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4 **Paediatric addendum to CHMP guideline on the clinical**
5 **investigations of medicinal products for the treatment of**
6 **pulmonary arterial hypertension**

7 Draft

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29 **Executive summary**

30 This is a Paediatric Addendum to the *Guideline on the Clinical Investigations of Medicinal Products for*
31 *the Treatment of Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension (EMA/CHMP/EWP/356954/2008)* intended for
32 adults. It should be read in conjunction with that guideline. This Addendum includes guidance on
33 paediatric clinical medicine development, with highlights on differences from adult pulmonary arterial
34 hypertension (PAH) and points out paediatric specific issues.

35 **1. Introduction (background)**

36 **1.1. Paediatric pulmonary arterial hypertension**

37 In line with the adult guideline, the term PAH is used for a subgroup of Pulmonary Hypertension (PH)
38 known as group 1. (refer to Table 1 in the *Guideline on the Clinical Investigations of Medicinal Products*
39 *for the Treatment of Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension [EMA/CHMP/EWP/356954/2008]*).

40 Paediatric PAH is a life- threatening rare disease that affects children's physical, emotional, and social
41 well-being, and impacts the whole family. Pulmonary arterial hypertension is the most frequent type of
42 PH in children, with the vast majority (82%) of cases being infants with transient PAH (i.e. persistent
43 pulmonary hypertension of the newborn [PPHN] or repairable cardiac shunt defects) (4, 22, 10). More
44 than half of children with non-transient pulmonary hypertension (PH) can be classified as having PH in
45 group 1 (PAH), and around one third up to one half of children with non-transient PH is classified as
46 having PH group 3 (PH associated with respiratory disease, especially developmental lung diseases)
47 (10). Pre-term infants with bronchopulmonary dysplasia and genetic developmental lung disorders are
48 also included in this category. Other conditions associated with PAH are rare in infants and children (4,
49 22, 23, 10).

50 Transient forms of PAH due to Persistent Pulmonary Hypertension of the Newborn (PPHN) or repairable
51 cardiac shunt defects represent the majority of PAH in infants. PPHN is a clinical syndrome
52 characterised by failure of the elevated foetal pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) to regress after
53 birth. PPHN can be caused by a variety of factors. It is commonly associated with congenital and
54 acquired hypoxic lung disease. Idiopathic forms are rare. Severe forms are associated with significant
55 morbidity and mortality. PPHN is clinically classified with PAH, but due to its specific characteristics,
56 clinical development of medicinal products for PPHN is discussed separately (11).

57 **1.2. Adult versus paediatric PAH**

58 There are similarities and shared features between adult and paediatric patients with PH that support
59 extrapolation of evidence from adults to paediatric patients. Underlying pathophysiological mechanisms
60 are overlapping. Elevations in PVR and pulmonary arterial pressure (PAP) are characteristic of PAH in
61 both children and adults, and the definition of PH is similar in both populations when based on
62 haemodynamic assessment. Life expectancy is similarly poor, and prognostic factors are largely the
63 same.

64 However, extrapolation of evidence from adults to children is not straightforward. Genetic background,
65 age-dependent diagnostic and treatment approaches, and disease monitoring differ. Injury to
66 developing foetal, neonatal, or paediatric lung circulation is a specific feature in paediatric PH (10). The
67 prevalence of the subtypes of PAH is different among both populations. Paediatric PAH is
68 predominantly idiopathic PAH (IPAH), hereditary PAH (HPAH) with a high proportion of associated PAH
69 (APAH) cases associated with mainly due to congenital heart disease (CHD) (10). PAH associated with
70 connective tissue disease is more prevalent in adults. Childhood PH is more often associated with
71 chromosomal, genetic, and syndromic anomalies compared to PH in adults. Some symptoms like
72 dyspnoea on exertion are shared but heart failure and oedema are more prevalent in adults and
73 syncope is more common in the paediatric population. The anticipated lifespan of children is longer.

