



Risks of Undertreatment and Overtreatment in Pediatric Inflammatory Bowel Disease: Navigating the Balance

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Abstract

Despite major therapeutic advances in recent years, and early signs that the overall standard of care we can deliver to children with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is improving, the promise of precision medicine remains largely unfulfilled in daily practice. The goal is to match the right therapy to the right patient, in the right time window, so that treatment intensity reflects true disease biology and future risk rather than broad population averages. However, this approach is still an unmet need. Even when management is framed within a risk-based paradigm, clinical decisions are often guided by generalized recommendations and imperfect predictors, with limited capacity to individualize strategies at diagnosis and during follow-up. As a result, two opposite but equally relevant pitfalls remain very real. On one hand, overtreatment can lead to unnecessary exposure to immunosuppressive regimens in children and adolescents with mild, slowly progressive, or self-limited disease, increasing the burden of adverse events, monitoring, and psychosocial impact. On the other hand, undertreatment in truly high-risk patients can delay effective control of inflammation, allowing ongoing tissue damage, disease extension, growth impairment, and avoidable complications, ultimately worsening long-term outcomes. This critical review summarizes and critically appraises current recommendations and available evidence, focusing on the pitfalls of overtreatment and undertreatment in pediatric IBD.

Key Points

Pediatric inflammatory bowel disease management requires balancing effective disease control with the risk of both overtreatment and undertreatment.

Current risk stratification approaches may be incomplete and may not fully capture individual disease behavior in clinical practice.

Precision medicine and predictive biomarkers are needed to enable truly individualized treatment strategies.

1 Introduction

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD), including Crohn's disease (CD), ulcerative colitis (UC), and IBD–unclassified (IBD-U), are chronic, immune-mediated disorders of the gastrointestinal tract, resulting from a complex interplay between genetic susceptibility, environmental exposures, and microbiome-driven immune dysregulation. Approximately 10% of IBD cases present during childhood [1–3], with peak incidence in adolescents and young adults aged 15–29 years [4]. While incidence appears to stabilize in Western adult populations [5], pediatric IBD (PIBD) continues to rise globally, including in low- and middle-income countries [3, 6, 7]. This trend translates into a substantial and sustained burden on healthcare systems, as children and adolescents require longer-term care and often more intensive inpatient and outpatient management than adults [8–12].

PIBD is also characterized by distinct characteristics, including more extensive colonic involvement, higher disease activity at diagnosis, and an increased need for immunosuppressive and biologic therapies [13–16].

Therapeutic goals therefore extend beyond symptom control to include sustained mucosal healing, preservation of growth and pubertal development, and optimization of psychosocial wellbeing [17]. The STRIDE-II (Selecting Therapeutic Targets

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in Inflammatory Bowel Disease) principles provide an evidence-based, treat-to-target framework for both adult and pediatric IBD, defining therapeutic goals within specific timelines and prioritizing objective measures of disease control over symptom-based management [17]. Although STRIDE-II does not provide therapy-specific algorithms, international pediatric guidelines integrate risk stratification based on predictors of poor outcome [18], a concept central to the discussion of overtreatment and undertreatment.

The introduction of biologics has highlighted this issue. The growing availability of multiple effective agents, facilitated by the favorable cost profiles of biosimilars, has enabled earlier and broader biologic exposure in pediatric populations. For instance, in Canada, anti-tumor necrosis factor (anti-TNF) use increased from 13% to 60% in CD and from 4.9% to 25.5% in UC between 2010 and 2016 [19]. Similar trends have been observed in Scotland and Israel, with marked reductions in time to biologic initiation [20, 21]. These changes have been associated with improved outcomes, including reduced relapse rates, surgery, and colectomy risk [21–23].

Nevertheless, the key challenge remains striking a balance between preventing overtreatment (unnecessary

exposure to immunosuppressive regimens) in children and adolescents with mild or indolent disease and avoiding harm from undertreatment in high-risk patients [24]. This balance lies at the core of precision medicine in PIBD: delivering the right therapy to the right patient at the right time through reliable risk stratification and tailored treatment strategies.

This narrative review addresses this challenge by providing an updated overview of current treatment paradigms for pediatric CD and UC, synthesizing contemporary evidence on risk stratification and prognostic assessment and a critical discussion of the risks of overtreatment and undertreatment in children and adolescents with IBD. We conclude by outlining a forward-looking perspective on the ‘ideal’ patient journey over the next decade, integrating treat-to-target principles, evolving biomarkers, and increasingly personalized models of care.

