



Journal Homepage: [-www.journalijar.com](http://www.journalijar.com)

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ADVANCED RESEARCH (IJAR)

Article DOI:10.21474/IJAR01/18220

DOI URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.21474/IJAR01/18220>



RESEARCH ARTICLE

THE EFFECT OF CEFIXIME IN TREATING RESPIRATORY TRACT AND URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS IN CHILDREN

Shadi Tamur

Department of Paediatrics, Faculty of Medicine, Taif University, Taif, Saudi Arabia.

Manuscript Info

Manuscript History

Received: 19 November 2023

Final Accepted: 29 December 2023

Published: January 2024

Key words:-

Cefixime, Pharmacokinetics, Otitis Media, Respiratory Tract Infection, UTIs

Abstract

Third generation cephalosporins are commonly used for the treatment of diverse infections in children. Cefixime is an oral third-generation cephalosporin with a broad-spectrum antibacterial activity and a relatively long elimination half-life. It is available in oral, intravenous, and intramuscular forms. It is effective against certain bacteria, such as Streptococci, Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Moraxella catarrhalis, Haemophilus influenzae, and Gram-negative bacilli. However, it is poorly active against Staphylococcus aureus, Coagulase-negative Staphylococci, and Enterococci. Clinical trials have shown that cefixime is comparable to amoxicillin and cefaclor in treating acute otitis media in children caused by various organisms, including Streptococcus pneumoniae. It is more potent than other cephalosporins against Enterobacteriaceae but less active against ciprofloxacin. The recommended dosage for children is 8 mg/kg/day orally, once daily or in two divided doses and the most prominent side effect is diarrhea, which occurs in up to 16% of children. Cefixime is a safe and effective for treating upper respiratory tract infections and acute otitis media. However, there is insufficient evidence regarding its efficacy in treating sinusitis and lower respiratory tract infections in children as its antimicrobial spectrum does not cover the bacteria commonly associated with these infections. Due to its partial excretion through the kidneys, cefixime is frequently used to treat urinary tract infections in children.

Copy Right, IJAR, 2024.. All rights reserved.

Introduction:-

Cefixime Potent Activity and Pharmacokinetics

Cefixime is an orally active cephalosporin of the amino-thiazole group with a broad-spectrum antibacterial activity and an extended elimination half-life allowing a simple treatment regime. It is categorized as class IV in the Biopharmaceutics Classification System (BCS) with low solubility and permeability. The drug has been approved for marketing by the United States Food and Drug Administration in 1989 (1,2). The determination of its activity is based on minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) in rational numbers of microorganisms. Cefixime is broadly used in the treatment of acute otitis media, pharyngitis, tonsillitis, and acute urinary tract infections (UTI) in adults and children (3). It is also available in oral and intravenous forms (4). Its role in treating complicated UTI or respiratory tract infection (RTI) is still under investigation.

Corresponding Author:- Shadi Tamur

Address:- Clinical Assistant Professor of Pediatrics Consultant Pediatric Emergency and Toxicology Department of Pediatrics, Faculty of Medicine, Taif University, Taif, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Cefixime is potent against most Gram-negative aerobic bacteria but is poorly active against Staphylococci, Enterococcus and Bacteroides species. Most strains of Enterobacteriaceae (*Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Proteus vulgaris*, *Citrobacter diversus* and *Providencia rettgeri*) are inhibited by cefixime (5–8). In comparisons with other antibacterial drugs, the potency of cefixime in-vitro against Enterobacteriaceae was greater than that of cefaclor and cephalexin (9,10). Cefixime is less active than ciprofloxacin against Enterobacteriaceae, but its activity is close similar to cefpodoxime (7,11). The good response activity of cefixime against limited numbers of strains of *Acinetobacter* and *Corynebacterium* has been reported (12). Cefixime has a weak activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* and is poorly active against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Streptococcus epidermidis* and *Enterococcus faecalis*, and 90% of gram-positive cocci including *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Streptococcus agalactiae*, and all strains of *Haemophilus influenzae* and strains resistant to ampicillin, chloramphenicol, cotrimoxazole, cefaclor and cephalexin (3,6,13–15). *Campylobacter jejuni* showed varied responses between studies and *Flavobacterium* and *Chlamydia trachomatis* are quite resistant to cefixime antibiotic (12,14,16,17).

