



SWAB: Dutch Working Party on Antibiotic Policy

Optimization of the antibiotic policy in the Netherlands XI :

SWAB Guidelines for the Treatment of MRSA Carriage

SWAB, March 2007

Preparatory Committee: Dr. Heiman F.L. Wertheim (literature survey), Dr. Jan L. Nouwen (literature survey), Prof. Dr. Marc J.M. Bonten, Prof. Dr. Peterhans van den Broek, Dr. Annet Troelstra, Prof. Dr. Christina M.J.E. Vandebroucke-Grauls, Dr. Margreet C. Vos, Prof. Dr. Andreas Voss, Prof. Dr. Jan A. Kluytmans (Chairman)

© 2007 SWAB
Secretariat SWAB
AMC Dept. of Infectious Diseases, Tropical Medicine and AIDS
F4-217
P.O. Box 22660
1100 DD Amsterdam
Tel: 31 20 566 43 80
Fax: 31 20 6972286
secretariaat@swab.nl
<http://www.swab.nl>

Introduction

The Dutch Working Party on Antibiotic Policy (SWAB) develops guidelines for the administration of antibiotics to hospitalized adults with the aim to optimize antibiotic policy and thus to contribute to the management of both costs and the development of resistance. The guidelines serve as a framework for the committees which formulate the antibiotic policy for each hospital. Epidemiological data on the causative agent of a certain infection form an important starting point; the emphasis is on the principle that an antibiotic should only be prescribed when the correct indication is present.

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) today is endemic in health care institutions almost everywhere in the world. In addition a strong increase in MRSA in the open population has been observed. Resistance percentages for invasive infections with *S. aureus* of 60% and more are now being observed in countries with a high prevalence.^{1,2}

MRSA infections are difficult to treat because only a limited arsenal of effective antibiotics remains. Moreover they are accompanied by an increase in morbidity and mortality. The mortality associated with MRSA bacteraemia has been estimated to be twice as high as that for a susceptible staphylococcus.³

Furthermore the number of patients with invasive infections increases when MRSA is present.⁴ In the Netherlands the prevalence of MRSA is still exceptionally low despite the high prevalence in surrounding countries^{1,5} To keep the prevalence low a "Search and Destroy" (S&D) policy is followed. This means that there is an active search for MRSA. If MRSA is found, a policy consisting of transmission based precautions for colonized individuals is followed. The guidelines for detection in the microbiological laboratory were drawn up by the Dutch Society for Medical Microbiology (www.nvmm.nl).

Measures to control the spread of MRSA within health care facilities are described in national guidelines drawn up by the Working party for Infection Control (<http://www.wip.nl>). The measures are for both patients and staff members in health care facilities.

This SWAB guideline concerns the treatment of MRSA carriage by both patients and health care workers.

Effective treatment of MRSA carriage is an important pillar of the Dutch "search and destroy" policy. This guideline does not offer advice on infections with MRSA. For the treatment of MRSA infections one should consult an expert (medical microbiologist or a doctor of infectious diseases for children in combination with an internist or paediatrician).

Definition of MRSA carriage

The microbiological detection of MRSA depends on the one hand on the presence of the species *S. aureus* and on the other on the presence of the *mec-A* gene, which codes for the production of a modified penicillin-binding protein (PBP-2a). This PBP-2a has a decreased affinity for beta-lactam antibiotics so that this important group of antibiotics becomes inactive. Expression of the *mec-A* gene varies so that detection in the laboratory can be a problem. An individual whose skin, mucous membrane or foreign material contains MRSA is a carrier. This is independent of the localization on the body or the amount present.

Methods used to establish the guideline

This guideline was drawn up according to the so-called “evidence-based” principle. In addition to meta-analyses and guidelines collected via the Cochrane Library, relevant literature from the database Medline was consulted. Recommendations in the guideline were assigned a level of the strength of evidence according to the instructions drawn up by CBO (Table 1). In order to carry out a literature survey for this guideline, we focused on the following research question: What is the best initial treatment of MRSA carriage?

The following search criteria were used for the literature survey: *Staphylococcus aureus*, methicillin (also searched without methicillin), MRSA, human, decolonization/decolonisation, eradication, elimination, treatment, clinical trial, and randomized controlled trial; period: up to and including February 2006.

Only articles with an abstract in Dutch or English were evaluated. In addition studies from the archives of *Staphylococcus aureus* investigators/experts in the Netherlands were selected.

The following investigations were not included in the analysis: studies of beta-lactam antibiotics, studies of (experimental) drugs not available in the Netherlands, studies with a follow-up of less than one week, studies without a control group, studies in which MRSA infections were treated but the presence of carriage was not determined. For situations in which there is no solid proof of the best way to eradicate MRSA, a temporary choice was made by those who drew up this guideline.

Consequences of carriage

Members of the staff of health care facilities

Staff members who are colonized with MRSA may not carry out patient-related activities. The motivation for this is the fact that they can infect patients and colleagues.⁶⁻⁸ This is described in the guidelines of the WIP (<http://www.wip.nl>).

Patients

Patients who do not have an infection but are colonized with MRSA run an enhanced risk of developing an infection with MRSA. Investigation by Davis et al. showed that 19% of all patients who are colonized with MRSA at admission develop an infection with MRSA during hospitalization. For patients with a susceptible *S. aureus* this percentage was 1.5% and for those without *S. aureus* 2.0%.¹⁰ Patients who have an MRSA infection must be treated from a therapeutic standpoint. In such cases antibiotics may be necessary but this is certainly not always the case. For infections of the skin and soft tissues, surgical drainage and/or curettage often yields satisfactory results.

The choice of antibiotics for the treatment of infections with MRSA demands specific expertise and must be carried out in consultation with a medical microbiologist, or an infectious disease specialist together with a paediatrician when it concerns a child.

