

1 Probiotics for the prevention of antibiotic-associated adverse
2 events in children – a systematic review to inform
3 development of a core outcome set
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5 Jan Łukasik^{1*}, Qin Guo², Leah Boulos³, Hania Szajewska¹, Bradley C. Johnston⁴

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7 ¹Medical University of Warsaw, Department of Pediatrics, Warsaw, Poland

8 ²West China Second University Hospital, Department of Pediatrics, Chengdu, China,

9 ³Maritime SPOR SUPPORT Unit, Halifax, Canada

10 ⁴Dalhousie University, Department of Community Health and Epidemiology, Halifax, Canada

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12 *Corresponding author

13 E-mail: jan.lukasik@wum.edu.pl (JL)

14 **Abstract**

15

16 **Introduction:** Routine use of probiotics during antibiotic therapy in children remains a
17 subject of discussion. To facilitate synthesis of individual study results and guideline
18 formulation, it is important to assess predefined, similar, and clinically important outcomes.
19 Core outcome sets are a proposed solution for this issue. Aim of this review was to document
20 choice, design, and heterogeneity of outcomes in studies that assessed the effects of probiotics
21 used for the prevention of antibiotic-associated adverse events in children. **Methods:** A
22 systematic literature search covering three major databases was performed. Trials that evaluated
23 oral probiotics' use concomitant with antibiotic therapy in children were included. Data on
24 outcome definitions, measurement instruments, and follow-up were extracted. The outcomes
25 were assigned to predefined core areas and domains. Data were analyzed descriptively. **Results:**
26 Thirty-six trials were included in this review. Diarrhea, the most commonly reported outcome,
27 had diagnostic criteria clearly defined only in 20 trials. In total, sixteen different definitions of
28 diarrhea were identified. Diarrhea duration, severity and etiology were reported in 8, 4 and 6
29 studies, respectively. Nineteen studies assessed gastrointestinal symptoms other than diarrhea.
30 Seven studies reported outcomes related to resource use or the economic impact of the
31 intervention. Only 2 studies assessed outcomes related to life impact. None of the studies
32 predefined adverse events of probiotic use. **Conclusions:** Identified outcomes were
33 characterized by substantial heterogeneity. Majority of outcomes were not designed to evaluate
34 endpoints of real-life relevance. Results from this review suggest the need for a new core
35 outcome set consisting of outcomes important for decision-making.

36 **Introduction**

37 The human gastrointestinal tract is colonized by hundreds of different microorganisms,
38 which together form the gut microbiota (1, 2). Use of antibiotics is one of the factors known to
39 alter the microbiota composition, which in turn may have an effect on an individual's health.
40 Typical adverse events associated with antibiotic use include various gastrointestinal symptoms
41 such as diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, and abdominal pain (3). Among them, antibiotic-associated
42 diarrhea (AAD), often defined as 'diarrhea that occurs in relation to antibiotic treatment with
43 the exclusion of other etiologies' (4), is the best documented.

44 Over 30 randomized controlled trials (RCTs), mostly with probiotics as an intervention,
45 have been performed to assess the prophylactic strategies for AAD in children (5). In the largest
46 observational study of 650 children published in 2003, the estimated AAD incidence in the
47 pediatric outpatient population was 11% (6). On the other hand, in a recent (2019) Cochrane
48 review (5), the incidence of AAD varied greatly from study to study, ranging from 2% (7) to
49 80% (8). In addition to estimates sometimes being derived from very small underpowered
50 studies (8-11), one of the factors responsible for this heterogeneity in reported incidences could
51 be the definition of AAD adopted by authors of different RCTs and the methods used for
52 measurement of this outcome. Among others, AAD diagnostic criteria vary between the studies
53 in the terms of stool frequency, time from the start of antibiotic therapy, and microbiological
54 methods, if any, used to exclude other etiologies of diarrhea.

55 Other potential effects of early-life microbiota alterations include later-life
56 consequences such as obesity (12), allergies (13), autoimmune disorders (14), and
57 neurodevelopmental abnormalities (15). The long-term health impact of probiotics and
58 antibiotics administered during infancy has been evaluated in some RCTs (16, 17), but this
59 outcome is not a part of a routine trial design.