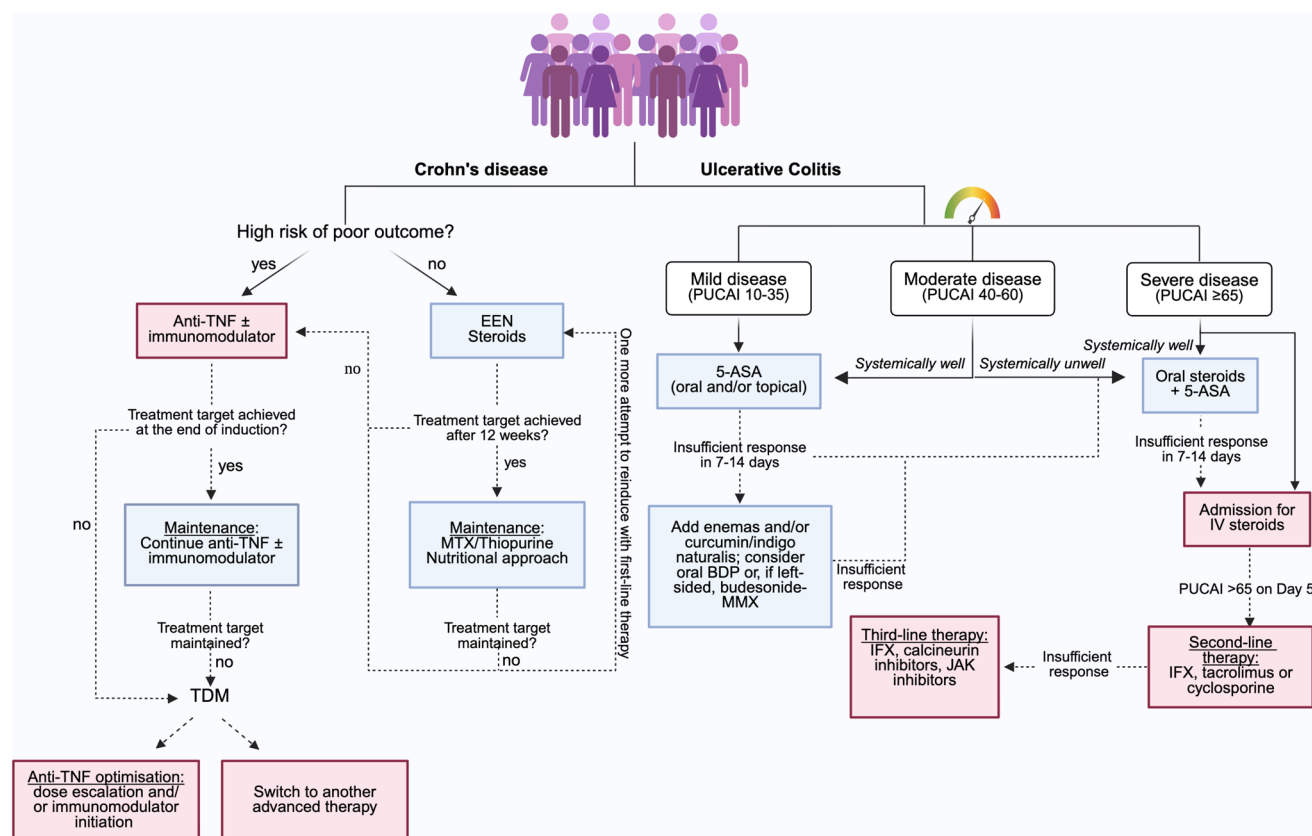


Fig. 1 Current treatment algorithms in pediatric inflammatory bowel disease. Therapeutic escalation is guided by clinical disease severity in ulcerative colitis and by predictors of poor outcome in Crohn's disease. Adapted from current pediatric guidelines for Crohn's disease [18] and ulcerative colitis [29, 98]. *BDP* beclomethasone dipropion-

ate, *EEN* exclusive enteral nutrition, *IFX* infliximab, *IV* intravenous, *JAK* Janus kinase, *MTX* methotrexate, *PUCAI* Pediatric Ulcerative Colitis Activity Index, *TDM* therapeutic drug monitoring, *TNF* tumor necrosis factor, *5-ASA* 5-aminosalicylic acid

2 From Options to Strategy: Treatment Selection in Pediatric Crohn's Disease and Ulcerative Colitis to Avoid Undertreatment and Overtreatment

2.1 Induction of Remission in Pediatric Inflammatory Bowel Diseases (PIBD)

Figure 1 depicts the therapeutic algorithm for newly diagnosed PIBD.

