

COMMENTARY

WILEY

Will artificial intelligence widen the therapeutic gap between children and adults?Matthew Nagy¹  | Bryan Sisk^{2,3} | Albert Lai⁴ | Eric Kodish^{1,5}¹Cleveland Clinic Lerner College of Medicine, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, USA²Department of Pediatrics, Division of Hematology/Oncology, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, Missouri, USA³Department of Medicine, Bioethics Research Center, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, Missouri, USA⁴Institute for Informatics, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, Missouri, USA⁵Department of Pediatric Hematology Oncology and Blood and Marrow Transplantation, Cleveland Clinic Children's, Cleveland, Ohio, USA**Correspondence**

Matthew Nagy, Cleveland Clinic Lerner College Medicine, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH, USA.

Email: mnr32@case.edu

Received: 23 May 2023; Accepted: 31 October 2023

The impending rise of artificial intelligence (AI)-powered healthcare offers exciting hope for improved care and outcomes in children with serious illnesses.¹ The historical precedent in healthcare, however, suggests that advancements in adult care do not necessarily result in proportional progress in pediatrics. This disparity was first noted in the mid-20th century when tragedies that involved drugs with well-studied and known adult safety profiles, such as sulfonamide elixir and thalidomide, resulted in harm to children due to limited pediatric clinical trial inclusion.² As a result, legislation in 1962 required drug companies to include package labels that restricted or dissuaded the use of medications in children that were not properly studied in this population.² Subsequently, physicians became reluctant to prescribe many medications, and pharmaceutical companies had little incentive to enroll children in trials as an unfavorable result could negatively impact sales in the adult market, and a successful outcome would only marginally increase the market pool.³ This lack of access led Dr. Harry Shirkey to describe children as “therapeutic orphans” in 1968.² After more than half a century of legislation aimed at increasing pediatric representation in

research and drug development (Figure 1), enrollment of children in clinical trials remains disproportionately low,⁴ with children included in as few as 12% of trials for diseases with a burden equal to, or greater in, the pediatric versus adult population.⁵

The growth of AI in healthcare has the potential to benefit both children and adults, but without proactive steps, this new technology threatens to widen the already existing therapeutic gap between adults and children. Just as the safety of pharmaceuticals cannot be assumed in children given they are not simply “little adults”,⁶ this same rationale must be applied to the development of AI tools. It is well recognized that the generalizability of AI models is reflective of the data on which they are trained.⁷ Abstracting studies from clinicaltrials.gov that have been completed or are actively recruiting as of August 11, 2023, that include the keywords “Artificial Intelligence” or “Machine Learning”, we identified 1426 relevant AI trials. Of these trials, 281 (20%) are indexed to include children within the study population. Of note, the number of these studies that ultimately included children is likely lower, as trials

DOI: 10.1002/ped4.12407

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

© 2023 Chinese Medical Association. *Pediatric Investigation* published by John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd on behalf of Futang Research Center of Pediatric Development.