60 According to the 2016 European Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology,
61 and Nutrition (ESPGHAN) guidelines, some probiotic strains may be effective in AAD
62 prevention (4). Consistent with this, a 2019 Cochrane systematic review of 33 studies concluded
63 that there is a moderate protective effect of probiotics for preventing AAD (5). Still, this use of
64 probiotics is the subject of a lasting discussion due to their cost, and the fact that AAD is usually
65 a mild and self-limiting disease (18). To draw practical conclusions from RCTs, it is important
66 to assess AAD severity and its impact on the patient's everyday life, including global
67 assessment and health-related quality of life, with agreed-upon definitions and outcomes.
68 However, a 2010 systematic review of outcomes used in trials of pediatric acute diarrhea
69 revealed substantial heterogeneity in both the definitions of and the measurement methods for
70 diarrhea (19). Similarly, in the 2019 Cochrane systematic review, the criteria for defining the
71 incidence of diarrhea according to each primary investigator's definition varied widely among
72 the studies (5). Differences in reported definitions, outcomes, and their measurement methods
73 between studies may lead to difficulties in synthesizing results and hinder the process of
74 guideline formulation. Standard definitions for main outcomes are a possible solution to these
75 issues, and systematic reviews addressing the choice of outcomes in already performed studies
76 are one of the first steps in the process of designing a core outcome set (COS) (20). In 2016, a
77 document by the Consensus Group on Outcome Measures Made in Pediatric Enteral Nutrition
78 Clinical Trials (COMMENT) was published, proposing core outcomes for future use in RCTs
79 evaluating therapeutic and preventive strategies for acute gastroenteritis (21). However, authors
80 of this document did not include any statements regarding outcomes specific for AAD. Also,
81 no core outcome set to date has been proposed for use in trials in which probiotics are
82 administered concurrently with antibiotic therapy.

83 Our primary aim was to systematically document the definitions of AAD, as well as all
84 of the methods used to measure and describe this outcome, in studies that assessed the effect(s)

85 of probiotics used for AAD prevention. Additionally, we aimed to document any other
86 outcomes reported in studies on probiotic use during antibiotic therapy, provided that they were
87 used to examine probiotics' effect(s) in the prevention of antibiotic-associated adverse events.

88

89 **Methods**

90 **Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria for the Review**

91 Studies that evaluated oral probiotics' potential to prevent adverse events associated
92 with antibiotic therapy were eligible for inclusion in this review. Eligible studies could be
93 RCTs, non-randomized trials (NRTs), or observational studies (e.g., cohort studies, case-
94 control studies) and had to be conducted in a population of children up to 18 years of age.
95 Among the studies conducted in mixed populations of children and adults, only those that
96 reported separate data for a subgroup of children were included. Furthermore, only studies
97 published in English were included.

98 Studies that reported only laboratory outcomes (e.g., only stool microbiota composition)
99 were not included in this review. Since the main focus of this review was the prevention of
100 AAD, studies on probiotics used concurrently with antibiotics in the treatment of *Clostridium*
101 *difficile*-associated diarrhea or other types of diarrhea were excluded. Additionally, studies
102 conducted exclusively in premature infants and in critically ill children hospitalized in intensive
103 care units were also not included, because the characteristics of these populations and the goals
104 of probiotic use differ greatly from those in the general population.

105

106 **Search methods**

107 A systematic search was performed from inception to October 23, 2018 in three major
108 databases (MEDLINE, Embase, and CENTRAL). The search strategy was developed by an

109 information specialist and included controlled vocabulary and keywords related to 'antibiotic'
110 and 'probiotic' terms. The full search strategy for the MEDLINE database is available in S1
111 Table. Additionally, references of relevant review articles were manually searched.

112

113 **Selection of studies**

114 JL screened the search results and identified abstracts of potentially eligible articles.
115 After abstract screening, full articles were acquired and independently evaluated for eligibility
116 by JL and QG. Any disagreements concerning eligibility were resolved by discussion between
117 the authors, and if needed, with a senior researcher.

118

119 **Data extraction**

120 The data from the included studies were extracted using an abstraction form developed
121 specifically for this review. Extracted data included standard characteristics of studies (author,
122 publication year, country, study type and setting, age and number of participants, indication for
123 antibiotic treatment, type of antibiotics, investigated probiotic, and type of control group) and
124 data specific to the outcomes. Each identified outcome was assigned to one of 4 core areas:
125 “life impact”, “resource use”, “pathophysiological manifestations” or “death”, in accordance
126 with the OMERACT Filter 2.0 (22). Specific outcomes were also assigned to one of the
127 predefined outcome domains included within the core areas. In case of identification of an
128 outcome not falling into any of the predefined domains, a new domain was created. An
129 explanation of the outcome-related taxonomy used in the article is presented in Table 1. The
130 data extraction and assignment of the outcomes to the core areas and domains were done
131 independently by JL and QG, and any differences in opinion were resolved by discussion. The
132 data extracted for each identified outcome included: outcome name in accordance with the