Since 2020, pediatric CD management has been firmly grounded in risk stratification at diagnosis. Treatment intensity is guided by predictors of poor outcome, including panenteric disease, deep colonic ulcerations, perianal fistulizing disease, stricturing or penetrating behavior (B2/B3), severe growth impairment, and persistent disease activity despite initial therapy (Table 1) [18]. Children with these features have increased risk of complications, failure to achieve sustained remission, and surgery, justifying upfront biologic therapy, typically an anti-TNF agent [18]. Evidence from multiple cohorts supports the concept that early effective intervention may favorably modify disease trajectory and prevent progression to more aggressive phenotypes [25].

Conversely, children without predictors of poor outcome are most vulnerable to overtreatment. In low-to-moderate luminal CD with an inflammatory (B1) phenotype, a 6- to 8-week course of exclusive enteral nutrition (EEN) remains the recommended first-line induction therapy [18]. Where nutritional therapy is not feasible, an 8-week course of combined azithromycin and metronidazole

(CD-AZCRO) represent an effective alternative induction in mild-to-moderate CD [26, 27].

Pediatric UC management, outside steroid-refractory acute severe colitis where strict adherence to day-by-day guideline recommendations is mandatory, generally follows a step-up approach. Baseline disease severity assessed using the Pediatric Ulcerative Colitis Activity Index (PUCAI) [28], fecal calprotectin (FC), and systemic inflammatory markers (fever, elevated C-reactive protein [CRP] and/or erythrocyte sedimentation rate [ESR], hypoalbuminemia), drives treatment decisions (Table 1). Topical and oral mesalamine remains first-line therapy in mild to-moderate UC, while oral corticosteroids are required in more aggressive disease [29].

2.1.1 Where Does the Risk of Under- and Overtreatment Lie?

Pediatric guidelines provide clear recommendations: in CD, risk-stratification dictates upfront anti-TNF therapy in high-risk patients, while in UC, PUCAI-guided step-up strategies predominate (Fig. 2). Adherence to these algorithms would theoretically minimize both overtreatment and undertreatment in early disease.

However, several scenarios complicate real-world practice. Risk of overtreatment should be considered when prescribing combination therapy (biologic plus immunomodulator), which, in fact, remains debated: while the SONIC trial suggested benefits in adults [30], subsequent analyses indicate that proactive therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM)

Table 1 Predictors of poor outcome in pediatric inflammatory disease currently used in clinical practice

Crohn's disease
Panenteric disease
Deep colonic ulcerations
Perianal fistulizing disease
Stricturing or penetrating behavior (B2/B3)
Marked growth retardation
Persistent severe disease activity despite adequate induction therapy
Ulcerative colitis
High PUCAI score
Elevated fecal calprotectin levels
Low serum albumin and/or hemoglobin levels
Abnormal inflammatory markers (elevated CRP and/or ESR, thrombocytosis)

Based on ECCO-ESPGHAN guidelines [18, 29, 94]

CRP C-reactive protein, ESR erythrocyte sedimentation rate, PUCAI Pediatric Ulcerative Colitis Activity Index