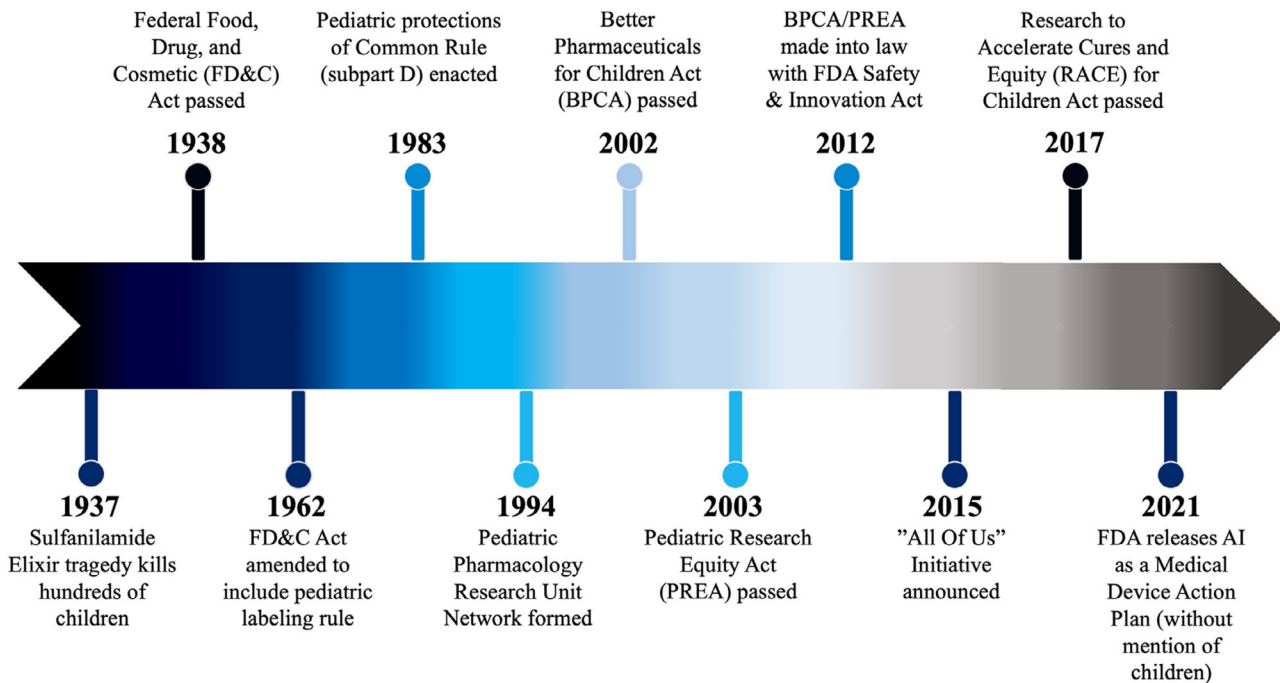


FIGURE 1 Timeline of significant events in pediatric therapeutic orphan history. FDA, Food and Drug Administration.

are included for conditions without relevant pediatric correlates, such as prostate cancer (ie: NCT02943824), coronary artery disease (NCT04146766), and Alzheimer's disease (NCT05569083). Additionally, only 58 (4%) trials were pediatric-specific (no adults included in the recruitment cohort), further highlighting the limited focus on children in these early AI clinical trials.

The insufficient inclusion of children in AI training and development has multiple implications. First, this disparity could result in fewer AI-powered clinical tools available for children. A white paper by the American College of Radiology provides early evidence of this disparity, reporting that of the 200 Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved AI-powered radiologic devices, only 3% are labeled for pediatric use.⁸ Second, a model developed with adult data may have poor predictive value if used in children, such as a recent AI model to detect fractures in adults that was neither reliable nor sensitive when used in children.^{9,10} Similarly, a model developed to identify pneumonia in adults underperformed a comparative model developed for children when applied to a pediatric population.¹¹ While only a few studies to date have specifically evaluated the impact of excluding children from AI development,^{9,10} there is strong evidence of bias and poor performance in patients from underrepresented racial, ethnic, and geographic backgrounds as a result of these groups being excluded from model development.^{12,13} Even if a disease is present in both adults and children, such as sepsis or pneumonia, the clinical manifestations may be different and cannot be assumed from

adult data if children are not included in the development. Moreover, the limited focus on developing models that are relevant to pediatric-specific conditions suggests those with diseases confined to childhood, such as diseases of prematurity and various genetic and metabolic diseases, may not find similar advances as those that present across the lifespan. Including sufficient pediatric data in model development and validation is necessary to ensure children benefit from and are not harmed by these technical advancements. Below, we briefly highlight three potential contributors to this disparity of pediatric inclusion in AI research and development and propose possible mitigation strategies.

PROBLEM 1: LACK OF AWARENESS

While the harm of excluding children from clinical research was brought to light in the mid-20th century through tragedy and legislation, the broader impact of excluding children from AI development is still nascent.⁸ At baseline, clinicians report limited understanding of AI principles and the implications of its impending role in patient care,¹⁴ with fewer than half of clinicians possessing basic knowledge of AI,¹⁵ and only 6% of medical students confident in explaining the risks and benefits of AI.¹⁶ At a larger scale, the FDA has recently prioritized developing unbiased models in terms of race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status, however, there is no mention of children in this discussion.¹⁷ If action is not taken to increase clinician awareness and promote policy prioritization of the importance of AI in pediatrics, the quality of care received by children will suffer.

