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BRIDGING THE DIGITAL DIVIDE IN OPHTHALMIC TELEMEDICINE: CHALLENGES, EQUITY GAPS, AND STRATEGIES FOR INCLUSIVE VISION CARE - REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: This narrative review aims to evaluate the current state of artificial intelligence (AI) integration in teleophthalmology and to identify the socio-technical barriers, specifically the "digital divide," that hinder equitable access to digital vision care.

Materials and Methods: A comprehensive literature review was conducted using PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science databases, covering studies from 2013 to 2026. The search focused on AI diagnostic performance in major ocular diseases (DR, glaucoma, AMD) and socio-behavioral studies regarding technology adoption among visually impaired and underserved populations.

Results: AI algorithms demonstrated expert-level diagnostic accuracy, with autonomous systems for diabetic retinopathy achieving sensitivities over 87% in real-world settings. However, a significant "socio-technological paradox" was identified: while technology reduces physical barriers, nearly 50% of visually impaired users require external assistance to navigate digital platforms. Furthermore, data poverty and algorithmic bias across different ethnic groups (with AUC variances up to 0.08) represent critical equity gaps. Global implementation models, such as the "Hub-and-Spoke" system in India, show promise in mitigating these divides through frugal innovation.

Conclusions: While teleophthalmology and AI have the potential to transform vision care, their success depends on a strategic shift toward universal design and health-justice principles. To prevent the deepening of existing health disparities, technological innovation must be integrated with professional leadership and community-based digital literacy initiatives.

KEYWORDS

Teleophthalmology, Digital Divide, Health Equity, Accessible Healthcare Technology, Vision Care Delivery, Digital Health Inclusion

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1. Introduction

Visual impairment and blindness are not merely medical diagnoses; they represent a significant global socio-economic crisis. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), at least 2.2 billion people worldwide have a near or distance vision impairment. Paradoxically, in at least 1 billion of these cases—representing nearly half of the global total—vision impairment could have been prevented or has yet to be addressed. Chronic ocular diseases, such as diabetic retinopathy (DR), glaucoma, and age-related macular degeneration (AMD), are the primary drivers of these statistics. While clinical treatments for these conditions have advanced significantly, the delivery of care remains plagued by a critical bottleneck: the scarcity and uneven distribution of ophthalmic specialists.

Ophthalmology has historically occupied a unique position at the vanguard of medical innovation. From the development of the first ophthalmic lasers to the implementation of high-resolution Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT), the specialty has consistently embraced technology to restore sight. Today, ophthalmologists are burdened by the pressures of modern medical bureaucracy, an aging global population, and a highly competitive healthcare marketplace. As the burden of eye disease shifts toward chronic, long-term management, the traditional "brick-and-mortar" clinic model is reaching its breaking point. In low-resource settings and rural areas, the ratio of ophthalmologists to the general population remains dangerously low, often leading to late-stage diagnoses that result in irreversible blindness.

In response to these systemic failures, the acceleration of digital health—catalyzed by the exigencies of the COVID-19 pandemic—has pushed teleophthalmology from a niche experimental model to a mainstream clinical necessity. This transition includes a spectrum of services ranging from simple virtual consultations to sophisticated, autonomous Artificial Intelligence (AI) diagnostics. For instance, the landmark FDA approval of IDx-DR in 2018 which built on the foundational evidence that deep learning algorithms could identify referable diabetic retinopathy with sensitivities exceeding 90% (Gulshan et al., 2016), marked a turning point in autonomous diagnostics.

However, a critical question remains: for whom is this technology being built? Emerging evidence suggests that digital solutions are not inherently equitable. A persistent "digital divide"—a term used to describe the gap between those with easy access to the internet and technology and those without—threatens to exacerbate existing health disparities. From a socio-technical perspective, this divide is not merely a lack of hardware, but a complex intersection of socioeconomic status, digital literacy, and structural inequality. For ophthalmology to remain a revitalized leader in medicine, it must reclaim its role as a comprehensive provider of "total eye care." This requires a strategic redefinition of the specialty's scope, ensuring that technological progress is guided by clinical excellence and ethical inclusion rather than market forces alone. This review aims to dissect the interplay between these innovative technologies and the social barriers that prevent their universal adoption.

2. Methodology

This narrative review draws on peer-reviewed articles, systematic reviews, policy analyses, and grey literature—including technical reports from the World Health Organization (WHO) and the International Agency for the Prevention of Blindness (IAPB)—published in English between 2013 and the present. The databases searched included PubMed/MEDLINE, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar.

The search strategy employed Boolean operators (AND, OR) to combine terms such as: “teleophthalmology”, “telemedicine”, “digital divide”, “health equity”, “accessibility”, “digital health inclusion”, and “artificial intelligence ethics.” This timeframe was selected to reflect the rapid evolution of digital health solutions following the widespread adoption of high-resolution retinal imaging.