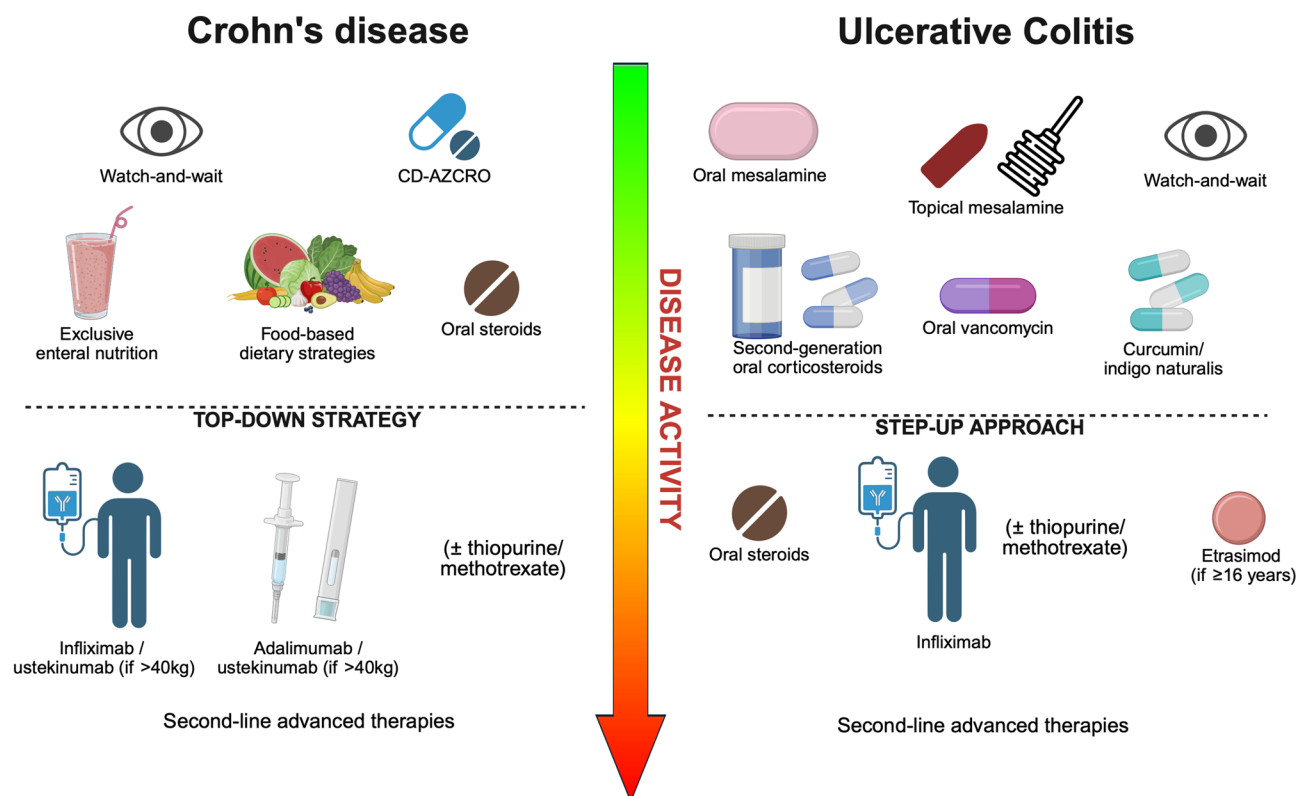


Fig. 2 Currently available therapeutic options for pediatric Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis according to disease activity. *CD-AZCRO* azithromycin and metronidazole

may achieve similar outcomes with infliximab monotherapy [31]. Current pediatric guidelines recommend a concomitant immunomodulator with infliximab [18, 29], but this approach is controversial due to potential toxicities, including an increased risk of highly aggressive cancers associated with thiopurines, particularly in young males [32–38]. Importantly, guidelines also suggest considering withdrawal of the immunomodulator after at least 6 months of combination therapy in patients achieving endoscopic healing or normalization of FC [29], aiming to reduce long-term toxicity while maintaining protection against immunogenicity during the early phase of treatment. As a consequence, the decision to use combination versus monotherapy at the start of infliximab treatment varies widely among pediatric gastroenterologists [39].

In parallel, the risk of undertreatment should not be underestimated, particularly in younger children. In this population, standard dosing strategies may lead to subtherapeutic drug exposure, as younger patients often require higher mg/kg dosing compared with older children and adults [40, 41]. A similar issue arises in patients with a high inflammatory burden and/or hypoalbuminemia, in whom increased drug clearance may further reduce

adequate exposure. In these settings, initiating anti-TNF therapy with intensified induction regimens may increase the likelihood of achieving early clinical and endoscopic remission [29], thereby limiting persistent inflammation and preserving the therapeutic window of opportunity.

Access to advanced therapies in children has historically lagged behind adult IBD, with infliximab and adalimumab long representing the only approved biologics in PIBD, compared with a rapidly expanding therapeutic landscape in adults. This gap in regulatory approval timelines may contribute to undertreatment or suboptimal disease control in pediatric populations [46, 47], where the use of non-anti-TNF biologics or small molecules often relies on complex off-label prescribing, when available.