Cefixime exhibits a strong affinity for penicillin-binding proteins (PBP), resulting in its rapid lytic action compared to other orally active cephalosporins such as cefaclor and cephalexin (12,18,19). Similar to other newly developed oral cephalosporins, cefixime's pharmacokinetics are characterized by incomplete absorption following oral administration. The bioavailability of cefixime after oral ingestion typically ranges from 40% to 50% (20,21). The average volume of distribution (Vd) for cefixime is approximately 0.1L/kg (22). Extensive research has been conducted on the pharmacokinetic properties of cefixime in both healthy volunteers and patients, including adults and children, who were administered single doses of capsules, tablets, or suspension. It is widely acknowledged that the pharmacokinetics of cefixime in children are more intricate due to the vigorous physiological changes associated with maturation and growth (23). Following oral administration to healthy adults, peak plasma concentration is achieved within 3–4h (20,22). Its concentration is not influenced by the food (20). In adults, the mean greatest plasma concentrations were 4.16, 4.18 and 4 mg/L after a 400mg dose administered as a single tablet, oral suspension or tablets, respectively. In children, single oral doses of cefixime (1.5 and 3mg/kg) in a suspension formulation resulted in mean peak plasma concentrations of 0.6 to 1.2 and 1.15 to 1.6 mg/L, respectively (24,25). The mean maximum plasma concentration after 4h of drug administration was 2.5mg/L (26). The administration of cefixime for 15 days in healthy adults did not result in high plasma concentration of the drug (27). The pharmacokinetics of cefixime at a dose of 8mg/kg in children were found to be comparable to those observed in healthy adults receiving a 400mg dose (28). Due to its approximately 70% protein binding in healthy individuals, cefixime exhibits rapid volume distribution following intravenous administration. The elimination of cefixime occurs primarily through the liver, accounting for 50%-60% of clearance, while the kidneys contribute to approximately 20%-40% of clearance (29). No biologically active metabolites of cefixime have been detected in plasma or urine, and approximately 20% of a 200mg dose is excreted unchanged in the urine within a 24-hour period (27,30,31).

In comparison to other cephalosporins such as cefotaxime and beta-Lactam antibacterial drugs, cefixime is more effective than other cephalosporins such as cefaclor and cephalexin against Enterobacteriaceae but poorly active against ciprofloxacin (18). Matsumoto et al found that the stability of beta-lactamase of cefixime was similar to that of ceftizoxime (18). The lack of activity of cefixime against *Staphylococcus aureus* may be due to its poor binding to PBP (19).

Cefixime Elimination and Its Biological Activity

Cefixime exhibits a notable elimination half-life of 3h in healthy individuals with normal kidney function, allowing for once or twice daily dosing (22,32). However, in patients with impaired renal function and a creatinine clearance (CL) below 20ml/min, dosage adjustment becomes necessary as the elimination half-life may be prolonged (33). Patients with mild renal dysfunction typically do not require dosage adjustment. Additionally, the half-life of cefixime is significantly longer compared to other orally active cephalosporins, such as cefaclor (0.5h), cephalexin (1h), and cefadroxil (1.5h) (34).

In adults, clinical and bacteriological efficacy can be achieved with cefixime doses of 200–400mg daily (single dose or two divided doses). For the treatment of upper respiratory tract infections in children, the most commonly used dosage is cefixime 8mg/kg/day (single dose or two divided doses). In patients with severe renal dysfunction (CL < 20ml/min), half the standard dose of cefixime once daily is recommended. Dosage for children with renal dysfunction is recommended to be lower (3–6mg/kg/day). However, higher dosages (12mg/kg/day) are recommended for severe infections and non-responders. The absolute bioavailability of cefixime is 40% for 400mg capsules, 47%

for 200mg capsules, and 50% for an oral solution (35). Due to its approximately 70% protein binding in healthy individuals, cefixime has a rapid volume distribution after intravenous administration. No biologically active metabolites of cefixime have been identified in plasma or urine, and approximately 20% of a 200mg dose is excreted unchanged in the urine over 24 hours. Mean maximum urinary concentrations of 70-165mg/L have been reported 4-6h after single doses of cefixime ranging from 100-400mg.

Cefixime Adverse Effect

Adverse effects observed in clinical settings among patients receiving cefixime treatment have generally been of a transient nature and of mild to moderate severity. The most commonly reported adverse effects, namely diarrhea and changes in stool consistency, are typically mild and transient, and commonly occur early in the treatment. An analysis of adverse effects in a large number of adult and children revealed an overall incidence of diarrhea at 14% in both groups (36). McLinn et al. reported that out of 60 children treated with cefixime, ten experienced diarrheas, which was comparable to the rate (15%) observed in the amoxicillin-treated group (37). Other gastrointestinal complaints associated with cefixime, including nausea, abdominal pain (6%), dyspepsia (3.5%), and vomiting (1.2%), occurred with similar frequency in patients treated with amoxicillin. Headache and dizziness were reported by 11% and 3% of patients treated with cefixime, respectively. Whilst, the same proportion of patients experienced symptoms indicative of drug hypersensitivity (36).