74 Considering the similarities between adult and paediatric patients, extrapolation of evidence on
75 pharmacokinetics (PK), efficacy and safety, generated in adult patients, is an important element of the
76 development programme in paediatric patients with PAH. However, due to differences as outlined
77 above, additional data must be provided to support conclusions on the benefit/risk ratio (B/R).

78 For specific aspects to be considered in neonates reference is made to *the Guideline on the*
79 *investigation of medicinal products in the term and preterm neonate (EMA/536810/2008)*.

80 **2. Scope**

81 This guidance document addresses IPAH, HPAH and APAH as well as PPHN. It explicitly includes APAH
82 due to CHD (Eisenmenger syndrome, PAH associated with systemic to pulmonary shunts, PAH with
83 small defects and PAH after corrective cardiac surgery).

84 **3. Legal basis**

85 This addendum to the *Guideline on Clinical Investigations of Medicinal Products for the Treatment of*
86 *Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension [EMA/CHMP/EWP/356954/2008]* has to be read in conjunction with
87 the introduction and general principles of the Annex I to Directive 2001/83/EC as amended.

88 All pertinent elements outlined in current and future EU and ICH guidelines and regulations should also
89 be taken into account, especially those on:

- 90 • *Guideline on the clinical investigations of medicinal products for the treatment of pulmonary*
91 *arterial hypertension - EMA/CHMP/EWP/356954/2008*
- 92 • *Clinical Investigation of medicinal products in the paediatric population - CHMP/ICH/2711/99*
93 *(ICH 11)*
- 94 • *ICH guideline E11A on pediatric extrapolation - EMA/CHMP/ICH/205218/2022 (ICH E11A)*
- 95 • *Reflection paper on the use of extrapolation in the development of medicines for paediatrics -*
96 *EMA/189724/2018*
- 97 • *Guideline on the role of pharmacokinetics in the development of medicinal products in the*
98 *paediatric population - EMA/CHMP/EWP/147013/2004*
- 99 • *Guideline on clinical trials in small populations - CHMP/EWP/83561/2005*
- 100 • *Reflection paper on the regulatory guidance for the use of health-related quality of life (HrQL)*
101 *measures in the evaluation of medicinal products - EMA/CHMP/EWP/139391/2004*
- 102 • *Draft ICH M15 Guideline on general principles of model-informed drug development -*
103 *EMA/CHMP/ICH/496426/2024*
- 104 • *Guideline on the investigation of medicinal products in the term and preterm neonate - First*
105 *version - EMA/536810/2008*
- 106 • *Concept paper on the need for revision of the Guideline on the investigation of medicinal*
107 *products in the term and preterm neonate - EMA/PDCO/362462/2016*
- 108 • *Reflection paper on patient experience data - EMA/CHMP/PRAC/148869/2025*

109 **4. Idiopathic, hereditary and associated pulmonary arterial** 110 **hypertension**

111 **4.1. Development strategy**

112 Data in adult PAH is usually available by the time of assessment of data of the paediatric development,
113 or development programmes are proceeding in parallel but slightly offset, making extrapolation

114 possible. Pharmacodynamic (PD) and efficacy endpoints should be included in the adult programme
115 that may become relevant for extrapolation to paediatric patients.

116 Theoretically, adult and paediatric PAH clinical programmes may proceed independently, or a medicinal
117 product could be developed for the paediatric population only. This is a rare hypothetical case that may
118 apply to subgroups of paediatric patients without equivalent adult counterparts. In such instances data
119 in the paediatric population have to stand on their own. Regulatory requirements differ in these two
120 situations.

121 Whenever possible, it is recommended to include adolescents already in the adult clinical program.
122 Sufficient representation should be ensured to allow for recommending use in this paediatric age
123 group; their results should be presented separately and based on a study where randomisation was
124 stratified by age.

125 **4.1.1. Extrapolation**

126 Considering similarities between adult and paediatric patients with PAH, for a paediatric clinical
127 development program for medicinal products where the B/R is known in adult PAH, extrapolation from
128 data in the adult population is an acceptable approach. However, considering differences between
129 adults and paediatric patients with PAH, additional data beyond exposure matching have to be
130 provided to support extrapolation.

