

Children are not mini-adults: a comprehensive review of paediatric uniqueness in clinical care

Shivani Phugat, Prabudh Goel

Department of Paediatric Surgery, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi, India

Received: 13/06/2025

Accepted: 07/08/2025

Published: 01/10/2025

Cite this article: Phugat S, Goel P. Children are not mini-adults: a comprehensive review of paediatric uniqueness in clinical care. *Surg Child.* 2025;2(4):147-157.

Corresponding Author: Prabudh Goel, drprabudhgoel@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The physiological, pharmacological, immunological, and psychological uniqueness of paediatric patients necessitates specialized approaches to their medical care. This article comprehensively examines the fundamental differences between children and adults across multiple domains of clinical practice, emphasizing why children cannot be treated simply as “mini-adults”. Historical examples, such as the gray baby syndrome resulting from inappropriate chloramphenicol dosing in neonates due to their immature glucuronidation capacity, underscore the potentially fatal consequences of applying adult therapeutic paradigms to pediatric populations. The developmental physiology, pharmacological considerations, immune system development, surgical challenges, psychological factors, diagnostic approaches, therapeutic adaptations, ethical considerations, and long-term implications of paediatric care have been systematically explored. By synthesizing current evidence and expert perspectives, this review provides healthcare professionals with essential insights into the specialized knowledge required for optimal paediatric care. The recognition of these fundamental differences is crucial for ensuring safe, effective, and developmentally appropriate healthcare delivery to paediatric populations.

Keywords: Paediatric medicine, developmental physiology, pharmacokinetics, paediatric surgery, paediatric ethics, child development

INTRODUCTION

The adage that “children are not simply small adults” has become a cornerstone principle in paediatric medicine, yet its full implications are often inadequately appreciated in clinical practice and healthcare systems design. Historically, medical approaches for children were frequently downscaled versions of adult protocols, with minimal adjustments beyond weight-based calculations.¹ This simplistic approach has led to numerous adverse outcomes, therapeutic failures, and missed opportunities for optimal intervention during critical developmental periods.

The evolution of paediatric medicine as a distinct specialty began in earnest in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, with pioneers like Abraham Jacobi advocating for specialized approaches to childhood disease.² However, it was not until the latter half of the 20th century that systematic research began to elucidate the profound physiological, pharmacological,³ and psychological^{4,5} differences that distinguish paediatric patients across developmental stages.⁶ The recognition of these differences has driven the development of specialized paediatric training, dedicated children’s hospitals, paediatric

drug formulations, age-appropriate diagnostic approaches, and unique ethical frameworks.

The economic and societal impact of paediatric-specific approaches to healthcare cannot be overstated. Interventions during childhood have the potential to influence health trajectories across the entire lifespan, making paediatric healthcare both a compassionate imperative and a sound investment in population health.^{7,8} Conversely, failure to account for paediatric uniqueness can result in immediate adverse outcomes and contribute to lifelong health disparities and chronic disease burden.

METHODS

This review was designed to synthesize and critically analyze current evidence regarding the fundamental physiological, pharmacological, and clinical differences between pediatric and adult patient populations. Given the multidisciplinary nature of pediatric uniqueness spanning developmental biology, clinical pharmacology, surgical specialties, and

healthcare ethics, a narrative review methodology was selected to enable thematic synthesis across diverse research domains and publication types. Primary searches were performed in PubMed and Google Scholar, supplemented by targeted searches using general search engines to capture gray literature and professional guidelines.

The search strategy employed a combination of controlled vocabulary terms and free-text keywords encompassing the terms related to pediatric medicine, developmental physiology, pharmacokinetics, pediatric surgery, and child development. The selection criteria encompassed original research articles, systematic reviews, meta-analyses, clinical guidelines, and seminal texts that addressed physiological, pharmacological, immunological, psychological, surgical, diagnostic, ethical, or therapeutic aspects unique to pediatric populations. Particular emphasis was placed on studies that directly compared pediatric and adult populations or demonstrated age-dependent clinical phenomena. Historical case studies and landmark clinical observations that shaped contemporary understanding of pediatric uniqueness were also included to provide contextual perspective.

DEVELOPMENTAL PHYSIOLOGY: FUNDAMENTAL DIFFERENCES

Growth and Development Trajectories

Human development follows non-linear trajectories characterized by periods of rapid growth and maturation interspersed with relative stability. These patterns vary by organ system and developmental domain, creating “critical periods” during which environmental influences, including medical interventions, may have disproportionate and lasting impacts⁹ (Figure 1).

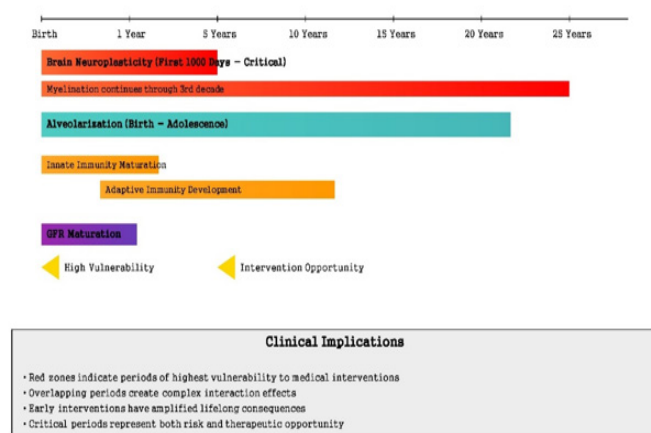


Figure 1. Critical periods in pediatric development

Critical periods represent windows of both vulnerability and opportunity. During brain development, for example, the first 1,000 days of life feature extraordinary neuroplasticity (the brain's ability to reorganize and form new connections), with more than 1 million new neural connections forming every second.¹⁰ Nutritional deficiencies, toxin exposures, or inadequate stimulation during this period can have permanent effects on cognitive development that may be resistant to later intervention. Similarly, pulmonary development continues throughout childhood, with

alveolarization continuing through adolescence, creating extended periods of vulnerability to respiratory insults.¹¹

The practice of “per kilogram” dosing in paediatrics, while an improvement over one-size-fits-all approaches, remains insufficient to account for the complex physiological scaling that occurs throughout development. Allometric scaling principles (mathematical relationships that describe how biological processes change with body size) demonstrate that metabolic processes do not scale linearly with body weight but rather follow power functions¹² (Figure 2). This principle helps explain why simple weight-based extrapolations from adult medicine frequently fail to provide optimal paediatric care.