Indications of Cefixime Treatment in Children

Cefixime is commonly prescribed for a limited number of patients who have acute pharyngitis or tonsillitis, lower respiratory tract infections, and uncomplicated or complicated UTIs. Currently, there is a scarcity of controlled therapeutic trials that directly compare the clinical and bacteriological effectiveness of cefixime with other antibacterial drugs in children with respiratory tract infections. However, it has been compared to amoxicillin and cefaclor in children with acute otitis media, as well as to amoxicillin in adults with tonsillitis or pharyngitis. Similarly, the number of comparative studies in UTIs is also limited, with only a few studies comparing cefixime to cotrimoxazole and amoxicillin in uncomplicated UTIs, and to norfloxacin and ciprofloxacin in patients with complicated infections. In the case of lower respiratory tract infections, a small number of trials have been published comparing cefixime to cefaclor or amoxicillin for the treatment of acute or chronic bronchitis.

Cefixime and Upper Respiratory Tract Infection (URTI)

Resolution of signs and symptoms of pharyngitis have been achieved in all children treated with cefixime 5-12mg/kg daily. Outstanding results were also attained in children with tonsillitis, pharyngitis or scarlet fever (38). In a series of small studies in a total of 20 Japanese children, clinical results were reported as excellent in 70% of patients(39-41). Clinically excellent results were acquired in 80% of children with tonsillitis treated with cefixime (5-12mg/kg daily in divided doses)(39,40). Treatment of children with cefixime was also effective in eradicating *Streptococcus pyogenes* and *Hemophilus influenzae* in patients with pharyngitis or tonsillitis (41).

The most frequently identified bacteria in middle ear aspirates of infants and children with acute otitis media are *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Hemophilus influenzae*, *Moraxella catarrhalis*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, and occasionally *Staphylococcus aureus*. Amoxicillin and cefixime demonstrate superior activity against *Hemophilus influenzae* and *Moraxella catarrhalis* compared to ampicillin, erythromycin, or cefaclor. Due to limited effectiveness of amoxicillin against beta-Lactamase-producing bacteria, cefixime is considered a preferred alternative for treating uncomplicated acute otitis media in children, offering excellent activity and a prolonged elimination half-life against beta-Lactamase-producing *Hemophilus influenzae* and *Moraxella catarrhalis*. Cefixime is conveniently available in liquid form and can be administered once daily. While amoxicillin is more effective than cefixime against *Pneumococcal otitis media*, there is a tendency for cefixime to exhibit greater efficacy against *Hemophilus influenzae*(42).

Most of clinical trials concluded that cefixime is a safe effective drug for the treatment of acute otitis media in infants and children older than one year of age (43,44). Children with acute otitis media with effusion have shown good results to cefixime with the usual standard dosage and this to be typically effective as cefaclor and amoxicillin equivalent to the same dose range(31). In children with acute otitis media, the pathogens are eradicated from the middle ear within 3-5 days of therapy in more than 80% of children treated with cefixime but less than 80% of those treated with amoxicillin (45). The effectiveness of cefixime against *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Streptococcus pyogenes* is slightly lower than that of ampicillin. In a study involving 211 children with acute otitis media, cefixime demonstrated significantly higher bacteriological efficacy compared to cefaclor (44). Rodriguez et al., found that the

clinical cure rate for patients with baseline organisms was 94% for cefixime and 68% for cefaclor, suggesting that once-daily cefixime treatment is equivalent to three-daily cefaclor treatment for acute otitis media(46). Leigh's study involving 300 children showed that more than 80% of patients treated with cefixime oral suspension (100-300mg once daily) and 90% treated with amoxicillin (187-750mg daily in 3 divided doses) experienced complete resolution of symptoms(47).

According to numerous clinical trials, cefixime has been identified as a viable alternative to amoxicillin for the treatment of acute otitis media in infants and children. This recommendation specifically applies to cases where the child is infected with beta-Lactamase-producing *Hemophilus influenzae* or *Moraxella catarrhalis*, has a documented history of delayed hypersensitivity to penicillin, and shows no clinical improvement with amoxicillin (45). In situations where the child exhibits allergic hypersensitivity to penicillin, erythromycin or trimethoprim sulfamethoxazole are advised as alternatives. If the patient's allergic reaction to penicillin is not immediate, one of the cephalosporins, such as cefaclor, may be recommended. However, it is important to note that cefaclor may not be as effective against beta-Lactamase-producing *Moraxella catarrhalis* and its in-vitro activity against *Hemophilus influenzae* is questionable.