Carelessly chosen therapies can lead to treatment failure and the development of more extensive resistance. There is a British guideline for the treatment of MRSA infections.⁹

Healthy individuals outside of health care facilities

The greater risk of infection also applies for healthy individuals. For example, in a study of army recruits, an infection percentage of 38% was found for MRSA carriers whereas that for carriers of susceptible *S. aureus* was only 3%. ¹¹ The increased morbidity in healthy individuals is partly due to the rapid increase in MRSA in the open population whereby specific virulence factors, such as Panton-Valentine leukocidin (PVL), are present in increased quantities.¹² How to handle MRSA carriers in the open population is described in an LCI handbook (www.rivm.nl/cib).

Treatment of MRSA carriage

The **establishment of indications** for the treatment of carriage depends on careful consideration of (1) the effects of MRSA carriage for the individual involved and those around him, (2) the chances and severity of side-effects of the treatment and (3) the estimated a priori chance of successful treatment in view of the characteristics of the *S. aureus* strain and the host.

For **staff members** of health care facilities an active policy to eradicate carriage is pursued as part of the S&D strategy. An important reason for this is the fact that the individual involved may not work due to the risk of contamination as long as MRSA carriage is present (see WIP guideline). In addition for healthy individuals (uncomplicated MRSA carrier, see below), the chance of successful treatment with a relatively safe drug is substantial.

For **healthy individuals** outside of the hospital, initiation of treatment for carriage should be approached with reservations. If the risk of infections with MRSA is present, treatment for carriage is recommended. Another indication could be when a (family) contact of the carrier works in a health care facility or is a patient.

If the chance of recolonization of the MRSA carrier via external sources is pronounced, then treatment of carriage is rarely or never indicated. An example of this is a pig farmer who has acquired MRSA via his live stock.

For **patients** the fact that there are often risk factors for failure of therapy plays an important role (complicated MRSA carrier, see below). Such risk factors are skin lesions, presence of foreign materials, carriage at multiple sites on the body and antimicrobial therapy directed against other causative agents than MRSA.

On the other hand the consideration must include the risk of the development of an infection with MRSA and the risk of spread to other patients. As long as carriage exists, the patient must be nursed in strict isolation; extensive measures apply for visits to outpatient clinics and so on, as described in the WIP guideline.

Without treatment carriage can be quite prolonged. In an observational study among colonized patients a half-life of 40 months was found.¹³ As mentioned previously, risk factors for persistent carriage include the presence of skin lesions and foreign materials. In addition, the presence of MRSA on multiple sites on the body is associated with persistent carriage which complicates treatment of MRSA carriage.¹⁴ In this guideline therefore a distinction is made between uncomplicated and complicated MRSA carriage.

The patient has **uncomplicated MRSA carriage** when the criteria below are satisfied:

- individual without active infection with MRSA **and**
- MRSA is sensitive in vitro to the antibiotic to be given **and**
- there are no active skin lesions
and
 - there is no foreign material that forms a connection between the internal environment and the external environment (for example urine catheter, external fixation.)
and
 - carriage is localized in the nose (other places may be colonized as well).

The patient has **complicated MRSA carriage** when at least one of the criteria below is satisfied:

- there are active skin lesions and/or there is foreign material that forms a connection between the internal environment and the external environment
and/or
 - MRSA is not sensitive to mupirocin, in vitro
and/or
 - previous treatments according to the recommendations for uncomplicated carriage have failed
and/or
 - carriage is located exclusively at sites other than the nose, such as the throat, perineum or skin lesions.

Literature analysis of treatment of carriage (see also “selected studies” in the appendix)

For the literature survey 24 clinical studies were selected (see appendix)¹⁵⁻³⁸ plus one Cochrane review, three international guidelines^{9, 40, 41} Three national related guidelines (WIP, LCI and NVMM) and two reviews.^{42, 43} The Cochrane review concerns only studies in which MRSA eradication was investigated. The authors concluded on the basis of six selected studies that there is no proof that local or systemic therapy is effective for MRSA eradication. However it is also worthwhile to analyze studies in which methicillin-susceptible *S. aureus* (MSSA) eradication by means of antibiotics other than beta-lactam antibiotics is investigated. The 24 selected studies are summarized in Table 2. The average number of participants per study was 85 (range: 16-339 participants). Most of the studies were randomized (n = 21) and more than half were blind (n = 13). The populations studied vary: hospital staff (n = 8), hospital patients (n = 7), healthy volunteers (n = 4), nursing home patients (n = 3) and staff plus patients (n = 2). Within the selected studies MSSA (n = 14), MRSA (n = 7) and both (n = 3) were studied.

A variety of interventions was studied, both systemic (oral administration) and local. The local interventions studied were: mupirocin nasal ointment, tea tree oil, oral vancomycin, and hygienic measures. The systemic interventions included macrolides, cotrimoxazole, chinolons, fusidic acid and bacitracin. Often combinations of the above-mentioned drugs were used with an average duration of treatment of seven days (range 5-14 days). Mupirocin nasal ointment was investigated in the majority (15) of the studies.

In the selected studies there is no standardization with respect to culture methods used, body sites sampled, duration of follow-up period and/or typing in order to determine whether there

really was treatment failure. In 11 studies only the nose was sampled for cultures. However most carriers have MRSA at more than one site. In studies in which cultures were taken from more than one site, the effectiveness of the intervention investigated was lower than in studies of cultures only from the nose. In addition the effectiveness of the intervention studied is lower when follow-up is longer.

Of the 15 studies which focused on mupirocin, six studies were for MRSA. In seven studies only nose cultures were taken during follow-up. From these studies one can conclude that 63% become *S. aureus*-free (nasal and extra nasal) versus 19% and 37% of the control group, respectively. Other topical remedies investigated are tea tree oil, oral vancomycin and bacitracin (with or without rifampicin). Oral vancomycin and bacitracin with or without rifampicin are not effective in eradicating carriage. Tea tree oil can probably be quite useful in the treatment of carriage but this therapy needs to be investigated in more detail.

Of the systemic therapies studied, most experience has been acquired with cotrimoxazole in combination with rifampicin or fusidic acid (three studies) and macrolide antibiotics (three studies). There is not enough data on the effectiveness of the chinolons.

