26660.2294](https://doi.org/10.22038/ijp.2017.26660.2294)

*Corresponding Author:

Dr. Mohammad Sadegh Rezai, Associate Professor, Pediatric Infectious Diseases Research Center, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran.

Email: drmsrezai@yahoo.com

Received date: Oct.27, 2017; Accepted date: Nov.22, 2017

1- INTRODUCTION

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) remains a major problem in the healthcare centers across the world (1-5). *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) is the most common bacterial cause of life-threatening infections, including sepsis, deep abscesses, pneumonia, osteomyelitis, and endocarditis (6, 7). *S. aureus* encodes many virulence factors such as the surface Ig-binding protein A. Staphylococcal protein A is specific surface protein which encodes by *spa* gene. The function of *spa* is to capture Immunoglobulin G (IgG) molecules in the inverted orientation and prevent phagocytosis of the bacteria by the host immune system (8). Nasal carriage of *S. aureus* appears to play a key role in the epidemiology and pathogenesis of infection and a reservoir for MRSA. Carriage of *S. aureus* including MRSA is a significant risk factor for nosocomial and community-acquired infections (9).

Community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (CA-MRSA) infections occur in healthy people who don't have any risk factors for nosocomial infections. (10). The CA-MRSA appears to be less frequently associated with antibiotic resistance in compare with hospital-acquired MRSA (HA-MRSA). The MRSA contain the *mecA* gene which produces a protein that has a low tropism to all beta-lactam antibiotics (β -lactam antibiotics). Resistance to β -lactam antibiotics is attributed mainly to mutations in the *mecA* gene, but other genetic elements may also be considered for the explanation of the mechanism of resistance (11-14).

Screening the nasal carriage isolates of *S. aureus* for antibiotic resistance patterns will provide guidelines for empiric therapy of CA-MRSA (6). The rate of nasal carriage of *S. aureus* strains varying from 16.8% to 90% worldwide (15-17). In Iran the prevalence of nasal carriage of *S. aureus* among hospital staff has varied

between 28.2% and 44.5% (16, 18-20). Although several studies have reported the prevalence of MRSA nasal carriage in patients in healthcare settings, this subject has been little investigated in healthy pediatric in North of Iran (21). The aim of the present study was to determination of the prevalence of MRSA, *mecA* gene and in vitro antibiotic susceptibility pattern of MRSA in nasal of healthy primary school boys in north of Iran.

2- MATERIALS AND METHODS

2-1. Study design and populations

This cross-sectional study was conducted from January 2017 to July 2017 in Sari city, located in the North of Iran. The target population was 277 healthy primary school boys between the ages 6-12 years old. Groups of samples (subjects) were selected by using stratified random sampling method. The schools are regarded as a stratifying. The sample size in each stratify was selected proportional to the size of the classes. The sample size was determined to be 277 subjects by using Cochran's formula (with $n=3000$, $\alpha=0.05$, $P=0.5$, $d=0.056$).

2-2. Ethical considerations

Written informed consent from parents, who on behalf of the children enrolled in the study, was obtained. This study was approved by the ethics committee of Azad University of Qaemshahr branch (378. ID code: 10730548952006).

2-3. Clinical sample collection and identification of bacteria

A sterile moistened swab was inserted into one nostril in turn, to a depth of approximately 1 cm, and rotated five times. The samples were placed into Stuart transport medium and were immediately transported to the microbiology laboratory of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences. Identification of the bacteria was performed according to the standard

microbiological procedures (morphology, gram stain, catalase test, coagulase test, and mannitol salt agar fermentation) and confirmed by molecular assay (22, 23).

2-4. Antibiotic susceptibility test, isolation of MRSA Strains

Antibiotic susceptibility test was determined by the Kirby–Bauer method according to the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) standards (24). Inoculums were diluted to final concentration (5×10^5 colony-forming units per milliliter (CFU/ ml), and inoculated into Mueller-Hinton agar. For detection of MRSA strains, oxacillin screen agar was used. Staphylococcus strains were cultured on Muller Hinton agar containing 4% NaCl and 6 milligrams per liter (mg/L) oxacillin and were incubated for 24 hours (3, 25). Antibiotics used in this study were cefoxitin, vancomycin, cefixime, cefalotin, clindamycin, ceftazolin, co-amoxiclav, amoxicillin, cotrimoxazole and cefalexin.