Encouragingly, recent approvals of newer agents, such as ustekinumab for children with CD weighing >40 kg and etrasimod for adolescents with UC aged ≥16 years, mark an important step forward. However, the introduction of these advanced therapies also raises questions regarding potential overtreatment, particularly in patients with milder disease. In adult populations, ustekinumab has demonstrated efficacy comparable to anti-TNF agents when used as a first-line therapy, while being associated with a more favorable

safety profile [42–45]. From an overtreatment perspective, if similar outcomes are confirmed in pediatric cohorts, and especially with the increasing availability of biosimilars within this drug class, it is conceivable that, when prioritizing safety, anti-TNF agents may no longer represent the default first-line biologic options in adolescents with CD.

Finally, the role of upfront ileal resection warrants consideration. In the absence of pediatric data comparable to those generated by the LIR!C trial in adults [48], the conclusion at present remains straightforward: upfront surgical resection cannot be considered a preferred therapeutic option at the time of diagnosis in pediatric CD.

In UC, established clinical and biochemical parameters, including PUCAI, FC, albumin, hemoglobin, and inflammatory markers (Table 1), may support therapeutic decision making, including top-down strategies. However, a premature application of this therapeutic scheme might expose children to an unnecessary escalation and, as a consequence, an overtreatment of those who could achieved remission with mesalamine alone. Conversely, delayed escalation within a step-up strategy may compromise timely disease control in patients with more aggressive disease, thereby increasing the risk of undertreatment.

2.2 Maintenance Therapy in PIBD

While induction therapy is often straightforward, selecting and adjusting maintenance strategies presents a greater challenge, carrying significant risk of overtreatment and undertreatment (Fig. 3). According to the STRIDE-II recommendations [17], in both CD and UC, symptomatic relief represents an immediate goal, whereas clinical remission and normalization of inflammatory markers (CRP, FC) are medium-term targets, alongside normal growth in children. Long-term goals include endoscopic healing, restoration of quality of life, and prevention of disability. The expected timing for achieving these targets varies according to the therapeutic strategy employed [17], and serial reassessment should guide maintenance decisions. While such reassessment is essential to guide therapy, the need for repeated endoscopic evaluation, particularly in patients with clinical and biochemical remission or an indolent disease course, should be carefully weighed, as it may contribute to overtreatment. Failure to reach predefined targets within the expected timeframe should prompt treatment escalation to avoid undertreatment. Conversely, sustained deep remission may support cautious treatment de-escalation to minimize the risk of overtreatment.

Children with mild-to-moderate luminal CD responding to EEN may continue nutritional strategies or initiate