Combination therapy with cotrimoxazole yields eradication in half of the carriers. They were all MRSA carriers and multiple relevant sites were cultured during follow-up. Various types of macrolides were investigated; with claritromycin as the most effective drug (doxycycline was not investigated). However this claritomycin study was not set up primarily to answer our research question. Systemic monotherapy is not recommended, especially not with fusidic acid or rifampicin because then one sees a very easy and rapid development of resistance.

The studies that focus on fusidic acid and rifampicin monotherapy will not be discussed further here. A study of the effect on the development of recurrent infections with *S. aureus* in carriers consisted of prolonged low-dose clindamycin (150 mg 1x daily for 3 months).⁴⁴ No development of resistance was observed and there was a marked decrease in the number of recurrences. The effect on carriage is not known.

Recommendations

The recommendations for the treatment of MRSA carriage, together with the level of the strength of evidence, are presented below (Table 1). The recommendations differ for complicated and uncomplicated MRSA carriage (see also above).

Uncomplicated carriage

Recommendation

Level 1 Mupirocin nasal ointment three times daily for five days

Level 3 During treatment skin and hair must be washed daily with a disinfecting soap (Chlorhexidine soap in a 40 mg/ml solution or beta dine shampoo 75 mg/ml), preferably in the shower (not the bathtub).

Level 4 Daily clean underwear, clean clothing, clean washcloth and towels.
On days 1, 2 and 5 of the cure, put clean bedclothes on the bed. When the patient goes to bed at night, he must wear clean underwear or pyjamas during treatment.

In the event of treatment failure:

Level 3 Find out whether there is a reservoir in the home environment (human or animal).

Level 3 If a reservoir is found in the home environment, it must be treated simultaneously.

Note: Several experts who help to draw up this guideline believe that, because it was found that other household members often appear to be MRSA carriers, the home situation should be included in the evaluation from the beginning and, if necessary, treatment should be prescribed. It is however not yet clear whether this carriage persists after the index case has been treated and thus leads to treatment failure. Until further data are available, our recommendation is to wait until failure of the first course of treatment of the index case before including the home situation in the evaluation.

In the event of a second treatment failure, the case becomes a complicated MRSA carriage (see below).

Complicated carriage

Recommendations

If active skin lesions are present, treat them first – if necessary in consultation with a dermatologist.

If, after termination of this treatment, it turns out to be an uncomplicated carriage, then the treatment described above can be initiated.

If foreign material forms a connection between the internal environment and the external environment, it is preferable to wait until it can be removed.

In the event of osteosynthetic material and a closed wound, carriage can be treated, but when the material is removed, isolation measures and control cultures must be taken once again.

If after removal of the foreign material it turns out to be an uncomplicated carriage, then the treatment described above can be initiated.

Treatment of complicated carriage of a mupirocin-sensitive MRSA

Level 3 Systemic treatment for at least seven days with a combination of 2 drugs as listed in Table 3.

The choice is determined primarily by the in vitro sensitivity of the relevant MRSA. In principle oral treatment is preferred.

Systemic treatment is combined with:

Level 1 Mupirocin nasal ointment 3 times daily for five days

Level 3 During treatment skin and hair must be washed daily with a disinfecting soap (chlorhexidine soap in a 40mg/ml solution or beta dine shampoo 75 mg/ml), preferably in the shower (not the bathtub).

Level 4 Daily clean underwear, clean clothing and clean towels. On days one, two and five of the cure put clean bedclothes on the bed. Before going to bed, during treatment, the patient must also put on clean underwear and/or pyjamas.

Level 3 Treat other infected family members simultaneously. If they can be considered uncomplicated carriers, then they can be treated as described above and systemic drugs need not be administered.

Level 4 If wounds are present, treatment of carriage is delayed until the wound has healed unless there are reasons for not delaying treatment. Local administration of mupirocin to the wound is not recommended because of the risk of the development of resistance.

Level 4 The use of disinfectants is to be preferred, eventually in combination with systemic antibiotic therapy.

Level 3 In the event of intestinal or rectal carriage, experience with the oral administration of aminoglycosides and glycopeptides is limited. Because of risk of the development of resistance against these important therapeutic drugs, this is not recommended.

In the event of treatment failure, referral to a centre with specific expertise is recommended.

Treatment of complicated carriage of an MRSA with decreased sensitivity for or resistance against mupirocin

Mupirocin sensitivity is determined for every individual colonized by MRSA and again after failure of treatment with mupirocin. Assessment takes place preferably by means of E tests. There are MRSA with a decreased sensitivity for mupirocin (low-level or intermediate resistance) at a minimal inhibiting concentration (MIC) of 4-256 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ and high-level resistance with $\text{MIC} \geq 512 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$. A patient with MRSA with a decreased sensitivity for or resistance against mupirocin should be referred to a centre with specific expertise.

Control cultures

Control cultures are taken and further handled according to the guidelines of the Dutch Society for Medical Microbiology (<http://www.nvmm.nl/>). The first cultures for evaluation of the effectiveness of the treatment are taken at least 48 hours after termination of the treatment. The frequency of subsequent cultures is partially dependent on the results for the individual involved. In the guidelines of the WIP, these results are described (<http://www.wip.nl/>).

Table 1. CBO classification of literature and conclusions

Classification of the proof according to the strength of the evidence

For publications on intervention

- A1 Systematic reviews of at least several studies on the A2 level, whereby the results of the separate studies are consistent.
- A2 Randomized comparative clinical investigation of good quality, sufficient size and consistent results.
- B Randomized clinical trials of moderate quality or insufficient size or other comparative study (not randomized, comparative cohort study, patient control study).
- C Non-comparative study
- D Opinion of experts, for example members of the study group

For publications on diagnostics

- A1 Investigation of the effects of diagnostics on clinical results for a well-defined prospective patient group with a policy established before hand on the basis of the test results to be studied or operations research into the effects of diagnostics on clinical results, whereby the results of the investigation on the A2 levels are used as basis and mutual dependence of the diagnostic tests is taken into account;
- A2 Investigation with respect to a reference test whereby criteria are defined beforehand for the test to be investigated and for a reference test, with a good description of the test and the clinical population studied; it must be a sufficiently large series of successive patients; use must be made of cut-off values which have been defined beforehand and the results of the test and the “golden standard” must be evaluated independently. In situations in which multiple diagnostic tests play a role, there will in principle be a mutual dependence and the analysis must be adapted accordingly, for example with logistic regression models.
- B Comparison with a reference test, description of the test studied and the population to be studied but without the characteristics listed for level A
- C Non-comparative studies
- D Opinion of an expert, for example a member of the study group.

