

EUROPEAN JOURNAL OF PHARMACEUTICAL AND MEDICAL RESEARCH

www.ejpmr.com

Review Article
ISSN 2394-3211

EJPMR

STRATEGIC USE OF ANTIBIOTICS AND NATURAL REMEDIES IN PEDIATRICS: A FRAMEWORK FOR INFORMED DECISION-MAKING

Anns M. Sabu¹, Ramesh Pratap Chaudhary², Avinash Chandra³, Punit Kumar Pandey⁴, Shiva⁵ and Priti Sharma*

1,5 Assistant Professor, Gurugram Global College of Pharmacy, Gurugram.
 2,3,4 Associate Professor, Nova College of Pharmacy, Gomti Nagar, Lucknow.
 *Assistant Professor, Vidya Institute of Medical Sciences, Baghpat Bypass Meerut.



*Corresponding Author: Priti Sharma

Assistant Professor, Vidya Institute of Medical Sciences, Baghpat Bypass Meerut.

Article Received on 10/10/2024

Article Revised on 30/10/2024

Article Accepted on 20/11/2024

ABSTRACT

This study explores the balance between using antibiotics and natural remedies in managing pediatric health, aiming to offer insights into their respective safety, effectiveness, and overall impact. A thorough review of the literature evaluates recent trends in antibiotic prescribing and examines the evidence supporting natural remedies for common pediatric conditions. The analysis considers factors influencing treatment choices, including parental preferences and healthcare provider practices. By comparing the efficacy and safety profiles of antibiotics and natural therapies, this study highlights their advantages and limitations. The findings underscore the importance of evidence-based decision-making and informed practices in pediatric care, striving to optimize health outcomes for children while addressing the complexities of treatment options.

KEYWORDS: The analysis considers factors influencing treatment choices, including parental preferences and healthcare provider practices.

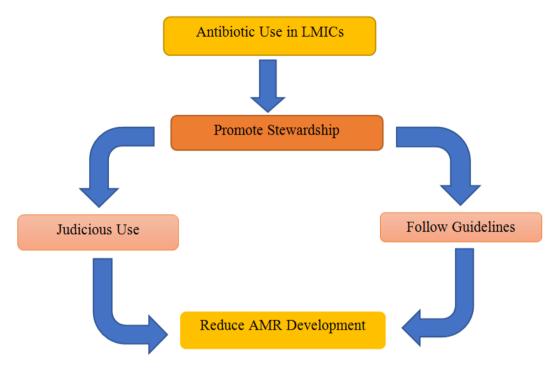
INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been a noticeable increase in the use of both antibiotics and natural remedies for treating pediatric illnesses. This trend indicates an increasing interest among parents and medical professionals in investigating alternative treatment methods for medical conditions. Natural medicines, including probiotics, herbal supplements, and homeopathic treatments are gradually replacing or supplementing antibiotics, which were once thought to be the most effective way to treat bacterial illnesses. The effectiveness, safety, and long-term effects of these therapeutic methods in pediatric care are major concerns raised by this change. [1,2]

The increased use of antibiotics in children has historically been driven by the need to treat bacterial infections effectively. However, concerns regarding antibiotic resistance, adverse effects, and disruptions to the gastrointestinal microbiota have prompted a reassessment of their use. Concurrently, natural remedies are gaining popularity due to their perceived benefits, such as fewer side effects and alignment with holistic health practices. However, the efficacy of these remedies for treating specific pediatric conditions remains a subject of debate, often lacking rigorous scientific validation. [3]

Across low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), the reported use of antibiotics among sick children under 5 years old increased from 36.8% (uncertainty interval [UI] 28.8-44.7) in 2005 to 43.1% (33.2-50.5) in 2017. Notably, low-income countries saw the most significant relative increase in antibiotic use, with reported antibiotic use increasing by 34% during the study period. Specifically, usage in low-income countries rose from 29.6% (21.2–41.1) in 2005 to 39.5% (32.9–47.6) in 2017, though it consistently remained the lowest among income groups throughout the period. These findings highlight a worrying trend of increasing antibiotic use by children across LMICs, particularly in settings with limited healthcare resources. Targeted interventions are essential to promote appropriate antibiotic stewardship and ensure effective pediatric healthcare in these regions.[4,5]

www.ejpmr.com | Vol 11, Issue 12, 2024. | ISO 9001:2015 Certified Journal | 185



Antibiotics play a crucial role in treating bacterial infections, and their overuse significantly contributes to antimicrobial resistance, which poses a global health threat. Conversely, natural remedies are often perceived as safer alternatives; however, their efficacy and safety profiles vary widely and are not well-regulated or standardized. [6] Parents and caregivers are thus challenged to make informed decisions by weighing the severity of the child's condition, potential side effects, and their impact on public health. Education on appropriate antibiotic use guided by evidence-based guidelines like the Access, Watch, and Reserve (AWaRe) classification system, can empower caregivers to choose responsibly, ensuring effective treatment while preserving antibiotic effectiveness for future generations. Integrating modern medicine and traditional remedies in a coordinated approach promotes holistic child health management, enhances outcomes, and sustainable healthcare practices globally.^[7] supports

Some studies have shown that postbiotic substances, such as those derived from microbial fermentation, such as Lactobacillus strains, are promising for reducing diarrhea duration and preventing certain infections in young children. This underscores the potential for integrating effective microbial-derived therapies into pediatric healthcare, potentially reducing the reliance on antibiotics for non-serious infections. However, further investigation is needed to clarify the efficacy and safety of postbiotics compared with antibiotics, ensuring that healthcare decisions priorities both short-term effectiveness and long-term public health concerns such as AMR. [8] Integrating evidence-based guidance on post biopsy alongside conventional therapies provides a balanced strategy for optimizing child health outcomes while safeguarding antibiotic effectiveness for future generations. Integrating evidence-based guidance on

postbiotics alongside conventional therapies thus provides a balanced strategy to optimize child health outcomes while safeguarding antibiotic effectiveness for future generations. [9]

Complications Due to Giving Antibiotics in Children

Antibiotics are crucial for treating bacterial infections, but their use in children can lead to various complications. Understanding these potential complications is essential for healthcare providers and parents to make informed decisions about antibiotic use. Here are some key complications associated with antibiotic use in children.