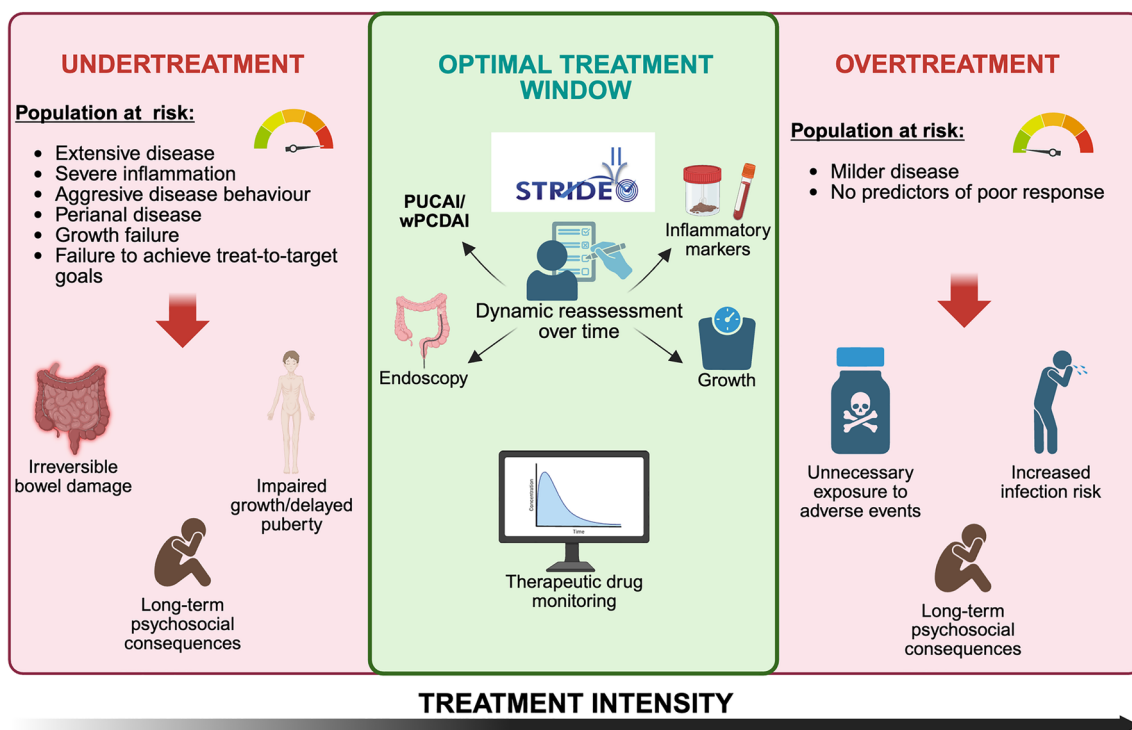


Fig. 3 Spectrum of undertreatment and overtreatment, associated risk population, and potential adverse effects. The balance lies within the optimal treatment window, which can be achieved in accordance with

STRIDE-II principles and, when feasible, through therapeutic drug monitoring. *PUCAI* Pediatric Ulcerative Colitis Activity Index, *wPCDAI* weighted Pediatric Crohn's Disease Activity Index

immunomodulatory therapy, such as methotrexate or thiopurines. In fact, it is well recognized that completion of EEN followed by reintroduction of an unrestricted diet results in a rapid increase in FC levels [49], reflecting a rebound shift toward pre-treatment dysbiosis [50].

Immunomodulators are effective but carry long-term safety concerns, whereas continuing nutritional approaches avoid immunosuppression but require high levels of patient adherence and family motivation. Partial enteral nutrition (PEN) has been included as a maintenance option in the recent ECCO consensus on dietary management of IBD [51], particularly when providing $\geq 35\%$ of daily energy requirements [52].

Children with mild-to-moderate CD achieving remission with corticosteroids or CD-AZCRO also require maintenance therapy with immunomodulators or nutritional strategies, as outlined above. In selected patients with very mild disease, a watch-and-wait approach may be considered; however, this strategy requires strict clinical and biochemical monitoring to detect disease recurrence at a very early stage. To date, no specific evidence supports this approach in PIBD.

Conversely, patients with mild-to-moderate CD who fail to respond to induction therapy require prompt escalation to biologic treatment. Similarly, children with high-risk predictors of poor outcome who are induced with biologics require close and timely reassessment according to STRIDE-II principles. In this context, TDM has significantly improved anti-TNF management by enabling dose optimization and timely escalation [53]. Proactive TDM, performed during remission to maintain adequate drug exposure, has been associated with higher rates of sustained clinical remission and greater biologic durability compared with reactive TDM [54]. This strategy is particularly relevant in patients at increased risk of drug underexposure, including those with low body weight, hypoalbuminemia, high inflammatory burden, or increased drug clearance [55], especially during the early post-induction phase.

Patients who fail to respond to anti-TNF therapy despite adequate trough levels should switch to alternative advanced therapy. However, data guiding second-line treatment positioning in PIBD remain limited, and therapeutic choices are often based on clinician experience, patient preference, and an individualized risk–benefit assessment.

In UC, topical and oral mesalamine remain first-line therapy for maintenance of remission in mild-to-moderate disease. Additional maintenance options include curcumin and indigo naturalis, which may be used as adjuvant therapies to mesalamine [29].

In selected children with mild UC, particularly those with concomitant primary sclerosing cholangitis (PSC), oral vancomycin has shown favorable effects on both biliary and intestinal disease [56]. Evidence supporting its use in

patients without PSC remains limited to preliminary studies [57, 58].

The challenge in maintaining remission in UC lies in the capacity to escalate therapies in a timely manner, avoiding excessive use of steroids, and selecting therapies based on their rapidity of action (steroids) [26]. Recently, an S1P inhibitor (etrasimod) has been approved in adolescents, providing pediatric gastroenterologists with an additional advanced therapy option beyond TNF inhibitors.