Solution 1

Just as pediatricians learn to use a wide array of diagnostic and therapeutic tools in their training, so too should fundamentals of AI be incorporated into all levels of medical education. It is not that pediatricians should become computer scientists, but should rather be equipped in medical school and beyond to critically assess new models.¹⁸ This includes becoming familiar with common AI terminology, understanding the appropriate role of various AI-powered tools in clinical decision-making, and evaluating the appropriateness of a given model for use in the pediatric population.¹⁹ Additionally, advocacy by professional organizations, both pediatric and subspecialty-specific, is imperative for the development of policies to protect children, while simultaneously facilitating their inclusion in AI research. The American Academy of Pediatrics, for example, has played a leading role in child-health advocacy that has impacted policy change at a national level,²⁰ though the safe inclusion of children in AI development has yet to be included among these initiatives.²¹ The American College of Radiology has recently taken a strong stance supporting the inclusion of children in AI development,⁸ a position if adopted by other organizations can play a defining role in broader AI policy development, such as in the FDA's plans and guidelines for AI roll-out.¹⁷

PROBLEM 2: LACK OF INVESTMENT

Companies developing AI-powered tools will likely aim to enter a market with abundant data and a large pool of consumers/patients anticipating the products' release. Given the rarity of many pediatric diseases and the smaller proportion of ill children versus adults in the general population, a lack of investment in AI for childhood diseases could threaten to recapitulate historical patterns seen in drug development and approval.² The developer seeking to design an AI model to identify novel cancer therapeutics, for example, will be more inclined to target adult lung carcinoma, a disease with over 234 000 new diagnoses in the United States yearly,¹⁷ rather than the most common pediatric solid tumor, neuroblastoma, which has about 700 new diagnoses per year.²² Moreover, as a vulnerable population, including children in the design and application of AI-powered tools is a more time-consuming and higher-risk endeavor for developers,²³ potentially compounding the dissuading market influences.

Solution 2

In 2002, the Better Pharmaceutical for Children Act was approved as a policy to provide limited market exclusivity for pharmaceutical companies that conducted pediatric clinical trials.⁴ Subsequently, the Pediatric Research Equity Act in 2003 mandated that all new drug applications, bio-

logics, and supplements provide pediatric testing data.⁴ This carrot-and-stick approach proved effective at improving pediatric pharmaceutical trial inclusion. Amending these laws to include healthcare-related AI may offer robust motivation for commercial engagement to mitigate the developing disparity. The Research to Accelerate Cure and Equity Act passed in 2017 required all new targeted therapies with a potential pediatric use to include children in the trials without exemption, a model which if adapted to AI development would help promote the inclusion of children in device development for conditions with relevant pediatric correlates.²⁴ Additionally, the National Institutes of Health (NIH) currently has an "Inclusion across the lifespan" requirement for grant applications,²⁵ a policy if closely enforced in AI-related funding decisions has the potential to foster relevant research with children in mind.

PROBLEM 3: LACK OF DATA

Perhaps the most pervasive barrier to the inclusion of children in AI is the lack of pediatric data available for model development and evaluation.¹ The reasons for this limited data are multifactorial; only 22% of the US population is younger than 18 years,²⁶ children are less likely to be hospitalized than adults (where most actionable clinical data are collected),²⁷ and many pediatric diseases are rarer and distinct from adult diseases.²⁸ Further, few public databases exist for children, and clinical data are often buried within institutional medical records, making access to a sufficient volume of high quality multi-institutional data challenging.²⁸ For example, of the 29 publicly available chest radiograph databases, only seven include any pediatric data, and two are exclusively for children.²⁹ Moreover, companies employing AI in health care, such as Google Health's Deep Mind and IBM's Watson Health, have published landmark studies consisting of solely adult data, suggesting the landscape of pediatric representation among proprietary data is similarly limited.^{30–32}

Solution 3

One method of streamlining pediatric data acquisition is the use of learning health systems, such as PedsNET, a networked institutional architecture that has been successfully piloted and allows for observational research and clinical trials to be completed in routine clinical encounters.²⁸ Additionally, creating robust publicly available clinical databases, such as those available for adults,^{33,34} can further increase developer access to pediatric data. Early efforts include a recent \$50-million allocation for the Childhood Cancer Data Initiative at the NIH,³⁵ and the more established Kids Inpatient Database, containing health systems data from roughly 7 million pediatric hospitalizations. While these efforts are positive steps, further proactive

efforts to establish additional multi-institutional databases across a wide array of diseases and datatypes (genomic, routine laboratory, clinical outcomes, etc) will be critical for achieving the sample sizes and diversity of data necessary to establish robust AI models.²⁵ As of January 25, 2023, the NIH has made efforts to increase data availability by requiring new grant applications to include a data sharing budget and plan, however, early evidence suggests the intended open data sharing has not yet materialized in implicated publications.³⁶ Further monitoring of compliance to this policy in subsequent grant considerations would be prudent, and further policy could facilitate these data to be deposited in a public repository, as is common practice in genomics.³⁷