2-4-1. Molecular assay

2-4-1-1. DNA extraction

To extract DNA of bacteria the boiling method was performed. Bacterial colonies were inserted in sterile micro tubes that contained 1 milliliter distilled water. Then they were boiled for 5 minutes at 100 Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and were frozen for 5 minutes and again boiled for 5 minutes then centrifuged for 10 minutes at 3,000 revolutions per minute (rpm). The supernatant containing DNA was used as template for PCR amplification (11).

2-4-1-2. Detection of *spa* and *mecA* gene

Multiplex PCR assay was performed to detection *spa* and *mecA* gene. The set of primers and Multiplex Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification conditions are available in **Table.1**. Polymerase chain reaction for amplifying each genes was performed in a final volume of 15 Microliter (μl) including 7.5 μl Master Mix (2x), 0.5 μl from each primers (100 moles/ μl), 2 μl DNA Template and 3.5 μl de-ionized water.

Table -1: The set of primers and Multiplex PCR amplification conditions

Target genes	Primers (5'-3')	Reference	Thermal cycling condition			
			Step	Time	Temperature	Number of Cycles
<i>spa</i>	F:5' TAAAGACGATCCTTCGGTGAGC 3' R:5' CAGCAGTAGTGCCGTTTGCTT 3'	(26)	Primary denaturation	1 minutes (min)	95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$	1
			Denaturation	30 seconds	94 $^{\circ}\text{C}$	37
Annealing	30 seconds		59 $^{\circ}\text{C}$			
Extension	1 min		72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$			
<i>mec A</i>	F:5' TCCAGATTACAACCTTCACAGG3' R:5' CCACTTCATATCTTGTAACG3'		Final extension	7 min	72 $^{\circ}\text{C}$	1

2-4-1-3. Gel electrophoresis

After performing the PCR reaction, electrophoresis of PCR products was carried out in 1.5% agarose gel at 70 voltages for 50 min. Then, results were evaluated under UV light on the UV Trans illuminator.

2-5. Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS 16.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Descriptive cross tabulation and Chi-square test were used; Exact P-values <0.05 were considered as significant.

3- RESULT

From the total of 277 healthy primary school boys between the ages 6-12 years old, nasal carriage of MRSA was seen in 81(29.24%), 95% confidence interval (CI) (23.85%, 34.63%) cases. **Figure.1** shows the age category of students in terms of nasal carrying MRSA. All 81 isolated had

spa genes. The *mecA* gene found in 40 (49.38%), 95% CI (38.25%, 60.50%) isolates. **Figure.2** that is the illustration of agarose gel shows the strains containing *spa* and *mecA* genes. The relationship between antibiotic resistance and the presence of *mecA* gene is shown in **Table.2**.

The rate of resistant isolated to ceftazidime, vancomycin, cefixime, cefalotin, clindamycin, cefazolin, co-amoxiclav, amoxicillin, cotrimoxazole and cefalexin antibiotics were 48.14%, 95% confidence interval [95% CI] (37.03%, 59.26%), 39.50% , 95% CI (26.62%, 50.38%), 98.76%, 95% CI (96.30%, 100%), 96.29% , 95% CI (92.09%, 100%), 54.32%, 95% CI (43.23%, 65.40%), 91.35%, 95% CI (85.10%, 95.60%), 97.53% , 95% CI (94.07%, 100%), 95.06% , 95% CI (90.24%, 99.88%), 7.40%, 95% CI (1.58%, 15.23%), and 100%, respectively.