It is worth mentioning that cefixime does have some limitations. While it is not commonly associated with acute otitis media, cefixime exhibits poor in-vitro activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*. Additionally, cefixime is relatively more expensive compared to amoxicillin, although in certain cases, it may be slightly more cost-effective than other newer antimicrobial agents.

Cefixime and Lower Respiratory Tract Infection (LRTI)

The current evidence regarding the use of cefixime in lower respiratory tract infections (LRTI) is limited, particularly in pediatric populations compared to adults. However, a collection of non-comparative Japanese studies conducted on small patient populations have shown promising results. These studies demonstrated a favorable clinical response in approximately 80% of patients with acute pneumonia and acute bronchitis when treated with cefixime at daily doses of 200-400mg, divided into two doses (32,48–52). Among 62 patients with acute pneumonia, nearly 25% of them exhibited an excellent clinical response to cefixime (50).

In a multicenter trial involving 172 patients with bacterial, mycoplasmal, or primary atypical pneumonia, cefixime at a dosage of 200mg twice daily was compared to amoxicillin at a dosage of 2000mg daily. The trial found similar rates of clinical cure between the two treatments. However, no comparative studies specifically focusing on children have been conducted. Eradication of pathogenic bacteria was evaluable in 42 patients, most of whom were infected with either *Hemophilus influenzae* or *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. Pathogens were eradicated in 100% of patients treated with cefixime and in 80% of those who received amoxycillin (53). A study conducted by Sengupta et al. compared cefixime with cefpodoxime in the treatment of LRTI in children (54). Cefpodoxime was found to be a well-tolerated and superior alternative to cefixime, demonstrating an extended spectrum of activity and high efficacy with a low incidence of side effects.

Overall, cefixime remains a favorable choice for the treatment of lower respiratory tract infections, although further research is needed to establish its efficacy and safety in pediatric populations.

Cefixime and Urinary Tract Infection (UTI)

Urinary tract infection (UTI) is a commonly occurring bacterial infection in infants and children. It has a prevalence of 5% in febrile infants and affects 10%-20% of febrile patients, potentially leading to permanent renal damage. The long-term effects of this damage, such as hypertension or proteinuria in previously healthy kidneys, are not yet fully understood. Since 20% of the drug is eliminated through the kidneys as an active form, cefixime may serve as a viable treatment option for UTIs. Recent studies indicate that oral cefixime or amoxicillin/clavulanic acid can effectively treat febrile UTIs in children for a duration of 10 to 14 days (55). The overall therapeutic efficacy of cefixime in uncomplicated UTIs is excellent in over 50% of patients, but poor in 3% of patients who receive the standard dose of 100mg daily for 3-7 days(56–59).The administration of cefixime, primarily targeting *E. Coli* pathogens, leads to complete eradication of the infecting pathogens by the end of the treatment period (60). A multicenter study comparing cefixime and amoxicillin demonstrated a clinical cure rate of 90% in patients with uncomplicated UTIs treated with cefixime, while amoxicillin achieved a cure rate of nearly 85%. Additionally, isolated pathogens were eradicated in up to 90% of the patients (61).

In a study conducted by Mamozoridi et al, involving six children aged 6-13 years who were treated for UTIs, an oral dose of cefixime in the form of a suspension formulation at a dosage of 8mg/kg was administered. All children exhibited good tolerance to cefixime, and no adverse effects were observed (62). Cefixime has been compared with cotrimoxazole and amoxicillin in patients with uncomplicated UTI and with ciprofloxacin, amoxicillin and norfloxacin in complicated UTI. Studies reported almost identical bacteriological cure rates with cefixime and cotrimoxazole (63). Another multicenter trial has compared cefixime and amoxicillin in 192 patients described as having acute UTI, acute cystitis, cysto-urethritis or pyelonephritis (64). Both cefixime and amoxicillin demonstrated clinical cure in treated patients. Based on the response criteria established by the Japanese UTI committee, the clinical efficacy rate for 26 cases of uncomplicated cystitis exceeded 95%. For 5 patients with complicated UTI and 5 with uncomplicated pyelonephritis, the clinical effectiveness rate was 80%. Even in the remaining 23 cases that did not meet the response criteria, the efficacy rate remained high. These findings strongly suggest that cefixime is a highly effective medication for the treatment of urinary tract infections (65).