Level of evidence of the conclusions

1. At least 1 systematic review (A1) or 2 independently performed investigations at level A2.
2. At least 2 independently performed investigations at level B.
3. At least 1 investigation of level A2, B or C.
4. Opinion of an expert, for example a member of the study group.

Table 3 Oral combination therapy for eradication of the carriage of MRSA.

Drug 1	Drug 2	Recommendation of Study group
Doxycyclin 200 mg 1 x daily	First choice: rifampicin: 600 mg 2x daily; in case of insensitivity to rifampicin: fusidic acid: 500 mg 3 x daily	Recommended
Trimethoprim 200 mg 2 x daily		
Clindamycin 600 mg 3 x daily		
Clarithromycin 500 mg 2 x daily		
Ciprofloxacin 750 mg 2 x daily		
Fusidic acid 500 mg 3 x daily	Rifampicin 600 mg 2 x daily	Alternative

All treatments are preferably oral. The dosage given is the recommended dosage for an adult weighing about 70 kg. Combination therapy is preferred because the effectiveness is better and the risk of the development of resistance is lower.

References

1. Tiemersma, E.W. et al. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in Europe, 1999-2002. *Emerg Infect Dis* **10**, 1627-34 (2004).
2. National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance (NNIS) System Report, data summary from January 1992 through June 2004, issued October 2004. *Am J Infect Control* **32**, 470-85 (2004).
3. Cosgrove, S.E. et al. Comparison of mortality associated with methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia: a meta-analysis. *Clin Infect Dis* **36**, 53-9. (2003).
4. Reacher, M.H. et al. Bacteraemia and antibiotic resistance of its pathogens reported in England and Wales between 1990 and 1998: trend analysis. *Bmj* **320**, 213-6 (2000).
5. Wertheim, H.F. et al. Low prevalence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) at hospital admission in the Netherlands: the value of search and destroy and restrictive antibiotic use. *J Hosp Infect* **56**, 321-5 (2004).
6. Solberg, C.O. Spread of *Staphylococcus aureus* in hospitals: causes and prevention. *Scand J Infect Dis* **32**, 587-95 (2000).
7. Sherertz, R.J., Bassetti, S. & Bassetti-Wyss, B. "Cloud" health-care workers. *Emerg Infect Dis* **7**, 241-4 (2001).
8. Sherertz, R.J. et al. A cloud adult: the *Staphylococcus aureus*-virus interaction revisited. *Ann Intern Med* **124**, 539-47 (1996).
9. Gemmell, C.G. et al. Guidelines for the prophylaxis and treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) infections in the UK. *J Antimicrob Chemother* **57**, 589-608 (2006).
10. Davis, K.A., Stewart, J.J., Crouch, H.K., Florez, C.E. & Hospenthal, D.R. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) nares colonization at hospital admission and its effect on subsequent MRSA infection. *Clin Infect Dis* **39**, 776-82 (2004).
11. Ellis, M.W., Hospenthal, D.R., Dooley, D.P., Gray, P.J. & Murray, C.K. Natural history of community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization and infection in soldiers. *Clin Infect Dis* **39**, 971-9 (2004).
12. Kluytmans-Vandenbergh, M.F. & Kluytmans, J.A. Community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: current perspectives. *Clin Microbiol Infect* **12 Suppl 1**, 9-15 (2006).
13. Sanford, M.D., Widmer, A.F., Bale, M.J., Jones, R.N. & Wenzel, R.P. Efficient detection and long-term persistence of the carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Infect Dis* **19**, 1123-8 (1994).
14. Harbarth, S. et al. Risk factors for persistent carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Infect Dis* **31**, 1380-5. (2000).
15. Bulanda, M., Gruszka, M. & Heczko, B. Effect of mupirocin on nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Hosp Infect* **14**, 117-24. (1989).
16. Casewell, M.W. & Hill, R.L. Elimination of nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* with mupirocin ('pseudomonic acid')--a controlled trial. *J Antimicrob Chemother* **17**, 365-72. (1986).
17. Doebele, B.N. et al. Long-term efficacy of intranasal mupirocin ointment. A prospective cohort study of *Staphylococcus aureus* carriage. *Arch Intern Med* **154**, 1505-8. (1994).