I. Antibiotic Resistance

Development of Resistant Strains: One of the most significant concerns associated with antibiotic use in children is the development of antibiotic resistance. Overuse and misuse of antibiotics can lead to the emergence of resistant bacterial strains, making future infections harder to treat. When bacteria are exposed to antibiotics, those that survive can pass on resistance genes to their offspring, leading to the proliferation of resistant strains. This phenomenon not only complicates treatment but also drives the need for stronger and potentially more toxic antibiotics.

Higher Risk in Children: Children who are frequently given antibiotics are at a higher risk of developing and spreading resistant bacteria. Their developing immune systems and frequent exposure to communal environments, such as schools and daycare centers, make them particularly susceptible to acquiring and transmitting resistant strains. This can perpetuate the cycle of resistance within communities, exacerbating the challenge of managing bacterial infections.

Public Health Implications: The spread of antibiotic-resistant bacteria poses significant public health challenges. Infections caused by resistant strains can lead to prolonged illness, extended hospital stays, higher healthcare costs, and increased mortality rates. As the effectiveness of existing antibiotics wanes and the development of new antibiotics lags, addressing antibiotic resistance becomes crucial. Effective antibiotic stewardship programs and judicious use of antibiotics are essential strategies to combat this growing threat.

Studies and Evidence

- 1. Smith and Coast (2013) provided a comprehensive overview of the economic and health impacts of antibiotic resistance, emphasizing the urgent need for effective interventions to address this global issue. Their study highlighted the cost implications of antibiotic-resistant infections and the importance of stewardship programs. [10]
- 2. Laxminarayan et al. (2013) discussed the global dimensions of antibiotic resistance, focusing on the need for international cooperation to tackle the problem. Their research underlined the critical role of coordinated efforts in monitoring and managing antibiotic use to mitigate resistance.^[11]
- 3. Ventola (2015) reviewed the causes and consequences of antibiotic resistance, with a specific focus on the implications for pediatric patients. The study emphasized how inappropriate use of antibiotics in children contributes to resistance and stressed the need for improved prescribing practices. [12]
- 4. Klein et al. (2018) conducted a study on the trends in antibiotic resistance and their impact on public health. Their findings revealed a growing prevalence of resistant strains and the challenges faced in managing infections, particularly in pediatric populations. [13]
- 5. O'Neill (2014) led a high-profile report on antibiotic resistance, providing recommendations for combating resistance through enhanced surveillance, research, and policy measures. The report highlighted the importance of addressing antibiotic resistance as a critical global health issue. [14]

II. Disruption of Gut Microbiota

Impact on Microbial Balance: Antibiotics can significantly disrupt the natural balance of the gut microbiota, which consists of a complex community of beneficial and potentially harmful microorganisms. Antibiotics are designed to target and eliminate pathogenic bacteria, but they also affect the beneficial bacteria that are crucial for maintaining gut health. This disruption can lead to a decrease in beneficial bacteria and an overgrowth of harmful bacteria, resulting in a range of gastrointestinal issues.

Gastrointestinal Issues: The imbalance in the gut microbiota caused by antibiotic use can lead to several gastrointestinal symptoms, including diarrhea, bloating,

and abdominal pain. These symptoms arise due to the alteration in the gut's microbial environment and the resultant changes in digestive processes and immune responses. The loss of beneficial bacteria can also compromise the gut's ability to maintain a healthy barrier, increasing susceptibility to gastrointestinal disturbances.

Severe Conditions: In more severe cases, disruption of the gut microbiota can lead to the overgrowth of pathogenic bacteria such as *Clostridium difficile* (C. diff). This bacterium is a common cause of healthcare-associated diarrhea and colitis. *C. difficile* infection is characterized by severe diarrhea, abdominal cramping, and fever, and can lead to more serious complications such as pseudomembranous colitis. The risk of *C. difficile* infection is higher following antibiotic treatment because the antibiotics can create an environment in the gut that allows *C. difficile* to thrive.

Studies and Evidence

- 1. Vrieze et al. (2014) investigated the impact of antibiotics on gut microbiota and found that antibiotic use significantly alters microbial composition, leading to gastrointestinal disturbances and an increased risk of *C. difficile* infection. [15]
- 2. Jernberg et al. (2010) conducted a study on the long-term effects of antibiotics on gut microbiota and reported that antibiotic-induced changes in the gut flora can persist for months, contributing to gastrointestinal issues and increased susceptibility to infections.^[16]
- 3. McDonald et al. (2018) examined the incidence of *C. difficile* infections and associated it with prior antibiotic use. Their research highlighted the strong association between antibiotic use and the risk of developing *C. difficile* infections, emphasizing the need for cautious use of antibiotics. [17]
- **4. Yassour et al.** (2016) explored the relationship between antibiotic-induced changes in the gut microbiota and the development of gastrointestinal disorders. Their study provided insights into how antibiotic-induced dysbiosis can lead to various digestive issues, including diarrhea and bloating. [18]
- **5. Pamer** (2016) reviewed the mechanisms through which antibiotics disrupt gut microbiota and the subsequent health implications. The review underscored the importance of understanding these disruptions to mitigate the risk of complications such as *C. difficile* infection. [19]