Japanese researchers have utilized cefixime to treat complicated UTIs in adults. The typical dosage regimen consisted of 200mg of cefixime administered daily in divided doses, occasionally increased to 400mg daily. The overall outcomes were excellent in 40% of the patients (57,66,67). The majority of urinary pathogens identified belonged to the Enterobacteriaceae family, with *Escherichia coli* being the most prevalent, and were successfully eradicated by the end of the treatment period. Limited research has been conducted on children with UTIs, but the efficacy of cefixime was reported to be excellent in nearly 50% of cases when administered at a dosage of 3-12mg/kg daily, divided into 2 or 3 doses (27,68,69). For children over two years of age with complicated acute pyelonephritis, initial treatment with a parenteral antibiotic such as ceftriaxone is recommended, followed by a switch to oral antibiotic therapy. The preferred oral antibiotic for this purpose is cefixime, administered for a duration of 7-10 days.

Moreover, oral cefixime has demonstrated effectiveness in treating uncomplicated gonorrhea in teenagers and young adults (70). The comparison between oral cefixime and intramuscular injection has also been investigated in the literature. Gok F et al. conducted a study to assess the efficacy of oral cefixime compared to intramuscular ceftizoxime followed by oral cefixime for the treatment of UTIs in 54 children. The children were randomly assigned to receive either oral cefixime at a dosage of 8mg/kg/day for 10 days or intramuscular ceftizoxime at a dosage of 50 mg/kg twice a day for 2 days, followed by oral cefixime for 8 days (71). The majority of cases involved *Escherichia coli*. Urine cultures were repeated multiple times and were found to be sterile for 24 hours in all children. The cure rates were similar in both groups, and no significant adverse effects were observed.

In conclusion, the administration of a single oral dose of cefixime suspension (8mg/kg) in children with UTIs was well tolerated without adverse effects. The pharmacokinetic values were comparable to those achieved with intramuscular injection of ceftizoxime and were consistent with previous reports in healthy adults using equivalent mg/kg doses.

Summarized Guidelines for the Use of Cefixime in Children

- Cefixime does not possess any advantage over amoxicillin, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, and erythromycin-sulfisoxazole for the treatment of otitis media caused by *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, which is the most common bacterial pathogen. Amoxicillin has been found to be effective against beta-Lactamase producing *Haemophilus influenzae* and *Moraxella catarrhalis*, which are common pathogens in otitis media.
- Penicillin V remains the preferred treatment for Streptococcal pharyngitis, but effective alternative antibiotics include erythromycin and cephalosporins. Cefixime is also effective in treating streptococcal sore throat.
- There is insufficient evidence from controlled studies to support the effectiveness of cefixime in treating sinusitis, acute bronchitis, or pneumonia in children.
- Cefixime is effective for the treatment of urinary tract infections (UTIs).
- Cefixime is effective in treating uncomplicated gonorrhea.
- Cefixime is effective in treating gastroenteritis in young children, particularly against *Salmonella* and *Shigella* bacterial pathogens that are resistant to amoxicillin and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole. However, it is not yet known if resistance would develop in these pathogens.

Declaration

Ethics approval and consent to participate not applicable.

Consent for publication not applicable.

Availability of data and material:

Upon request from corresponding author (ST)

Competing interests:

No conflict of interest.

Funding:

None

Acknowledgment:-

The author would like to acknowledge the Deanship of Scientific Research, Taif University for funding this work. The author would like also to extend their sincere thanks to the High Altitude Research Center at Taif University.