133 terminology used in the original publication, outcome characteristics (e.g., incidence, duration,
 134 severity, primary/secondary outcome), outcome definition, outcome measurement instruments,

Term	Definition	Examples
Core area	An aspect of health or a health condition that needs to be measured to appropriately assess the effects of a health intervention. Core Areas are broad concepts consisting of a number of more specific concepts called domains.	Pathophysiological manifestations, life impact, resource use/economic impact
Outcome domain	An aspect of the effect of illness, categorized within the core area, but still relatively broad.	Diarrhea, gastrointestinal symptoms, absenteeism, need for additional medical procedures.
Outcome	Any identified result in a domain arising from exposure to a causal factor or a health intervention.	Diarrhea incidence, number of school absence days, need for intravenous rehydration.
Outcome measurement	A tool chosen to assess the outcome.	Visual stool form scale, symptom questionnaire,

135 and follow-up. The outcome was considered as primary if either: 1) the authors of the original
 136 study declared it as such, or 2) a sample size calculation was performed for this specific
 137 outcome. The data for purely biochemical or microbiological outcomes (e.g., microbiota
 138 composition) were not extracted, because their documentation and evaluation would require an
 139 entirely different methodological approach.

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instrument		immunoassay tests for rotavirus detection.
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141 **Table 1. Definitions of the terminology used in the article, in accordance with OMERACT**
142 **definitions²²**

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144 **Assessment of risk of bias in the included studies**

145 Risk of bias (RoB) assessment is not a mandatory part of systematic reviews of
146 outcomes (20); however, we decided to present it for informative purposes. The Cochrane
147 Collaboration's Tool for Assessing Risk of Bias (23) was used for RCTs and non-randomized
148 trials. Wherever possible, we present the RoB assessment derived from the recent Cochrane
149 review (5). For the remaining studies, the RoB assessment was performed by JL.

150

151 **Data analysis**

152 Data on the identified outcomes are presented in numbers and percentages and analysed
153 descriptively. Since this review aims to document the methods of outcome measurement and
154 reporting, no analysis of the treatment effects was performed.

155

156 **Results**

157 **Search results and overall characteristics**

158 In total, we identified 4251 records by the database search and additional 369 records
159 from the review articles' references. After exclusion of duplicates and title and abstract
160 screening, full texts of 80 articles were assessed for eligibility. After full-text assessment, 36
161 articles ultimately met the inclusion criteria for this review(7-11, 24-54). The flow diagram of

162 the study selection process is presented in Fig 1. Reasons for exclusion of the specific studies
163 are presented in S2 Table.

164 **Fig 1. Flow chart diagram**

165 Among the included studies, 32 (89%) were RCTs, and the remaining 4 were NRTs.
166 The total number of participants was 5506, ranging from 18 to 653 children in individual trials.
167 Ten trials were conducted in the inpatient setting, 14 in the outpatient setting, 5 in the mixed
168 setting, and 1 in an unclear setting. Additionally, in 6 trials on *H. pylori* treatment, the setting
169 was not clearly defined; however, we assumed it to be ‘probably outpatient’, as *H. pylori*
170 eradication usually takes place at home. The most common indications for antibiotic therapy
171 were *H. pylori* treatment (11 studies, 31%), various childhood infections (11 studies, 31%), and
172 respiratory tract infections (7 studies, 19%). Various beta-lactams were most often used (31
173 studies, 86%), followed by macrolides (22 studies, 61%). The majority of the trials (19 studies,
174 53%) used single-strain probiotics as an intervention and were placebo-controlled (21 studies,
175 58%). A summary of the included studies’ characteristics is presented in S3 Table. All of the
176 identified outcomes and their characteristics are presented in Tables S4 & S5.

177 The RoB in the included trials varied. Most of the studies were characterized by
178 substantial RoB. A summary of the RoB assessment is presented in S1 Fig.