18. Doebbeling, B.N. et al. Elimination of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in health care workers: analysis of six clinical trials with calcium mupirocin ointment. The Mupirocin Collaborative Study Group. *Clin Infect Dis* **17**, 466-74. (1993).
19. Dryden, M.S., Dally, S. & Crouch, M. A randomized, controlled trial of tea tree topical preparations versus a standard topical regimen for the clearance of MRSA colonization. *J Hosp Infect* **56**, 283-6 (2004).
20. Fernandez, C. et al. A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled clinical trial to evaluate the safety and efficacy of mupirocin calcium ointment for eliminating nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* among hospital personnel. *J Antimicrob Chemother* **35**, 399-408. (1995).
21. Harbarth, S. et al. Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind trial to evaluate the efficacy of mupirocin for eradicating carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **43**, 1412-6. (1999).
22. Leigh, D.A. & Joy, G. Treatment of familial staphylococcal infection--comparison of mupirocin nasal ointment and chlorhexidine/neomycin (Naseptin) cream in eradication of nasal carriage. *J Antimicrob Chemother* **31**, 909-17. (1993).
23. Martin, J.N. et al. A randomized clinical trial of mupirocin in the eradication of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in human immunodeficiency virus disease. *J Infect Dis* **180**, 896-9. (1999).
24. Mody, L., Kauffman, C.A., McNeil, S.A., Galecki, A.T. & Bradley, S.F. Mupirocin-based decolonization of *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers in residents of 2 long-term care facilities: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Clin Infect Dis* **37**, 1467-74 (2003).
25. Parras, F. et al. Comparative study of mupirocin and oral co-trimoxazole plus topical fusidic acid in eradication of nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **39**, 175-9. (1995).
26. Reagan, D.R. et al. Elimination of coincident *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal and hand carriage with intranasal application of mupirocin calcium ointment. *Ann Intern Med* **114**, 101-6. (1991).
27. Scully, B.E., Briones, F., Gu, J.W. & Neu, H.C. Mupirocin treatment of nasal staphylococcal colonization. *Arch Intern Med* **152**, 353-6. (1992).
28. Soto, N.E. et al. Bacitracin versus mupirocin for *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal colonization. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* **20**, 351-3. (1999).
29. Watanakunakorn, C., Axelson, C., Bota, B. & Stahl, C. Mupirocin ointment with and without chlorhexidine baths in the eradication of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in nursing home residents. *Am J Infect Control* **23**, 306-9. (1995).
30. Peterson, L.R. et al. Emergence of ciprofloxacin resistance in nosocomial methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates. Resistance during ciprofloxacin plus rifampin therapy for methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* colonization. *Arch Intern Med* **150**, 2151-5 (1990).
31. McAnally, T.P., Lewis, M.R. & Brown, D.R. Effect of rifampin and bacitracin on nasal carriers of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **25**, 422-6 (1984).
32. Muder, R.R. et al. A controlled trial of rifampicin, minocycline, and rifampicin plus minocycline for eradication of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in long-term care patients. *J Antimicrob Chemother* **34**, 189-90 (1994).
33. Walsh, T.J. et al. Randomized double-blinded trial of rifampin with either novobiocin or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization: prevention of antimicrobial resistance and effect of host factors on outcome. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **37**, 1334-42 (1993).

34. Yu, V.L. et al. *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage and infection in patients on hemodialysis. Efficacy of antibiotic prophylaxis. *N Engl J Med* **315**, 91-6. (1986).
35. Berg, H.F. et al. Emergence and persistence of macrolide resistance in oropharyngeal flora and elimination of nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* after therapy with slow-release clarithromycin: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **48**, 4183-8 (2004).
36. Wilson, S.Z., Martin, R.R. & Putman, M. In vivo effects of josamycin, erythromycin, and placebo therapy on nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **11**, 407-10 (1977).
37. Wilson, S.Z. et al. Quantitative nasal cultures from carriers of *Staphylococcus aureus*: effects of oral therapy with erythromycin, rosamicin, and placebo. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **15**, 379-83 (1979).
38. Chang, S.C., Hsieh, S.M., Chen, M.L., Sheng, W.H. & Chen, Y.C. Oral fusidic acid fails to eradicate methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization and results in emergence of fusidic acid-resistant strains. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* **36**, 131-6 (2000).
39. Loeb, M., Main, C., Walker-Dilks, C. & Eady, A. Antimicrobial drugs for treating methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, CD003340 (2003).
40. Coia, J.E. et al. Guidelines for the control and prevention of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) in healthcare facilities. *J Hosp Infect* **63 Suppl 1**, S1-44 (2006).
41. Muto, C.A. et al. SHEA guideline for preventing nosocomial transmission of multidrug-resistant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *enterococcus*. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* **24**, 362-86 (2003).
42. Laupland, K.B. & Conly, J.M. Treatment of *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization and prophylaxis for infection with topical intranasal mupirocin: an evidence-based review. *Clin Infect Dis* **37**, 933-8 (2003).
43. Loveday, H.P., Pellowe, C.M., Jones, S.R. & Pratt, R.J. A systematic review of the evidence for interventions for the prevention and control of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (1996-2004): report to the Joint MRSA Working Party (Subgroup A). *J Hosp Infect* **63 Suppl 1**, S45-70 (2006).
44. Klempner MS, Styrt B. Prevention of recurrent staphylococcal skin infections with low-dose oral clindamycin therapy. *JAMA* 1988; **260**: 2682-2685

Appendix

Selected Studies

Mupirocin

Authors	Bulanda M, Gruszka M, Heczko B.
Title:	Effect of mupirocin on nasal carriage of <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
Source:	J. Hosp Infect 1989; 14(2):117-24.
Type:	Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind
Participants:	Polish hospital staff, <i>S. aureus</i> nasal carriage (n = 69)
Intervention:	A: mupirocin, 3x daily, 3-5 days (n=34) B: placebo: 3x daily, 3-5 days
Culture:	nose
Follow-up	4 days, 2 weeks, 1 month, 3 months, 6 months, 1 year (drop outs)
Results:	A: 60% nasal SA-free after 2 weeks B: 85% nasal SA-free after 2 weeks
Note:	MSSA
Authors:	Casewell MW, Hill RL
Title:	Elimination of nasal carriage of <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> with mupirocin ('pseudomonic acid') – a controlled trial
Source:	J Antimicrob Chemother 1986; 17(3):365-72
Type:	Controlled study
Participants:	English, healthy volunteers; <i>S. aureus</i> carriage MSSA (n=32)
Intervention:	A: nasal mupirocin, 4x daily for 5 days (n=15) B: nasal placebo, 4x daily for 5 days (n=17)
Culture:	nose
Follow-up:	2-5 weeks
Results:	A: 90% nasal SA-free after 3 weeks B: 0% nasal SA-free
Note:	Only nose, allocation not clear, analysis not clear
Authors:	Doebbeling BN, Reagan DR, Pfaller MA, Houston AK, Hollis RJ, Wenzel RP.
Title:	Long-term efficacy of intranasal mupirocin ointment. A prospective cohort study of <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> carriage.
Source:	Arch Intern Med 1994; 154(13):1505-8
Type:	Randomized, placebo-controlled, blind
Participants:	USA, hospital staff, <i>S. aureus</i> nasal carriage (MSSA) (n=68)
Intervention:	A: nasal mupirocin 2x daily for 5 days B: nasal placebo 2x daily for 5 days
Cultures:	Nose, hand
Follow-up:	6 and 12 months
Results:	A: 52% nasal SA-free at 6 months (less hand carriage), 47% at 1 year (no difference more in hand carriage) B: 28% nasal SA-free at 6 months (no difference in hand carriage), 24% at 1 year (no difference in hand carriage).
Note:	MSSA. 87% nose-hand type identical. Baseline: significantly more hand carriers in placebo group. 34% recolonization with new strain at 1 year. See also Doebbeling J Chemother 1994

