

# New Rules for Clinical Trials of Patients With Acute Bacterial Skin and Skin-Structure Infections: Do Not Let the Perfect Be the Enemy of the Good

G. Ralph Corey<sup>1,2</sup> and Martin E. Stryjewski<sup>2,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Division of Infectious Diseases; and <sup>2</sup>Duke Clinical Research Institute, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina; and <sup>3</sup>Centro de Educación Médica e Investigaciones Clínicas, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Over the past decade, the United States has witnessed an epidemic of acute bacterial skin and skin-structure infections (ABSSSIs) caused primarily by community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. To address this medical need as well as the ongoing threat of increasing resistance, new antibiotics are being developed. Clinical trials involving patients with complicated ABSSSI are being implemented to understand the efficacy and safety of these new antibiotic agents. Because antibiotics clearly have an effect on the resolution of the majority of these infections, placebo-controlled trials have been replaced by noninferiority studies. However, to conduct noninferiority trials a noninferiority margin must be determined on the basis of the effect size of the comparator antibiotic. The lack of modern-day placebo-controlled studies of ABSSSI makes determining effect size/noninferiority margin—and as a result, trial design—challenging. The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in collaboration with the Foundation for the National Institutes of Health (FNIH) have been working hard to resolve these issues and develop a new guidance to aid investigators in the conduct of these trials. In this article, we first review the 1998 guidance and its shortcomings. Next, we address the ongoing discussion of the new 2010 guidance as we understand it, along with its perceived strengths and weaknesses. Throughout this process, we wish to emphasize that the continued development of antibiotics is essential. Thus, we hope that as the FDA and FNIH move forward they will strike a balance between “The Perfect” statistical solution and “The Good” practical clinical realities.

Acute bacterial skin and skin-structure infections (ABSSSIs; formerly cSSSIs) are among the most common infections encountered in clinical practice. During 2001–2003, there were 11.6 million outpatient visits for ABSSSI in the United States [1]. The visit rate for ABSSSI was estimated to be >400 outpatient visits per 10,000 persons. More than one-half of these infections were

abscesses and cellulitis, most probably caused by *Staphylococcus aureus* [1].

*S. aureus* is an evolving pathogen [2]. Rates of methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) related infections have been increasing at an alarming rate during the past 2 decades [3–5]. As an example, rates of MRSA isolated from intensive care units in the United States increased from 36% in 1992 to 64% in 2003 [4]. In addition, a new clone of community-associated MRSA (CA-MRSA; usually USA 300) has spread rapidly and predominates in previously healthy patients with ABSSSI [6–9]. CA-MRSA has also become a nosocomial pathogen [10], causing both noninvasive and invasive infections [11–13]. This epidemic has been complicated by the emergence of MRSA strains displaying both partial and complete resistance to vancomycin [14–18] as well as

Correspondence: G. Ralph Corey, MD, Duke Clinical Research Institute, 2400 Pratt St, Rm 7021, Durham, NC 27705 (corey001@mc.duke.edu).

**Clinical Infectious Diseases** 2011;52(S7):S469–S476

© The Author 2011. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved. For permissions, please e-mail: journals.permissions@oup.com.

1058-4838/2011/52S7-0002\$14.00

DOI: 10.1093/cid/cir162

more gradual increases in the minimum inhibitory concentration of vancomycin in selected hospitals in the United States and abroad [19]. These changes in antibiotic resistance characteristics have been associated with poor clinical outcomes in patients with invasive diseases [20]. Despite a recent suggestion that the MRSA epidemic may be stabilizing it is likely that this evolving organism will find new ways to evade our present antibiotic armamentarium [21]. Given this background, new drugs are clearly needed to treat patients with infections due to MRSA.

## **“TRADITIONAL” TRIAL CONDUCT FOR COMPLICATED ABSSSI**

A well-planned and properly executed clinical trial is today a fundamentally important experimental technique that is widely accepted as the gold standard for assessing the effectiveness of a drug. The most celebrated modern clinical trial was conducted by Lind [22], who treated 12 patients with scurvy on board the ship *Salisbury* in the 18th century. Patients were assigned in groups of 2 to receive different interventions. The 2 patients who received 2 oranges and 1 lemon a day improved dramatically. Since that time, clinical trials have evolved in terms of science (eg, because of randomization, blinding, end points, and statistics), regulatory control (eg, guidance and oversight), and ethics (eg, use of review boards). Despite the growing layers of sophistication added over time to the design and conduct of clinical trials, a crucial component is still irreplaceable: clinical judgment.

During the past decade, clinical trials of patients with ABSSSI in the United States have followed a draft guidance issued by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 1998 [23]. In this guidance, “complicated” infections included infections involving deep soft tissue (eg, infective cellulitis), requiring significant surgical intervention (eg, infected ulcers, burns, and major abscesses), or having a significant underlying disease complicating the response to treatment [23]. This document, entitled “Draft Guidance,” had numerous pitfalls.