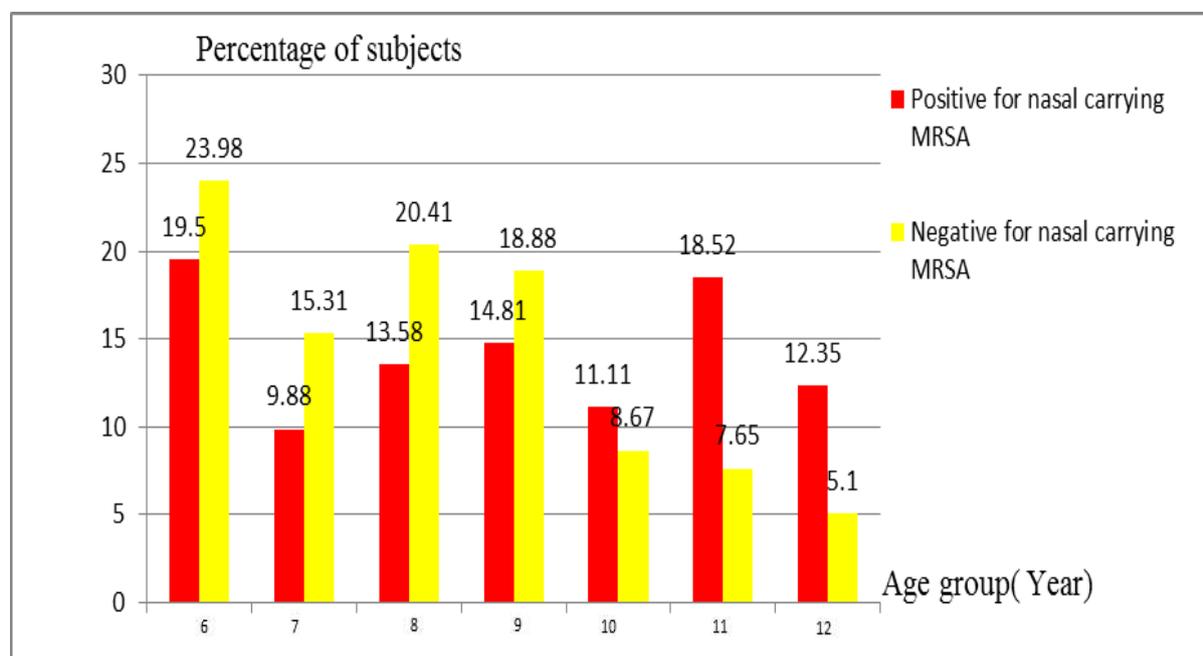


Fig.1: The age category of students in terms of nasal carrying MRSA.

Table- 2: Association between antibiotic resistance and the presence of *mecA* gene in MRSA

Antibiotics	Susceptibility Result	<i>mecA</i>		P-value
		Negative	Positive	
		Total number: 41	Total number: 40	
		Number (%)	Number (%)	
cefoxitin	Intermediate	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	.004
	Sensitive	28(68.29)	14(35)	
	Resistant	13(31.70)	26(65)	
vancomycin	Intermediate	25(60.97)	17(42.50)	.218
	Sensitive	2(4.87)	5(12.50)	
	Resistant	14(34.14)	18(45)	
cefixime	Intermediate	1(2.43)	0(0.0)	.999
	Sensitive	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	
	Resistant	40(97.56)	40(100)	
cefalotin	Intermediate	1(2.43)	2(5)	.616
	Sensitive	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	
	Resistant	40(97.56)	38(95)	
clindamycin	Intermediate	4(9.75)	6(15)	.292
	Sensitive	17(41.46)	10(25)	
	Resistant	20(48.78)	24(60)	
cefazolin	Intermediate	2(4.87)	4(10)	.312
	Sensitive	0(0.0)	1(2.50)	
	Resistant	39(95.12)	35(8.5)	
co-amoxiclav	Intermediate	1(2.43)	1(2.50)	.9999
	Sensitive	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	
	Resistant	40(97.56)	39(97.50)	
amoxicillin	Intermediate	0(0.0)	3(7.50)	.177
	Sensitive	1(2.43)	0(0.0)	
	Resistant	40(97.56)	37(92.50)	
cotrimoxazole	Intermediate	37(90.24)	33(82.50)	.214
	Sensitive	3(7.31)	2(5)	
	Resistant	1(2.43)	5(12.50)	
cefalexin	Intermediate	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	-
	Sensitive	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	
	Resistant	41(100)	40(100)	