Authors: Doebbeling NB, Freeman DL, Kneu HCA, et al.
Title: Elimination of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in health care workers: analysis of six clinical trials with calcium mupirocin ointment. The Mupirocin Collaborative Study Group.
Source: Clin Infect Dis 1993; 17(3):466-74.
Type: Randomized, placebo-controlled,? blind?
Participants: USA, hospital staff (n=339)
Intervention A: mupirocin, 2x daily for 5 days (n=170)
B: nasal placebo 2x daily for 5 days (n=169)
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 1-4 weeks
Result: A: 82% nasal SA-free at week 4
B: 12% nasal SA-free at week 4
Note: Only nose. 2/6 studies published (Reagan 1991, Scully 1992). Mainly MSSA

Authors: Dryden MS, Dailly S, Crouch M.
Title: A randomized controlled trial of tea tree topical preparations versus a standard topical regimen for the clearance of MRSA colonization.
Source: J Hosp Infect 2004; 56(4):283-6
Type: randomized, controlled study, open label
Participants: English hospitalized patients, MRSA carriers (n=224)
Intervention A: nasal mupirocin 3x daily + chlorhexidine for 5 days, silver sulfadiazine 1x daily for 5 days (wound) (n=114)
B: 10% tea tree nasal cream 3 x daily for 5 days, 5% tea tree body wash for 5 days, 10% tea tree cream for wounds for 5 days (n=110)
Culture: nose, throat, armpit, perineum, wounds
Follow-up: 2 and 14 days after end of cure
Results: A: 49% MRSA-free all sites, 78% nose-free
B: 41% MRSA-free all sites, 47% nose-free
Note: Therapy compliance not measured (therefore real life)

Authors: Fernandez C, Gaspar C, Torrellas A, et al.
Title: A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled clinical trial to evaluate the safety and efficacy of mupirocin calcium ointment for eliminating nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* among hospital personnel.
Source: J Antimicrob Chemother 1995; 35(3):399-408.
Type: Randomized, placebo-controlled, blind
Participants: Spanish, hospital staff, *S. aureus* nasal carriage (MSSA)(n=68)
Intervention A: nasal mupirocin, 2x daily for 5 days (n=34)
B: nasal placebo, 2x daily for 5 days (n=34)
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 1-5 weeks, 2-6 months
Result: A: 57% nasal SA-free at 1 month
B: 9.4% nasal SA-free at ??
Note: Only nose, 32% recolonization with same strain

Authors: Harbarth S, Dharan S, Liassine N, Herrault P, Auckenthaler R, Pittet D.
Title: Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind trial to evaluate the efficacy of mupirocin for eradicating carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.
Source: *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 1999; 43(6):1412-6
Type: Swiss, randomized placebo-controlled, double-blind
Participants: hospitalized patients (>16 yrs), MRSA carriage somewhere (n=98)
Intervention: A: mupirocin 2x daily for 5 days + chlorhexidine (n=48)
B: placebo 2x daily for 5 days + chlorhexidine (n=50)
Culture: nose, perineum, urine (catheter), lesions
Follow-up: 12, 19, 26 days
Results: A: 25% MRSA-free at all sites together, 44% nasal free
B: 18% MRSA-free all sites together, 23% nasal free
Note: MRSA marginally effective when multiple body sites are colonized. Endemic but not epidemic setting. Usually 2 sites colonized: nose 58%, perineum 38%, skin 48%, and urine 20%. Failure due, among others, to mupirocin-resistance. Little exogenous recolonization.

Authors: Leigh DA, Joy G.
Title: Treatment of familial staphylococcal infection – comparison of mupirocin nasal ointment and chlorhexidine/neomycin (Naseptin) cream in eradication of nasal carriage.
Source: *J Antimicrob Chemother* 1993; 31(6):909-17
Type: controlled study
Participants: UK, families with staphylococcal infections (18 families, n=66)
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin, 7 days (n=32)
B: chlorhexidine/nasal neomycin (Naseptin), 7 days (n=34)
Culture: nose, armpit, perineum
Follow-up: 1 week, 2 weeks, 4 weeks, 13 weeks
Results: A: 65% SA-free all sites together
B: 17% SA-free all sites together
Note: MSSA, allocation/blind not clear

Authors: Martin JN, Perdreau-Remington F, Kartalija M, et al.
Title: A randomized clinical trial of mupirocin in the eradication of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in human immunodeficiency virus disease.
Source: *J Infect Dis* 1999; 180(3):896-9
Type: randomized, placebo-controlled
Participants: USA, HIV patients, *S. aureus* nasal carriage (MSSA) (n=76)
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin 2x daily for 5 days
B: nasal placebo, 2x daily for 5 days
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 1, 2, 6, 10 weeks
Results: A: 29% nasal SA-free at 10 weeks
B: 3% nasal SA-free
Note: MSSA, only nose. 84% recolonization with former strain