131 **4.1.1.1. Model informed extrapolation**

132 **4.1.1.1.1. General approach**

133 The extrapolation concept and plan should be defined according to ICH E11A. When a model informed
134 drug development (MIDD) approach is planned to be used for either to describe the available data or
135 to analyse the data to be collected as part of the extrapolation plan, this should be done according to
136 ICH M15. The starting point in the extrapolation concept includes assessing the available information
137 on the characterization of the similarity and differences in disease, response to treatment (efficacy,
138 short- and long-term safety) and PK that would eventually impact the selection of age-appropriate
139 therapeutic doses and the benefit-risk assessment in children.

140 Considering differences between adults and paediatric patients as outlined above, the extrapolation
141 concept and plan can not only be based on exposure. However, matching exposure that falls into the
142 exposure range of adults or combination of exposure matching with PK/PD is an important element
143 contributing to extrapolation based on exposure-response (E-R) related to efficacy or safety in adults
144 and/or children. The appropriateness of the use of parameters like imaging-based variables, NT-
145 proBNP, exploratory results on clinical endpoints as well as PD and efficacy endpoints as response
146 variable should be discussed during the description of the extrapolation concept and plan.

147 The need for generation of data in children as part of the extrapolation plan will depend on the
148 uncertainty identified at different levels (e.g. PK, PK/PD, E-R).

149 Whenever data generation is deemed necessary, the study design should be optimized: a sufficient
150 number of paediatric patients should be included in clinical trials to enable a scientifically sound
151 assessment of PK over all age groups, to inform paediatric pop-PK modelling and to allow an
152 assessment of E-R.

153 **4.1.1.1.2. Assessment of similarity of response to treatment**

154 Assessing similarity of response to treatment of various variables obtained in adult and paediatric
155 patients is an option to complement matching exposure. Functional capacity e.g. as assessed by
156 placebo corrected change in the 6-minute walking distance (6MWD) in older children and adolescents
157 can be a relevant component (14). Other parameters like imaging-based variables, NT-proBNP and
158 exploratory results on clinical endpoints should be integrated. The approach to assess similarity of

159 response should consider all relevant PD and efficacy endpoints and should be predefined including a
160 statistical testing or model assessment strategy.

161 **4.1.1.3. Bridging biomarker approach**

162 A bridging biomarker, as defined in ICH E11A, is a biomarker that is correlated with a clinical response
163 endpoint in the reference population and also correlated with clinical response in the target population.
164 For a bridging biomarker approach a biomarker that correlates with efficacy as established in the adult
165 program is investigated in paediatric patients (6). As a prerequisite, candidate biomarkers should
166 sufficiently capture a pathway or an outcome that is linked to clinical outcome. In the paediatric
167 population with PAH this can be achieved by demonstrating the prognostic value in adult and paediatric
168 patients. Robust validation across different age groups and disease related specific aspects is required,
169 to demonstrate the bridging approach. Candidate biomarkers have to be investigated in the adult and
170 in the paediatric studies in parallel. The choice of the biomarker(s) to be used for extrapolation
171 depends on demonstration of a sufficient correlation with clinical efficacy endpoints in the pivotal
172 studies in adults, as assessed by functional capacity during exercise or by time to clinical worsening
173 (TTCW).

174 It should be considered that biomarkers (including imaging-based parameters) representing conditions
175 at rest may not correlate well with functional capacity during exercise. A biomarker may differentially
176 correlate with exercise capacity and with clinical outcome.

177 Among the candidates to be explored are BNP/NT-proBNP and non-invasive methods to measure PVR
178 or other imaging-based parameters. However, challenges of obtaining echocardiography and MRI data
179 are well known. For BNP and NT-proBNP, age and disease related factors must be further
180 characterized. When following this strategy fit for purpose validation of the biomarker(s) used is
181 necessary. In the absence of sufficient validation, a bridging biomarker approach may support
182 extrapolation as exploratory or supportive evidence.