179 **Outcome domain: diarrhea**

180 The occurrence/incidence of diarrhea was reported as an outcome in 32 (89%) of the
181 included studies and 20 (63%) of these studies reported it as a primary outcome. In only 20
182 (63%) of these 32 studies were the criteria for diarrhea diagnosis clearly defined. In the
183 remaining studies, the occurrence of diarrhea was reported by parents or patients during
184 interviews or in study diaries, and diagnosed based on the participants’ or investigators’
185 judgment, with unclear diagnostic criteria. In 9 (28%) of the studies which assessed this

186 outcome, various stool form scales were used, most commonly (7 studies) the Bristol Stool
187 Form Scale (BSFS) (55).

188 Based on the frequency and minimal duration of loose stools occurrence, 8 different
189 definitions of diarrhea were used by the authors of the original studies. Most commonly (11
190 studies, 31%), diarrhea was diagnosed when at least 3 stools of abnormally loose consistency
191 occurred during 48 hours. However, when different definitions of “abnormal stool consistency”
192 were taken into an account, as many as 16 different definitions of diarrhea were identified. The
193 most commonly used definitions of diarrhea are presented in Fig 2.

194 **Fig 2. Most commonly used definitions of diarrhea.**

195 Surprisingly, among the 32 studies that reported data on diarrhea occurrence, the
196 authors referred to their outcome as ‘antibiotic-associated diarrhea’ or ‘treatment-associated
197 diarrhea’ in only 13 articles (39%). Among them, only 6 studies (19%) investigated a
198 potentially infectious origin of diarrhea. Moreover, in 2 of them, the authors did not utilize this
199 information to support or exclude a diagnosis of AAD (9, 29). Authors of the other 4 studies
200 diagnosed AAD as “diarrhea caused by *C. difficile* or of otherwise unknown origin” and
201 performed enzyme immunoassay tests for rota- and adenoviruses detection and stool cultures
202 for bacterial pathogens (35, 37, 42, 45). A single study additionally tested for norovirus
203 infection using enzyme immunoassay (35).

204 Included studies varied with respect to follow-up duration. In 21 (66%) of the 32 trials
205 that assessed diarrhea as an outcome, the incidence of diarrhea was assessed during antibiotic
206 treatment and an additional follow-up period, which varied from 1 week after the end of
207 antibiotic therapy (32, 39) to up to 7 months after its beginning (36). Seven studies (22%)
208 assessed diarrhea only during antibiotic treatment (28, 30, 31, 35, 50, 51, 54), and 3 studies
209 (9%), only during the first 3 to 6 days of antibiotic therapy (27, 41, 43).

210 Among other characteristics of the diarrhea, its duration was reported in only 8 out of
211 32 studies, which corresponds to 25% of the studies with diarrhea as an outcome. In 5 of these
212 studies, the duration was not defined (8, 26, 27, 29, 51), whereas in each of the 3 remaining
213 studies its definition varied (28, 31, 45). Diarrhea severity was reported as an outcome in only
214 4 of the studies (13%), and it was defined differently in every one of them, usually on the basis
215 of discharge frequency and stool consistency (7, 26, 28, 32). Diarrhea duration and severity
216 were reported as co-primary outcomes in one study each (32, 45), while in the other studies
217 they were either secondary or unspecified outcomes. Where provided, the definitions of
218 diarrhea duration and severity can be found in S5 Table.

219 Other outcomes regarding diarrhea included occurrence of infectious diarrhea - 5 studies
220 (26, 29, 35, 37, 42), stool consistency regardless of diarrhea occurrence - 5 studies (31, 38, 39,
221 51, 52), bowel movement frequency - 3 studies (48, 51, 53), and time to diarrhea onset from
222 the start of antibiotic therapy - 4 studies (8, 28, 29, 32). Additionally, the efficacy of diarrhea
223 treatment, diarrhea-associated dehydration and time to first occurrence of loose stool were
224 reported in one study each (28, 29, 32).

225 **Outcome domain: *Clostridium difficile* infection**

226 In 6 studies, patients were investigated for the *Clostridium difficile* infection. In 1 study,
227 the tests for toxin A and B were performed regardless of whether or not diarrhea occurred (i.e.,
228 asymptomatic carrier)(7), while in the other 5 they were performed only in case of diarrhea (26,
229 35, 37, 42, 45). One study used both the immunoassay for *C. difficile* toxin A detection and
230 stool culture (26), whereas the others utilized only the toxin A and B immunoassays.