First, there were no clear definitions and/or enrollment criteria for individual entities. For example, minimal lesion sizes were not defined. Words like “major” to define the appropriate abscess for enrollment left much to the discretion of the investigator. As a result of these limitations, different studies could include a wide and varying range of lesions. Second, the demonstration of severity of the infection as determined by evidence of systemic inflammation (eg, fever and leukocytosis) was not required allowing the enrollment of patients with widely varying degrees of severity. Third, the proportion of patients enrolled with a specific ABSSSI was not limited. Because of an increasing incidence of CA-MRSA-induced abscesses and the need to demonstrate microbiological evaluability, we have observed an increasing percentage of patients with abscesses in recent trials on ABSSSI [8]. This fact was particularly concerning because of

the controversial role of antibiotics on this group of infections. Fourth, because ABSSSI includes several disparate entities, the length of therapy for individual patients was not preestablished but, rather, was determined through discussions between sponsors and the FDA. As a result, most recent phase 3 trials of ABSSSI used a flexible therapeutic window, usually 7–14 days [24–28]. The duration of therapy for individual patients was not dictated by protocols but determined by the assessment of the infection by investigators. Finally, in the 1998 guidance, use of previous antibiotics was acceptable for patients who still had positive culture results and were considered by investigators to have experienced treatment failure. Although not mentioned in the guidance, the FDA realized the difficulty of enrolling treatment-naïve patients and allowed limited antibiotic exposure (eg, duration <24 h) in several ABSSSI trials [25, 29, 30].

However, the most important factor impacting trial design is the fact that, for numerous reasons, all phase 3 trials involving patients with cABSSSI conducted in the past 2 decades have used a noninferiority design. With use of this design, a study intends to demonstrate that the difference in response between the active control and the test drug is less than some prespecified noninferiority margin. To determine the noninferiority margin, the historical evidence of sensitivity to drug effects (HESDE) must be calculated. HESDE is the historical evidence that a new treatment is superior to placebo, as demonstrated repeatedly by appropriately designed clinical trials. The quantitation of the superiority margin allows the calculation of a reliable estimate of the effect size from which a noninferiority margin can be determined [31]. This noninferiority margin should be smaller than a fraction (eg, 50%) of the effect size/HESDE. Because a reduction in mortality was noted with the introduction of sulfonamides and penicillins [32], modern placebo-controlled studies are not available in patients with cABSSSI. As a result, the most important challenge for noninferiority trials has been justifying the noninferiority margin [32].

All the problems described above have led the FDA, in collaboration with the Foundation for the National Institutes of Health (FNIH), to reconsider trial design and elaborate a new guidance for patients with cABSSSI [33].

## **NEW TRIAL DESIGN IN cABSSSI: PROS AND CONS**

To more precisely categorize patients with cutaneous infections into a group requiring systemic antibiotics necessitated changing several previous FDA “rules” in the new design of trials of patients with cABSSSI [33]. Most relevant changes are summarized in Table 1.

### **Minimal Skin Involvement**

A minimum area of skin involvement (eg, erythema, edema, or induration size  $\geq 75$  cm<sup>2</sup>) was recently recommended by the

**Table 1. Changes in the 2010 US Food and Drug Administration Guidance in Trials of Patients With Complicated Acute Bacterial Skin and Skin Structure Infections (cABSSIs)**

1998 Guidance	2010 Guidance	Pros	Cons
No minimal size requirements	Minimal size of cABSSSI lesion $\geq 75 \text{ cm}^2$	Patients comparable across trials; small infections excluded	Measurement technique remains undefined; definition of $\geq 75 \text{ cm}^2$ is arbitrary
“Major abscess” and wound infection were not defined	Erythema/induration extending $\geq 5 \text{ cm}$ from the peripheral margin of abscess/wound (in addition to minimal size $\geq 75 \text{ cm}^2$ )	Improve patient comparability across trials; surrounding erythema correlates with minimal size of cellulitis	No evidence in adults that such a margin defines infections which will benefit from antibiotics
Systemic signs of infection not formally required	Systemic signs of infection (eg, fever) and/or proximal lymphadenopathy required	Improve patient comparability across trials	Requirement of fever for enrollment will result in under representation of important groups (eg, diabetic and/or elderly persons)
Proportion of infection types enrolled (eg, abscesses) not limited	Proportion of patients enrolled with abscesses limited to $\leq 30\%$	Diminishing noise in treatment effect (assuming the unproven hypothesis that major abscesses do not benefit from antibiotic therapy)	More time and resources required to complete cABSSSI trials in the CA-MRSA era
Primary end point: clinical cure at test of cure visit (usually within 7–14 days after end of therapy)	Primary end point: cessation of spread of primary lesion and resolution of fever 48–72 h after enrollment	HESDE available	HESDE only available from 1930s; cessation of spread does not constitute or replace clinical cure; measurement technique and definition of cessation of spread debatable
Prior antibacterial therapy allowed for those with positive cultures.	Prior antibacterial therapy only allowed for clinical failures, single dose of short acting antibiotics $\geq 3$ days before enrollment or treatment for an indication other than cABSSSI using an antibiotics inactive against pathogens associated with cABSSSI	Prevents non-study drug effect on primary end point	Significantly increases in difficulty of enrollment

**NOTE.** cABSSSI denotes complicated acute bacterial skin and skin structure infections; CA-MRSA, community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; HESDE, historical sensitivity to drug effect.