ACKNOWLEDGING RISKS OF AI

As we enumerate the need to ensure children are not left behind in AI development, we must also acknowledge the potential harms and problems with including children in AI research. As the efficacy of AI in healthcare slowly emerges, establishing clear guidelines and regulations around the use of pediatric data will be essential. Currently, children are considered a protected population in clinical research according to subpart D of the common rule, which should continue to hold as they are integrated into AI research and development.³⁸ Inherently there will be known and unknown risks to children participating in these trials, including data breaches, emotional and psychological distress, or even physical harm if the algorithm is inaccurate, necessitating a need for clear consent and assent with the guardians and patients, respectively.³⁹ For example, when considering sharing data with commercial developers, even data that are de-identified present a lingering risk of privacy breaches when large datasets are used,⁴⁰ because AI could develop the ability to “re-identify” individuals despite removal of Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act identifiers. Moreover, while commercialization of pediatric data may increase the number of models applicable for children, these avenues may not offer the same protections for children, nor will a company’s primary interests necessarily align with that of the patient and family.⁴¹ While no official guidelines have yet been developed for pediatric inclusion in AI, a recent framework called ACCEPT-AI outlines important considerations for safely including children in these developments, offering recommendations that can be used independently or integrated into existing/future AI guidelines.³⁹ Researchers and regulatory bodies must anticipate and address these issues so children are not harmed by reckless inclusion nor excluded from potential future benefits of AI development. Furthermore, the National Academy of Medicine is developing recommendations for a governance framework for AI use in medicine.⁴² This governance structure

must include pediatric-specific concerns to mitigate these potential harms to children in the future.

CONCLUSION

While this commentary does not aim to be an exhaustive review, it is clear from the current landscape of AI clinical trials that applications toward child health are lacking relative to adults, and failure to include children could result in suboptimal AI tools for this population in the future. Without proactively including children in model development and implementation we risk further cementing children in their status as therapeutic orphans. By increasing awareness through education and advocacy, providing proper incentives and mandates to developers and clinicians, and streamlining data acquisition, however, AI can instead serve as a powerful tool in pediatrics, and potentially play a role in narrowing the therapeutic gap between children and adults.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are thankful to Dr. Animesh Tandon for his perspective and comments on our manuscript.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Dr. Kodish serves on the Data Sharing Review Board for Incyte and receives compensation for this activity. All other authors declare no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

1. Ramgopal S, Sanchez-Pinto LN, Horvat CM, Carroll MS, Luo Y, Florin TA. Artificial intelligence-based clinical decision support in pediatrics. *Pediatr Res.* 2023;93:334-341. DOI: 10.1038/s41390-022-02226-1
2. Shirkey H. Therapeutic orphans. *J Pediatr.* 1968;72:119-120. DOI: 10.1016/s0022-3476(68)80414-7
3. Conroy S, McIntyre J, Choonara I, Stephenson T. Drug trials in children: problems and the way forward. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2000;49:93-97. DOI: 10.1046/j.1365-2125.2000.00125.x
4. Bourgeois FT, Hwang TJ. The pediatric research equity act moves into adolescence. *JAMA.* 2017;317:259-260. DOI: 10.1001/jama.2016.18131
5. Bourgeois FT, Murthy S, Pinto C, Olson KL, Ioannidis JP, Mandl KD. Pediatric versus adult drug trials for conditions with high pediatric disease burden. *Pediatrics.* 2012;130:285-292. DOI: 10.1542/peds.2012-0139
6. Ferro A. Paediatric prescribing: why children are not small adults. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2015;79:351-353. DOI: 10.1111/bcp.12540
7. Paul AK, Schaefer M. Safeguards for the use of artificial intelligence and machine learning in global health. *Bull World Health Organ.* 2020;98:282-284. DOI: 10.2471/BLT.19.237099