231 **Outcome domain: other gastrointestinal symptoms**

232 The most commonly reported gastrointestinal outcomes other than diarrhea included the
233 following: abdominal pain (15 studies, 42%), vomiting (16 studies, 44%), nausea (11 studies,
234 31%), lack of appetite (7 studies, 20%), constipation (9 studies, 26%), bloating (7 studies, 19%),

235 taste problems (5 studies, 14%), and flatulence (7 studies, 19%). Other less commonly assessed
236 outcomes included belching, abdominal discomfort, symptoms included in the Gastrointestinal
237 Symptom Rating Score (GSRS)(56) (heartburn, acid regurgitation, sucking sensations in the
238 stomach, borborygmus, abdominal distension, eructation, passage of stools, loose stools, hard
239 stool, urgent need for defecation and feeling of incomplete defecation), and undefined
240 ‘gastrointestinal complications’.

241 In 2 studies, (7, 10), the GSRS was used to assess the gastrointestinal symptoms (56).
242 Additionally, a visual analog scale for abdominal pain intensity was used in one study (51), and
243 a 3-point GI symptom rating scale was used in another (44). In the remaining studies, the
244 gastrointestinal symptoms were reported by parents and/or children during interviews or in
245 study diaries.

246 **Other outcomes from “pathophysiological manifestations” core area**

247 None of the included studies assessed long-term adverse events associated with
248 antibiotic use. Among the included studies, 18 (50%) reported data on adverse events
249 potentially associated with probiotic use. In none of those studies were the adverse events
250 predefined by the authors.

251 **Outcomes from other core areas**

252 Seven studies (19%) reported outcomes from the “resource use/economical impact”
253 core area (27, 31, 35, 37, 42, 47, 48). The most common outcomes from this area were need for
254 antibiotic discontinuation due to diarrhea (6 studies), need for intravenous rehydration (5
255 studies), and need for hospitalization due to diarrhea (5 studies).

256 Only 2 studies assessed outcomes from “life impact” core area. A single study reported
257 data on absence from school/day care, missed parental days at work, and overall health (38),
258 and another study reported the data on duration of hospital stay (31).

259

260 **Discussion**

261 In this review of outcomes used in studies assessing probiotic prophylactic interventions
262 during antibiotic therapy in children, 32 RCTs and 4 NRTs were included. The incidence
263 (occurrence) of diarrhea was the most commonly reported outcome. However, diagnostic
264 criteria for diarrhea were clearly defined in only 63% of the 32 studies reporting this outcome.
265 The majority of those studies did not utilize a validated instrument to assess the construct of
266 diarrhea, the combination of stool frequency and consistency, did not report data on diarrhea
267 duration and/or severity, and did not perform any microbiological tests to rule out its infectious
268 origin. Sixteen different definitions of diarrhea were identified ranging from 1 or more
269 abnormally loose stools per day (49) to 3 abnormally loose or liquid stools per 48 hours (9, 26,
270 29, 37, 42, 47, 48). The follow-up duration in the included studies also varied. Diarrhea duration
271 and severity were often not reported, and their definitions, if provided, were different in each
272 study. Less than half of the included studies reported data on other GI symptoms, such as
273 abdominal pain or vomiting, and in most of them authors did not report use of any assessment
274 instruments besides study diaries. Finally, studies rarely included outcomes from ‘pragmatic’
275 core areas, i.e., ‘life impact’ and ‘resource use and economical impact’.

276 To our knowledge, this is the first systematic review documenting the outcome
277 measurement and reporting methods used in studies on this particular subject. Its methodology
278 adhered both to the Cochrane Collaboration’s guidelines for systematic reviews(23) and to the
279 recommendations of COMET (Core Outcome Measures in Effectiveness Trials) Initiative(20).
280 Authors of this review have previous experience in probiotic and AAD research as well as in
281 the field of systematic reviews. The potential limitations of this review result from the
282 possibility of not including all relevant studies, since the search was limited to the articles

283 published in English and only a basic search of the grey literature was performed (i.e., manual
284 search within the article references). However, this review aims to document the outcomes and
285 their definitions rather than the effectiveness of interventions. Not including all of the available
286 studies is unlikely to influence the overall conclusions, particularly given our study team also
287 has expertise in general pediatrics, including ongoing commitments to patient care. The other
288 limitation of this review is lack of microbiota composition-related outcomes. The authors
289 recognize microbiome analysis as an important element of studies on probiotics and antibiotics
290 alike, however documentation and comparative assessment of the analysis methods requires a
291 wholly different approach compared to clinical outcomes(57). Another important group of
292 microbiological outcomes which is absent in this review is the antibiotic resistance(58), as none
293 of the otherwise eligible studies reported this outcome.