FDA [33]. Although this change will allow enrolling patients with more comparably size lesions, it is unclear whether larger areas of inflammation define complicated skin infections. For example, a severity score for skin infections developed from the linezolid trials showed that a lesion size  $< 150 \text{ cm}^2$  (compared with  $> 150 \text{ cm}^2$ ) and surgical wounds were both independently associated with clinical failure [34]. These observations suggest that depth may be more important than extension. Unfortunately, precisely defining the depth of infection is challenging. On a similar note, small lesion size does not guarantee an uncomplicated course of infection. In 1941, Skinner and Keefer [35] reported 122 cases of *S. aureus* bacteremia, 25% of which originated from boils or carbuncles. Finally, the challenges of accurately measuring the area of 3-dimensional irregular cutaneous infections cannot be over-emphasized. Proposed solutions, such as planimetry and digital photography [36], are

both untested in patients with cABSSSI and require significant increases in time and expense. Presently, the Dermatology Division of FDA recommends live observer evaluations for the primary end point assessment.

#### Systemic Signs of Infection

The FDA is also recommending that all patients with cABSSSI demonstrate evidence of inflammation extending beyond the primary lesion (eg, a tender enlarged lymph node proximal to the infection) or systemic inflammation such as fever (temperature,  $\geq 38^\circ\text{C}$ ) at the time of enrollment [33]. Although an increase in the white blood cell (WBC) count (eg, to  $> 10,000 \text{ cells/mm}^3$ ) or bands (eg, to  $> 10\%$ ) are not specifically mentioned in either the old or new guidances, they are expected to be accepted components of systemic inflammation. Indeed, most recent trials in cABSSSI have required at least 1 systemic sign as part of

their inclusion criteria [27, 29, 37–39]. Unfortunately, the association of these signs with severity of disease or response to antibiotics is still awaiting investigation.

The present debate focuses on the requirement that all patients be febrile at the time of enrollment. Recent large trials have enrolled 14%–33% febrile patients [25, 28], and a retrospective study from Australia showed that only 43% of patients admitted with infective cellulitis, patients who by definition required intravenous therapy for their infection, had fever or hypothermia [40]. These data suggest that the requirement for fever would result in a significant increase in money, time, and the number of sites. More importantly, excluding afebrile patients may lead to underrepresentation of important populations, such as diabetic persons, immunocompromised persons, and/or elderly persons, whose ability to mount a febrile response to infection is often impaired [41].

Although the presence of fever and the WBC count are easy to determine, the systemic response goes far beyond these clinical/laboratory signs. For instance, nonspecific markers, such as erythrocyte sedimentation rate, C-reactive protein level, and procalcitonin level may be useful not only in defining a more difficult-to-treat cohort but also as future surrogate markers for response to therapy [42]. It is also clear that further investigation is required before using any of these surrogate markers to define severity of infection and although resolution of fever [41] and/or WBC count may help indicate that the patient is responding to therapy they have not yet been shown to be equivalent to and thus replace clinical cure.

### Limiting the Proportion of Patients With Abscesses

Previous studies suggested that a majority of patients with abscesses can be cured with incision and drainage [43, 44]. More recent studies conducted during the CA-MRSA epidemic “confirmed” that abscesses are highly likely to be cured with drainage alone [45, 46]. Unfortunately, these studies usually included outpatients with small abscesses (eg, median of 15 mL of pus and median surrounding cellulitis of  $\leq 25$  cm<sup>2</sup>). Furthermore, inactive antibiotic therapy was shown to be an independent risk factor for failure in patients with skin infection due to CA-MRSA [47], and a pediatric study found that drainage frequently failed for patients with abscesses  $>5$  cm in diameter when appropriate antibiotic regimens were not given [48]. The fact that recurrences can be seen in  $\sim 10\%$  of patients with abscesses has also been well described before CA-MRSA era [43].

As a result of these conflicting study results, the FDA has recommended that abscesses be limited to  $\leq 30\%$  of the enrolled population [33]. In addition enrollment of major abscesses will require that the abscess have surrounding cellulitis and/or erythema extending at least 5 cm from the peripheral margin of the abscess diameter. These proposed changes will assist in the enrollment of more comparable patients and may also help include

in trials patients whose abscesses are more likely to benefit from antibiotics. However, this 30% limit in the percentage of patients with abscesses enrolled in cABSSSI trials may result in eliminating  $>10\%$  of trial population [2525]. The impact on enrollment difficulty and resulting trial cost of this new limitation remains to be determined.