Authors: Mody, L, Kauffman CA, McNeil SA, Garlicky AT, Bradley SF.
Title: Mupirocin-based decolonization of *Staphylococcus aureus* carriers in residents of 2 long term care facilities: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial.
Source: Clin Infect Dis 2003; 37(11):1467-74
Type: Randomized, placebo-controlled, blind
Participants: USA, nursing home patients, *S. aureus* nasal carriage (MSSA and MRSA) (n=127)
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin 2x daily for 14 days (n=64)
B: nasal placebo 2x daily for 14 days (n=63).
Culture: nasal wound
Follow-up: 2 weeks after end of cure
Results: A: 88% nasal SA-free
B: 13% nasal SA-free
Note: Many with MRSA; 86 % recolonization with former strain

Authors: Parras F, Guerrero MC, Bouza E, et al.
Title: Comparative study of mupirocin and oral co-trimoxazole plus topical fusidic acid in eradication of nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.
Source: Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1995; 39(1):175-9
Type: randomized, controlled, open label
Participants: Spanish, hospitalized patients and hospital staff, MRSA nasal carriage (n=)
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin, 3x daily for 5 days + chlorhexidine
B: nasal fusidic acid 3x daily, co-trimoxazole 960 mg 2x daily for 5 days + chlorhexidine
Culture: nose, armpit, perineum
Follow-up: 1, 2, 3, 4, 13 weeks
Results: A: 97% nasal MRSA-free at 2 weeks, 83% extra nasal MRSA-free
B: 94% nasal MRSA-free at 2 weeks, 76% extra nasal MRSA-free
Note: Baseline: significantly more extra nasal carriage in group B.

Authors: Reagan DR, Doebbeling BN, Pfaller MA, et al.
Title: Elimination of coincident *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal and hand carriage with intranasal application of mupirocin calcium ointment.
Source: Ann Intern Med 1991; 114(2):101-6
Type: randomized, placebo-controlled, blind
Participants: USA, hospital staff; *S. aureus* nasal carriage (MSSA) (n=68)
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin 2x daily for 5 days
B: nasal placebo, 2x daily for 5 days
Culture: nose and hand
Follow-up: nose: 12 weeks
hand: 3 days after therapy ended
Results: A: 73% nasal *S. aureus*-free, 80% also elimination from hand
B: 18% nasal *S. aureus*-free, 20 % elimination from hand
Note: MSSA. Short follow-up of hand carriage. See for further follow-up Doebbeling et al. 1994

Authors: Scully BE, Briones F, Gu JW, and Neu HC.
Title: Mupirocin treatment of nasal staphylococcal colonization
Source: Arch Intern Med 1992; 152(2):353-6

Type: randomized, placebo-controlled, blind
Participants: USA, hospital staff, *S. aureus* carriage (MSSA) (n=70)
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin 2x daily for 5 days (n=34)
B: nasal placebo 2x daily for 5 days (n=36)
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 1d, 3d, 1 wk, 2 wk, 4 weeks
Results: A: 41% SA-free, 78% eradication of original strain
B: 0% SA-free; 0% eradication of original strain
Note: MSSA, only nose. 32% recolonization with other strain

Authors: Soto NE, Vaghjimal A, Stahl-Avicolli A, Protic JR, Lutwick LI, Chapnick EK.
Title: Bacitracin versus mupirocin for *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal colonization.
Source: Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 1999; 20(5):351-3.
Type: randomized, controlled
Participants: USA, hospital staff, SA nasal carriage (MSSA and MSRA) (n=35)
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin, 5 days (n=16)
B: nasal bacitracin, 5 days (n=19)
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 4 days, 1 month
Results: A: 80% nasal SA-free at 1 month
B: 23% nasal SA-free at 1 month
Note: 8% MRSA

Authors: Watanakunakorn C, Axelson C, Bota B, Stahl C.
Title: Mupirocin ointment with and without chlorhexidine baths in the eradication of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage in nursing home residents.
Source: Am J Infect Control 1995; 23(5):306-9
Type: Not randomized
Participants: USA, nursing home residents; nasal *S. aureus*-positive.
Intervention: A: nasal mupirocin + evt wound, 2x daily for 5 days (n=27)
B: nasal mupirocin + evt wound, 2x daily for 5 days + chlorhexidine for 3 days (n=29)
Culture: nose, armpit, perineum, wounds
Follow-up: 1 week, 4 weeks, 8 weeks, 12 weeks
Results: A: 76% SA-free all sites together at 12 weeks
B: 78% SA-free all sites together at 12 weeks.
Note: MRSA endemic, allocation not clear. Armpit carriers 0%, Perineum 9% (group b).

Chinolons

Authors: Peterson LR, Quick JN, Jensen B, et al.
Title: Emergence of ciprofloxacin resistance in nosocomial methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates. Resistance during ciprofloxacin plus rifampin therapy for methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* colonization.
Source: Arch Intern Med 1990; 150(10):2151-5
Type: randomized, controlled, blind
Participants: patients, MRSA-positive (n=21)

Intervention: A: ciprofloxacin 750 mg po 2x daily + rifampicin 300 mg 2x daily for 14 days (n=11)
B: cotrimoxazole 960 mg 2x daily + rifampicin 300 mg 2x daily po for 14 days, (n=10)
Culture: nose, rectum lesions
Follow-up: 1 wk, 2-3 wk, 3 m and 6 m.
Results: A: 37% MRSA-free at all sites at 2-3 weeks, 40% at 6 months
B: 50% MRSA-free at all sites at 2-3 weeks, 27% at 6 months
Note: Trial terminated prematurely due to cipro resistance (clonal), 36% also rifampin-resistant.