294 Results of this review reveal substantial heterogeneity in the definitions of reported
295 diarrhea-related outcomes. In 37% of the 32 included studies that reported the incidence of
296 diarrhea as an outcome, the authors did not define criteria for diarrhea diagnosis, which
297 increases the risk of reporting bias(59, 60). In the remaining studies, including the papers
298 published subsequent to the core outcome set for use in clinical trials of pediatric acute
299 diarrhea(21), multiple definitions of diarrhea were identified. The definitions of diarrhea
300 duration and severity also varied. This heterogeneity may theoretically lead to difficulty in
301 combining data from different studies for the purpose of meta-analysis(61). In the recent
302 Cochrane review on pediatric AAD, substantial heterogeneity ($I^2=57%$) was found in the
303 analysis of diarrhea incidence (5). When subgroup analysis was based on only one definition
304 of diarrhea (i.e., 3 or more loose/water/liquid stools per day for at least 2 consecutive days), the
305 heterogeneity was significantly reduced ($I^2 = 15%$). On the other hand, a test for interaction by
306 diarrhea definition was not statistically significant, which suggests that different definitions of

307 diarrhea were not the main reason for the overall heterogeneity of the result in the
308 aforementioned review(5).

309 The other finding of our review concerns the criteria for AAD diagnosis. Even though
310 the included studies investigated symptoms related to antibiotic use, authors referred to their
311 outcome as ‘antibiotic-associated diarrhea’ in only 39% of the articles that reported the
312 incidence of diarrhea. Moreover, infectious origin of diarrhea was investigated by
313 microbiological methods in only 6 (19%) of studies. Considering the fact that most of the
314 studies’ participants were either inpatients or visited healthcare facilities at the beginning of
315 trial, they were at risk of nosocomial diarrhea(62). Not ruling out the possibility of infectious
316 gastroenteritis in this group of patients introduces a risk of outcome misclassification. Even in
317 studies that utilized microbiological methods to identify diarrhea etiology, it is impossible to
318 completely rule out its infectious origin, due to the limited diagnostic accuracy of enzyme
319 immunoassay methods(63, 64). Diarrhea reported as an outcome in the few studies which
320 performed the microbiological testing is much more likely to be an actual AAD.

321 The most commonly assessed outcome from the ‘diarrhea’ domain was incidence data.
322 Surprisingly, other outcomes that are arguably more patient important, such as diarrhea duration
323 or severity, were rarely reported. Furthermore, even the most anticipatory criterion for diarrhea
324 diagnosis was ‘at least 3 loose or watery stools per day for at least 48 hours’. This constitutes a
325 relatively mild course of illness, especially assuming that the symptoms are likely to resolve on
326 the third day after occurrence(65). Based only on the data for diarrhea incidence, it is difficult
327 to assess whether the reported effect of any intervention was of actual importance to the
328 patients. Other GI outcomes that could contribute to drawing clinically significant conclusions
329 such as abdominal pain or vomiting, were only assessed in a small portion of the studies, even
330 though they are likely to occur during antibiotic treatment(3). When they were reported, authors
331 typically assessed incidence rather than duration or severity, again focusing on outcomes they

332 may be less patient-important. Outcomes from ‘resource use’ and ‘life impact’ core areas,
333 which reflect the pragmatic approach to clinical trial design, were rarely reported. The lack of
334 available outcomes on life impact, particularly quality of life, is concerning. Although quality
335 of life measures are not often an outcome employed in clinical trials assessing acute outcomes,
336 there are examples in acute gastroenteritis(66). Although we did not find validated disease
337 specific quality of life outcomes used in our target population, individualized quality of life
338 instruments such as Measure Yourself Medical Outcome Profile (MYMOP) should be
339 considered as a part of core outcomes(67).

340 The included studies also varied in the terms of follow-up duration with the majority of
341 the studies following patients during the entire duration of antibiotic therapy and for at least
342 one week after antibiotic cessation. Considering the usually short incubation time of AAD(68),
343 these lengths of follow-up should be sufficient to identify most of the cases.

344 None of the included studies predefined outcomes from the domain ‘adverse events of
345 the probiotic use’. This may result from the fact that the probiotics are unlikely to cause adverse
346 events in immunocompetent children(69). Nevertheless, a clear and carefully planned
347 documentation of adverse events is still important(70), as claims of harmful effects of probiotic
348 use, particularly in immunocompromised patients, are being occasionally published (71).