### Changing the Primary End Point

The most controversial discussion to date has focused on moving the primary end point of all ABSSSI trials from the test-of-cure time point (usually 14–28 days after enrollment) to cessation of spread and resolution of fever at 48–72 h after enrollment [33]. In addition, the determination of cure versus failure, previously made by the investigator, will now be a result of lesion size measurements (ie, no progression of lesion size versus size at the time of enrollment) and temperature readings (ie, afebrile patients being those with a temperature  $\leq 37.6^\circ\text{C}$ ) at a time point long before the completion of antibiotic treatment.

Where do these radical new changes come from? As we mentioned above, there are no contemporary data from placebo-controlled studies providing HESDE for clinical cure at the test-of-cure timepoint. However, HESDE for a much earlier and different end point was available from old studies. During the 1930s, Snodgrass and Anderson [49, 50] conducted 2 clinical trials involving patients with erysipelas comparing sulphamides (prontosil, a prodrug for sulphanilamide, and sulphanilamide) with no antibiotics (ultraviolet light or antitoxin). The end points were duration of spread of the local lesion after enrollment, duration of fever, and time to resolve “toxic symptoms.” In both studies, cessation of spread after 48 h of therapy was higher in the antibiotic group (99% vs 73% and 98% vs 77%, respectively). Tables 2 and 3 display the main results from these studies. Because these “placebo”-controlled studies constitute HESDE, the FDA believed that a switch in the primary efficacy endpoint to cessation of spread and absence of fever at 48–72 h was required. Importantly, however, the cessation of spread and absence of fever must be sustained at 10–14 days after randomization by investigator determination of clinical cure or failure (now a secondary efficacy end point) [33].

The use of a cessation of spread as the primary end point outcome deserves several comments. First, very much like resolution of fever, cessation of spread only indicates that the patient is on the path to recovery, albeit not far along the path. It does not indicate cure; it must be coupled with subsequent evaluations to constitute a cure. From a clinician’s standpoint, failing this early endpoint does not translate into clinical failure. Second, nearly half the patients in the Snodgrass and Anderson studies had cessation of spread at enrollment (suggesting enrollment late in the course of the infection), making the timing of treatment effect questionable. Despite these caveats, contemporary trials involving patients with infective cellulitis

**Table 2. Spread of Lesion in the Study by Snodgrass and Anderson [50] Comparing Sulphonilamide With Ultraviolet Light in Patients with Erysipelas**

Method of treatment	Duration of spread, days						Total no. of cases
	0	1	2	3	4	≥5	
Sulphanilamide	78 (60.0)	48 (36.9)	3 (2.3)	1 (.77)	...	...	130
Ultra-violet Light	48 (39.3)	24 (19.7)	17 (14)	12 (9.9)	14 (11.5)	7 (5.7)	122

**NOTE.** Data are no. (%) of patients.

Reproduced from *British Medical Journal*, Snodgrass WR, vol 2(4014), pp 1156–59. ©1937 with permission from BMJ Publishing Group Ltd.

demonstrated that the median time for cessation of spread was 20–36 h [51, 52] (Figure 1). Review of recent phase 2 data for the torezolid trial demonstrated that the overwhelming majority of infections had stopped spreading at 72 h [53]. Therefore, a 72-h end point may well be a reasonable first attempt at defining a nonclinical end point. However, much more work needs to be done to define the parameters and repercussions of this change.

### The Consequences of These Changes?

As a result of the early primary end point, prior antibiotic therapy (the standard has been <24 h of effective treatment within the previous 7 days) will be more limited (Table 1). The decision requiring enrolled patients to be treatment naive is essential to determine the true effect of the intervention now that the primary end point is only 48–72 h after enrollment. However, the exclusion of recently treated patients (eg, those treated within the past 24 h) will make enrollment considerably more difficult, because a significant proportion of patients in cABSSSI trials received prior antibiotic therapy before enrollment [25].

Another important consideration is the effect anti-inflammatory drugs on spread of lesion. A randomized, placebo-controlled trial showed that prednisolone may hasten median time of healing by 1 day in patients with erysipelas [54]. Similarly, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs may shorten the time to regression of lesions in patients with cellulitis [55]. In addition, both of these medications significantly impair the demonstration and quicken the resolution of fever. As a result the new guidance allows the use of only short-acting antipyretic medications for fever and analgesic drugs without

antipyretic activity for pain [33]. Although it will be difficult to control pain without the use of anti-pyretic/anti-inflammatory agents, it will be important to avoid these medications for the first 72 h to get an accurate assessment of antibiotic effect.

### Noninferiority Margin

For noninferiority trials, the FDA requires noninferiority margins to preserve a fraction of treatment effect (estimated from the HESDE). Traditionally, this fraction was arbitrarily set at 50% (“take half”), and the noninferiority margin in cABSSSI trials was commonly requested to be at 10%.