8. Sammer M, Akbari YS, Barth RA, Blumer SL, Dillman JR, Farmakis SG, et al. Use of artificial intelligence in radiology: impact on pediatric patients, a white paper from the ACR Pediatric AI Workgroup. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2023;20:730-737. DOI: 10.1016/j.jacr.2023.06.003
9. Yang J, Page LC, Wagner L, Wildman-Tobriner B, Bisset L, Frush D, et al. Thyroid nodules on ultrasound in children and young adults: comparison of diagnostic performance of radiologists' impressions, ACR TI-RADS, and a deep learning algorithm. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2023;220:408-417. DOI: 10.2214/AJR.22.28231
10. Alqahtani FF, Messina F, Kruger E, Gill H, Ellis M, Lang I, et al. Evaluation of a semi-automated software program for the identification of vertebral fractures in children. *Clin Radiol*. 2017;72:904. DOI: 10.1016/j.crad.2017.04.010. e11-904.e20.
11. Morcos G, Yi PH, Jeudy J. Applying artificial intelligence to pediatric chest imaging: reliability of leveraging adult-based artificial intelligence models. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2023;20:742-747. DOI: 10.1016/j.jacr.2023.07.004
12. Obermeyer Z, Powers B, Vogeli C, Mullainathan S. Dissecting racial bias in an algorithm used to manage the health of populations. *Science*. 2019;366:447-453. DOI: 10.1126/science.aax2342
13. Kaushal A, Altman R, Langlotz C. Geographic distribution of US cohorts used to train deep learning algorithms. *JAMA*. 2020;324:1212-1213. DOI: 10.1001/jama.2020.12067
14. Scheetz J, Rothschild P, McGuinness M, Hadoux X, Soyer HP, Janda M, et al. A survey of clinicians on the use of artificial intelligence in ophthalmology, dermatology, radiology and radiation oncology. *Sci Rep*. 2021;11:5193. DOI: 10.1038/s41598-021-84698-5
15. Chen M, Zhang B, Cai Z, Seery S, Gonzalez MJ, Ali NM, et al. Acceptance of clinical artificial intelligence among physicians and medical students: a systematic review with cross-sectional survey. *Front Med*. 2022;9:990604. DOI: 10.3389/fmed.2022.990604
16. Civaner MM, Uncu Y, Bulut F, Chalil EG, Tatli A. Artificial intelligence in medical education: a cross-sectional needs assessment. *BMC Med Educ*. 2022;22:772. DOI: 10.1186/s12909-022-03852-3
17. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Artificial Intelligence/Machine Learning (AI/ML)-Based Software as a Medical Device (SaMD) Action Plan. Accessed October 18, 2023. <https://www.fda.gov/media/145022/download>
18. Ötleş E, James CA, Lomis KD, Woolliscroft JO. Teaching artificial intelligence as a fundamental toolset of medicine. *Cell Rep Med*. 2022;3:100824. DOI: 10.1016/j.xcrm.2022.100824
19. Krive J, Isola M, Chang L, Patel T, Anderson M, Sreedhar R. Grounded in reality: artificial intelligence in medical education. *JAMIA Open*. 2023;6:ooad037. DOI: 10.1093/jamiaopen/ooad037
20. Krass P, Vasani A, Kenyon CC. Building political capital: engaging families in child health policy. *Pediatrics*. 2021;147:e20200766. DOI: 10.1542/peds.2020-0766
21. American Academy of Pediatrics. Advocacy report. Accessed October 18, 2023. <https://www.aap.org/en/advocacy/>
22. Chung C, Boterberg T, Lucas J, Panoff J, Valteau-Couanet D, Hero B, et al. Neuroblastoma. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2021;68:e28473. DOI: 10.1002/pbc.28473
23. Schwenzer KJ. Protecting vulnerable subjects in clinical research: children, pregnant women, prisoners, and employees. *Respir Care*. 2008;53:1342-1349.
24. Zettler ME. The RACE for children act at one year: progress in pediatric development of molecularly targeted oncology drugs. *Expert Rev Anticancer Ther*. 2022;22:317-321. DOI: 10.1080/14737140.2022.2032664
25. Bernard MA, Clayton JA, Lauer MS. Inclusion across the lifespan: NIH policy for clinical research. *JAMA*. 2018;320:1535-1536. DOI: 10.1001/jama.2018.12368
26. United States Census Bureau. Census Bureau Releases New 2020 Census Data on Age, Sex, Race, Hispanic Origin, Households and Housing. Accessed August 11, 2023. <https://www.census.gov/newsroom/press-releases/2023/2020-census-demographic-profile-and-dhc.html>
27. Vesoulis ZA, Husain AN, Cole FS. Improving child health through Big Data and data science. *Pediatr Res*. 2023;93:342-349. DOI: 10.1038/s41390-022-02264-9
28. Bennett TD, Callahan TJ, Feinstein JA, Ghosh D, Lakhani SA, Spaeder MC, et al. Data science for child health. *J Pediatr*. 2019;208:12-22. DOI: 10.1016/j.jpeds.2018.12.041
29. Padash S, Mohebbian MR, Adams SJ, Henderson R, Babyn P. Pediatric chest radiograph interpretation: how far has artificial intelligence come? A systematic literature review. *Pediatr Radiol*. 2022;52:1568-1580. DOI: 10.1007/s00247-022-05368-w
30. Rajkomar A, Oren E, Chen K, Dai AM, Hajaj N, Hardt M, et al. Scalable and accurate deep learning with electronic health records. *NPJ Digit Med*. 2018;1:18. DOI: 10.1038/s41746-018-0029-1
31. Liu Y, Jain A, Eng C, Way DH, Lee K, Bui P, et al. A deep learning system for differential diagnosis of skin diseases. *Nat Med*. 2020;26:900-908. DOI: 10.1038/s41591-020-0842-3
32. Bakkar N, Kovalik T, Lorenzini I, Spangler S, Lacoste A, Sponaugle K, et al. Artificial intelligence in neurodegenerative disease research: use of IBM Watson to identify additional RNA-binding proteins altered in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2018;135:227-247. DOI: 10.1007/s00401-017-1785-8
33. Prasanna S, Rao P. A data science perspective of real-world COVID-19 databases. in: Gruenwald L, Jain S, Groppe S, eds. *Leveraging Artificial Intelligence in Global Epidemics*. Academic Press; 2021:133-163. DOI: 10.1016/B978-0-323-89777-8.00008-7
34. Yang J, Li Y, Liu Q, Li L, Feng A, Wang T, et al. Brief introduction of medical database and data mining technology in big data era. *J Evid Based Med*. 2020;13:57-69. DOI: 10.1111/jebm.12373
35. Flores-Toro JA, Jagu S, Armstrong GT, Arons DF, Aune GJ, Chanock SJ, et al. The Childhood cancer data initiative: using the power of data to learn from and improve outcomes for every child and young adult with pediatric cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2023;41:4045-4053. DOI: 10.1200/JCO.22.02208
36. Watson H, Gallifant J, Lai Y, Radunsky AP, Villanueva C, Martinez N, et al. Delivering on NIH data sharing