2.2.1 Avoiding Overtreatment and Undertreatment During Maintenance: The Real Challenge

Earlier and more intensive treatment has improved outcomes in aggressive PIBD but raises concerns in milder disease lacking predictors of poor outcome. Overtreatment exposes patients to unnecessary risks without proportional clinical benefit. Pharmacological treatments carry a non-negligible burden of adverse events (AEs). Corticosteroids, particularly when used at high doses or for prolonged periods, carry the highest risk of short- and long-term toxicity [59], including infections, growth impairment, metabolic complications, and psychiatric disturbances [60]. Thiopurines, which rank immediately after corticosteroids in terms of safety concerns [59], are associated with relevant toxicities such as pancreatitis, myelotoxicity, and an increased risk of malignancies, particularly lymphoma [34, 61, 62]. Advanced therapies, including biologics and small molecules, also carry potential risks, albeit generally to a lesser extent [59]. Anti-TNF agents are associated with immunogenicity, infections, psoriasisiform skin reactions [53], and a potential risk of skin cancer, while their association with lymphoma remains controversial [32–38]. Although experience with Janus kinase (JAK) inhibitors in PIBD is still limited [63–65], concerns regarding herpes zoster reactivation, venous thromboembolism, and cardiovascular events warrant careful patient selection. Even therapies generally considered to have a more favorable safety profile, such as vedolizumab and agents targeting the interleukin (IL)–12/23 or IL-23 pathways, have been associated with mild AEs [59].

In this context, treat-to-target strategies allow clinicians to tailor treatment intensity, optimizing disease control while minimizing unnecessary exposure to therapy-related harm.

In CD, children with mild disease activity and no predictors of poor outcomes should generally be managed with less intensive approaches and avoid overtreatment. Given the limited acceptability of prolonged EEN, several personalized food-based dietary strategies have been proposed, including the Crohn's Disease Exclusion Diet (CDED) [50], CD-TREAT [66], and the more recent Tasty&Healthy diet [67]. These approaches are generally more palatable, easier to follow, and better tolerated than prolonged EEN, and may

represent potential long-term maintenance options either alone or as adjunctive therapy [68]. However, evidence supporting their efficacy as standalone maintenance strategies remains limited, and inappropriate reliance on dietary therapy alone may expose patients to the risk of undertreatment. Recent data from Sigall Boneh et al. support the potential of CDED as a long-term management strategy in selected early responders [69] and important results are starting to elucidate the potential of such a regimen to induce important changes in the microbiome profile and to correct dysbiosis [70]. Notably, results from the French CD-HOPE trial demonstrated that cyclic EEN was superior to PEN in maintaining clinical remission over 1 year in pediatric patients who responded to EEN induction. This study introduced the concept of cyclic EEN (2-week EEN every 8 weeks for at least six cycles), offering a potentially more feasible nutritional maintenance strategy [71].

In the setting of sustained deep remission, treatment de-escalation has emerged as a potential strategy to reduce long-term treatment burden and minimize the risk of overtreatment in PIBD. De-escalation may include dose reduction, interval extension, or withdrawal of immunomodulators or biologic therapies, and should be considered only in carefully selected patients. A key challenge lies in identifying the subgroup of patients most suitable for de-escalation, particularly those achieving sustained clinical, biochemical, and radiological remission, supported by objective measures of disease control. Endoscopic reassessment and magnetic resonance imaging are currently used to guide these decisions, enabling evaluation of mucosal and transmural healing. Intestinal ultrasound may represent a promising, non-invasive, and more accessible tool for disease monitoring in this context; however further evidence is needed to define its role in guiding de-escalation strategies. Close monitoring and prompt re-escalation in case of disease recurrence remain essential [72]. In pediatric patients, concerns regarding relapse, growth impairment, and long-term disease control warrant a particularly cautious approach. De-escalation should therefore be viewed not as treatment withdrawal per se, but as a controlled, stepwise reduction in treatment intensity, balancing reduced drug exposure against the risks of disease reactivation.

In CD, this concept has recently been supported by data on extended adalimumab dosing intervals in children with CD [73]. Nevertheless, available evidence suggests that complete biologic withdrawal in pediatric CD remains inadvisable.

In UC, patients achieving concurrent clinical, mucosal, and histological remission may be candidates for de-escalating therapy and withdrawing biologics [61]. This is made possible by the option to use 5-ASA as maintenance therapy once deep remission or disease clearance has been achieved.

This is not the case for CD, where mesalamine has no role in either induction or maintenance.