However, the new guidance uses HESDE to choose a margin on the basis of the assumption that the current clinical trials are sufficiently similar to the historical studies (constancy assumption) [56]. Compared with the 1930s, the standard of care (including antibiotics) for ABSSSI has evolved, comorbidities have changed, and pathogens have shifted (from group A *Streptococcus* to CA-MRSA) [6, 7]. In addition, the margin preserving at least 50% of the effect of an active control by the new drug has been questioned [57]. If we take into consideration all of these drawbacks and uncertainties, the FDA has provided a conservative estimate of 12% in treatment effect for stop of spread and resolution of fever between 48–72 h in patients receiving antibiotics [33]. Clearly stated, the new noninferiority margin should be <12%, although such margin has not been defined.

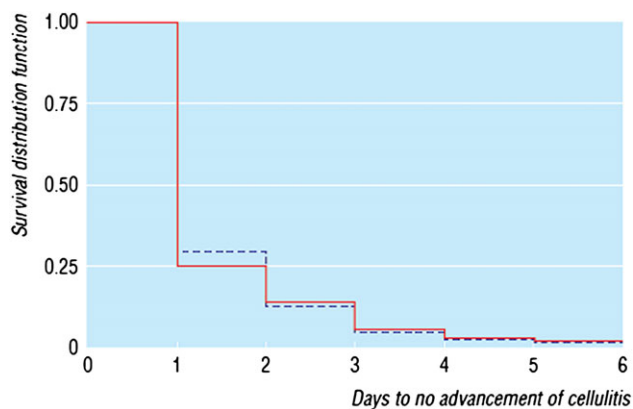
A recent investigation using data from 1900–1950 (before widespread use of penicillin) has determined noninferiority margins preserving at least 50% of the treatment effect in patients with cABSSI [32]. Such noninferiority margins were as

**Table 3. Spread of Lesion in the Study by Snodgrass and Anderson [49] Comparing Prontosil (Sulphamide Drug) With Other Therapies in Patients With Erysipelas**

Method of treatment	Duration of spread, days						Total no. of cases
	0	1	2	3	4	≥5	
Ultraviolet light	32 (32.65)	26 (26.53)	17 (17.34)	11 (11.22)	5 (5.1)	7 (7.14)	98
Prontosil	48 (47.06)	36 (35.29)	16 (15.69)	1 (.98)	1 (.98)	0	102
Ultraviolet light plus prontosil	19 (35.85)	26 (49.06)	7 (13.21)	0	1 (1.89)	0	53
Antitoxin	14 (31.81)	7 (15.91)	10 (22.23)	9 (20.45)	4 (9.09)	0	44

**NOTE.** Data are no. (%) of patients.

Reproduced from *British Medical Journal*, Snodgrass WR, Anderson T. vol 2(3933), pp. 101–104, ©1937 with permission from BMJ Publishing Group Ltd.



**Figure 1.** Stop of spread in patients with infective cellulitis treated with antibiotics.

Reproduced from *British Medical Journal*, Corwin P et al. vol 330, 129. ©2005 with permission from BMJ Publishing Group Ltd.

follows: 14% for cellulitis and erysipelas, 21% for wound infections, and 7% for major abscesses [32]. Unfortunately, the true margins for individual types of infections are still unclear. Retrospective analyses of phase 2 trials suggest that using cessation of spread at 48-72 h may result in cure rates exceeding 90%. If this is verified, a noninferiority margin of considerably less than 10% may be required.

## WHERE TO NOW?

Given the pervasive changes in clinical trial design of cABSSSI, several issues require further discussion.

1. **Test the changes before implementing.** Most recent changes in trials on cABSSSI in the United States have been done based on theory. Unfortunately, no strong clinical evidence accompanies such modifications. The “new rules” may result in major changes in the number of sites, the length of trials, and the resulting costs of antibiotic development. At the time this is taking place, the Infectious Diseases Society of America is pleading for new antibiotics. We strongly suggest testing new theoretic trial designs before requiring their implementation.

2. **Develop new approaches to studying cABSSSI.** Algorithms to develop antibiotics in patients with cABSSSI should be rediscussed—for example, requiring 1 large registrational phase 3 trial instead of 2 phase 3 trials for drug approval. Allowing antibiotic development to leapfrog over cABSSSI to study more invasive infections (eg, bacteremia) initially rather than waiting 2-4 years for the completion of a skin and skin-structure infection trial is another consideration.

3. **Consider placebo-controlled trials using a 48-h end point.** A small (eg, 50 patients) placebo-controlled ABSSSI study could ideally be conducted in low-risk patients who are observed closely as inpatients during the initial 3-day study period. This approach would allow determining the true effect

of new antibiotics and pose little risk to a healthy, nontoxic population.

4. **Test short therapies in ABSSSI.** There is some evidence suggesting that antibiotic therapy for 5 days is comparable to 10 days in patients with uncomplicated cellulitis [58]. To our knowledge, there have been no randomized trials comparing the length of therapy in patients with complicated ABSSSI. Trials incorporating new treatment algorithms such as this should be a priority in our attempts to preserve antibiotic potency.