183 **4.1.2. Stand-alone development**

184 In case extrapolation from adults is not pursued or this is not useful for other reasons, a complete
185 paediatric development programme is expected.

186 This should usually follow the same principles as a programme required for adults. As stated in the
187 PAH guideline which addresses development programmes for adults, efficacy could be investigated in
188 terms of exercise capacity (in developmentally able children, usually above 7 years) or TTCW. As these
189 are difficult to investigate in the younger paediatric groups, it should be evaluated whether
190 extrapolation from older to younger children is an option in such cases to complement conclusions on
191 efficacy over the whole age range.

192 Once efficacy has been demonstrated in older children based on exercise testing or TTCW,
193 extrapolation to younger age groups based on an extrapolation plan may be an option to consider.

194 It is, however acknowledged that feasibility of conducting such a stand-alone clinical development
195 program should consider well-known difficulties of recruiting enough paediatric patients to show a
196 significant improvement or even a strong trend on either TTCW or exercise capacity. This is even more
197 the case if such a development aims at subgroups of patients without equivalent in adult patients.
198 Planning for a stand-alone clinical program in paediatric patients with PH should therefore be discussed
199 with EMA.

200 **4.2. Human pharmacology studies**

201 The development of age-appropriate paediatric dosage forms and formulations is usually required.

202 Adequate definition of the associated condition, in particular the type of CHD is important. PK studies
203 should include a sufficient number of paediatric patients over the whole age range representing the
204 relevant different conditions of patients suitable for treatment to allow an assessment of exposure in

205 comparison to adults, to inform a population PK (Pop-PK) model-based evaluation. A staggered
206 approach from older to younger patients may be advisable depending on the profile of the medicinal
207 product and the existing knowledge.

208 PK studies should include an assessment of relevant PD parameters and outcome measures to inform
209 E-R analyses and generate data on efficacy and safety to support the respective extrapolation
210 approaches.

211 For medicinal products being developed for a stand-alone paediatric indication, additional studies may
212 be necessary to characterise the PK/PD relationship.

213 **4.3. Efficacy**

214 **4.3.1. Clinical question of interest**

215 The usual clinical question of interest for confirmatory studies is: "Does the experimental therapy
216 improve clinical outcomes compared to placebo when used on top of standard therapy in paediatric
217 patients (aged ...) with PAH (type ...), considering fatal adverse events, and irrespective of
218 discontinuation of the treatment?"

219 This clinical question may be appropriate in the context of a stand-alone development and also for
220 extrapolation-based approaches.

221 **4.3.2. Estimand attributes**

222 **4.3.2.1. Intercurrent events and corresponding strategies**

223 Beyond the population attribute which will differ by definition, there will be potential differences
224 between the adult reference and the paediatric target populations in the framework of an
225 extrapolation. Consequently, intercurrent events and certain attributes of the estimand may not align
226 perfectly (e.g., dosing regimen, variable). When they differ, the estimand will always differ, and
227 employing identical strategies for intercurrent events across reference and target populations may not
228 be feasible. However, for attributes consistent across populations, it is recommended to apply the
229 same strategy for intercurrent events.

230 In order to determine estimands in paediatric PAH trials, all potential intercurrent events with regard to
231 clinical study objectives should first be considered, along with how their occurrence should be
232 addressed with a corresponding strategy.

233 The discontinuation of the assigned treatment is a relevant intercurrent event in this setting. The
234 primary regulatory interest is in the outcome, regardless of whether patients discontinue the treatment
235 (treatment policy strategy). Correspondingly, the outcome after the discontinuation of treatment is
236 relevant for the regulatory assessment and all efforts should be made to collect them.

237 For continuous-type endpoints, i.e. 6MWD, occurrence of fatal adverse events and death lead to non-
238 existing measurements. Therefore, use of treatment policy strategy is not possible. A composite
239 endpoint strategy is considered as an acceptable strategy for handling death in the analysis of
240 continuous endpoints like 6MWD. For those who have missing data due to fatal adverse events their
241 6MWD at the analysis timepoint (i.e. Week 24) should be assigned as 0 meters and change from
242 baseline is calculated accordingly.