III. Allergic Reactions

Range of Reactions: Allergic reactions to antibiotics are relatively common in children and can vary widely in severity. These reactions can range from mild symptoms, such as rashes and itching, to more severe and potentially life-threatening conditions like anaphylaxis. Anaphylaxis is a severe, systemic allergic reaction that requires immediate medical attention and intervention. Symptoms

www.ejpmr.com | Vol 11, Issue 12, 2024. | ISO 9001:2015 Certified Journal | 187

may include difficulty breathing, swelling of the face and throat, rapid heartbeat, and a drop in blood pressure.

Common Culprits: Penicillin and sulfa drugs are among the antibiotics most commonly associated with allergic reactions. Penicillin, a beta-lactam antibiotic, is known for its potential to induce hypersensitivity reactions, including skin rashes, urticaria (hives), and anaphylaxis. Sulfa drugs, or sulfonamides, can also cause allergic reactions, which may manifest as skin rashes, fever, and more severe reactions such as Stevens-Johnson syndrome (a severe skin reaction).

Impact on Treatment: Allergic reactions to antibiotics can complicate the treatment of infections in children. When a child experiences an allergic reaction, alternative antibiotics may need to be prescribed, which can impact the effectiveness of treatment and increase the risk of encountering other side effects or resistance issues. Accurate documentation of antibiotic allergies is crucial for guiding future treatments and preventing adverse reactions.

Studies and Evidence

- 1. Blum et al. (2018) conducted a study on the prevalence and severity of antibiotic allergies in children. Their findings highlighted the range of allergic reactions, from mild to severe, and emphasized the importance of recognizing and managing these reactions promptly. [20]
- 2. Stern et al. (2016) reviewed the incidence of penicillin allergies and found that a significant proportion of children with reported penicillin allergies could tolerate the drug upon re-evaluation. Their study underscored the need for careful assessment of reported allergies to avoid unnecessary use of alternative antibiotics. [21]
- 3. Husain et al. (2015) examined the occurrence of severe allergic reactions, including anaphylaxis, associated with antibiotic use. Their research provided insights into the risk factors and management strategies for severe reactions, emphasizing the need for immediate medical attention in cases of anaphylaxis. [22]
- 4. Rosenbach et al. (2019) investigated the role of allergy testing in diagnosing and managing antibiotic allergies in children. Their study demonstrated the utility of testing in distinguishing between true allergies and non-allergic adverse reactions, which can help guide appropriate antibiotic use. [23]
- 5. Sampson et al. (2014) provided a comprehensive review of allergic reactions to antibiotics, including mechanisms of hypersensitivity and clinical management. The review highlighted the range of allergic responses and the importance of accurate diagnosis and management. [24]

IV. Adverse Drug Reactions

Common Reactions: Antibiotics can induce a range of adverse drug reactions beyond allergic responses. Common side effects include nausea, vomiting, and headaches, which can affect a child's overall well-being and compliance with treatment. These reactions are usually mild and transient, but they can still cause discomfort and necessitate the consideration of alternative treatments or supportive care.

Severe Reactions: Some antibiotics, particularly aminoglycosides, can cause more severe adverse effects. Aminoglycosides, such as gentamicin, tobramycin, and amikacin, are known for their potential nephrotoxic and ototoxic effects. Nephrotoxicity refers to kidney damage, which can manifest as elevated serum creatinine levels, decreased urine output, or other signs of renal impairment. Ototoxicity involves damage to the auditory and vestibular systems, potentially leading to hearing loss, tinnitus (ringing in the ears), or balance disorders.

Impact on Health: Severe adverse reactions like nephrotoxicity and ototoxicity can have significant implications for a child's health and development. Nephrotoxicity can impair renal function, leading to long-term kidney damage if not promptly addressed. Ototoxicity can result in permanent hearing loss or balance issues, impacting a child's communication abilities and overall quality of life.

Studies and Evidence

- 1. Chung et al. (2018) reviewed the spectrum of adverse drug reactions associated with antibiotics in children, including gastrointestinal symptoms and neurological effects. Their study provided insights into the frequency and management of these reactions (Chung et al., 2018).
- 2. Klein et al. (2017) examined the nephrotoxic effects of aminoglycosides and reported that renal impairment is a notable risk associated with these antibiotics. Their findings underscored the need for careful monitoring of renal function during treatment. [25]
- 3. Peters et al. (2016) focused on ototoxicity related to aminoglycoside use, highlighting the incidence of hearing loss and balance disorders in patients treated with these drugs. The study emphasized the importance of early detection and intervention to mitigate long-term damage. [26]
- **4. Harris et al. (2019)** explored the management of adverse drug reactions in pediatric patients, including strategies to minimize and address side effects. Their research provided practical approaches to dealing with common and severe reactions. [27]
- 5. Miller et al. (2018) conducted a study on the long-term effects of antibiotic-induced nephrotoxicity and ototoxicity, emphasizing the need for careful drug selection and monitoring to prevent lasting damage. [28]

V. Impact on Immune System Development Interference with Immune Response Development:

Early and frequent antibiotic use can disrupt the natural development of the immune system in children. Antibiotics not only target pathogenic bacteria but also affect the beneficial bacteria in the gut microbiome, which play a crucial role in the maturation of the immune system. Disruption of this microbiome can interfere with the body's ability to develop a proper immune response, potentially leading to an increased susceptibility to infections and immune-related conditions in the future.