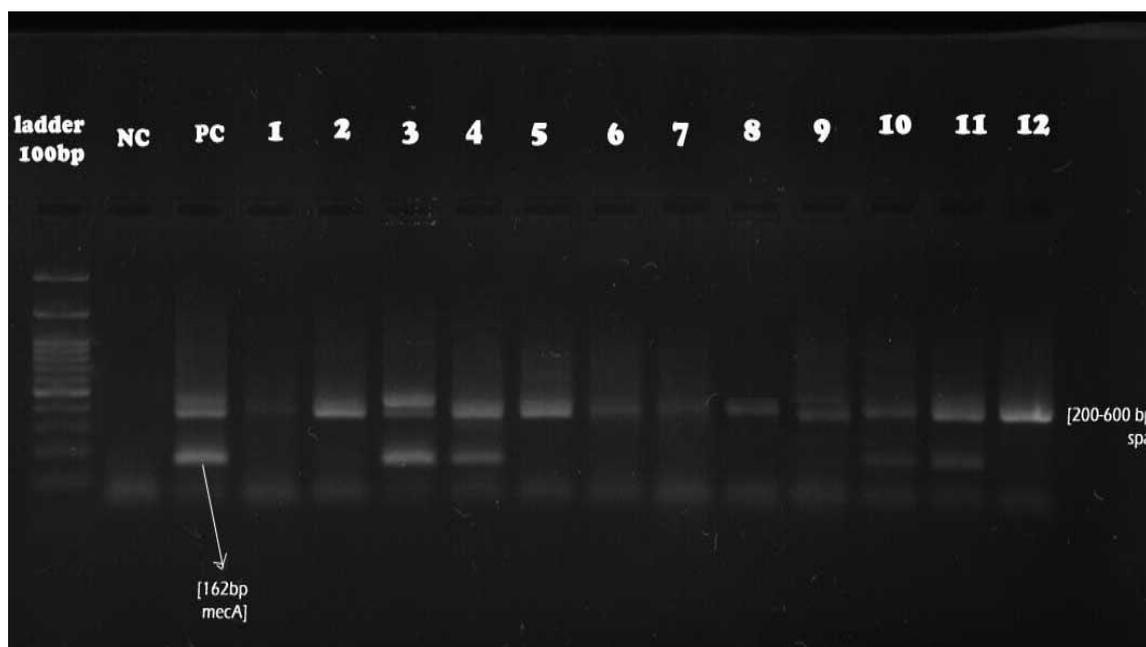


Fig.2: Agarose gel showing the strains containing *spa* and *mecA* genes. The numbers 1 to 12 are the positive strains for *spa* and *mecA* genes. NC: negative control; PC: positive control; bp: base pair.

4- DISCUSSION

The MRSA is one of the major causes of infections worldwide. Increasing resistance against oxacillin in MRSA strains and reducing susceptibility to other antibiotic has posed a huge challenge to treatment of MRSA-related nosocomial infection. In recent years, cases of MRSA infection have been reported in healthy subjects without any exposure to risk factors for MRSA infection. The MRSA carriers in the nose are a major risk factor for infection and transmission of this pathogen (27). In our study, the prevalence of MRSA carriers was 29.24% for boys aged 6 to 12 years, and the rate of resistance to Vancomycin was 45% in these children. Similar to in a study in Hamadan, among 500 children aged 1 to 6 attending day care centers, 26.9% were positive nasal carriage *S. aureus* and 4.1% were MRSA, contrary to our finding in their study all MRSA were sensitive for vancomycin (28). Tabbarai et al. evaluated 1,193 schoolchildren, 16.3% of children aged 6 to 12 years old were the nasal carrier of *S.*

aureus and 34.8% of strains were MRSA; also resistance to vancomycin in these strains was 1.7%. (29); our findings are alarming for the presence of vancomycin-resistant *S. aureus* among healthy children, which should be addressed in a future larger study. In a study on 489 children aged 5 to 15 years old by Chatterjee et al., 52.5% of the children were nasal carriers of *S. aureus*, of which 3.9% were MRSA. The incidence of MRSA in Chatterjee et al. study was lower than our findings (30).

The CA-MRSA isolates are often resistant to fewer classes of antibiotics than HA-MRSA isolates. However, our isolates showed a high resistance to vancomycin (39.5%) clindamycin (54.32%) that are non- β -lactam antibiotics. Our findings are similar to results of Mobasherizadeh et al. that have reported higher resistance rates to non- β -lactam agents among CA-MRSA isolates (31). Clindamycin remains a treatment option of infection caused by MRSA if the clinician is notified of the risk by the microbiology laboratory and the clinical situation is suitable and

vancomycin has been considered to be the reference standard for the treatment of invasive MRSA (32, 33). The high rate of resistance to these critical antibiotics in our study is significant and dangerous. As the aim of our study was focusing on evaluating the extent of CA-MRSA among children rather than an assessment of vancomycin or clindamycin sensitivity, the method of determining the sensitivity in our study was based on antibiogram and minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) method will be applied in future studies.