Systemic with rifampicin

Authors: McAnally TP, Lewis MR, Brown DR.
Title: Effect of rifampin and bacitracin on nasal carriers of *Staphylococcus aureus*.
Source: Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1984; 25(4):422-6
Type: randomized, controlled
Participants: 'hospital staff, *S. aureus* nasal carriage (MSSA) (n=59)
Intervention: A: rifampicin 600 mg for 5 days (n=14)
B: nasal bacitracin 3x daily for 10 days (n=16)
C: combination therapy (n=12)
D: no therapy (n=17)
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 2w, 4w
Results: A: 57% nasal SA-free at 4 weeks
B: 13% nasal SA-free
C: 42% nasal SA-free
D: 12% nasal SA-free
Note: only nose

Authors: Muder RR, Boldin M, Brennen C, et al.
Title: A controlled trial of rifampicin, minocycline and rifampicin plus minocycline for eradication of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in long-term care patients.
Source: J Antimicrob Chemother 1994; 34(1):189-90
Type: randomized, controlled study, open label
Participants: MRSA-positive nursing home patients (n=35)
Intervention: A: rifampicin 600 mg 2x daily po for 5 days (n=10)
B: minocycline 100 mg 2x daily po for 5 days (n=8)
C: rifampicin 600 mg 2x daily + minocycline 100 mg 2x daily (n=10)
D: no treatment (n=7)
Culture: nose, lesions, urine (catheter)
Follow-up: 1 w, 1 m, 3m
Results: A: 70% MRSA-free at 1 month
B: 12% MRSA-free
C: 60% MRSA-free
D: 0% MRSA-free
Note: Small groups; marked development of resistance to both drugs (also in combination therapy).

Authors: Walsh TJ, Standiford HC, Reboli AC, et al.
Title: Randomized double-blind trial of rifampin with either novobiocin or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization: prevention of antimicrobial resistance and effect of host factors on outcome.
Source: *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 1993; 37(6):1334-42
Type randomized, controlled, blind
Participants: USA, patients and hospital staff with MRSA (n=126)
Intervention: A: novobiocin 500 mg po 2x daily + rifampicin 300 mg po 2x daily for 7 days
B: cotrimoxazole 960 mg po 2x daily + rifampicin 300 mg po 2x daily for 7 days.
Culture: nose, wounds, sputum
Follow-up: 14 days
Results: A: 67% MRSA-free all sites together, 74% nose, 80 % rectum
B: 53% MRSA-free all sites together, 68% nose, 67% rectum
Note: none

Authors: Yu VL, Goetz A, Wagener M, Smith PB, Rihs JD, Hanchett J, Zuravleff JJ.
Title: *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage and infection in patients on haemodialysis. Efficacy of antibiotic prophylaxis.
Source: *N Eng J Med* 1986;315(2):91-6
Type: randomized, controlled, open label
Participants: haemodialysis patients, *S. aureus* nasal carriage (MSSA) (n=60)
Intervention: A: vancomycin 500 mg/week for 2 weeks (n=13)
B: bacitracin 3x daily for 7 days (n=7)
C: bacitracin + rifampicin 600 mg po 2x daily (n=22)
D: no therapy (n=26)
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 1w, 1m, 3m
Results: A: 24% nasal SA-free at 1 month, 10% at 3 months
B: 15% nasal SA-free at 1 month, 30% at 3 months
C: 75% nasal SA-free at 1 month, 40% at 3 months
Note: Only nose; rifampicin resistance – also together with bacitracin.

Systemic with macrolide

Authors: Berg HF, Tjhie JH, Scheffer GJ, et al.
Title: Emergence and persistence of macrolide resistance in oropharyngeal flora and elimination of nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* after therapy with slow-release clarithromycin: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study.
Source: *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2004; 48(11):4183-8
Type: randomized, placebo-controlled, blind
Participants: Dutch, heart patients with *S aureus* in the nose (MSSA) (n=95)
Intervention: A: slow-release clarithromycin 1x 500 mg po daily until surgery (n=49)
B: placebo until surgery (n=46)
Culture: nose, throat
Follow-up: 8 weeks

Results: A: 88% nasal SA-free at 8 weeks
B: 7% nasal SA-free at 8 weeks
Note: only nose; length of cure not clear, monotherapy, considerable macrolide-resistance after cure

Authors: Wilson SZ, Martin RR, Putman M.
Title: In vivo effects of josamycin, erythromycin and placebo therapy on nasal carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus*
Source: Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1977; 11(3):407-10
Type: randomized, controlled, blind
Participants: USA, volunteers, Nasal carriage *S. aureus*, (MSSA) (n=73)
Intervention: A: josamycin 350 mg 4x daily for 7 days (n = 22)
B: erythromycin 250 mg 4x daily for 7 days (n=26)
C: placebo 4x daily for 7 days (n=25)
Culture: nose
Follow-up: 1d, 9d, 30 d
Results: A: 60% nasal SA-free at 9 days
B: 35% nasal SA-free at 9 days
C: 0% nasal SA-free
Note: only nose, considerable recolonization after 30 days

Authors: Wilson SZ, Martin RR, Putman M, Greenberg SB, Wallace RJ. Jr., Jemsek JG.
Title: Quantitative nasal cultures from carriers of *Staphylococcus aureus*: effects of oral therapy with erythromycin, rosamicin and placebo.
Source: Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1979;15(3):379-83
Type: randomized, controlled, blind
Participants: volunteers, nasal carriage *S. aureus* (n=87)
Intervention: A: erythromycin, 250 mg 4 x daily po for 7 days
B: rosamicin, 250 mg 4x daily po for 7 days
C: placebo, 4x daily for 7 days
Culture: nose
Follow-out: 1d, 4w
Results: A: 22% nasal SA-free
B: 23% nasal SA-free
C: 7% nasal SA-free
Note: only nose, monotherapy

Fusidic acid

Authors: Chang SC, Hsieh SM, Chen ML, Sheng WH, Chen YC.
Title: Oral fusidic acid fails to eradicate methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization and results in emergence of fusidic acid-resistant strains.
Source: Diagn Microbiol Inf Dis 2000; 36:131-6
Type: randomized, controlled, blind
Participants: Taiwan, IC patients, MRSA carriage (n=16)
Intervention: A: fusidic acid 500mg 3x daily po for 7 days (n=6)
B: no therapy (n=10)
Culture: nose, sputum, throat, armpit, groin, skin lesions
Follow-up: 1, 2, 7, 8 weeks
Results: A: 17% MRSA-free
B: 50% MRSA-free
Note: monotherapy, study prematurely discontinued due to development of resistance.
Reason for difference in size of groups not clear.