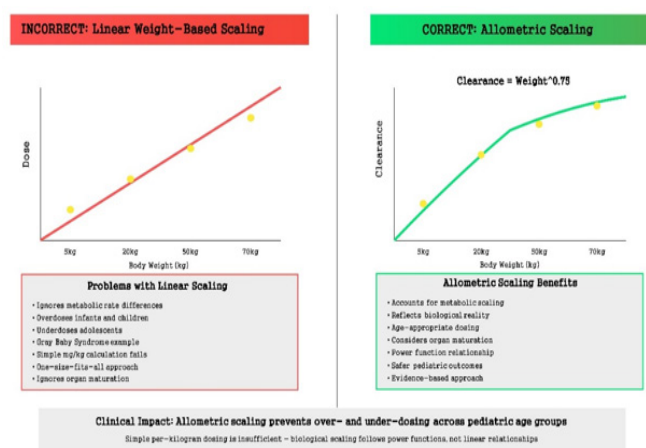


Figure 2. Pharmacokinetic scaling: linear vs. allometric approaches

Organ System Maturation

Neurological development and blood-brain barrier: The blood-brain barrier (BBB), a protective filter that controls what substances can enter the brain from the bloodstream, tightly regulates the movement of ions, molecules, and cells between the bloodstream and the central nervous system and undergoes significant maturation throughout childhood. In neonates, the BBB has greater permeability, potentially allowing greater penetration of medications and toxins into the central nervous system.¹³ This increased permeability partially explains why neonates and young infants are more susceptible to the central nervous system effects of medications and why bilirubin encephalopathy (kernicterus or brain damage caused by high levels of bilirubin) remains a concern in neonatal care (Figure 3).

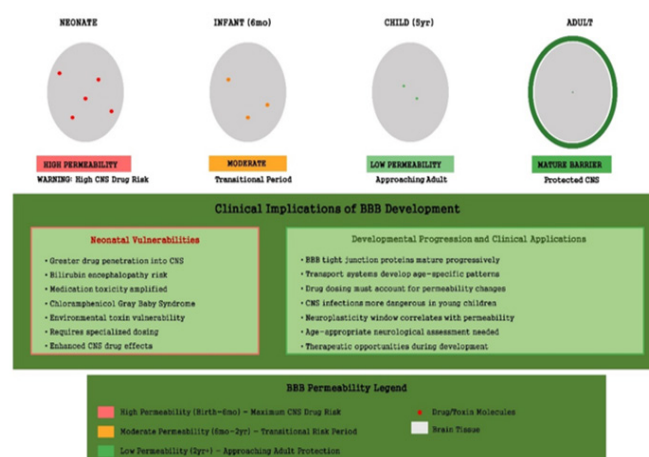


Figure 3. Blood-brain barrier permeability across developmental stages



Neurological development continues throughout childhood and adolescence, with myelination processes extending well into the third decade of life.¹⁴ This prolonged development underlies both the impressive neuroplasticity of the paediatric brain and its vulnerability to injury or disruption.

Hepatic enzyme maturation and drug metabolism: The liver’s drug-metabolizing capacity undergoes dramatic changes throughout development, with significant implications for pharmacokinetics (how the body processes medications) and pharmacodynamics (how medications affect the body). Cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes, which are liver proteins responsible for breaking down medications, play a central role in drug metabolism, demonstrate variable developmental trajectories. CYP3A7, for example, is highly active in the fetal liver but declines rapidly after birth, while CYP3A4 activity increases progressively throughout the first years of life.¹⁵

Other important metabolic pathways, including glucuronidation, sulfation, and acetylation, show similarly complex developmental patterns, creating age-dependent variations in drug clearance, half-life, and toxicity profiles. These enzymatic differences help explain why neonates have limited capacity to metabolize medications like chloramphenicol, which can lead to potentially fatal “gray baby” syndrome when adult dosing principles are inappropriately applied to this age group.¹⁶

Renal function development: Kidney function undergoes substantial maturation throughout infancy and early childhood. Glomerular filtration rate (GFR) at birth is approximately 20 ml/min/1.73 m², increasing to 60 ml/min/1.73 m² by two weeks of age.¹⁷ This progressive increase in GFR affects the elimination of numerous medications, necessitating age-appropriate dosing adjustments for renally excreted drugs.

Tubular function follows a similar developmental trajectory, with implications for acid-base balance, electrolyte homeostasis, and concentration abilities. The limited concentration capacity of the infant kidney contributes to higher fluid requirements and increased risk of dehydration in young children.¹⁸ These developmental differences in renal physiology necessitate precise fluid management in paediatric care, with careful attention to electrolyte composition and administration rates.

Respiratory, cardiovascular, and thermoregulatory systems: The paediatric respiratory, cardiovascular, and thermoregulatory systems demonstrate fundamental developmental differences from adult counterparts that extend beyond simple scaling (Table). These anatomical and physiological variations create unique vulnerabilities in paediatric patients that require specialized knowledge and approaches. The transition from placental-dependent circulation to pulmonary gas exchange represents one of the most dramatic physiologic adaptations in human development.¹⁹ Additionally, the compliant chest wall of infants provides less mechanical advantage for respiration, contributing to increased vulnerability to respiratory fatigue during illness.²⁰

Endocrine system development: The hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis demonstrates age-specific activity patterns, with a period of activation during infancy (the “mini-puberty”), followed by childhood quiescence, and subsequent reactivation during adolescence.²¹ Growth hormone secretion and action follow developmental patterns that support the characteristic growth velocity changes observed throughout childhood, from rapid infant growth to the relatively stable childhood phase and the pubertal growth spurt.²² Thyroid function also demonstrates developmental variation, with relatively higher TSH and lower T4 levels in neonates compared to older children and adults.²³

Limited physiological reserve: Children, particularly infants and young children, possess limited physiological reserves compared to adults, making them vulnerable to rapid decompensation during critical illness. This limited reserve manifests across multiple systems such as glycogen stores,²⁴ fluid compartments and energy expenditure.

PHARMACOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Pharmacokinetic Differences

Pharmacokinetic parameters, absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion, demonstrate significant age-dependent variations throughout childhood,²⁵ necessitating specialized approaches to paediatric pharmacotherapy, with absorption being particularly affected by developmental factors including relatively higher gastric pH in neonates and young infants (which gradually decreases to adult values by approximately age 2), affecting ionization and absorption of pH-dependent medications; delayed and more variable gastric emptying in neonates and young infants,²⁶ leading

Table. Key physiological differences between pediatric and adult patients		
Physiological system	Pediatric characteristics	Adult characteristics
Respiratory system	Higher oxygen consumption, smaller functional residual capacity, obligate nasal breathing until 4-6 months, funnel-shaped trachea, anterior larynx	Lower oxygen consumption, larger functional residual capacity, oral breathing capability, cylindrical trachea
Cardiovascular system	Rate-dependent cardiac output, higher baseline heart rates (120-160 bpm in neonates), fetal shunt closure after birth	Greater stroke volume reserve, lower baseline heart rates (60-100 bpm), matured circulation
Blood pressure	Age-dependent norms (e.g., newborn: 65-95/30-60 mmHg; 1-year-old: 90-105/55-70 mmHg), requires age/height/sex-specific percentiles for interpretation	Adult norms (120/80 mmHg), standard percentiles for hypertension classification
Thermoregulation	Larger surface area to body-mass ratio, brown adipose tissue for non-shivering thermogenesis, immature hypothalamic control	Smaller surface area to body mass ratio, developed shivering response, mature hypothalamic control
Renal function	GFR at birth ~20 ml/min/1.73m ² , reaching adult values by 1-2 years, limited concentration capacity	GFR ~120 ml/min/1.73m ² , mature concentration capacity



to less predictable plasma concentrations following oral administration; age-related differences in intestinal motility and transit time influencing medications dependent on specific intestinal regions for optimal uptake; and thinner stratum corneum in neonates and young infants, potentially causing enhanced absorption of topically applied medications with increased risk of systemic toxicity—all of which highlight the challenges of oral medication administration in paediatric patients and explain why certain formulations may demonstrate age-dependent bioavailability.