The maximum amount of pathogens in the nose can be seen during 2-3 years and in this age range, many germs, such as *Pneumococcus*, *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Moraxella catarrhalis* and *S. aureus*, compete for the colonization of the anterior nasal area (34). Although, there was a significant relationship between age and the incidence of nasal carriage MRSA in our study, so that as the age increased the prevalence of MRSA increased ($p < 0.05$). The prevalence of *mecA* gene in MRSA strains in our study was 49.38%. In the meta-analysis of Askari et al., who surveyed the incidence of *mecA* gene in 48 published articles in Iran, of 7,464 *S. aureus* strains, $52.7\% \pm 4.7$ strains had *mecA* gene (35).

In general, the frequency of *mecA* gene among *S. aureus* has been reported differently in different parts of the world and Iran, so that the prevalence of *mecA* gene in the study by Rezazadeh et al. (2012), 80%, in the study of Diabah et al. (2014), 46.3%, in Udo et al. (2014), 44.3%, and in the study of O'Malley et al. in (2014), were 42% (36-39). These differences can be due to the different distribution of the gene in various locations or related to the diagnostic methods. But the common thread among all of these studies is the widespread expansion of the *mecA* gene in the world, which indicates a potential risk of the MRSA infections and resistant to a range

of other antibiotics in the world. In our study, the presence of *mecA* gene in resistant isolated to ceftazidime, vancomycin, cefixime, cefalotin, clindamycin, clindamycin, cefazolin, co-amoxiclav, amoxicillin, cotrimoxazole, and cefalexin were 65%, 45%, 100%, 95%, 60%, 87%, 97%, 92%, 12%, and 100%, respectively. While in the study of Mahdiun et al., all isolates were resistant to ceftazidime, and after that, the highest and lowest resistance was observed in erythromycin (58.4%), and cotrimoxazole (41.7%), respectively (40). In our study, there was a significant relationship between the presence of *mecA* gene and resistance to ceftazidime ($p < 0.05$). However, in the case of other antibiotics, there was no significant relationship between *mecA* gene and antibiotic resistance.

Despite several decades of exposure to the cotrimoxazole, MRSA isolates have retained susceptibility to this antibiotic in different geographical locations (41-43). The low rate of cotrimoxazole resistant isolated in our study could be explained by reducing prescription of this drug in our healthcare setting. For example, Martin et al. described a serial cross-sectional study of resistance to cotrimoxazole among all clinical isolates of *S. aureus* during a 16-year period at United States and found resistance to cotrimoxazole increased from 0% to 48% in *S. aureus* isolates obtained from HIV-infected patients due to extensive use of cotrimoxazole as prophylaxis against *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia (44).

In a randomized controlled trial including 252 patients, cotrimoxazole did not achieve non-inferiority to vancomycin in the treatment of severe MRSA infections (45). In recent years the incidence of antibiotic resistance has exponentially increased in north of Iran (1, 4, 46-53). Although in our study cotrimoxazole was one of the most effective antibiotics against MRSA, this antibiotic is

recommended for the treatment of uncomplicated skin and soft tissue infections but not for bacteremia or pneumonia caused by MRSA (45).

4-1. Limitations of the study

We did not evaluate healthy primary school girls in this research.

5- CONCLUSION

This study showed that the prevalence of colonization of MRSA in the nose of healthy primary school boys was relatively high. The health education is necessary in school to prevent the spread of colonization of *S. aureus* among children. Also it is essential to apply strategies to prevent community spread of *S. aureus*. For empiric treatment or/and antibiotic prescription for infection caused by MRSA, physicians need to take into the consideration the antibiotic resistance patterns of the CA-MRSA strains beside resistant pattern of MRSA strain isolated from clinical specimens.

6- CONFLICT OF INTEREST: None.