5. **Preserve rules for already approved studies.** This is in contrast to the present FDA opinion, in which changes in regulatory science mandate immediate modifications in trial design, including ongoing and recently completed trials. Maintaining consistent guidelines during studies would greatly assist obtaining external financial support for future trials in the anti-infective field.

6. **Promote collaboration.** Increase academic government partnerships in the antibacterial section, much like has been done in other sections and divisions, such as cardiology. Collaboration with the FNHI is a good first step forward. Other steps, such as establishing collaboration with the European Medicine Agency and other regulatory agencies, would be significant milestones in simplifying new antibiotic development.

7. In their 1937 article, Snodgrass and Anderson stated, “Clinical judgment, however, is not statistically assessable...” [50, p. 1157]. When statistical issues are difficult to resolve clinical judgment must prevail. Creation of a stable set of guidelines under which to conduct clinical trials for antibiotic approval is essential for the continuation of active research efforts by the pharmaceutical industry. If the rules are changed between the initiation of the trial and the approval of a new antibiotic, then reasons to invest in new antibiotics will be deeply undermined. We believe that is time to be practical, innovative, and collaborative. Otherwise, all we have is perfection but no new antibiotics.

## Acknowledgments

**Supplement sponsorship.** This article was published as part of a supplement entitled “Fusidic Acid Enters the United States” sponsored by Cemptra Pharmaceuticals.

**Potential conflicts of interest.** G. R. C. has served as a consultant for Theravance, received support from Cubist Pharmaceuticals and Theravance, and serves as a consultant for Cereza, Merck, Pfizer, Cemptra, Polymedix, Nabriva, The Medicines Company, GSK, Trius, Durata, PRA, Furiex, Inimex, Innocoll, Rib-X, Seachaid, Dr Reddy’s Laboratory, Tetraphase, Synereca, AstraZeneca, Achaogen, and Astellas. M. E. S. has served as a consultant for Trius Therapeutics, has received honoraria from Astellas and research support from Theravance, and serves as a consultant for Theravance, Nabriva, and The Medicines Company.

## References

1. McCaig LF, McDonald LC, Mandal S, Jernigan DB. *Staphylococcus aureus*-associated skin and soft tissue infections in ambulatory care. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2006; 12:1715–23.