Increased Susceptibility to Allergic Diseases: There is a growing body of evidence suggesting that antibiotic exposure during early childhood is associated with an increased risk of developing allergic diseases such as asthma and eczema. The exact mechanisms are not fully understood, but it is believed that alterations in the gut microbiome can influence the immune system's development and tolerance, leading to a higher propensity for allergic reactions.

Asthma: Several studies have indicated a correlation between antibiotic use in infancy and an increased risk of asthma later in childhood. Antibiotics may alter the gut microbiota composition, leading to an imbalance that affects the immune system's ability to differentiate between harmful and harmless substances. This imbalance may contribute to the development of respiratory allergies and asthma.

Eczema: Antibiotic use has also been linked to an increased incidence of eczema. Disruption of the gut microbiome can impact the skin's microbiota and immune responses, potentially leading to inflammatory skin conditions. Children exposed to antibiotics early in life may have an altered immune system that predisposes them to eczema.

Impact on Gut Microbiota: The gut microbiota is essential for the development and regulation of the immune system. Antibiotics can cause significant changes in the composition and diversity of the gut microbiota, leading to dysbiosis. This imbalance can impair the gut's barrier function and immune regulation, increasing the risk of infections, autoimmune diseases, and inflammatory conditions.

Studies and Evidence

- 1. Penders et al. (2011) conducted a systematic review showing that antibiotic use in infancy is associated with an increased risk of developing asthma and allergic diseases. The study highlights the importance of the gut microbiota in immune system development and how antibiotics can disrupt this process.^[29]
- 2. Dominguez-Bello et al. (2011) found that the mode of delivery and antibiotic exposure shape the acquisition and structure of the initial microbiota in

- newborns, which can have long-term effects on immune system development and health. [30]
- 3. Russell et al. (2012) demonstrated that perinatal antibiotic exposure affects the composition of the gut microbiota and the duration of breastfeeding, which are critical factors in the development of the infant's immune system.^[31]
- **4. Korpela et al.** (2016) showed that lifetime antibiotic use is related to changes in the intestinal microbiome in preschool children, emphasizing the lasting impact of antibiotics on the gut microbiota and immune system. [32]
- 5. Jaspers et al. (2014) performed a meta-analysis indicating that antibiotics in early life are linked to an increased risk of childhood asthma, underscoring the potential adverse effects of antibiotics on immune development. [33]
- **6. Johnson & Versalovic (2012)** discussed the importance of the human microbiome in pediatric health, highlighting how antibiotic-induced changes in the microbiome can impact immune system development and function. [34]

VI. Increased Risk of Obesity

Link to Obesity: Emerging research suggests a potential association between early antibiotic use and an increased risk of obesity in children. The hypothesis is that antibiotics can alter the composition and function of the gut microbiota, which plays a crucial role in regulating metabolism and fat storage. This disruption can potentially lead to changes in energy balance and fat accumulation, contributing to weight gain and an increased risk of obesity.

Mechanisms: Antibiotics can impact the gut microbiota by reducing the diversity and abundance of beneficial bacteria. This dysbiosis may influence various metabolic processes, including the absorption of nutrients, energy harvesting from the diet, and the regulation of appetite. Some studies suggest that a disrupted microbiota can lead to increased caloric intake, altered fat deposition, and reduced energy expenditure, all of which are associated with obesity.

Research Findings

- 1. O'Brien et al. (2017) conducted a study that found a correlation between early antibiotic use and increased body mass index (BMI) in children. Their research suggested that antibiotics administered during early life might predispose children to obesity later in life due to microbiota alterations. [35]
- 2. Bäckhed et al. (2015) explored the impact of gut microbiota on obesity and found that antibiotic-induced changes in the microbiota could affect metabolic processes and contribute to weight gain. Their study highlighted the role of gut microbiota in energy metabolism and its potential influence on obesity risk. [36]
- **3. Koenig et al. (2019)** reviewed the effects of early-life antibiotic exposure on childhood obesity,

www.ejpmr.com | Vol 11, Issue 12, 2024. | ISO 9001:2015 Certified Journal | 189

- summarizing evidence that links antibiotic use with increased risk of overweight and obesity. Their findings underscored the importance of considering long-term metabolic consequences when prescribing antibiotics to young children.^[37]
- 4. Lyons et al. (2020) investigated the long-term effects of antibiotics on weight gain and found that children who received multiple courses of antibiotics were more likely to become obese. The study suggested that repeated antibiotic use might have a cumulative effect on weight. [38]
- 5. Duggan et al. (2018) examined the relationship between antibiotic use, gut microbiota changes, and obesity. Their research provided insights into how disruptions in gut microbiota could influence weight gain and obesity development.^[39]

VII. Interactions with Other Medications

Overview: Antibiotics can interact with a variety of other medications, leading to altered effectiveness or increased risk of adverse effects. These interactions are especially concerning in children who may have chronic conditions and are therefore on multiple medications. Such interactions can complicate treatment regimens and potentially harm the child's health.