7- REFERENCES

1. Behzadnia S, Davoudi A, Rezai MS, Ahangarkani F. Nosocomial infections in pediatric population and antibiotic resistance of the causative organisms in North of Iran. Iranian Red Crescent Medical Journal. 2014;16(2): e14562.
2. Rahimzadeh G, Gill P, Rezai MS. Characterization of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) phages from sewage at a tertiary pediatric hospital. Archives of Pediatric Infectious Diseases. 2017;5(1): :e39615.
3. Rezai MS, Pourmousa R, Dadashzadeh R, Ahangarkani F. Multidrug resistance pattern of bacterial agents isolated from patient with chronic sinusitis. Caspian Journal of Internal Medicine. 2016;7(2):114-9.
4. Davoudi AR, Najafi N, Hoseini Shirazi M, Ahangarkani F. Frequency of

bacterial agents isolated from patients with nosocomial infection in teaching hospitals of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences in 2012. Caspian J Intern Med. 2014;5(4):227-31.

5. Rahimzadeh G, Gill P, Rezai MS. Characterization and lytic activity of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) phages isolated from NICU. Australasian Med J. 2016;9(6):169-75.

6. Dey S, Rosales-Klitz S, Shouche S, Pathak JPN, Pathak A. Prevalence and risk factors for nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* in children attending anganwaris (preschools) in Ujjain, India. BMC research notes. 2013;6(1):265.

7. Davoudi A, Najafi N, Alian S, Tayebi A, Ahangarkani F, Rouhi S, et al. Resistance Pattern of Antibiotics in Patient Underwent Open Heart Surgery With Nosocomial Infection in North of Iran. Global journal of health science. 2015;8(2):288-97.

8. Votintseva AA, Fung R, Miller RR, Knox K, Godwin H, Wyllie DH, et al. Prevalence of *Staphylococcus aureus* protein A (*spa*) mutants in the community and hospitals in Oxfordshire. BMC microbiology. 2014;14(1):63.

9. Huang Y-C, Chen C-J. Nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* during the first 2 years of life in children in Northern Taiwan. The Pediatric infectious disease journal. 2015;34(2):131-5.

10. Karadag-Oncel E, Gonc N, Altay O, Cengiz AB, Ozon A, Pinar A, et al. Prevalence of nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in children with diabetes mellitus: Trends between 2005 and 2013. American journal of infection control. 2015;43(9):1015-17.

11. Nikfar R, Shamsizadeh A, Kajbaf TZ, Panah MK, Khaghani S, Moghddam M. Frequency of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in healthy children. Iranian journal of microbiology. 2015;7(2):67.

12. Moran GJ, Krishnadasan A, Gorwitz RJ, Fosheim GE, McDougal LK, Carey RB, et al. Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* infections among patients in the emergency department.

New England Journal of Medicine. 2006;355(7):666-74.

13. Damasco PV, Chamon RC, Barbosa AT, da Cunha S, Aquino JH, Cavalcante FS, et al. Involvement of methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* related to sequence type 25 and harboring *pvl* genes in a case of carotid cavernous fistula after community-associated sepsis. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 2012;50(1):196-8.

14. Elhassan MM, Ozbak HA, Hemeg HA, Elmekki MA, Ahmed LM. Absence of the *mecA* gene in methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from different clinical specimens in shendi city, Sudan. *BioMed research international*. 2015; 2015 :895860.

15. Kluytmans J, Van Belkum A, Verbrugh H. Nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus*: epidemiology, underlying mechanisms, and associated risks. *Clinical microbiology reviews*. 1997;10(3):505-20.

16. Alghaithy A, Bilal N, Gedebo M, Weily A. Nasal carriage and antibiotic resistance of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from hospital and non-hospital personnel in Abha, Saudi Arabia. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*. 2000; 94(5):504-7.

17. Askarian M, Zeinalzadeh A, Japoni A, Alborzi A, Memish ZA. Prevalence of nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and its antibiotic susceptibility pattern in healthcare workers at Namazi Hospital, Shiraz, Iran. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2009;13(5):e241-e7.

18. Vinodhkumaradithyaa A, Uma A, Shirivasan M, Ananthalakshmi I, Nallasivam P, Thirumalaikolundusubramanian P. Nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* among surgical unit staff. *Jpn J Infect Dis*. 2009;62(3):228-9.

19. Khodami E. A survey on nasal carriers of *Staphylococcus aureus* among hospital staff. *Journal of Babol University of Medical Sciences*. 2001;3(2):52-5.