349

350 **Conclusions**

351 Outcomes reported in studies on probiotic use in children receiving antibiotic therapy
352 are characterized by substantial heterogeneity. In the majority of trials, the outcomes and
353 outcome measures are not designed to evaluate outcomes of real-life relevance such as patient
354 and parent reported quality of life. Results from this review suggest the need for a new core

355 outcome set with endpoints that cover the span of domains and outcomes important to patients,
356 families and clinicians for decision-making.

357

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Supporting information

S1 Fig. Risk of bias summary for the included studies

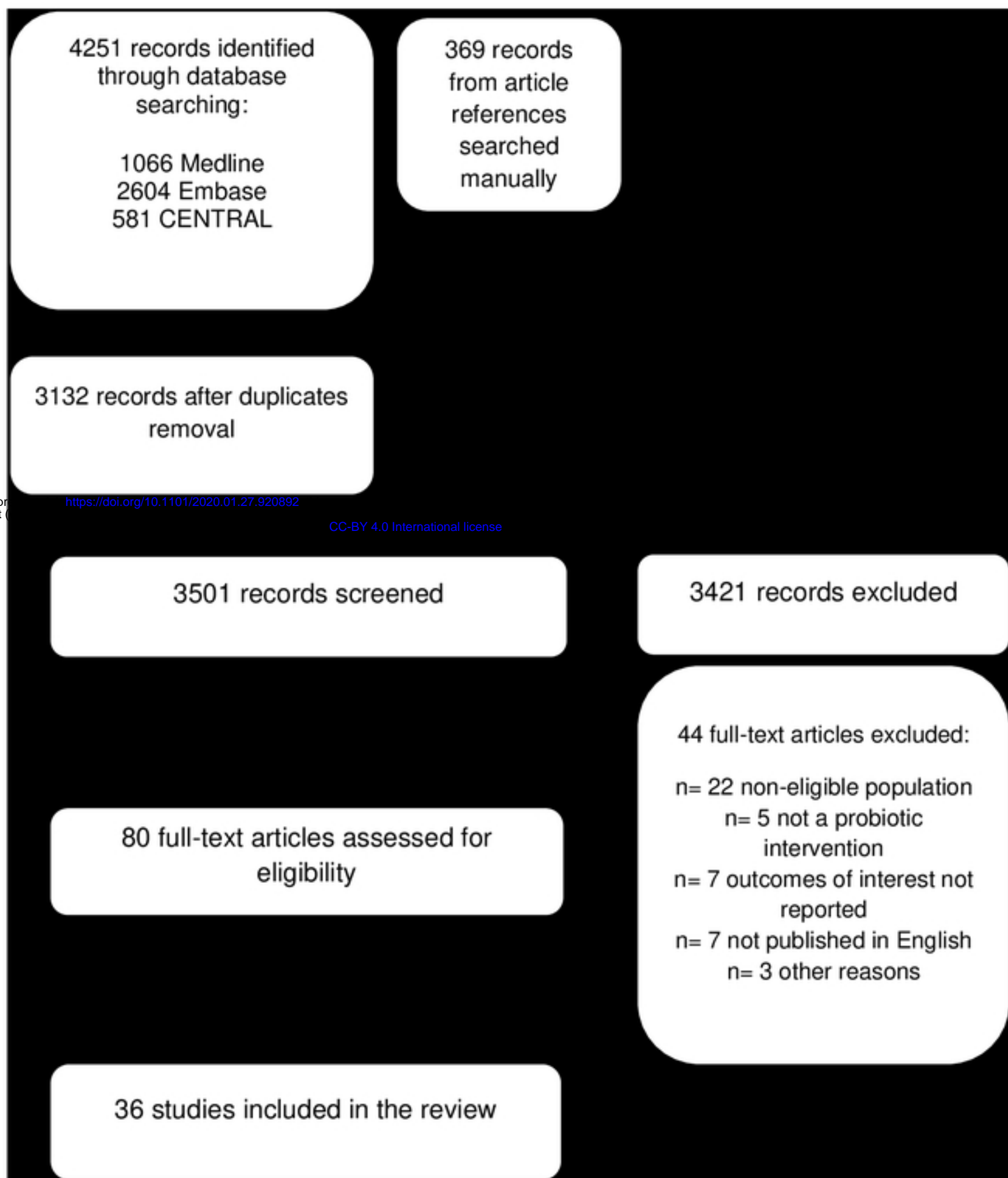
S1 Table. MEDLINE Search Strategy (Ovid MEDLINE(R) and Epub Ahead of Print, In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations, Daily and Versions(R))