243 Apart from those, it would be expected that all intercurrent events are pre-defined in the study
244 protocol together with the corresponding estimand strategy. It is recommended that within an
245 extrapolation approach intercurrent events are aligned across adult and paediatric trials and preferably
246 handled using the same strategy. In case of deviations (e.g. use of slightly different definition for
247 TTCW in paediatrics), the discrepancies should be clearly described between paediatric and adult trials.

248 Among potential intercurrent events to be taken into account are lack of adherence to treatment (e.g.
249 treatment interruption, use of rescue medication, dosing deviation and intake of not allowed

250 concomitant medication), occurrence of malignancy and death, change to background PAH medication
251 (initiation, change in dose, discontinuation), initiation of supplemental oxygen for a 6-minute walking
252 test (6MWT). For use of rescue medication, a treatment policy strategy is generally preferred. If an
253 imbalance in the frequency of rescue medication intake that favours the investigational arm is foreseen
254 or observed, alternative strategies may be considered as supplementary estimands.

255 Similarly, estimands for secondary endpoints should be defined. Differences about estimand strategies
256 between primary and secondary endpoints should be explained.

257 It is important to perform sensitivity analysis when imputations are used as indicated in ICH E9(R1);
258 the purpose for each of these analyses should be described in relation to a given assumption.

259 **4.3.2.2. Treatment condition**

260 The treatment condition depends on the overall strategy and the respective study design as outlined in
261 Section 4.3.4, below.

262 **4.3.2.3. Target population**

263 Paediatric age groups should be adequately represented to allow the respective recommendation for
264 the included age. Proper representation of subgroups as recommended in the *EMA guideline on*
265 *investigation of subgroups in confirmatory clinical trials (EMA/CHMP/539146/2013)* is necessary if
266 specific claims are made relating to aetiology and functional class.

267 As disease type can be an important predictive factor, randomisation of pivotal clinical trials should be
268 stratified into the IPAH and APAH categories.

269 **4.3.2.4. Variable (endpoint)**

270 **4.3.2.4.1. Exercise capacity**

271 Exercise capacity can be used as a primary endpoint in developmentally able children (14) or be used
272 to inform ER modelling for extrapolation from adults to paediatric patients. However, feasibility issues
273 are acknowledged due to the high number of patients needed to establish a statistically significant
274 effect even in case of a moderately relaxed alpha. Both the 6MWT, and cardiopulmonary exercise
275 testing (CPET) are acceptable. Selecting the same exercise test that is used in adult patients with PAH
276 and the same time point of assessment is recommended for E-R model-based extrapolation
277 approaches.

278 **4.3.2.4.2. Time to clinical worsening**

279 TTCW captures important information on outcome in paediatric patients with PAH and should always be
280 assessed in the clinical programme. It can be used as a primary/confirmatory endpoint in a paediatric
281 study in a stand-alone development, and exploratory in extrapolation-based programmes. Feasibility
282 issues are acknowledged due to the high number of patients and long observation times needed to
283 establish a statistically significant effect even in case of a moderately relaxed alpha. In a clinical
284 programme based on extrapolation, generating exploratory data on TTCW and its components is
285 sufficient. How to integrate data on TTCW in an assessment of similarity of response to treatment of
286 various variables should be predefined. Criteria used to define TTCW in the adult guideline are
287 generally applicable in paediatric development as well, except for deterioration in exercise capacity,
288 which is not applicable for the developmentally unable children. Adapting the definition of TTCW to
289 paediatric patients, e.g. by including symptoms like syncope more likely to occur in paediatric patients,
290 may be considered. In such a case, supplementary analyses based on the definition for adults should
291 also be presented.

292 TTCW and its components including cardiovascular and all-cause mortality should be analysed in all
293 studies and in a follow-up study to assess both exploratory efficacy and safety.