Metabolism: Enzyme Systems Development Timeline

The cytochrome P450 enzyme system and phase II conjugation pathways demonstrate complex developmental trajectories throughout childhood with significant implications for paediatric medication management. CYP enzymes follow isoform-specific maturation patterns, with CYP3A7 predominating in fetal and neonatal life while CYP3A4 activity progressively increases throughout infancy; CYP2D6 and CYP2C9 activity reach adult levels by approximately 1 year of age, while CYP1A2 maturation extends into early childhood. Similarly, conjugation pathways (glucuronidation, sulfation, and acetylation) show age-dependent activity, with glucuronidation capacity being particularly limited in neonates, affecting the metabolism of medications like morphine and acetaminophen.¹⁵ Additionally, the combination of developmental changes in intestinal and hepatic enzyme activity contributes to age-dependent variations in oral bioavailability for medications subject to significant first-pass metabolism, explaining why certain medications require higher weight-adjusted doses in older children (due to enhanced clearance) while others necessitate dosage reduction in neonates and young infants (due to limited metabolic capacity).

Excretion Pathways Maturation

Renal excretion, the primary elimination pathway for many medications and their metabolites, undergoes significant maturation throughout early childhood, characterized by progressive increase in GFR throughout infancy, which affects the clearance of renally eliminated medications and necessitates age-appropriate dosing adjustments; renal tubular functions (secretion and reabsorption) that mature at different rates than glomerular filtration, creating age-specific patterns of drug elimination for medications dependent on active tubular processes; and increasing proportion of cardiac output directed to the kidneys throughout early childhood, contributing to enhanced renal drug clearance—all of which necessitate careful consideration of dosing intervals for renally eliminated medications, with potential for drug accumulation and toxicity when adult dosing regimens are inappropriately applied to young children.

Pharmacodynamic Considerations

Paediatric patients demonstrate important variations in pharmacodynamic responses to medications beyond pharmacokinetic differences, particularly in receptor expression and sensitivity, which undergo significant developmental changes throughout childhood. The density and functionality of β -adrenergic receptors increase throughout childhood, potentially affecting responses to both endogenous catecholamines and exogenous adrenergic

medications.²⁷ Age-dependent variations in opioid receptor expression and function contribute to different analgesic requirements and side effect profiles across paediatric age groups. Additionally, developmental changes in GABA receptor subunit composition affect responses to benzodiazepines and other GABA-ergic agents, potentially explaining paradoxical reactions observed in some paediatric patients. These receptor-level differences explain why medication effects may vary qualitatively, not just quantitatively, across developmental stages.²⁸

Therapeutic Windows That Shift with Age

The therapeutic window, the dosage range that provides efficacy without unacceptable toxicity, demonstrates age-dependent variations for many medications across paediatric populations. For antiepileptic drugs, therapeutic ranges differ between neonates, children, and adults due to differences in plasma protein binding, BBB permeability, and receptor sensitivity.²⁹ Cardiac medications like digoxin demonstrate age-dependent differences in both therapeutic and toxic serum concentrations, necessitating age-specific target ranges and careful monitoring in paediatric patients.³⁰ Similarly, the efficacy and adverse effect profiles of many psychotropic medications differ between children and adults, partially explaining why medications effective in adult populations may demonstrate different risk-benefit profiles in paediatric patients. Recognition of these shifting therapeutic windows is essential for safe medication management in paediatric populations, highlighting the limitations of simply applying adult therapeutic ranges to children.

Case Studies of Medication Safety Events from Inappropriate “Scaling Down”

The history of paediatric pharmacotherapy includes numerous examples of adverse outcomes resulting from the inappropriate application of adult dosing paradigms to children:

Chloramphenicol and gray baby syndrome: In the 1950s, the administration of adult-derived chloramphenicol doses to neonates resulted in a potentially fatal toxicity syndrome characterized by cardiovascular collapse, ashen-gray skin discoloration, and metabolic acidosis.¹⁶ This syndrome resulted from the immature glucuronidation capacity (the liver's ability to attach sugar molecules to drugs to help eliminate them from the body) of neonates, leading to drug accumulation and toxicity (Figure 4).



Figure 4. Case study: gray baby syndrome



Sulfanilamide elixir disaster: In 1937, a sulfanilamide elixir formulated with diethylene glycol as a solvent led to more than 100 deaths, many in children. This tragedy highlighted the importance of paediatric-specific formulation considerations and led to significant regulatory reforms.³¹

Propofol infusion syndrome: The use of prolonged propofol infusions for sedation in critically ill children, based on adult protocols, resulted in a fatal syndrome characterized by metabolic acidosis, rhabdomyolysis, and cardiovascular collapse. This syndrome appears more common in children than adults, demonstrating the dangers of uncritical protocol extrapolation.³²

These historical examples emphasize the potential consequences of treating children simply as “small adults” and underscore the importance of paediatric-specific pharmacotherapy knowledge and research.

IMMUNE SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT AND RESPONSE

Ontogeny of the Immune System

The immune system undergoes complex developmental processes throughout childhood with important implications for disease susceptibility, vaccine responses, and inflammatory conditions. Components of innate immunity follow variable developmental trajectories, with neutrophil mobilization, chemotaxis, and bactericidal functions showing relative impairment in neonates, while natural killer cell activity reaches adult levels by early childhood. The newborn adaptive immune system demonstrates Th2 skewing, with progressive development of Th1 responses throughout early childhood, while memory B and T cell populations expand gradually following antigenic exposures, creating age-dependent variations in immunological memory. Additionally, mucosal immune defences, including secretory IgA production and mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue, mature gradually throughout childhood, affecting susceptibility to respiratory and gastrointestinal pathogens. These developmental patterns create age-specific immunological niches that influence both infectious disease susceptibility and responses to immunomodulatory therapies.