2. Deresinski S. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: an evolutionary, epidemiologic, and therapeutic odyssey. *Clin Infect Dis* **2005**; 40:562–73.
3. Rosenthal VD, Maki DG, Mehta A, et al. International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium report, data summary for 2002–2007, issued January 2008. *Am J Infect Control* **2008**; 36:627–37.
4. Klevens RM, Edwards JR, Tenover FC, McDonald LC, Horan T, Gaynes R. Changes in the epidemiology of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in intensive care units in US hospitals, 1992–2003. *Clin Infect Dis* **2006**; 42:389–91.
5. Burton DC, Edwards JR, Horan TC, Jernigan JA, Fridkin SK. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* central line-associated bloodstream infections in US intensive care units, 1997–2007. *JAMA* **2009**; 301:727–36.
6. Moran GJ, Krishnadasan A, Gorwitz RJ, et al. Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* infections among patients in the emergency department. *N Engl J Med* **2006**; 355:666–74.
7. King MD, Humphrey BJ, Wang YF, Kourbatova EV, Ray SM, Blumberg HM. Emergence of community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* USA 300 clone as the predominant cause of skin and soft-tissue infections. *Ann Intern Med* **2006**; 144:309–17.
8. Stryjewski ME, Chambers HF. Skin and soft-tissue infections caused by community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Infect Dis* **2008**; 46(Suppl 5):S368–77.
9. Deleo FR, Otto M, Kreiswirth BN, Chambers HF. Community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Lancet* **2010**; 375:1557–68.
10. Gonzalez BE, Rueda AM, Shelburne SA 3rd, Musher DM, Hamill RJ, Hulten KG. Community-associated strains of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* as the cause of healthcare-associated infection. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* **2006**; 27:1051–6.
11. Klevens RM, Morrison MA, Nadle J, et al. Invasive methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections in the United States. *JAMA* **2007**; 298:1763–71.
12. Seybold U, Kourbatova EV, Johnson JG, et al. Emergence of community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* USA300 genotype as a major cause of health care-associated blood stream infections. *Clin Infect Dis* **2006**; 42:647–56.
13. Jenkins TC, McCollister BD, Sharma R, et al. Epidemiology of healthcare-associated bloodstream infection caused by USA300 strains of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in 3 affiliated hospitals. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* **2009**; 30:233–41.
14. Smith TL, Pearson ML, Wilcox KR, et al. Emergence of vancomycin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Glycopeptide-Intermediate *Staphylococcus aureus* Working Group. *N Engl J Med* **1999**; 340:493–501.
15. Tenover FC. Vancomycin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: a perfect but geographically limited storm? *Clin Infect Dis* **2008**; 46:675–7.
16. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *Staphylococcus aureus* resistant to vancomycin—United States, 2002. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* **2002**; 51:565–7.
17. Bae IG, Federspiel JJ, Miro JM, et al. Heterogeneous vancomycin-intermediate susceptibility phenotype in bloodstream methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from an international cohort of patients with infective endocarditis: prevalence, genotype, and clinical significance. *J Infect Dis* **2009**; 200:1355–66.
18. Hiramatsu K, Aritaka N, Hanaki H, et al. Dissemination in Japanese hospitals of strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* heterogeneously resistant to vancomycin. *Lancet* **1997**; 350:1670–3.
19. Wang G, Hindler JF, Ward KW, Bruckner DA. Increased vancomycin MICs for *Staphylococcus aureus* clinical isolates from a university hospital during a 5-year period. *J Clin Microbiol* **2006**; 44:3883–6.
20. Soriano A, Marco F, Martinez JA, et al. Influence of vancomycin minimum inhibitory concentration on the treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia. *Clin Infect Dis* **2008**; 46:193–200.
21. Kallen AJ, Mu Y, Bulens S, et al. Health care-associated invasive MRSA infections, 2005–2008. *JAMA* **2010**; 304:641–8.
22. Bull JP. The historical development of clinical therapeutic trials. *J Chronic Dis* **1959**; 10:218–48.
23. US Food and Drug Administration, Guidance for Industry: Uncomplicated and Complicated Skin and Skin Structure Infections: Developing Drugs for Treatment. US Food and Drug Administration. July 1998. Available at <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/GuidanceComplianceRegulatoryInformation/Guidances/ucm071185.pdf>. Accessed 31 August 2010.
24. Arbeit RD, Maki D, Tally FP, Campanaro E, Eisenstein BI. The safety and efficacy of daptomycin for the treatment of complicated skin and skin-structure infections. *Clin Infect Dis* **2004**; 38:1673–81.
25. Stryjewski ME, Graham DR, Wilson SE, et al. Telavancin versus vancomycin for the treatment of complicated skin and skin-structure infections caused by gram-positive organisms. *Clin Infect Dis* **2008**; 46:1683–93.
26. Ellis-Grosse EJ, Babinchak T, Dartois N, Rose G, Loh E. The efficacy and safety of tigecycline in the treatment of skin and skin-structure infections: results of 2 double-blind phase 3 comparison studies with vancomycin-aztreonam. *Clin Infect Dis* **2005**; 41(Suppl. 5):S341–53.
27. Noel GJ, Bush K, Bagchi P, Ianus J, Strauss RS. A randomized, double-blind trial comparing ceftobiprole medocaril with vancomycin plus ceftazidime for the treatment of patients with complicated skin and skin-structure infections. *Clin Infect Dis* **2008**; 46:647–55.
28. Corey GR, Wilcox MH, Talbot GH, et al. CANVAS 1: the first Phase III, randomized, double-blind study evaluating ceftaroline fosamil for the treatment of patients with complicated skin and skin structure infection. *J Antimicrob Chemother* **2010**; 65(Suppl 4):iv41–51.
29. Noel GJ, Strauss RS, Amsler K, Heep M, Pypstra R, Solomkin JS. Results of a double-blind, randomized trial of ceftobiprole treatment of complicated skin and skin structure infections caused by gram-positive bacteria. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **2008**; 52:37–44.
30. Talbot GH, Thye D, Das A, Ge Y. Phase 2 study of ceftaroline versus standard therapy in treatment of complicated skin and skin structure infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **2007**; 51:3612–6.
31. US Food and Drug Administration, Guidance for Industry: Non-Inferiority Clinical Trials. US Food and Drug Administration. March 2010. Available at <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/GuidanceComplianceRegulatoryInformation/Guidances/UCM202140.pdf>. Accessed 31 August 2010.
32. Spellberg B, Talbot GH, Boucher HW, et al. Antimicrobial agents for complicated skin and skin-structure infections: justification of non-inferiority margins in the absence of placebo-controlled trials. *Clin Infect Dis* **2009**; 49:383–91.
33. US Food and Drug Administration. Guidance for Industry. Acute bacterial skin and skin structure infections: developing drugs for treatment. US Food and Drug Administration. August 2010. Available at <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/GuidanceComplianceRegulatoryInformation/Guidances/UCM071185.pdf>. Accessed 31 August 2010.
34. Wilson SE, Solomkin JS, Le V, Cammarata SK, Bruss JB. A severity score for complicated skin and soft tissue infections derived from phase III studies of linezolid. *Am J Surg* **2003**; 185:369–75.
35. Skinner D, Keefer CS. Significance of bacteremia caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*: a study of one hundred and twenty-two cases and a review of the literature concerned with experimental infection in animals. *Arch Intern Med* **1941**; 68:851–75.
36. Canning J, Barford B, Sullivan D, Wickett R, Visscher M. Use of digital photography and image analysis techniques to quantify erythema in health care workers. *Skin Res Technol* **2009**; 15:24–34.
37. Jauregui LE, Babazadeh S, Seltzer E, et al. Randomized, double-blind comparison of once-weekly dalbavancin versus twice-daily linezolid therapy for the treatment of complicated skin and skin structure infections. *Clin Infect Dis* **2005**; 41:1407–15.
38. Weigelt J, Itani K, Stevens D, Lau W, Dryden M, Knirsch C. Linezolid versus vancomycin in treatment of complicated skin and soft tissue infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **2005**; 49:2260–6.