The selection process involved an initial title and abstract screening, followed by a full-text review of relevant papers. Documents focusing exclusively on technical image-processing or device validation without addressing user-centric, socioeconomic, or access-related data were excluded. Furthermore, articles focusing on pediatric ophthalmology were excluded to maintain a focus on chronic adult conditions like DR, glaucoma and AMD. This ensured the focus remained on the socio-technical implications of the technology. Due to the heterogeneity in study designs and outcomes, findings were synthesized qualitatively via thematic analysis to identify recurring barriers, ethical considerations, and strategic recommendations. Approximately 19 key studies were purposively selected based on their methodological quality, recency, and relevance to AI performance and equity in teleophthalmology.

3. Results — Thematic Synthesis of Technological and Social Integration

3.1. Artificial Intelligence as a Catalyst for Remote Screening

The integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) into teleophthalmology represents a paradigm shift from simple image transmission to autonomous diagnostic support. Deep Learning (DL) and Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) have enabled the processing of vast datasets with a level of precision that matches or exceeds human experts. The practical feasibility of this model is best demonstrated in the context of major blinding eye diseases.

3.1.1. Diabetic Retinopathy (DR): The Gold Standard of AI Triage

Diabetic retinopathy remains the leading cause of vision loss in the working-age population. The emergence of autonomous systems such as IDx-DR (now LumineticsCore), the first FDA-approved AI diagnostic tool, has proven that screening can be effectively decentralized. While early deep learning models demonstrated high theoretical accuracy—most notably the work by Gulshan et al. (2016), which utilized a massive retrospective dataset of 128,175 retinal images to train a deep convolutional neural network—the pivotal clinical trial by Abràmoff et al. (2018) confirmed this in a real-world primary care setting. By moving beyond static laboratory datasets to a prospective, multisite study involving 900 subjects across diverse primary care clinics, their study reported a sensitivity of 87.2% and a specificity of 90.7% for detecting more-than-mild DR, with a high imageability rate of 96.1%. This landmark study proved that specialty-level diagnostics could be moved to the frontline of healthcare, effectively establishing a benchmark for autonomous medical AI.

Building upon these foundations, the scope of AI in diabetic care has recently expanded toward multimodal integration. Li et al. (2024) demonstrated a transformative model in *Nature Medicine*, where deep learning image analysis was integrated with large language models (LLMs) to support primary care. This system not only identifies retinal pathology but also generates clinical management recommendations and patient-centric reports, addressing the critical gap between raw diagnostic output and effective patient communication. Such advancements suggest that the future of teleophthalmology lies in “total care” systems that mitigate literacy barriers and streamline the referral pathway in community settings.

3.1.2. Glaucoma and Optic Nerve Analysis

Glaucoma screening is inherently complex due to its asymptomatic early stages and the subtle structural changes in the optic nerve head. Recent deep learning models have demonstrated exceptional accuracy in identifying glaucomatous damage from fundus photographs, effectively automating the evaluation of the vertical cup-to-disc ratio (VCDR). For instance, Liu et al. (2019) conducted a robust multi-center study using a dataset of over 48,000 images sourced from diverse clinical environments. Their model achieved an AUC of 0.986, matching the performance of senior expert ophthalmologists. A critical advancement in this study was the inclusion of multi-ethnic cohorts, which addressed a significant gap in previous algorithms that often struggled with varying optic nerve morphologies across different racial groups. Furthermore, Hemelings et al. (2021) provided evidence that AI can detect glaucoma even by analyzing regions “beyond the optic disc,” utilizing heatmaps to identify retinal nerve fiber layer thinning and vascular patterns that are often imperceptible to the human eye.

3.1.3. Age-Related Macular Degeneration (AMD) and Treatment Prediction.

In AMD management, AI has transitioned from experimental classification to high-precision diagnostic support. A comprehensive meta-analysis by Leng et al. (2023), which synthesized global diagnostic accuracy studies, reported a pooled sensitivity of 94% and a pooled specificity of 97% for detecting AMD using deep learning. The study highlighted that Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), particularly the ResNet architecture, achieve an exceptional Area Under the Curve (AUC) of 0.9925. These findings confirm that AI systems can triage retinal pathologies with expert-level accuracy, significantly potentially reducing the workload of physicians and enabling long-range medical screening. However, the study also notes that the complexity of network layers and the specific type of AMD are essential factors influencing model reliability, further emphasizing the need for standardized training datasets.

3.1.4. Beyond the Posterior Pole: Specialized Screening and Pediatric Care

While chronic adult retinal diseases remain the primary focus of digital health integration, the scope of AI is rapidly expanding to address critical gaps in other subspecialties. In the anterior segment, AI-driven analysis of corneal topography, such as the KeratoDetect model, has achieved an accuracy of 99.33% in detecting Keratoconus (Lavric & Popa, 2019). This precision facilitates earlier interventions, such as corneal cross-linking, which can prevent the long-term socio-economic burden of corneal transplants.

Furthermore, the application of AI in Retinopathy of Prematurity (ROP) serves as a vital case study for geographic equity. In regions where pediatric ophthalmologists are scarce, autonomous systems have demonstrated an AUC of 0.96 (Redd et al., 2018). By automating the assessment of vascular severity in neonatal intensive care units, this technology acts as a safeguard against irreversible blindness in underserved populations, effectively mitigating the structural absence of specialized care.