20. Tewodros W, Gedebo M. Nasal carrier rates and antibiotic resistance of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from hospital

and non-hospital populations, Addis Ababa. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*. 1984;78(3):314-8.

21. El Aila NA, Al Laham NA, Ayesh BM. Nasal carriage of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* among health care workers at Al Shifa hospital in Gaza Strip. *BMC infectious diseases*. 2017;17(1):28.

22. Koneman E, Allen S, Janda W, Schreckenberger R, Winn W. Introduction to microbiology. Part II; Guidelines for collection, transport, processing, analysis, and reporting of cultures from specific specimen sources. In: Koneman EW, Alien SD, Janda WM, Schreckenberger RC, editors. *Color atlas and textbook of diagnostic microbiology*. Philadelphia: Lippincott ; 1997. pp. 121–70.

23. Collee J, Miles R, Watt B. Tests for identification of bacteria. In: Collee JG, Fraser AG, Marmion BP, editors. *Practical medical microbiology*. 14th ed. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 1996. pp. 131–50.

24. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI). Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. 26th ed. CLSI supplement M100S (ISBN 1-56238-923-8 [Print]; ISBN 1-56238-924-6 [Electronic]). Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, 950 West Valley Road, Suite 2500, Wayne, Pennsylvania 19087 USA, 2016.

25. Coban AY, Bozdogan B, Cihan CC, Cetinkaya E, Bilgin K, Darka O, et al. Two new colorimetric methods for early detection of vancomycin and oxacillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 2006;44(2):580-2.

26. Stegger M, Andersen PS, Kearns A, Pichon B, Holmes MA, Edwards G, et al. Rapid detection, differentiation and typing of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* harbouring either *mecA* or the new *mecA* homologue *mecA(LGA251)*. *Clinical microbiology and infection : the official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases*. 2012;18(4):395-400.

27. Prates KA, Torres AM, Garcia LB, Ogatta SFY, Cardoso CL, Tognim MCB.

Nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in university students. *The Brazilian Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2010;14(3):316-8.

28. Sedighi I, Moez H, Alikhani M. Nasal carriage of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and their antibiotic susceptibility patterns in children attending day-care centers. *Acta microbiologica et immunologica Hungarica*. 2011;58(3):227-34.

29. Tabbarai A, Ghaemi E, Fazeli M, Behnampour N. Prevalence of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carrier in healthy school students in Gorgan. *Journal of Gorgan University of Medical Sciences*. 2001;3(2):6-11.

30. Chatterjee SS, Ray P, Aggarwal A, Das A, Sharma M. A community-based study on nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *The Indian journal of medical research*. 2009;130(6):742-8.

31. Mobasherizadeh S, Shojaei H, Havaei SA, Mostafavizadeh K, Davoodabadi F, Khorvash F, et al. Nasal carriage screening of community-associated methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in healthy children of a developing country. *Advanced biomedical research*. 2016;5: 144.

32. Micek ST. Alternatives to vancomycin for the treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2007;45(Supplement_3):S184-S90.

33. Frank AL, Marcinak JF, Mangat PD, Tjho JT, Kelkar S, Schreckenberger PC, et al. Clindamycin treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections in children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2002;21(6):530-4.

34. Sivaraman K, Venkataraman N, Cole AM. *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage and its contributing factors. *Future microbiology*. 2009;4(8):999-1008.

35. Askari E, Soleymani F, Arianpoor A, Tabatabai SM, Amini A, NaderiNasab M. Epidemiology of *mecA*-methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) in Iran: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Iranian journal of basic medical sciences*. 2012;15(5):1010.

36. Rezazadeh M, YOUSEFI MR, Sarmadian H, GHAZNAVIRAD E. Antibiotic profile of Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* with multiple-drug resistances isolated from nosocomial infections in Vali-Asr Hospital of Arak. 2013.

37. Dibah S, Arzanlou M, Jannati E, Shapouri R. Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance pattern of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) strains isolated from clinical specimens in Ardabil, Iran. *Iranian journal of microbiology*. 2014;6(3):163.

38. Udo EE, Al-Lawati B-H, Al-Muharmi Z, Thukral S. Genotyping of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in the Sultan Qaboos University Hospital, Oman reveals the dominance of Panton–Valentine leucocidin-negative ST6-IV/t304 clone. *New microbes and new infections*. 2014;2(4):100-5.