More robust evidence supports de-escalation from combination therapy to anti-TNF monotherapy, particularly after at least 6 months of sustained remission in patients without predictors of poor outcome [74–77].

Pursuing deeper endpoints, such as histological healing in UC and transmural healing in CD, may improve long-term prognosis but is not currently part of STRIDE-II formal goals [17]. In clinical practice, aiming for these outcomes may inadvertently drive overtreatment if additional therapy is initiated for clinical, biochemical, and endoscopic remission.

While overtreatment has gained increasing attention, undertreatment remains an equally relevant and potentially harmful issue in PIBD.

Delayed inflammation control may result in irreversible bowel damage, loss of the therapeutic window of opportunity, impaired growth [78], delayed puberty, and long-term psychosocial consequences [79].

In clinical practice, undertreatment often manifests as delayed escalation, prolonged steroid dependence, or persistence with suboptimal therapies driven by concerns about AEs. Optimizing drug dosing and ensuring timely access to effective therapies are therefore essential [53]. System-level barriers, including insurance-related delays [80, 81] and limited access to biologics in low- and middle-income countries [82, 83], further contribute to this risk.

3 Conclusions: Takeaways, Gaps, and Next Steps

Despite major therapeutic advances in IBD management, the optimal balance between overtreatment and undertreatment remains an unmet challenge in PIBD. While outcomes such as colectomy rates and disease-related complications have improved [21, 23, 84–87], the field is increasingly moving toward precision medicine and truly individualized care [88]. Stratifying patients according to molecular endotypes or microbial profile and predicting disease course at diagnosis and response to treatment remain critical research priorities [89–91].

Large cohort studies and multi-omics approaches have identified distinct disease trajectories and molecular profiles associated with disease severity and treatment response [92–95]. Emerging single-cell omics technologies and microbiome-integrated analyses further enhance our ability to define disease mechanisms and predict outcomes [96]. However, translation into routine clinical practice remains limited, highlighting the need for prospective validation in multicenter pediatric cohorts [97].

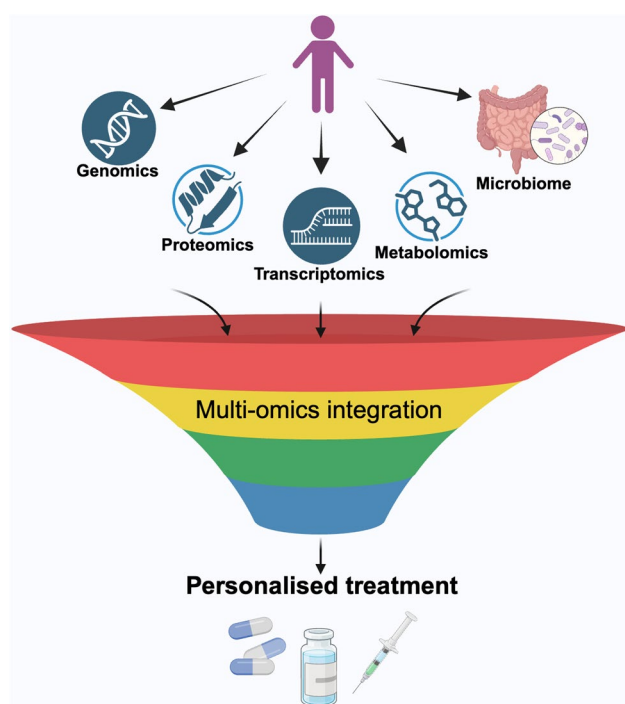


Fig. 4 Future precision medicine approaches in pediatric inflammatory bowel disease. Integration of multi-omics data is expected to enable personalized treatment selection

Ultimately, avoiding both overtreatment and undertreatment in PIBD requires a shift from current population-based algorithms (Fig. 1) toward future precision-based strategies (Fig. 4). The goal is a future in which each child receives the right treatment, at the right time, and at the right intensity, targeting the specific drivers of inflammation rather than applying uniform therapeutic escalation (Fig. 4). In this context, de-escalation strategies represent an essential yet understudied component of precision medicine in PIBD, aiming to reduce unnecessary long-term treatment exposure without compromising disease control. In parallel, the identification of predictive biomarkers capable of anticipating disease relapse remains a key unmet need, particularly in patients undergoing treatment de-escalation. Such tools could enable earlier therapeutic intervention, preventing progression to overt inflammation and symptomatic disease.

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