294 **4.3.2.4.3. Haemodynamic parameters**

295 Obtaining invasive haemodynamic measurements for study purposes beyond assessing data available
296 from routine clinical workup is not considered feasible due to risks associated with these procedures.
297 Such data, if available, may therefore be considered for inclusion of patients in trials and may be
298 reported as exploratory information but should not be requested as clinical endpoints for dose selection
299 or extrapolation purposes.

300 **4.3.2.4.4. Echocardiography**

301 Echocardiography is used in clinical practice to assess patients' prognosis and for follow up, often
302 being assessed in the context of risk scores. Since similar single or combined echocardiography
303 parameters are correlated with prognosis in paediatric and adult PAH patients' echocardiography has
304 the potential to support extrapolation. However, there are limitations when used in clinical trials.
305 Among these are inter- and intra-observer variability, quality of acquisition (even if core laboratory
306 parameters are involved), cooperation of patients and the impact of the aetiology of PAH on the quality
307 of echocardiography acquisition. Therefore, currently echocardiography parameters are not considered
308 sufficiently reliable to be used as key endpoints for extrapolation in multicentre trials in PAH patients.
309 This does not exclude obtaining echocardiography parameters as supportive evidence, particularly in
310 trials conducted in single highly experienced centres.

311 **4.3.2.4.5. MRI**

312 MRI has advantages over echocardiography as concerns variability. However, due to limited availability
313 across centres for study purposes, the requirement to use MRI may limit the number of paediatric
314 patients included in a trial. Furthermore, sedation mainly in children below about 7 years old has an
315 impact on some parameters and further limits recruitment of patients to a study. For these reasons
316 MRI may not be suitable to characterize cardiac and haemodynamic variables in the broad paediatric
317 population. MRI could be considered in a subset of older children and adolescents to support
318 extrapolation if accessibility is ensured and experienced operators interpreting the results in children
319 with PAH are available.

320 **4.3.2.4.6. Health related quality of life (HrQL)**

321 The effect on HrQL can be measured as an additional endpoint acknowledging that indirect assessment
322 by involving the child's parents/carers is inevitable for the younger patient groups. Reliability of the
323 results is higher in a double-blind controlled study as compared to open-label studies. Considering the
324 lack of a validated disease-specific HrQL instrument for the paediatric population with PH, further
325 research is encouraged in this regard in order to support the use as a confirmatory secondary
326 endpoint. Assessing quality of life by the use of non-disease specific overarching HrQL instruments
327 may provide relevant information on physical, emotional, and social functioning
328 (EMA/CHMP/PRAC/148869/2025).

329 **4.3.2.4.7. Risk scores**

330 Risk scores integrating prognostic factors like clinical signs and symptoms, growth, 6MWD, WHO
331 functional class, biomarkers like BNP/NT-proBNP, imaging-based and haemodynamic variables are
332 commonly used to support clinical decision making in individual patients. Currently they are not
333 sufficiently validated as clinical endpoints and changes in predicted risk do not necessarily translate
334 into outcome in the same direction. Developing and validating specific paediatric risk scores for PAH
335 and aligning adult and paediatric risk assessment is a prerequisite for using such tools either in the
336 context of extrapolation or as endpoints in paediatric clinical trials.

337 **4.3.2.4.8. BNP/NT-proBNP**

338 Due to its prognostic value BNP/NT-proBNP is clinically used to assess disease progression and
339 treatment response in individual patients, e.g. by considering thresholds or rapid increases as
340 prognostic markers (21). It is currently not sufficiently validated to be used as a primary efficacy
341 endpoint. Age-specific ranges, impact of development, disease, renal function, and treatment have to
342 be considered. Shunts, dysfunctional ventricles and diuretic therapy may be associated with lower
343 values. Furthermore, the choice of the assay may have a relevant impact on the results. When
344 considering BNP/NT-proBNP as supportive evidence contributing to a similarity assessment or being
345 further validated as a bridging biomarker such factors have to be taken into account, as well as patient
346 characteristics relevant for BNP/NT-proBNP levels in adults. NT-proBNP is preferred over BNP when to
347 be used as an endpoint.