Vaccination Responses Across Developmental Stages

Vaccine immunogenicity and efficacy demonstrate important age-dependent variations across paediatric populations. The neonatal immune system demonstrates distinctive responses to vaccination, with certain vaccines (e.g., BCG, hepatitis B) eliciting protective immunity while others show limited effectiveness in this age group. Transplacentally acquired maternal antibodies may interfere with infant vaccine responses, contributing to the need for multiple-dose primary series for many vaccines. Additionally, adolescence represents another distinctive immunological niche, with implications for vaccines targeting sexually transmitted infections (e.g., HPV) and diseases with changing epidemiological patterns (e.g., meningococcal disease). These developmental variations in vaccine responses have shaped immunization schedules worldwide and highlight the importance of age-appropriate

vaccination strategies rather than simple adult vaccine adaptation.

PAEDIATRIC SURGICAL CONSIDERATIONS: BEYOND SIZE ALONE

Spectrum of Congenital Malformations Requiring Unique Surgical Expertise

Paediatric surgery encompasses a spectrum of congenital anomalies without adult counterparts, requiring specialized knowledge beyond simple anatomical scaling. Conditions like esophageal atresia with tracheoesophageal fistula, anorectal malformations, and biliary atresia represent anatomical variations not encountered in adult surgical practice. Disorders of embryological development, such as bladder exstrophy, gastroschisis, and conjoined twins, require a comprehensive understanding of embryology and reconstructive principles. Many congenital anomalies affect multiple organ systems, necessitating multidisciplinary approaches and consideration of developmental implications, for example, congenital diaphragmatic hernia affects not only diaphragmatic integrity but also lung development, cardiovascular function, and sometimes neurological outcomes. These complex conditions require paediatric surgical specialists with specific training and experience beyond general surgical principles applied to smaller patients.

Technical Challenges Specific to Paediatric Surgery: Beyond Simple Miniaturization

The smaller scale of paediatric anatomy necessitates specialized instrumentation, magnification techniques, and refined tissue handling, particularly in neonatal and infant surgery. This demanding field requires paediatric-specific surgical instruments, including finer forceps, smaller retractors, and specialized vascular clamps, all essential for safe and effective procedures in small children. Paediatric tissues also demonstrate different tensile strengths and healing characteristics, necessitating appropriate suture selection and handling techniques to prevent tissue damage. The confined operative field in small children creates visualization challenges, particularly in deep anatomical regions like the pelvis or retroperitoneum, requiring specialized approaches to exposure and access.

Neonatal and infant tissues demonstrate increased fragility, necessitating exceptionally gentle handling techniques and appropriate instrument selection to prevent iatrogenic injury. Children typically demonstrate more rapid healing than adults, with different scarring patterns and greater potential for hypertrophic scar formation, particularly during adolescent growth spurts. Perhaps most importantly, surgical interventions must account for future growth potential, with techniques that accommodate tissue expansion and minimize growth restriction—a principle particularly important in orthopedic, plastic, and urological procedures. Understanding these tissue characteristics is essential for optimal surgical outcomes in paediatric patients and represents a fundamental aspect of specialized paediatric surgical training.



Anesthetic management in paediatric patients involves considerations that go well beyond weight-based medication dosing adjustments. The paediatric airway differs anatomically from adults, with a more anterior larynx, shorter trachea, and funnel-shaped subglottis, creating distinctive challenges for intubation and airway maintenance during surgery. Children lose heat more rapidly during surgery due to their larger surface area to volume ratio, necessitating careful attention to temperature monitoring and conservation strategies throughout the perioperative period. Fluid and electrolyte management requires exceptional precision during paediatric procedures, with significantly smaller margins for error in volume and electrolyte administration than typically encountered in adult practice. Blood volume calculations must be precise, with even small miscalculations potentially leading to significant hemodynamic consequences.

Decision-making for Procedures with Lifelong Implications

Paediatric surgical decision-making must consider the long-term impact of interventions on a developing child, with consequences that may extend decades into adulthood. The optimal timing for surgical intervention balances immediate needs against developmental considerations—for example, early closure of cleft palate facilitates normal speech development, while delayed reconstruction of certain orthopedic deformities may allow for growth completion. Surgical procedures involving growth plates, endocrine organs, or structures subject to significant remodeling must consider long-term growth implications, not just immediate correction.

The long-term consequences of paediatric surgical interventions are powerfully illustrated by case examples that demonstrate how complications can manifest years or even decades later. As described by Das,³³ a patient who underwent choledochal cyst surgery at age 3 later presented with abdominal pain and jaundice at age 17 due to an anastomotic stricture near the porta hepatis—a complex surgical problem that would challenge even experienced general surgeons. In another striking case, a patient operated on at 2 days of age for jejunal atresia with meconium peritonitis returned 22 years later with severe complications. This patient had developed cholelithiasis at age 10 and underwent cholecystectomy performed by a general surgeon, who noted intense intestinal adhesions during the procedure. Multiple surgical complications followed, including intestinal injury, fecal fistula development, and failed repair attempts, leaving the patient with a chronic fistula for 10 years before successful surgical intervention. These cases highlight how the legacy of paediatric surgical conditions and their management can extend well into adulthood, underscoring the need for specialized paediatric surgical expertise and long-term follow-up.

These decision-making complexities highlight the ethical dimensions of paediatric surgery and the importance of involving families in shared decision-making that considers both immediate outcomes and long-term quality of life. Paediatric surgeons bear a unique responsibility not only for the immediate technical success of procedures but also for the lifelong implications of their interventions on a developing

child's future health, function, and well-being. The unique challenges of paediatric surgery necessitate specific training and expertise, including dedicated fellowship programs and specialized credentials.

Multidisciplinary Approach Requirements

Paediatric surgeons frequently collaborate with developmental specialists to assess the impact of surgical interventions on developmental trajectories and to implement appropriate supportive interventions. This integration ensures that surgical management decisions consider not only anatomical correction but also cognitive, motor, and social developmental implications. Many paediatric surgical conditions require longitudinal follow-up throughout childhood and adolescence to monitor growth, function, and potential need for additional interventions as development progresses—creating care continuity requirements that may span decades rather than months.

Paediatric surgical patients benefit from specialized nursing care and rehabilitation services that address developmental needs alongside recovery from surgical intervention. Paediatric surgical nurses require expertise not only in technical aspects of postoperative care but also in age-appropriate communication, pain assessment in non-verbal children, and recognition of developmental variations in physiological responses. Similarly, paediatric rehabilitation specialists develop therapeutic approaches that account for ongoing neurological and musculoskeletal development while addressing surgical recovery needs.

This comprehensive multidisciplinary approach distinguishes paediatric surgical practice from adult models and highlights the importance of specialized children's hospitals and paediatric surgical training programs in optimizing outcomes for these complex patients.