39. Hadvary P, Stevens D, Solonets M, Jones M, Sahn D, O'Hare M, et al. Clinical efficacy of Iclaprim in complicated skin and skin structure infection (cSSSI): results of combined ASSIST phase III studies [abstract L-1512]. In: 48th Annual ICAAC/IDSA 46th Annual Meeting. Arlington, VA: Infectious Diseases Society of America, 2008.
40. Figtree M, Konecny P, Jennings Z, Goh C, Krilis SA, Miyakis S. Risk stratification and outcome of cellulitis admitted to hospital. *J Infect* **2010**; 60:431–9.
41. Weitzman ED, Moline ML, Czeisler CA, Zimmerman JC. Chronobiology of aging: temperature, sleep-wake rhythms and entrainment. *Neurobiol Aging* **1982**; 3:299–309.
42. Christ-Crain M, Jaccard-Stolz D, Bingisser R, et al. Effect of procalcitonin-guided treatment on antibiotic use and outcome in lower respiratory tract infections: cluster-randomised, single-blinded intervention trial. *Lancet* **2004**; 363:600–7.
43. Macfie J, Harvey J. The treatment of acute superficial abscesses: a prospective clinical trial. *Br J Surg* **1977**; 64:264–6.
44. Llera JL, Levy RC. Treatment of cutaneous abscess: a double-blind clinical study. *Ann Emerg Med* **1985**; 14:15–9.
45. Rajendran PM, Young D, Maurer T, et al. Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of cephalexin for treatment of uncomplicated skin abscesses in a population at risk for community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infection. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **2007**; 51:4044–8.
46. Paydar KZ, Hansen SL, Charlebois ED, Harris HW, Young DM. Inappropriate antibiotic use in soft tissue infections. *Arch Surg* **2006**; 141:850–4; discussion 5–6.
47. Ruhe JJ, Smith N, Bradsher RW, Menon A. Community-onset methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* skin and soft-tissue infections: impact of antimicrobial therapy on outcome. *Clin Infect Dis* **2007**; 44:777–84.
48. Lee MC, Rios AM, Aten MF, et al. Management and outcome of children with skin and soft tissue abscesses caused by community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2004**; 23:123–7.
49. Snodgrass WR, Anderson T. Prontosil in the treatment of erysipelas: a controlled series of 312 cases. *BMJ* **1937**; 2:101–4.
50. Snodgrass WR, Anderson T. Sulphanilamide in the treatment of erysipelas: a controlled series of 270 cases. *BMJ* **1937**; 2:1156–59.
51. Corwin P, Toop L, McGeoch G, et al. Randomised controlled trial of intravenous antibiotic treatment for cellulitis at home compared with hospital. *BMJ* **2005**; 330:129.
52. Pertel PE, Eisenstein BI, Link AS, et al. The efficacy and safety of daptomycin vs. vancomycin for the treatment of cellulitis and erysipelas. *Int J Clin Pract* **2009**; 63:368–75.
53. De Anda C, Bien P, Prokocimer P. Oral torezolid Phosphate in the treatment of Severe cSSSI in patients with systemic signs of infection: a phase 2 Dose ranging study [abstract 1921]. In: 20th European Congress of Clinical Microbiology Infectious Diseases. Vienna: European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, 2010.
54. Bergkvist PI, Sjobeck K. Antibiotic and prednisolone therapy of erysipelas: a randomized, double blind, placebo-controlled study. *Scand J Infect Dis* **1997**; 29:377–82.
55. Dall L, Peterson S, Simmons T, Dall A. Rapid resolution of cellulitis in patients managed with combination antibiotic and anti-inflammatory therapy. *Cutis* **2005**; 75:177–80.
56. Fleming TR. Current issues in non-inferiority trials. *Stat Med* **2008**; 27:317–32.
57. Carroll KJ. Active-controlled, non-inferiority trials in oncology: arbitrary limits, infeasible sample sizes and uninformative data analysis. is there another way? *Pharm Stat* **2006**; 5:283–93.
58. Hepburn MJ, Dooley DP, Skidmore PJ, Ellis MW, Starnes WF, Hasewinkle WC. Comparison of short-course (5 days) and standard (10 days) treatment for uncomplicated cellulitis. *Arch Intern Med* **2004**; 164:1669–74.