- requirements: avoiding Open Data in Appearance Only. *BMJ Health Care Inform.* 2023;30:e100771. DOI: 10.1136/bmjhci-2023-100771
37. Byrd JB, Greene AC, Prasad DV, Jiang X, Greene CS. Responsible, practical genomic data sharing that accelerates research. *Nat Rev Genet.* 2020;21:615-629. DOI: 10.1038/s41576-020-0257-5
38. Welch MJ, Lally R, Miller JE, Pittman S, Brodsky L, Caplan AL, et al. The ethics and regulatory landscape of including vulnerable populations in pragmatic clinical trials. *Clin Trials.* 2015;12:503-510. DOI: 10.1177/1740774515597701
39. Muralidharan V, Burgart A, Daneshjou R, Rose S. Recommendations for the use of pediatric data in artificial intelligence and machine learning ACCEPT-AI. *NPJ Digit Med.* 2023;6:166. DOI: 10.1038/s41746-023-00898-5
40. Price WN 2nd, Cohen IG. Privacy in the age of medical big data. *Nat Med.* 2019;25:37-43. DOI: 10.1038/s41591-018-0272-7
41. McGraw D, Petersen C. From commercialization to accountability: responsible health data collection, use, and disclosure for the 21st century. *Appl Clin Inform.* 2020;11:366-373. DOI: 10.1055/s-0040-1710392
42. Mathews D, Balatbat CA, Dzau VJ. Governance of emerging technologies in health and medicine - Creating a new framework. *N Engl J Med.* 2022;386:2239-2242. DOI: 10.1056/NEJMms2200907

How to cite this article: Nagy M, Sisk B, Lai A, Kodish E. Will artificial intelligence widen the therapeutic gap between children and adults? *Pediatr Investig.* 2024;8:1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ped4.12407>