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND NEUROCOGNITIVE UNIQUENESS

Cognitive Development Stages and Clinical Implications

Cognitive development progresses through established stages throughout childhood with significant implications for paediatric healthcare delivery. During the sensorimotor stage (birth to 2 years), infants comprehend experiences primarily through sensory input and motor actions, necessitating healthcare approaches that emphasize soothing sensory experiences and parental presence. The preoperational stage (2-7 years) is characterized by emerging symbolic thought but persistent egocentrism, requiring concrete explanations and attention to illness causality misconceptions. As children enter the concrete operational stage (7-11 years), their increased logical thinking capabilities support more detailed medical discussions, though still benefiting from visual aids and concrete examples. Adolescents in the formal operational stage (11+ years) develop abstract reasoning that facilitates more sophisticated treatment discussions, though decision-making capacity continues to mature.³⁴ These developmental variations necessitate stage-appropriate communication strategies rather than modified adult approaches (**Figure 5**).



Figure 5. Pediatric communication assessment matrix by developmental stage

Communication Challenges in Clinical Assessment

Paediatric communication abilities present distinct challenges for symptom assessment and clinical evaluation. Pre-verbal children communicate discomfort through nonverbal indicators including facial expressions, body posturing, and physiological changes, requiring observational assessment protocols. Young children typically employ concrete, limited vocabulary for symptom description, often with idiosyncratic terminology and imprecise pain localization. Heightened suggestibility in paediatric populations may affect symptom report reliability, particularly when leading questions are employed. Children with developmental language disorders present additional assessment complexities requiring modified communication strategies. These developmental communication variations necessitate specialized assessment instruments and interpretation frameworks specifically designed for paediatric populations.

Developmental Aspects of Pain Perception and Expression

Pain perception and expression demonstrate significant developmental variation throughout childhood. Nociceptive system development occurs early, with documented pain responses in premature infants, contradicting historical assumptions about limited neonatal pain perception. Pain expression behaviors vary across developmental stages, from generalized distress responses in infants to increasingly differentiated verbal descriptions in older children.³⁵ Pain memory formation influences subsequent healthcare experiences, potentially manifesting as anticipatory distress. Cultural and familial contexts significantly shape pain expression patterns,³⁶ creating heterogeneous pain communication styles requiring recognition in paediatric assessment protocols. These developmental considerations necessitate age-appropriate pain assessment instruments and management approaches specifically validated for paediatric populations (Figure 6).

Developmental Variation in Psychological Impact of Illness

The psychological impact of illness and hospitalization demonstrates significant developmental variation.^{37,38} For infants and toddlers, caregiver separation constitutes the primary psychological stressor, potentially disrupting attachment security and developmental progression. Preschool children commonly experience fear of bodily harm and separation anxiety, often manifesting as behavioral

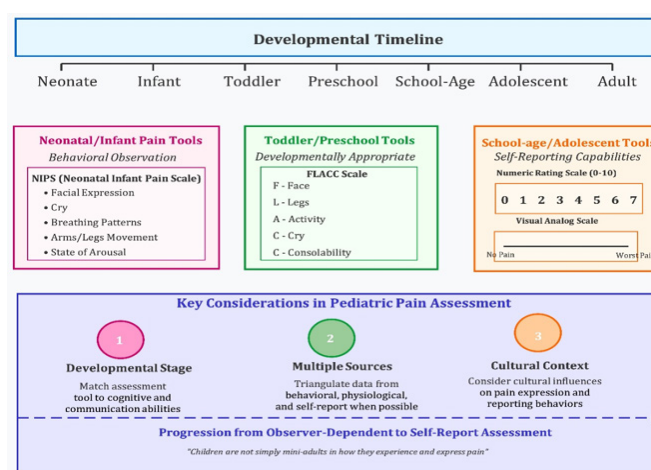


Figure 6. Pain assessment tools across developmental stages

regression. School-age children typically express concerns regarding physical disability and peer relationship disruption, potentially presenting as withdrawal or academic difficulties. Adolescents face challenges to emerging independence and body image, sometimes responding with treatment non-adherence or identity disturbance. These developmental variations in psychological impact necessitate age-appropriate psychosocial interventions tailored to specific developmental concerns rather than generic approaches.

DIAGNOSTIC CHALLENGES

Laboratory Reference Ranges: Why Adult Values Don't Apply

Paediatric laboratory values demonstrate age-dependent variations that reflect developmental physiology rather than pathology.^{39,40}

Hematological parameters: Red blood cell indices, white blood cell counts, and platelet counts demonstrate substantial age-dependent variations (Figure 7).

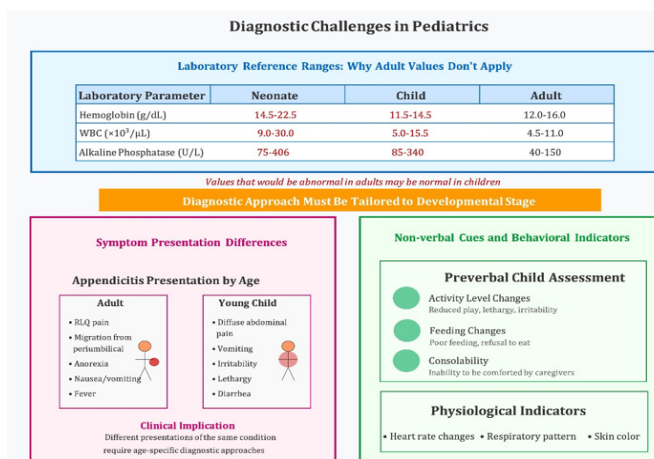


Figure 7. Diagnostic challenges in pediatrics

Chemistry values: Electrolytes, renal function markers, liver enzymes, and metabolic parameters demonstrate age-specific reference ranges that reflect developmental physiology. For example, alkaline phosphatase levels are substantially higher in growing children due to bone turnover, while creatinine values reflect developing muscle mass and renal function.



Endocrine parameters: Hormone levels demonstrate complex developmental patterns throughout childhood and adolescence, necessitating age, sex, and pubertal stage-specific reference ranges for accurate interpretation.

The use of adult-derived reference ranges in paediatric populations can lead to misdiagnosis, unnecessary testing, and inappropriate interventions, highlighting the importance of age-specific laboratory interpretation in paediatric practice.

Imaging Considerations and Radiation Sensitivity

Paediatric imaging involves important considerations beyond simple technical adjustments:

Radiation sensitivity: Children demonstrate greater radiosensitivity than adults, with higher lifetime risk of radiation-induced malignancy, such as cancer,⁷⁷ due to increased tissue radiosensitivity and longer life expectancy.⁴¹

ALARA principle: The “as low as reasonably achievable” principle takes on heightened importance in paediatric imaging, driving the development of paediatric-specific imaging protocols, equipment settings, and technological innovations to minimize radiation exposure.⁴²

Developmental variations in normal imaging appearance: Normal anatomical structures and physiological processes demonstrate age-dependent variations on imaging studies, necessitating specialized knowledge for accurate interpretation.