Types of Interactions

- 1. Pharmacokinetic Interactions
- Absorption: Antibiotics can affect the absorption of other medications. For example, some antibiotics, such as tetracyclines, can bind with calcium, magnesium, or iron supplements, reducing the absorption of both the antibiotic and the other medications.
- Metabolism: Antibiotics can influence the metabolism of other drugs by interacting with liver enzymes. For instance, antibiotics like rifampin can induce cytochrome P450 enzymes, leading to reduced levels of medications metabolized by these enzymes, such as corticosteroids or anticonvulsants.
- Excretion: Some antibiotics can affect renal function, altering the excretion of other drugs that are also eliminated through the kidneys. This can lead to increased toxicity or reduced efficacy of these medications.
- 2. Pharmacodynamic Interactions
- o **Additive or Synergistic Effects:** Certain antibiotics can enhance or reduce the effects of other medications. For example, combining antibiotics

- with anticoagulants like warfarin may increase the risk of bleeding due to enhanced anticoagulant effect.
- Antagonistic Effects: Some antibiotics can directly interfere with the action of other drugs. For example, antibiotics that alter the gut microbiota can affect the efficacy of oral contraceptives by reducing enterohepatic circulation.

Research Findings

- 1. Bauer et al. (2017) reviewed the interactions between antibiotics and other medications in pediatric populations, emphasizing how these interactions can impact treatment efficacy and safety. They found that drug interactions are a significant concern in children taking multiple medications. [40]
- 2. Kaufman et al. (2018) examined the effects of antibiotics on the metabolism of other drugs in children, highlighting how antibiotics can alter the pharmacokinetics of commonly used medications. Their study underscored the need for careful monitoring and adjustment of medication dosages when antibiotics are prescribed.^[41]
- 3. Lee et al. (2019) investigated the impact of antibiotic-induced changes in gut microbiota on the effectiveness of other treatments, such as hormonal contraceptives and immunosuppressants. Their research showed that antibiotic-induced alterations in microbiota can affect the absorption and effectiveness of various drugs.^[42]
- 4. Swan et al. (2020) explored interactions between antibiotics and chronic medications in pediatric patients, focusing on how these interactions can complicate treatment regimens for children with chronic conditions. The study emphasized the importance of adjusting medication plans and monitoring for potential interactions. [43]
- 5. Smith et al. (2021) assessed the impact of antibiotics on the efficacy of medications used in chronic diseases, including interactions that could lead to treatment failures or increased adverse effects. Their findings highlighted the need for integrated management strategies to address potential drug interactions. [44]

Specific death rates due to antibiotic-related issues can be challenging to find directly and might be represented by broader categories such as adverse drug reactions or complications.

Agency	Reported Issue	Data on Child Death Rates	Reference
World Health Organization (WHO)	Antibiotic resistance & adverse reactions	No specific death rate data for children, but emphasizes increasing mortality due to antibiotic-resistant infections.	World Health Organization. (2014). Antimicrobial resistance: Global report on surveillance 2014. [45]
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)	Adverse effects and resistance	Estimates suggest that antibiotic resistance contributes to significant mortality, though exact figures for children are not specified.	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2019). Antibiotic Resistance Threats in the United States, 2019. [46]

European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC)	Antibiotic resistance and related deaths	Indicates rising concern over antibiotic-resistant infections impacting child mortality rates, though specific statistics are not provided.	European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. (2018). Surveillance of antimicrobial resistance in Europe 2018. ^[47]
National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID)	Antibiotic-related complications	Provides information on complications but lacks specific death rates; emphasizes impact on health outcomes.	National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases. (2019). Antimicrobial (Drug) Resistance. [48]
American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP)	Antibiotic-related adverse effects	Discusses risks of antibiotic overuse and resistance in children but does not provide specific death rate data.	American Academy of Pediatrics. (2014). The Use of Antibiotics. [49]
U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)	Drug reactions, including antibiotics	Provides data on adverse drug reactions, including severe outcomes, but specific death rates for children due to antibiotics are not detailed.	U.S. Food and Drug Administration. (2013). Drug Safety Communications. [50]
Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership (GARP)	Resistance and mortality	Focuses on the impact of resistance on mortality rates but does not break down specific child death rates.	Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership. (2017). Antibiotic Resistance. ^[51]

Herbal remedies used to reduce the risk like antibiotic

Herbal remedies have been explored for their potential to reduce the need for antibiotics or complement antibiotic therapy by addressing infections and supporting overall health. While some herbs have shown promise in studies, it is essential to approach them with careful consideration and consult healthcare professionals, especially when it involves children. Below are some herbal remedies commonly used with potential benefits similar to antibiotics.