348 **4.3.2.4.9. Functional class**

349 WHO functional class (FC) has prognostic value but the applicability in younger children is limited.
350 WHO functional class should be assessed in paediatric patients as a secondary or exploratory endpoint.
351 The Panama Functional Classification allows a more comprehensive assessment of paediatric patients
352 with PAH by incorporating symptoms developmental and social functions. However lacking validation,
353 the use of the Panama FC is currently not supported.

354 **4.3.2.4.10. Other variables**

355 During long term follow up weight and length gain are also considered relevant indicators of
356 development, response and well-being.

357 Other outcome measures are also encouraged to contribute to validating new endpoints in paediatric
358 PAH studies. Among these, accelerometry provides objective data on physical functioning of patients
359 and further research and validation are encouraged. Extrapolation of artificial intelligence-based
360 approaches is also welcomed.

361 **4.3.2.5. Population-level summary**

362 Statistical analysis strategy should be aligned with the estimands of interest. Analyses estimating
363 supplementary estimands can also assist in the interpretation of trial data and may supplement
364 benefit-risk assessment.

365 For continuous endpoints, estimated least-squares mean difference (LSMD) between intervention and
366 control is recommended.

367 For time to event endpoints, hazard ratio is recommended.

368 **4.3.3. Study design**

369 PK studies to characterize exposure in the different age groups should be conducted in accordance with
370 overarching guidelines as outlined in the *Guideline on the role of pharmacokinetics in the development*
371 *of medicinal products in the paediatric population (EMA/CHMP/EWP/147013/2004)*, and *ICH E11A*
372 *Guideline on pediatric extrapolation (EMA/CHMP/ICH/205218/2022)*.

373 Studies in an extrapolation plan should mirror estimands in adults as much as possible, e.g. if a 6MWT
374 is assessed at 3 months in adults, the same exercise test and the same 3-month time point of
375 assessments should also be selected in the paediatric population. This holds also true for an
376 assessment based on similarity of response to treatment. For extrapolation an additional estimand can
377 be pre-specified in the adult population that matches the paediatric estimand even if not the primary
378 estimand for the MAA in adults.

379 Confirmatory studies and studies supporting extrapolation should be double-blind and controlled,
380 preferably with a placebo control arm on top of standard of care as locally applicable. However, since

381 placebo-controlled studies may be considered as an obstacle to recruitment, alternative approaches
382 are conceivable. Among these are cross over of patients assigned initially to placebo to active
383 treatment with study drug or of an approved treatment in the control arm or investigating different
384 doses of the study drug covering expected differences in efficacy. Whether studies with an active
385 control arm may be suitable should be evaluated in the context of an extrapolation plan taking
386 information available for the respective control into account.

387 Background treatment with medicinal products approved for the treatment of paediatric PAH should be
388 allowed provided there are no reasons related to the mechanism of action or safety to preclude
389 coadministration with the study drug. Stabilisation on background medications before recruitment in a
390 study may not always be practicable in paediatric trials as children often present to the hospital with
391 acute deterioration. The rate of deterioration can be fast. Changes of background treatment should be
392 at the discretion of the treating physician and should be documented.

393 Patients should be stratified by age groups and by underlying disease (e.g. IPAH vs. APAH).

394 For a stand-alone development, the design of studies should usually follow the same principles as
395 applicable for adult patients as outlined in the PAH guideline for adults. As a rule, randomized
396 controlled trials are expected. Considering the well-known difficulties in recruitment the proposed
397 development plan should be discussed with EMA.

398 **4.3.4. Statistical methods**

399 Efforts should be made to collect all relevant data for the primary and important other estimands (e.g.
400 follow-up regardless of intercurrent events) to minimise the need to rely on untestable assumptions in
401 the analysis and interpretation of the trial results. Still, in many cases, due to relevant amount of
402 missing data (often differential between treatment arms) careful handling of missing data is required.

403 Descriptive statistics should be provided for the number of the different intercurrent events and
404 missing data at all measurement timepoints stratified by treatment group. Additionally, within the
405 same overview, information should be included on whether data became missing after the intercurrent
406 event.