These considerations influence paediatric imaging algorithms and highlight why adult imaging approaches cannot be simply transferred to paediatric populations without modification.

Limited Self-reporting Capabilities: Dependence on Observation and Caregiver Reports

Paediatric diagnostic methodology demonstrates fundamental epistemological differences from adult assessment paradigms, primarily due to developmental limitations in self-reporting capabilities:

Information triangulation requirements: While adult assessment typically relies predominantly on patient self-report supplemented by objective measures, paediatric assessment necessitates systematic triangulation across multiple informants. This multi-informant approach represents a structural diagnostic difference rather than merely an adaptation of adult assessment protocols.

Developmental variability in reporting accuracy: Unlike adult populations where reporting accuracy primarily varies with cognitive status, paediatric reporting accuracy demonstrates significant developmental trajectory dependence. Children under 5 years demonstrate limited ability to accurately report temporal sequences, symptom duration, or intensity gradations. School-age children show developmental progression in symptom discrimination but persistent difficulties with symptom attribution and intensity scaling. These developmental constraints represent

qualitative rather than quantitative reporting differences compared to adult populations.

Hierarchical information weighting: Paediatric diagnostic models require developmentally-informed hierarchical weighting of information sources, with observational data holding greater diagnostic validity in younger children and self-report gaining increased weighting with developmental progression. This contrasts with adult assessment wherein self-report typically maintains primary diagnostic priority except in cases of cognitive impairment. Furthermore, parental psychopathology, family functioning, and parental healthcare experiences significantly influence symptom reporting in paediatric contexts, creating potential assessment biases without direct adult assessment parallels.

Non-verbal Assessment Parameters: Comparative Analysis of Paediatric vs. Adult Indicators

Non-verbal assessment parameters in paediatric populations demonstrate both quantitative and qualitative differences from adult counterparts:

Physiological parameter interpretation: Paediatric physiological indicators require age-specific interpretation frameworks due to developmental variations in baseline parameters and stress responses. Unlike adults, where tachycardia represents a relatively specific stress indicator, paediatric heart rate interpretation requires consideration of developmental baselines, with resting heart rates ranging from 120-160 bpm in infants to 60-100 bpm in adolescents. Additionally, the physiological stress response demonstrates developmental differences, with infants showing shorter cortisol elevation durations but more pronounced cardiovascular reactivity compared to adults.

Behavioural repertoire differences: The behavioural manifestation of illness and distress in paediatric populations involves a developmentally distinct repertoire compared to adults. While adults typically demonstrate illness behaviour through activity restriction and healthcare-seeking, paediatric illness behaviour commonly manifests through regression to earlier developmental functioning, changes in play complexity, and alterations in social engagement patterns. These behavioural indicators lack direct adult parallels and require developmental expertise for accurate interpretation.

Ontogeny of facial expression: Facial expression coding systems for paediatric assessment (e.g., Neonatal Facial Coding System⁴³) recognize developmentally distinct facial action patterns not present in adult facial coding systems. Neonatal and infant facial expressions demonstrate more global activation patterns and fewer discriminative features compared to adult expressions, necessitating specialized coding systems rather than downward extensions of adult facial analysis.

Motor development considerations: Postural assessment in paediatric populations requires integration with motor development trajectories, not relevant to adult assessment. Abnormal posturing must be distinguished from transitional



motor patterns characteristic of typical development (e.g., asymmetric tonic neck reflex, obligatory pronation in early reaching) without adult parallels. This developmental context creates a qualitatively different interpretive framework for motor and postural assessment compared to adult populations.

These fundamental differences in assessment parameters, information sources, and developmental considerations highlight the necessity of specialized paediatric assessment frameworks rather than simply modified adult approaches. The developmental constraints on self-reporting combined with the distinct non-verbal manifestations of illness create unique diagnostic challenges that require specialized paediatric expertise for accurate clinical assessment and management.

ETHICAL AND LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS

Decision-Making Frameworks Unique to Paediatrics

Paediatric ethics involves distinctive considerations related to developing autonomy and parental authority:

Parental consent requirements and limitations: Parents or legal guardians generally hold decision-making authority for children, with boundaries established by concepts of the child's best interest and state child protection frameworks.

Developmentally appropriate assent for children ≥ 7 years: Children develop decision-making capacity gradually, with assent (affirmative agreement to participate) increasingly sought as children mature, even when formal legal authority remains with parents.

Evolving capacity assessment: Evaluation of children's decision-making capacity considers not only age but also individual maturity, complexity of the decision, and potential consequences of various options.

Navigating conflicts between child and parental preferences: Approaches to managing disagreement between children's expressed preferences and parental decisions become increasingly nuanced as children develop greater decision-making capacity, particularly for adolescents approaching legal majority.

These decision-making frameworks highlight the developmental context of paediatric ethics and the limitations of adult-oriented autonomy models when applied to children at various developmental stages.

Life-altering Treatment Decisions and Their Ethical Dimensions

Certain paediatric treatment decisions involve particularly complex ethical considerations due to their lifelong implications:

Ablative surgeries with permanent consequences: Procedures that permanently alter anatomy or function (e.g., organ removal, fertility-affecting interventions) raise unique

ethical questions when performed on children who cannot provide informed consent.

Quality of life considerations for chronic conditions: Decision-making for children with life-limiting or severely debilitating conditions must consider quality of life alongside survival, with recognition that quality assessments may differ between children, parents, and providers.

Weighing immediate vs. long-term implications: Decisions with diverging short-term and long-term implications create complex ethical considerations. For example, clean intermittent catheterization versus permanent urinary diversion procedures in spina bida involve tradeoffs between immediate quality of life and long-term complications.

Palliative care and end-of-life decision-making: End-of-life decision-making for children raises distinctive ethical questions regarding the roles of parents, providers, ethics committees, and courts in determining the best interests of children who cannot express their own values.

These ethical dimensions highlight why paediatric decision-making frameworks must consider developmental context, parental authority, and the unique vulnerabilities and capabilities of children at different developmental stages.

Life Expectancy Considerations in Treatment Decisions

Children's longer life expectancy influences ethical considerations regarding treatment benefits and burdens:

Longer duration of benefit: Successful interventions in childhood may provide benefit over many decades, potentially justifying higher initial costs or risks than might be acceptable in late adulthood.

Cumulative treatment burden: Conversely, treatments with cumulative toxicity or complications may have greater lifetime impact when initiated in childhood, necessitating careful consideration of long-term effects.

Evolving treatment landscape: Children with chronic conditions will experience evolving treatment options throughout their lifetime, creating uncertainty about whether current definitive interventions will remain optimal as new options emerge.