39. O'Malley SM, Emele FE, Nwaokorie FO, Idika N, Umezudike AK, Emeka-Nwabunnia I, et al. Molecular typing of antibiotic-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in Nigeria. *Journal of infection and public health*. 2015;8(2):187-93.

40. Mahdiyoun SM, Ahanjan M, Goudarzi M, Rezaee R. Prevalence of Antibiotic Resistance in Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and Determining Aminoglycoside Resistance Gene by PCR in Sari and Tehran Hospitals. *Journal of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences*. 2015;25(128):97-107.

41. Wackett A, Nazdryn A, Spitzer E, Singer AJ. MRSA rates and antibiotic susceptibilities from skin and soft tissue cultures in a suburban ED. *The Journal of emergency medicine*. 2012;43(4):754-7.

42. LÉvesque S, Bourgault AM, Galarneau LA, Moisan D, Doualla-Bell F, Tremblay C. Molecular epidemiology and antimicrobial susceptibility profiles of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* blood culture isolates: results of the Quebec Provincial Surveillance Programme. *Epidemiology and Infection*. 2015;143(7):1511-18.

43. Hanaki H, Cui L, Ikeda-Dantsuji Y, Nakae T, Honda J, Yanagihara K, et al.

Antibiotic susceptibility survey of blood-borne MRSA isolates in Japan from 2008 through 2011. *Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy*. 2014; 20(9):527-34.

44. Martin JN, Rose DA, Hadley WK, Perdreau-Remington F, Lam PK, Gerberding JL. Emergence of trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole resistance in the AIDS era. *The Journal of infectious diseases*. 1999;180(6):1809-18.

45. Paul M, Bishara J, Yahav D, Goldberg E, Neuberger A, Ghanem-Zoubi N, et al. Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole versus vancomycin for severe infections caused by meticillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: randomised controlled trial. *bmj*. 2015;350:h2219.

46. Saffar MJ, Enayti AA, Abdolla IA, Razai MS, Saffar H. Antibacterial susceptibility uropathogens in 3 hospitals, Sari, Islamic Republic of Iran, 2002-2003. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*. 2008;14(3):556-63.

47. Cherati JY, Shojai J, Chaharkameh A, Rezai MS, Khosravi F, Rezai F, et al. Incidence of nosocomial infection in selected cities according NISS software in Mazandaran province. *Journal of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences*. 2015;24(122):64-71.

48. Bagheri-Nesami M, Rezai MS, Ahangarkani F, Rafiei A, Nikkhah A, Eslami G, et al. Multidrug and co-resistance patterns of non-fermenting Gram-negative bacilli involved in ventilator-associated pneumonia carrying class 1 integron in the North of Iran. *GERMS*. 2017;7(3):123-31.

49. Rezai MS, Bagheri-Nesami M, Hajalibeig A, Ahangarkani F. Multidrug and cross-resistance pattern of ESBL-producing enterobacteriaceae agents of nosocomial infections in intensive care units. *Journal of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences*. 2017;26(144):39-49.

50. Rezai MS, Rafiei A, Ahangarkani F, Bagheri-Nesami M, Nikkhah A, Shafahi K, et al. Emergence of extensively drug resistant *acinetobacter baumannii*-encoding integrons and extended-spectrum beta-lactamase genes isolated from ventilator-associated pneumonia patients. *Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology*. 2017;10(7): e14377.

51. Fahimzad A, Eydian Z, Karimi A, Shiva F, Sayyahfar S, Kahbazi M, et al. Surveillance of antibiotic consumption point prevalence survey 2014: Antimicrobial prescribing in pediatrics wards of 16 Iranian hospitals. *Archives of Iranian Medicine*. 2016;19(3):204-9.

52. Bagheri-Nesami M, Rafiei A, Eslami G, Ahangarkani F, Rezai MS, Nikkhah A, et al. Assessment of extended-spectrum β -lactamases and integrons among Enterobacteriaceae in device-associated infections: Multicenter study in north of Iran. *Antimicrobial Resistance and Infection Control*. 2016;5(1): 52.

53. Pourmousa R, Dadashzadeh R, Ahangarkani F, Rezai MS. Frequency of Bacterial Agents Isolated From Patients With Chronic Sinusitis in Northern Iran. *Global journal of health science*. 2015;8(5):239-46.