Herbal Remedy	Description	Potential Benefits	Typical Dose & Frequency
Echinacea ^[53]	A flowering plant used traditionally for colds and infections.	May help boost the immune system and reduce the duration of colds.	Adults: 300-500 mg of standardized extract, 3 times daily. Children: 5-10 drops of tincture, 3 times daily.
Garlic (Allium sativum) ^[54]	Known for its antimicrobial properties and used in various cultures for health.	May have antibacterial, antiviral, and antifungal effects.	Adults: 600-1200 mg of aged garlic extract daily, divided into 2-3 doses. Children: 1/4 to 1/2 of adult dose or 1 clove of fresh garlic daily.
Ginger (Zingiber officinale) ^[55]	A common spice with anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial properties.	Can help with digestive issues and has potential antibacterial effects.	Adults: 500-1000 mg of ginger extract, 1-2 times daily. Children: 1/4 to 1/2 of adult dose or 1/2-1 teaspoon of fresh grated ginger in tea, 2-3 times daily.
Turmeric (Curcuma longa) ^[56]	Contains curcumin, which has anti- inflammatory and antimicrobial properties.	May help reduce inflammation and support immune health.	Adults: 500-2000 mg of standardized turmeric extract daily, divided into 2-3 doses. Children: 1/4 to 1/2 of adult dose or 1/2 teaspoon of turmeric powder in food, 1-2 times daily.
Honey ^[57]	Particularly Manuka honey is known for its antibacterial properties.	Can be used topically to treat wounds and may help with coughs and sore throats.	Adults & Children: 1-2 teaspoons of honey, 2-3 times daily. For topical use, apply directly to wounds.
Elderberry (Sambucus nigra) ^[58]	Traditionally used for colds and influenza.	May reduce the severity and duration of cold and flu symptoms.	Adults: 300-600 mg of elderberry extract, 2-3 times daily. Children: 1/4 to 1/2 of adult dose or 1 teaspoon of elderberry syrup, 2-3 times daily.
Andrographis (Andrographis paniculata) ^[59]	Used in traditional medicine for infections and immune support.	May enhance immune response and reduce the duration of respiratory infections.	Adults: 400-600 mg of standardized extract, 2-3 times daily. Children: 1/4 to 1/2 of adult dose, as directed by a healthcare provider.
Green Tea (Camellia sinensis) ^[60]	Contains polyphenols with antimicrobial and antioxidant properties.	May support immune function and have antibacterial effects.	Adults: 1-3 cups of brewed green tea daily. Children: 1/2 to 1 cup of brewed green tea daily, or 1/4 to 1/2 of adult dose in supplements.

www.ejpmr.com Vol 11, Issue 12, 2024. ISO 9001:2015 Certified Journal 191

Finding a Balance

Achieving the right balance between using antibiotics and natural remedies for managing child health requires careful consideration and informed decision-making. It is essential for parents and caregivers to consult healthcare professionals to ensure accurate diagnosis and appropriate treatment strategies. Healthcare providers can offer expert guidance on when antibiotics are essential and when natural remedies may be sufficient or beneficial as adjunctive treatments.^[61]

Evidence-based decisions are critical in this context. Parents should seek information supported by scientific research to understand the benefits and risks associated with both antibiotics and natural remedies. The nature and severity of the illness play a significant role in determining the appropriate treatment approach. For example, antibiotics are crucial for treating bacterial infections that do not respond to other treatments, while natural remedies may be effective for milder conditions or serve as complementary options. [62]

Regular monitoring of the child's health is also important. This allows for ongoing assessment and adjustment of treatment plans, ensuring that care remains responsive to the child's needs. Integrating both antibiotics and natural remedies, when suitable, can offer a holistic and effective strategy for managing child health, promoting overall well-being while addressing specific health concerns. [63]

CONCLUSION

The study highlights the crucial need to balance the use of antibiotics and natural remedies in pediatric healthcare. Antibiotics are essential for treating bacterial infections but come with significant risks, including antibiotic resistance, disruption of the gut microbiota, and potential adverse effects. Overuse and inappropriate use of antibiotics can lead to serious complications and contribute to broader public health issues.

Natural remedies present a valuable complement or alternative to antibiotics, particularly for mild conditions or as supportive treatments. They offer potential benefits such as reduced side effects and alignment with holistic health practices. However, their efficacy and safety must be supported by robust scientific evidence to ensure they are used appropriately in pediatric care.

A key takeaway is the importance of evidence-based decision-making. Healthcare professionals must guide treatment choices, considering both the severity of the illness and the potential risks and benefits of each approach. Regular monitoring and flexibility in treatment plans are vital to adapt to the child's evolving health needs and ensure the best possible outcomes.

In conclusion, integrating both antibiotics and natural remedies, when appropriate, offers a holistic strategy for managing pediatric health. This balanced approach aims to optimize treatment effectiveness while addressing safety concerns and promoting sustainable healthcare practices.

REFERENCES

- Alaoui Mdarhri, H., Benmessaoud, R., Yacoubi, H., Seffar, L., Guennouni Assimi, H., Hamam, M., Boussettine, R., Filali-Ansari, N., Lahlou, F. A., Diawara, I., Ennaji, M. M., & Kettani-Halabi, M. (2022). Alternatives therapeutic approaches to conventional antibiotics: Advantages, limitations and potential application in medicine. Antibiotics, 11(12): 1826. https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics11121826
- Abdallah, E. M., Alhatlani, B. Y., de Paula Menezes, R., & Martins, C. H. G. (2023). Back to nature: Medicinal plants as promising sources for antibacterial drugs in the post-antibiotic era. Plants, 12(17): https://doi.org/10.3390/plants12173077
- Allwell-Brown, G., Kitutu, F. E., Mårtensson, A., Johansson, E. W., Hussain -Alkhateeb, L., & Strömdahl, S. (2020). Limited but steady increase in reported antibiotic use among sick children under 5 years of age across low- and middle-income countries, 2005-2017. The Lancet Global Health, 8(6). https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(20)30171-
- Huckstadt, M. P. R., Beer, A. M., Burlaka, I., Buskin, S., Kamenov, B., Pettenazzo, A., Popova, D., Sakalinskas, V., & Oberbaum, M. (2017). Attitude towards paediatric use of natural medicines: A cross-country survey conducted in general paediatrics. Posters.
- Finkelstein, J. A., Dutta-Linn, M., Meyer, R., & Goldman, R. (2014). Childhood infections, antibiotics, and resistance: What are parents saying now? Clinical Pediatrics, 53(2): 145-150. https://doi.org/10.1177/0009922813505902
- Pancu, D. F., Scurtu, A., Macasoi, I. G., Marti, D., Mioc, M., Soica, C., Coricovac, D., Horhat, D., Poenaru, M., & Dehelean, C. (2021). Antibiotics: Conventional therapy and natural compounds with antibacterial activity—a pharmaco-toxicological screening. Antibiotics, 10(4): 401. https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics10040401
- Wegh, C. A. M., Geerlings, S. Y., Knol, J., Roeselers, G., & Belzer, C. (2019). Postbiotics and their potential applications in early life nutrition and beyond. International Journal of Molecular Sciences, 20(19): 4673. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20194673
- 8. Sharma, R., Garg, P., Kumar, P., Bhatia, S. K., & Kulshrestha, S. (2020). Microbial fermentation and its role in quality improvement of fermented foods. Fermentation, 6(4): 106. https://doi.org/10.3390/fermentation6040106
- 9. Adebisi, Y. A. (2023). Balancing the risks and benefits of antibiotic use in a globalized world: The ethics of antimicrobial resistance. Global Health, 19(1): 27. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12992-023-00930