Unknown very long-term outcomes: Many paediatric interventions lack very long-term outcome data (e.g., 30+ years), creating ethical challenges regarding decision-making with incomplete information.

These life expectancy considerations highlight an important dimension of paediatric decision-making that has limited parallel in adult medical ethics.

LIFE COURSE IMPLICATIONS

Transition to Adult Care Challenges

The transition from paediatric to adult healthcare systems represents a vulnerable period requiring specialized



approaches that address multiple interconnected domains. Effective transition necessitates structured knowledge transfer between healthcare systems with fundamentally different care models, documentation practices, and specialty structures while simultaneously supporting the progressive development of disease knowledge, self-management skills, and healthcare navigation capabilities throughout adolescence and young adulthood. Successful transition programs typically incorporate systems-level approaches to ensure continuity of care, including transition coordinators who bridge communication gaps, overlap clinics that allow relationship building with adult providers before full transfer, and condition-specific transition protocols that address unique needs of different patient populations. These multifaceted transition challenges highlight the problematic nature of rigid age-based healthcare divisions and underscore the importance of developmental rather than strictly chronological approaches to healthcare transition planning and implementation.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Precision Medicine Applications in Paediatrics

Precision medicine applications in paediatrics necessitate distinct considerations extending beyond approaches appropriate for adult populations. Gene expression follows dynamic developmental patterns, creating age-specific genomic signatures and therapeutic targets that demand longitudinal rather than cross-sectional analysis frameworks. Unlike adult precision medicine, paediatric applications must carefully evaluate potential impacts on growth trajectories, developmental milestones, and pubertal progression when selecting targeted therapies. The timing of genomically targeted interventions⁴⁴ in early developmental windows may produce amplified effects, both beneficial and adverse, throughout the lifespan, creating unique risk-benefit calculations not encountered in adult precision medicine. Additionally, biomarkers fundamental to precision medicine approaches require paediatric-specific validation processes, as biomarkers validated in adult populations frequently demonstrate substantially different performance characteristics across developmental stages. These developmental dimensions of precision medicine underscore why paediatric genomic medicine require specialized approaches rather than simple adaptation of adult precision medicine paradigms.

Technology Adaptation for Paediatric Care

Emerging technologies in healthcare require fundamental developmental adaptations rather than simple downsizing for effective paediatric application. Digital health interventions must address distinctive paediatric considerations including developmental appropriateness across cognitive stages, family-centered engagement strategies, educational setting integration, and enhanced privacy protections for vulnerable populations. Medical device development faces unique challenges in paediatric contexts including smaller market incentives, accommodation for physical growth, and age-specific human factors requirements—necessitating specialized regulatory pathways and development incentives. Artificial intelligence applications for paediatric populations

must contend with the complex developmental dynamics of both normal variation and pathological conditions, creating additional algorithmic complexity compared to adult applications where baseline states remain relatively stable. Similarly, paediatric telehealth requires specific adaptations including structured approaches to three-way communication involving caregivers, modifications to developmental assessment techniques for remote delivery, and integration frameworks for schools and childcare settings. These multifaceted adaptation requirements demonstrate why emerging healthcare technologies demand fundamental reconsideration based on developmental principles rather than simple miniaturization for paediatric implementation.

CONCLUSION

The evidence presented throughout this comprehensive review demonstrates conclusively that the principle “children are not simply small adults” extends far beyond a mere aphorism to represent a fundamental scientific reality with profound implications for healthcare delivery across molecular biology, systems physiology, pharmacology, psychology, ethics, and healthcare organization. Several critical themes emerge: developmental trajectories create uniquely paediatric physiological states requiring specialized knowledge; childhood healthcare interventions have amplified lifelong implications creating both extraordinary opportunity and significant risk; simplistic scaling approaches consistently fail across all domains of paediatric care; specialized healthcare structures are essential rather than merely preferable; and emerging healthcare technologies may amplify both opportunities and risks if not specifically adapted for developmental considerations. These findings necessitate specific policy frameworks supporting paediatric research and specialized care; educational approaches that go beyond adapting adult content; research methodologies addressing unique paediatric challenges; and clinical practice standards incorporating developmental rather than merely scaled considerations. The scientific basis for specialized paediatric healthcare spans from molecular to societal levels and demands continued investment in paediatric-specific knowledge, research, and healthcare systems to ensure all children receive care optimally suited to their unique developmental needs.

ETHICAL DECLARATIONS

Referee Evaluation Process

Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Financial Disclosure

The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions

All of the authors declare that they have all participated in the design, execution, and analysis of the paper, and that they have approved the final version.