407 Generally, handling of missing data should be based on clinically plausible assumptions, or when a
408 range or assumptions is plausible, adequately conservative assumptions making it unlikely that the
409 treatment effect is biased in favour of the new treatment or its variance underestimated.

410 When missing data need to be imputed following treatment discontinuation, the analysis should not
411 (implicitly) assume that all the benefit from treatment is retained, which is not considered clinically
412 plausible. Particularly, methods based on the missing-at-random assumption are not acceptable for
413 estimating the treatment effect regardless of treatment discontinuation if they are (primarily) based on
414 data collected while on treatment and if they are not accounting for the actual treatment status
415 (particularly, the discontinuation of treatment of some subjects). Instead, reference-based multiple
416 imputations (with a justified assumption on the amount of benefit retained after discontinuation of
417 treatment, if any) or return to baseline values could be considered.

418 Assumptions underlying the primary analysis should be examined through pre-specified and justified
419 sensitivity analysis (e.g. tipping point analyses) addressing the same estimand.

420 However, when the percentage of subjects experiencing an intercurrent event such as death is high,
421 the use of composite strategy brings additional difficulties for handling remaining missing data in the
422 dataset. For example, when the subjects who die are imputed with a value of 0 for 6MWD in a
423 substantial amount of subjects, the remaining missing data is imputed based on this artificially
424 imputed dataset. When such an approach is used for another intercurrent event, the choice of
425 imputation value should not affect the results of the study. Therefore, the use of imputation methods
426 can be considered first, followed by the analysis model.

427 **4.4. Safety**

428 Short-term safety data should be collected from all studies and compared with the known safety profile
429 in adults. All studies should be followed by long term extension studies to allow investigation of long-
430 term safety in terms of growth, neurological and sexual maturity.

431 **5. Persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn**

432 **5.1. Human pharmacology studies**

433 The development of age-appropriate paediatric dosage forms and formulations is usually required.
434 Generating data on clinical PK and PD should follow general principles as appropriate for the target
435 group of neonates. Separate studies are needed to establish proof of concept and dose selection for
436 phase 3 studies.

437 **5.2. Efficacy**

438 PPHN has to be studied separately from IPAH and APAH. As nitric oxide (NO) is an authorized therapy,
439 mainly add-on trials or trials in patients failing treatment with NO should be considered. In case
440 efficacy is shown, this can be followed by direct head-to-head comparative studies to investigate
441 efficacy and safety as a first line medicinal product.

442 Limited data are available regarding relevant endpoints in the field of PPHN. The following endpoints
443 are suggested; the first two endpoints are considered of higher clinical relevance and less disputable
444 value:

- 445 • all-cause mortality;
- 446 • need for extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) (based on standardised criteria e.g.
447 oxygenation index);
- 448 • time on NO;
- 449 • time to weaning from mechanical ventilation;
- 450 • ventilation index;
- 451 • time on supplemental oxygen and
- 452 • duration of ultrasound-detectable right-left shunting (hours or days).

453 **5.3. Safety**

454 Neonates with PPHN should be followed up for at least 24 months to document outcomes in terms of
455 mortality and central nervous system development.

Abbreviations

6MWD	6-minute walking distance
6MWT	6-minute walking test
APAH	associated pulmonary arterial hypertension
B/R	benefit/risk ratio
CHD	congenital heart disease
CPET	cardiopulmonary exercise testing
ECMO	extracorporeal membrane oxygenation
E-R	exposure-response
FC	functional class
HPAH	hereditary pulmonary arterial hypertension
HrQL	health-related quality of life
IPAH	idiopathic pulmonary arterial hypertension
MIDD	model informed drug development
NO	nitric oxide
PAH	pulmonary arterial hypertension
PAP	pulmonary arterial pressure
PD	pharmacodynamic
PH	pulmonary hypertension
PK	pharmacokinetics
Pop-PK	population pharmacokinetic
PPHN	persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn
PVR	pulmonary vascular resistance
TTCW	time to clinical worsening

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