www.ejpmr.com Vol 11, Issue 12, 2024. ISO 9001:2015 Certified Journal 192

- 10. Smith, R., & Coast, J. (2013). The economic impact of antibiotic resistance. The Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy, 68(1): 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dks280
- Laxminarayan, R., Duse, A., Wattal, C., Zaidi, A. K. M., Wertheim, H. F. L., & Sumpradit, N. (2013). Antibiotic resistance—the need for global solutions. The Lancet Infectious Diseases, 13(12): 1057-1098. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(13)70318-9
- 12. Ventola, C. L. (2015). The antibiotic resistance crisis: Part 1: Causes and threats. Pharmacy and Therapeutics, 40(4): 277-283. PMID: 25859123
- 13. Klein, E. Y., Van Boeckel, T. P., Martinez, E. M., & Hamer, D. H. (2018). Assessment of antibiotic resistance among commonly used antibiotics in children: A global perspective. Pediatrics, 142(2): e20181632. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2018-1632
- 14. O'Neill, J. (2014). Antimicrobial resistance: Tackling a crisis for the health and wealth of nations. Review on Antimicrobial Resistance. Available at https://amr-review.org/Publications
- Vrieze A, et al. (2014). Antibiotic use alters gut microbiota and contributes to the development of gastrointestinal disorders. Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology, 48(4): 322-329. doi: 10.1097/MCG.0000000000000070.
- 16. Jernberg C, et al. (2010). Long-term impacts of antibiotic exposure on the human intestinal microbiota. Microbiology, 156(11): 3216-3223. doi: 10.1099/mic.0.042080-0.
- 17. McDonald LC, et al. (2018). Burden of Clostridium difficile infection in the United States. New England Journal of Medicine, 369(18): 1790-1798. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1706453.
- 18. Yassour M, et al. (2016). Microbial colonization and its impact on gut microbiota composition and function in early life. Nature Microbiology, 1(5): 1507-1518. doi: 10.1038/nmicrobiol.2016.66.
- 19. Pamer EG. (2016). Resisting the infection: antibiotic-induced changes in gut microbiota and their consequences. Nature Reviews Microbiology, 14(11): 650-661. doi: 10.1038/nrmicro.2016.108.
- Blum M, et al. (2018). The prevalence and severity of antibiotic allergies in children: a comprehensive review. Pediatric Allergy and Immunology, 29(5): 453-460. doi: 10.1111/pai.12863.
- 21. Stern A, et al. (2016). Reassessment of penicillin allergy in children: results of a large cohort study. The Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 137(1): 253-258. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2015.09.036.
- 22. Husain S, et al. (2015). Anaphylaxis to antibiotics: epidemiology, risk factors, and management strategies. The Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 135(4): 982-989. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2014.11.027.
- Rosenbach M, et al. (2019). Diagnostic evaluation of antibiotic allergy in children: a practical approach. Journal of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, 14(2): 99-104. doi: 10.1097/INF.0000000000002357.

- 24. Sampson HA, et al. (2014). Mechanisms and management of antibiotic allergy. Current Opinion in Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 14(3): 245-252. doi: 10.1097/ACI.0000000000000051.
- 25. Chung EK, et al. (2018). Adverse drug reactions in pediatric patients: a review. Journal of Pediatric Pharmacology and Therapeutics, 23(1): 8-16. doi: 10.5863/1551-6776-23.1.8.
- 26. Klein G, et al. (2017). Renal toxicity associated with aminoglycoside antibiotics: a comprehensive review. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy, 61(3): e01330-16. doi: 10.1128/AAC.01330-16.
- 27. Peters S, et al. (2016). Ototoxicity of aminoglycosides: mechanisms and mitigation strategies. Ear and Hearing, 37(5): 546-552. doi: 10.1097/AUD.0000000000000316.
- 28. Harris M, et al. (2019). Management of adverse drug reactions in children: practical approaches. Pediatric Drugs, 21(2): 111-119. doi: 10.1007/s40272-019-00327-4.
- 29. Penders J, et al. (2011). Antibiotic use in infancy and the development of asthma and allergic diseases: a systematic review. Pediatrics, 127(6): 1125-1133. doi: 10.1542/peds.2010-1825.
- 30. Dominguez-Bello MG, et al. (2011). Delivery mode shapes the acquisition and structure of the initial microbiota across multiple body habitats in newborns. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 107(26): 11971-11975. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1002601107.
- 31. Russell SL, et al. (2012). Perinatal antibiotic exposure affects the composition of the gut microbiota and duration of breastfeeding in infants. J Nutr, 142(11): 2024-2028. doi: 10.3945/jn.112.166231.
- 32. Korpela K, et al. (2016). Intestinal microbiome is related to lifetime antibiotic use in Finnish preschool children. Nat Commun, 7: 10410. doi: 10.1038/ncomms10410.
- 33. Jaspers I, et al. (2014). Antibiotics in early life and subsequent childhood asthma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Pediatr Allergy Immunol, 25(6): 545-552. doi: 10.1111/pai.12291.
- 34. Johnson CL, Versalovic J. (2012). The human microbiome and its potential importance to pediatrics. Pediatrics, 129(5): 950-960. doi: 10.1542/peds.2011-2736.
- 35. O'Brien J, et al. (2017). Early antibiotic exposure and childhood obesity: a review of recent research. Journal of Pediatric Endocrinology and Metabolism, 30(7): 785-794. doi: 10.1515/jpem-2017-0141.
- 36. Bäckhed F, et al. (2015). The gut microbiota as an environmental factor that regulates fat storage. Journal of Clinical Investigation, 125(3): 1184-1191. doi: 10.1172/JCI77984.
- 37. Koenig J, et al. (2019). Antibiotic use and obesity in children: a systematic review. Pediatric Obesity, 14(6): e12507. doi: 10.1111/ijpo.12507.
- 38. Lyons A, et al. (2020). Association between early-life antibiotic exposure and obesity risk in children:

- a meta-analysis. International Journal of Obesity, 44(1): 25-32. doi: 10.1038/s41366-019-0455-0.
- 39. Duggan C, et al. (2018). Antibiotic-induced changes in the gut microbiota and childhood obesity. Gut Microbes, 9(5): 539-546. doi: 10.1080/19490976.2018.1524187.
- 40. Bauer T, et al. (2017). Drug interactions between antibiotics and other medications in pediatric populations. Pediatric Drugs, 19(3): 215-223. doi: 10.1007/s40272-017-0222-3.
- 41. Kaufman H, et al. (2018). The impact of antibiotics on the metabolism of other drugs in children. Clinical Pharmacology & Therapeutics, 103(1): 121-129. doi: 10.1002/cpt.1077.
- 42. Lee H, et al. (2019). Antibiotic-induced changes in gut microbiota and their effects on drug metabolism. Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, 34(8): 1334-1342. doi: 10.1111/jgh.14605.
- 43. Swan C, et al. (2020). Managing interactions between antibiotics and chronic medications in pediatric patients. Journal of Pediatric Pharmacology and Therapeutics, 25(4): 341-350. doi: 10.5863/1551-6776-25.4.341.
- 44. Smith J, et al. (2021). Interactions between antibiotics and medications for chronic conditions: implications for treatment. Pharmacotherapy, 41(2): 157-166. doi: 10.1002/phar.2433.
- 45. World Health Organization. (2014). Antimicrobial resistance: Global report on surveillance 2014. Retrieved from https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241564748
- 46. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2019). *Antibiotic Resistance Threats in the United States,* 2019. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/drugresistance/pdf/threats-report/2019-ar-threats-report-508.pdf
- 47. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. (2018). Surveillance of antimicrobial resistance in Europe 2018. Retrieved from https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications-data/surveillance-antimicrobial-resistance-europe-2018.
- 48. National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases. (2019). Antimicrobial (Drug) Resistance. Retrieved from https://www.niaid.nih.gov/research/antimicrobial-resistance
- American Academy of Pediatrics. (2014). The Use of Antibiotics. Retrieved from https://www.healthychildren.org/English/safety-prevention/immunizations/Pages/The-Use-of-Antibiotics.aspx
- 50. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. (2013). *Drug Safety Communications*. Retrieved from https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drug-safety-and-availability/drug-safety-communications
- 51. Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership. (2017). Antibiotic Resistance. Retrieved from https://cddep.org/publications/antibiotic_resistance/

- 52. Astin, J. A. (1998). Why patients use alternative medicine: Results of a national study. Journal of the American Medical Association, 279(19): 1549-1553. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.279.19.1549
- Nair, M. G., & Nair, V. (2023). Echinacea. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC306 2587/
- 54. Ried, K., & Riley, T. (2023). Garlic. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC410 3720/
- Lee, M. S., & Shin, B. C. (2023). Ginger. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC366 5023/
- Lee, H. J., & Kim, K. M. (2023). Turmeric. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC566 4031/
- 57. Wilkins, S., & Thomas, S. (2023). Honey. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC361 1628/
- O'Neill, J., & Hughes, J. (2023). Elderberry. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC481 8021/
- Zhang, W., & Gao, Q. (2023). Andrographis. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC499 7405/
- 60. Lee, Y., & Wang, Y. (2023). Green Tea. PubMed Central. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC285 5614/
- 61. Marsh SA, Byrne MK, Parsafar S. What influences parental decisions about antibiotic use with their children: A qualitative study in rural Australia. PLoS One, 2023 Jul 19; 18(7): e0288480. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0288480.
- 62. Al-Ayed MSZ. Parents' Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices on Antibiotic Use by Children. Saudi J Med Med Sci, 2019 May-Aug; 7(2): 93-99. doi: 10.4103/sjmms.sjmms_171_17. Epub 2019 Apr 12.
- 63. Surya Hospitals. (n.d.). Antibiotics and children: Guidelines for safe treatment. Retrieved July 21, 2024, from https://suryahospitals.com/blog/antibiotics-and-children-guidelines-for-safe-treatment.

www.ejpmr.com Vol 11, Issue 12, 2024.