REFERENCES

- Obladen M. Lethal lullabies: a history of opium use in infants. *J Hum Lact.* 2015;32(1):75-85. doi:10.1177/0890334415594615
- Markel H. Academic pediatrics: the view of New York City a century ago. *Acad Med.* 1996;71(2):146-151. doi:10.1097/00001888-199602000-00017
- Kearns GL, Abdel-Rahman SM, Alander SW, Blowey DL, Leeder JS, Kauffman RE. Developmental pharmacology—drug disposition, action, and therapy in infants and children. *N Engl J Med.* 2003;349(12):1157-1167. doi:10.1056/nejmra035092
- Anand KJS, Hickey PR. Pain and its effects in the human neonate and fetus. *N Engl J Med.* 1987;317(21):1321-1329. doi:10.1056/nejm 198711193172105
- Giedd JN. Structural magnetic resonance imaging of the adolescent brain. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 2004;1021(1):77-85. doi:10.1196/annals.1308.009
- Adkins B, Leclerc C, Marshall-Clarke S. Neonatal adaptive immunity comes of age. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2004;4(7):553-564. doi:10.1038/nri1394
- Barker DJP. Fetal origins of coronary heart disease. *BMJ.* 1995;311(6998):171-174. doi:10.1136/bmj.311.6998.171
- Shonkoff JP, Garner AS, Siegel BS, et al. The lifelong effects of early childhood adversity and toxic stress. *Pediatrics.* 2011;129(1):e232-e246. doi:10.1542/peds.2011-2663
- Graf GHJ, Biroli P, Belsky DW. Critical periods in child development and the transition to adulthood. *JAMA Network Open.* 2021;4(1):e2033359. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.33359
- Cioni G, Sgandurra G. Normal psychomotor development. *Handb Clin Neurol.* 2013;111:3-15. doi:10.1016/b978-0-444-52891-9.00001-4
- Morgane PJ, Mokler DJ, Galler JR. Effects of prenatal protein malnutrition on the hippocampal formation. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 2002;26(4):471-483. doi:10.1016/s0149-7634(02)00012-x
- Germovsek E, Barker CIS, Sharland M, Standing JF. Scaling clearance in paediatric pharmacokinetics: all models are wrong, which are useful? *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2016;83(4):777-790. doi:10.1111/bcp.13160
- Fu BM, Zhao Z, Zhu D. Blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability and transport measurement in vitro and in vivo. *Methods Mol Biol.* 2021;2367:105-122. doi:10.1007/97810712020308
- Sharma S, Arain N, Mathur N, et al. Maturation of the adolescent brain. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat.* 2013;9:449-461. doi:10.2147/ndt.s39776
- Li H, Lampe JN. Neonatal cytochrome P450 CYP3A7: a comprehensive review of its role in development, disease, and xenobiotic metabolism. *Arch Biochem Biophys.* 2019;673:108078. doi:10.1016/j.abb.2019.108078
- Craft AW. The “grey toddler”: chloramphenicol toxicity. *Arch Dis Child.* 1974;49(11):913. doi:10.1136/adc.49.11.913-a
- Smeets NJL, IntHout J, Van Der Burgh MJP, Schwartz GJ, Schreuder MF, De Wildt SN. Maturation of GFR in term-born neonates: an individual participant data meta-analysis. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2022;33(7):1277-1292. doi:10.1681/asn.2021101326
- Segar JL, Jetton JG. Fluid and electrolyte management in the neonate and what can go wrong. *Curr Opin Pediatr.* 2023;36(2):198-203. doi:10.1097/mop.0000000000001308
- Vrancken SL, Van Heijst AF, De Boode WP. Neonatal hemodynamics: from developmental physiology to comprehensive monitoring. *Front Pediatr.* 2018;6:87. doi:10.3389/fped.2018.00087
- Vijayasekaran S. Pediatric airway pathology. *Front Pediatr.* 2020;8:246. doi:10.3389/fped.2020.00246
- Lanciotti L, Cofini M, Leonardi A, Penta L, Esposito S. Up-to-date review about minipuberty and overview on hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis activation in fetal and neonatal life. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne).* 2018;9:410. doi:10.3389/fendo.2018.00410
- Hawkes CP, Grimberg A. Measuring growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor-I in infants: what is normal? *Pediatr Endocrinol Rev.* 2013;11(2):126-146.
- Önsesveren I, Barjaktarovic M, Chaker L, et al. Childhood thyroid function reference ranges and determinants: a literature overview and a prospective cohort study. *Thyroid.* 2017;27(11):1360-1369. doi:10.1089/thy.2017.0262
- Rosenfeld E, Thornton PS. Hypoglycemia in neonates, infants, and children. Endotext - NCBI Bookshelf. 2023.
- Ruggiero A, Ariano A, Triarico S, Capozza MA, Ferrara P, Attinà G. Neonatal pharmacology and clinical implications. *Drugs in Context.* 2019;8:212608. doi:10.7573/dic.212608
- Bonner JJ, Vajjah P, Abduljalil K, et al. Does age affect gastric emptying time? A model-based meta-analysis of data from premature neonates through to adults. *Biopharm Drug Dispos.* 2015;36(4):245-257. doi:10.1002/bdd.1937
- Miyamoto SD, Stauffer BL, Nakano S, et al. Beta-adrenergic adaptation in paediatric idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy. *Eur Heart J.* 2012;35(1):33-41. doi:10.1093/eurheartj/ehs229
- Parikh JM, Amolenda P, Rutledge J, Szabova A, Chidambaram V. An update on the safety of prescribing opioids in pediatrics. *Expert Opin Drug Saf.* 2019;18(2):127-143. doi:10.1080/14740338.2019.1571037
- Rosati A, De Masi S, Guerrini R. Antiepileptic drug treatment in children with epilepsy. *CNS Drugs.* 2015;29(10):847-863. doi:10.1007/s40263-015-0281-8
- Park MK. Use of digoxin in infants and children, with specific emphasis on dosage. *J Pediatr.* 1986;108(6):871-877. doi:10.1016/s0022-3476(86)80919-2
- Ballentine C. Sulfanilamide disaster. *FDA Consumer Magazine.* 1981:5.
- Singh A, Anjankar AP. Propofol-related infusion syndrome: a clinical review. *Cureus.* 2022;14(10):e30383. doi:10.7759/cureus.30383
- Das S. Pediatric surgical diseases and legacy of pediatric surgery in adults—responsibility of pediatric surgeons. *J Indian Assoc Pediatr Surg.* 2018;23(4):180. doi:10.4103/jiaps.jiaps_131_18
- Pakpahan FH, Saragih M. Theory of cognitive development by jean piaget. *J Applied Linguistics.* 2022;2(2):55-60. doi:10.52622/joal.v2i2.79
- Deyo KS, Prkachin KM, Mercer SR. Development of sensitivity to facial expression of pain. *Pain.* 2003;107(1):16-21. doi:10.1016/s0304-3959(03)00263-x
- Grégoire M, Bruneau-Bhérier R, Morasse K, Eugène F, Jackson PL. The perception and estimation of others' pain according to children. *Pain Res Manag.* 2016;2016:9097542. doi:10.1155/2016/9097542
- Rokach A. Psychological, emotional and physical experiences of hospitalized children. *Clin Case Rep Rev.* 2016;2(4):399-401. doi:10.15761/ccrr.1000227
- Pate J, Hush J, Hancock M, et al. A child's concept of pain: an international survey of pediatric pain experts. *Children.* 2018;5(1):12. doi:10.3390/children5010012
- Kohse KP. A worldwide paediatric laboratory medicine network: the International Federation of Clinical Chemistry Task Force on Pediatric Laboratory Medicine (IFCC TF-PLM). *J Clin Pathol.* 2009;62(3):193-194. doi:10.1136/jcp.2008.062273
- Wong EC, Dietzen DJ, Bennett MJ, Haymond S. (Eds.). Biochemical and molecular basis of pediatric disease. Academic Press. 2021. doi:10.1016/c2018-0-01599-6
- Hall EJ. Lessons we have learned from our children: cancer risks from diagnostic radiology. *Pediatr Radiol.* 2002;32(10):700-706. doi:10.1007/s00247-002-0774-8
- Strauss KJ, Kaste SC. The ALARA (as low as reasonably achievable) concept in pediatric interventional and fluoroscopic imaging: striving to keep radiation doses as low as possible during fluoroscopy of pediatric patients—a white paper executive summary. *Pediatr Radiol.* 2006;36(Suppl 2):110-112. doi:10.1007/s00247-006-0184-4
- Peters JWB, Koot HM, Grunau RE, et al. Neonatal facial coding system for assessing postoperative pain in infants: item reduction is valid and feasible. *Clin J Pain.* 2003;19(6):353-363. doi:10.1097/00002508-200311000-00003
- Gol TM, Zahedipour F, Trosien P, et al. Gene therapy in pediatrics—clinical studies and approved drugs (as of 2023). *Life Sciences.* 2024;348:122685. doi:10.1016/j.lfs.2024.122685