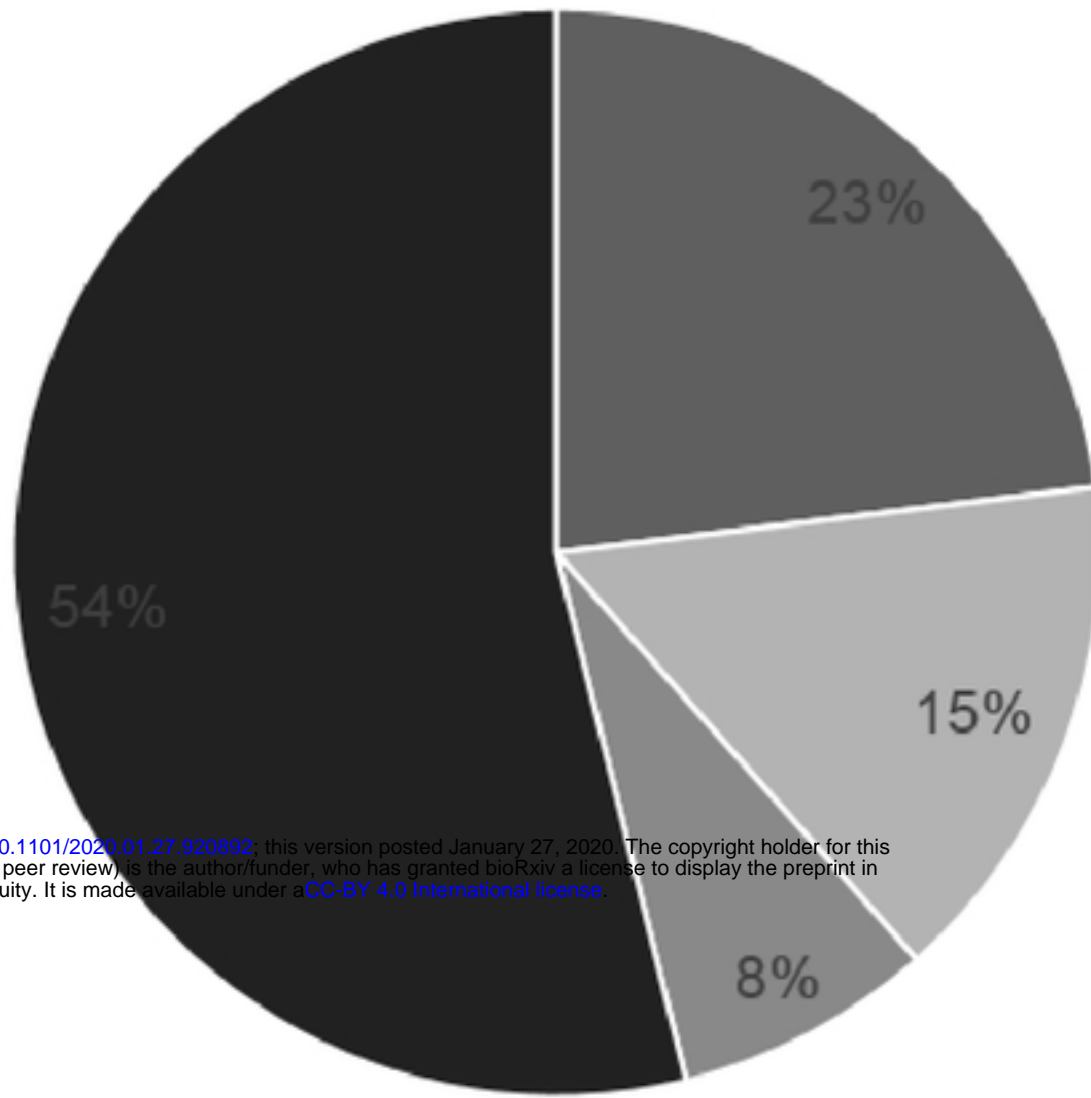
S2 Table. Excluded studies with reasons of exclusion

S3 Table. Characteristics of the included studies

S4 Table. Outcomes identified in the included studies.

S5 Table. Characteristics of the identified outcomes.





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- At least 3 watery/loose stools per day for at least 48 hours
- Stool consistency ≥ 5 in BSFS and frequency ≥ 3 /day for at least 48 hours
- Stool consistency ≥ 5 in BSFS and frequency ≥ 3 /day for at least 24 hours
- Other definitions, each used only once

Figure 2