References:-

1. Fischer J, Ganellin CR. Analogue-based Drug Discovery. *Chemistry International – Newsmagazine for IUPAC*. 2010;32(4):12–5.
2. Ibraimi Q, Bajrami S, Zenuni A, Aliji A. Treatment of Upper Respiratory Tract Infections with Third Generation Cephalosporin in Preschool Children. *International Journal of Medical Sciences*. 2022;7(13–14):143–8.
3. Brogden RN, Campoli-Richards DM. Cefixime. A review of its antibacterial activity. Pharmacokinetic properties and therapeutic potential. *Drugs*. 1989 Oct 1;38(4):524–50.
4. Jabbar EG, Al-Tamimi DJJ, Al-Mahroos MIA, Al-Tamimi ZJJ, Ibraheem JJ. Pharmacokinetics and bioequivalence study of two formulations of Cefixime Suspension. *J Adv Pharm Educ Res*. 2021;11(1):170–7.
5. Arakawa S, Takechi Y, Nakaswi T. In vitro and clinical evaluation of cefixime in the urological field. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo)*. 1985;33:701–34.
6. Barry AL, Jones RN. Cefixime: spectrum of antibacterial activity against 16,016 clinical isolates. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1987 Oct;6(10):954–7.
7. Counts GW, Baugher LK, Ulness BK, Hamilton DJ. Comparative in vitro activity of the new oral cephalosporin cefixime. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 1988 Jun;7(3):428–31.
8. Fuchs PC, Jones RN, Barry AL, Thornsberry C, Ayers LW, Gavan TL, et al. In vitro evaluation of cefixime (FK027, FR17027, CL284635): spectrum against recent clinical isolates, comparative antimicrobial activity, beta-lactamase stability, and preliminary susceptibility testing criteria. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 1986 Jul;5(2):151–62.
9. Kamimura T, Kojo H, Matsumoto Y, Mine Y, Goto S, Kuwahara S. In vitro and in vivo antibacterial properties of FK 027, a new orally active cephem antibiotic. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1984 Jan;25(1):98–104.
10. Krepel C, Schopf L, Gordon R, Edmiston C. Comparative in vitro activity of cefixime with eight other antimicrobials against enterobacteriaceae, streptococci, and Haemophilus influenzae. *Current therapeutic research*. 1988;43(2):296–302.
11. Knapp CC, Sierra-Madero J, Washington JA. Antibacterial activities of cefpodoxime, cefixime, and ceftriaxone. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1988 Dec;32(12):1896–8.
12. Neu HC. In vitro activity of a new broad spectrum, beta-lactamase-stable oral cephalosporin, cefixime. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1987 Oct;6(10):958–62.
13. Bergeron MG, Lavoie GY, Boucher FDW. Comparative bactericidal activity of cefixime, carumonam, enoxacin and roxithromycin with those of other antibiotics against resistant Haemophilus influenzae including β -lactam tolerant strains. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1987;20(5):663–9.
14. Bowie WR, Shaw CE, Chan DG, Boyd J, Black WA. In vitro activity of difloxacin hydrochloride (A-56619), A-56620, and cefixime (CL 284,635; FK 027) against selected genital pathogens. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1986 Oct;30(4):590–3.
15. Deguchi K, Fukayama S, Nishimura Y, Nishike A, Oda S. Antibacterial activity of cefixime against clinically isolated organisms. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo)*. 1986;33:50–8.
16. Goto N, Horiuehi S, Okamura N. Susceptibility of bacteria isolated from patients with diarrhea to cefixime. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo)*. 1985;33(suppl 6):46–9.
17. Oguri T, Hayashi Y. Comparison of antibacterial activity of cefixime with other oral cephalosporin antibiotics against various pathogens isolated from clinical materials. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo)*. 1985;33(suppl 6):10–8.
18. Matsumoto Y, Kojo H, Kamimura T, Mine Y, Goto S. The mechanism of action of cefixime, a new oral cephalosporin. *Chemotherapy*. 1985;33(6):123–33.

19. Shigi Y, Matsumoto Y, Kaizu M, Fujishita Y, Kojo H. Mechanism of action of the new orally active cephalosporin FK027. *J Antibiot.* 1984;37(7):790–6.
20. Faulkner RD, Bohaychuk W, Desjardins RE, Look ZM, Haynes JD, Weiss AI, et al. Pharmacokinetics of Cefixime After Once-a-Day and Twice-a-Day Dosing to Steady State. *The Journal of Clinical Pharmacology.* 1987 Oct;27(10):807–12.
21. Danafar H, Hamidi M. Pharmacokinetics and bioequivalence study of two formulations of cefixime in healthy male volunteers. *Iranian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences.* 2016;12(4):1–14.
22. Brittain DC, Scully BE, Hirose T, Neu HC. The pharmacokinetic and bactericidal characteristics of oral cefixime. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 1985 Nov;38(5):590–4.
23. Kearns GL, Reed MD, Jacobs RF, Ardite M, Yogev RD, Blumer JL. Single-dose pharmacokinetics of ceftibuten (SCH 39720) in infants and children. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1991 Oct;35(10):2078–84.
24. Faulkner RD, Yacobi A, Barone JS, Kaplan SA, Silber BM. Pharmacokinetic profile of cefixime in man. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1987 Oct;6(10):963–70.
25. Haruta T, Kuroki S, Kobayashi Y. Clinical study on cefixime granules in the field of pediatrics. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1106–14.
26. Toyonaga Y, Sugita M, Nakamura H, Joh K, Takahashi T, Kurosu Y, et al. Fundamental and clinical studies on cefixime (5% granules) in the pediatric field. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1055–75.
27. Nakashima S, Hayakawa F, Nakashima T, Miyachi Y, Hakamada S, Kuno K. Fundamental and clinical studies on cefixime in the pediatric field. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1076–86.
28. Faulkner RD, Bohaychuk W, Haynes JD, Desjardins RE, Yacobi A, Silber BM. The pharmacokinetics of cefixime in the fasted and fed state. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol.* 1988;34(5):525–8.
29. Barré J. Pharmacokinetic properties of cefixime. *Presse Med.* 1989 Oct 11;18(32):1578–82.
30. Hayashi I. Serum and sputum concentration and clinical results of cefixime on respiratory tract infection. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):253–67.
31. Baba S, Kawamura S, Matsunaga T, Harada Y, Ohyama M. The tissue penetration and clinical efficacy of FK 027 in otorhinolaryngology. In *Kyoto*; 1985.
32. Saito A. Pharmacokinetic Studies On Cefixime. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):190–203.
33. Guay DR, Meatherall RC, Harding GK, Brown GR. Pharmacokinetics of cefixime (CL 284,635; FK 027) in healthy subjects and patients with renal insufficiency. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1986 Sep;30(3):485–90.
34. Vožeh S, Schmidlin O, Taeschner W. Pharmacokinetic Drug Data1: *Clinical Pharmacokinetics.* 1988 Oct;15(4):254–82.
35. Powell M, Williams JD. In vitro susceptibility of *Haemophilus influenzae* to cefixime. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1987 Nov;31(11):1841–2.
36. Tally FP, Desjardins RE, McCarthy EF, Cartwright K. Safety profile of cefixime. *The Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal* [Internet]. 1987;6(10). Available from: https://journals.lww.com/pidj/fulltext/1987/10000/safety_profile_of_cefixime.37.aspx
37. McLinn SE. Randomized, open label, multicenter trial of cefixime compared with amoxicillin for treatment of acute otitis media with effusion. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1987 Oct;6(10):997–1001.
38. Risser WL, Barone JS, Clark PA, Simpkins DL. Noncomparative, open label, multicenter trial of cefixime for treatment of bacterial pharyngitis, cystitis and pneumonia in pediatric patients. *The Pediatric infectious disease journal.* 1987;6(10):1002–6.
39. Aihara R, Kobashi H, Nishioka A, Ohara K, Okamoto T. Clinical experience with cefixime in the pediatric field. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1138–48.
40. Hosoda T, Masuda M, Miyao M, Mimoto H, Endo S, Yuasa Y, et al. Clinical studies on cefixime in pediatrics. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1149–56.
41. Iwai N, Shibata M, Mizoguchi F, Nakamura H, Katayama M. Fundamental and clinical studies on cefixime in pediatrics. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1087–105.
42. Howie VM, Owen MJ. Bacteriologic and Clinical Efficacy of Cefixime Compared with Amoxicillin in Acute Otitis Media. *The Pediatric infectious disease journal.* 1987;6(10):989–91.
43. Kenna MA, Bluestone CD, Fall P, Stephenson J, Kurs-Lasky M, Wucher FP, et al. Cefixime vs. Cefaclor in The Treatment of Acute Otitis Media in Infants and Children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1987 Oct;6(10):992–6.
44. Baba S, Kinoshita H, Mori Y, Suzuki K, Shimada J, Kawamura S, et al. A parallel comparative double blind study of cefixime with cefaclor in the treatment of acute suppurative otitis media in children. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1987 Jan;40(1):1–24.
45. Bluestone CD. Review of Cefixime in The Treatment of Otitis Media in Infants and Children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1993 Jan;12(1):75–82.

46. Rodriguez WJ, Khan W, Sait T, Chhabra OP, Bell TA, Akram S, et al. Cefixime vs. cefaclor in the treatment of acute otitis media in children: a randomized, comparative study. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1993 Jan;12(1):70–4.
47. Leigh AP, Robinson D, Millar ED. A general practice comparative study of a new third-generation oral cephalosporin, cefixime, with amoxycillin in the treatment of acute paediatric otitis media. *Br J Clin Pract.* 1989 Apr;43(4):140–3.
48. Niki Y, Sumi M, Nakagawa Y, Hino J. Bacteriological and clinical studies on cefixime. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo).* 1985;408–17.
49. Okamoto Y, Maehara K, Lida Y, Mase K, Yasunaga K. A basic and clinical study of cefixime. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo).* 1985;33(Suppl 6):377–92.
50. Sasaki N, Omiya H, Akaishi T, Fujikane T, Onodera S. Clinical studies of cefixime on respiratory tract infection. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo).* 1985;33(Suppl 6):181–4.
51. Shindoh Y, Ida S, Nishioka K, Takishima T. Fundamental and clinical studies on cefixime in the treatment of respiratory tract infections. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo).* 1985;33(Suppl 6):237–44.
52. Yoshida T, Yaoi H, Chiba S. Clinical experience with cefixime in the treatment of upper respiratory tract and pulmonary infections. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo).* 1985;33(Suppl 6):231–6.
53. Konno K. Comparative Test of The Efficacy of Cefixime and Amoxicillin on Pneumonia by Double Blind Method. *Chemotherapy.* 1986;34(11):1184–218.
54. Sengupta J, Mondal AK, Jain P, Garg RD, Mathur NC, Moharana AK. Comparative evaluation of cefpodoxime versus cefixime in children with lower respiratory tract infections. *Indian J Pediatr.* 2004 Jun;71(6):517–21.
55. Montini G. Antibiotic treatment of pyelonephritis in children. Recent advances. *Recenti Prog Med.* 2008;99(7–8):343–6.
56. Akino H, Okano M, Isomatsu Y, Muranaka K, Kanimoto Y. Fundamental and clinical studies on cefixime. *Chemotherapy (Tokyo).* 1985;33(Suppl 6):639–49.
57. Hasegawa Y, Fujimoto Y, Takeda A, Kato N, Ito F, Kanematsu M, et al. Usefulness of cefixime in urinary tract infections. Fundamental study with in vitro model of urinary bladder and clinical study. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):650–66.
58. Kamidono S, Arakawa S, Kataoka N, Hikosaka K, Mita T, Ishigami J. In vitro and clinical evaluation of FK027 for the treatment of urinary tract infections. In 1985. p. 23–8.
59. Nakamuta S, Masaki Z, Kumazawa J, Zinnouchi K, Nakao T, Nauri K, et al. Clinical experience with cefixime in urinary tract infections. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):751–62.
60. Washida H, Tsugaya M, Iwase Y, Hirao N, Sakagami H. Clinical studies of cefixime in the treatment of urinary tract infections. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):667–94.
61. Okada K, Miyakita H, Kawashima T, Tanikawa K, Nagata Y, Katsuoka Y, et al. Clinical studies of cefixime in the field of urology. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):588–605.
62. Mamzorida K, Kasteridou N, Peonides A, Niopas I. Pharmacokinetics of cefixime in children with urinary tract infections after a single oral dose. *Pharmacol Toxicol.* 1996 Jun;78(6):417–20.
63. England J, Bauernfeind A, Levenstein J, Soul J, Fernandez P, McDonald M, et al. A multicentre randomised comparison of cefixime versus co-trimoxazole in uncomplicated urinary tract infections. In 1988. p. 53–60.
64. Levenstein J, Summerfield PJ, Fourie S, Brink G, Michaelides B, Murray E, et al. Comparison of cefixime and co-trimoxazole in acute uncomplicated urinary tract infection. A double-blind general practice study. *S Afr Med J.* 1986 Oct 11;70(8):455–60.
65. Fujisawa M, Sasaki M, Fujii H, Okamura K, Miyata M, Hashimoto H, et al. Treatment of urinary tract infection with cefixime. *Hinyokika Kyo.* 1989 Nov;35(11):1989–92.
66. Kishi H, Kitahara K, Tominaga T, Nijima T, Nishimura Y, Saito I, et al. Experimental and clinical studies on cefixime in urinary tract infections. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):541–58.
67. Seko S, Sumii T, Nakano H, Nihira H, Okada K. Clinical studies of cefixime in the urological field. *Chemotherapy.* 1985;33(6):735–50.
68. Furukawa S, Okada T. Clinical experience with cefixime in the pediatric infections. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1128–37.
69. Motohiro T, Tanaka K, Koga T, Shimada Y, Tomita S, Nishiyama T, et al. Pharmacokinetics and clinical effects of cefixime in pediatrics. *Jpn J Antibiot.* 1986 Apr;39(4):1177–200.

70. Handsfield HH, McCormack WM, Hook EW, Douglas JM, Covino JM, Verdon MS, et al. A Comparison of Single-Dose Cefixime with Ceftriaxone as Treatment for Uncomplicated Gonorrhea. *N Engl J Med.* 1991 Nov 7;325(19):1337–41.

71. Gok F, Duzova A, Baskin E, Ozen S, Besbas N, Bakkaloglu A. Comparative study of cefixime alone versus intramuscular ceftizoxime followed by cefixime in the treatment of urinary tract infections in children. *J Chemother.* 2001 Jun;13(3):277–80.