3.2. Determinants of the Digital Divide and Professional Skepticism

Despite these technological triumphs, the findings of this review highlight that digital solutions are not inherently equitable. The transition from clinical validation to universal adoption is hindered by a complex intersection of structural, technical, and human factors.

Qualitative evidence further highlights the complexity of teleophthalmology adoption. In a study conducted in urban primary care settings, both patients and healthcare providers identified barriers such as limited awareness, lack of engagement from providers, and administrative challenges, despite generally positive patient attitudes toward teleophthalmology (Nguyen et al., 2022).

3.2.1. The Infrastructure and Economic Gap

High-quality AI diagnostics are fundamentally dependent on a "digital backbone" consisting of high-speed internet and sophisticated imaging hardware. In low-resource settings, the high capital expenditure required for devices like Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) remains a primary driver of exclusion. While AI algorithms may be low-cost or even open-source, the hardware bottleneck ensures that advanced diagnostics remain a privilege of urban, well-funded centers. This infrastructure gap threatens to transform teleophthalmology into a tool that serves the "digital elite" while leaving underserved populations further behind.

3.2.2. The "Black Box" Problem and Clinical Trust

A major hurdle to the mainstream integration of deep learning is the inherent lack of interpretability in neural networks. This "black box" phenomenon—where an algorithm provides a diagnosis without a visible clinical rationale—fosters significant skepticism among clinicians. As noted by Hashemian et al. (2024), the development of Explainable AI (XAI) is not merely a technical upgrade but a social necessity. For practitioners to relinquish a degree of diagnostic autonomy to an autonomous system, the AI must provide heatmaps or feature-highlighting (e.g., Grad-CAM) that align with human ophthalmic expertise. Without this transparency, professional resistance will continue to stall the adoption of even the most accurate models.

3.2.3. User-Level Barriers and Digital Literacy

Evidence suggests a compelling paradox in the adoption of digital health among visually impaired populations. Nationally representative data indicates that individuals with significant vision loss are 56% more likely to utilize telehealth services compared to those without impairments, likely due to the mitigation of physical transportation barriers (Nguyen et al., 2024).

However, this high demand is met with significant "usability friction." Despite the necessity of these tools, nearly 50% of visually impaired users report being unable to complete a remote consultation without external assistance. This highlights a critical gap: while digital health is a vital lifeline for those with limited mobility, the current design of these platforms often fails to account for the specific accessibility needs of the very population that relies on them most. This "accessibility gap" necessitates a shift toward universal design and specialized digital literacy training for elderly and visually impaired patients.

3.3. Challenges in Digital Vision Rehabilitation While AI excels at diagnosis, the rehabilitative phase remains problematic. A landmark Cochrane Review by Bittner et al. (2023) highlighted a critical gap in evidence-based telerehabilitation. Despite the high global burden of low vision (over 300 million people), the review identified a significant scarcity of randomized controlled trials, noting that while telerehabilitation shows promise, it currently offers similar efficacy to self-guided training in younger populations.

Furthermore, the high abandonment rates of assistive devices mentioned in the review reinforce the socio-technical challenge: technology alone cannot restore quality of life without sustained, human-led support. This confirms that for the "Total Eye Care" model to succeed, digital tools must be integrated with personalized, accessible professional guidance to prevent patient burnout and device abandonment.

3.4. Professional Leadership and Team Integration

This systemic gap in rehabilitation, combined with the aforementioned barriers to adoption, further underscores the necessity for clinical leadership. Technology alone cannot bridge the divide between diagnosis and successful visual outcomes. Successful implementation requires the leadership of ophthalmologists within multidisciplinary teams. Teleophthalmology must be viewed not as a standalone commercial service, but as an integrated part of a comprehensive "total eye care" model. Professional consensus on accreditation and the scope of digital practice is essential to ensure that clinical excellence is maintained in a virtual environment.

3.5. Global Implementation Models: From High-Income to Low-Resource Settings

The digital divide is not a monolithic phenomenon; it manifests differently across geographical and economic landscapes. Analyzing diverse implementation models provides a roadmap for sustainable integration.

- **The Integrated Public Health Approach (UK & Europe):** In the United Kingdom, the NHS has successfully piloted AI triage within the Diabetic Eye Screening Programme (DESP). By integrating AI into a centralized national database, the system reduces the grading burden on human experts by up to 80%, allowing specialists to focus on high-risk cases. This model exemplifies how technology can thrive within a state-funded, organized health infrastructure.

- **The "Hub-and-Spoke" Model (India & Southeast Asia):** India's Aravind Eye Care System has pioneered a "Hub-and-Spoke" teleophthalmology network. Remote vision centers (spokes) capture images which are transmitted to a central hospital (hub) for AI and expert review. This model overcomes the scarcity of doctors in rural areas and serves as a blueprint for "frugal innovation" in low-resource settings.

- **The Private-Sector Frontier (USA):** In the United States, the focus has been on clinical efficiency and liability. The FDA approval of autonomous systems has shifted the burden of screening to primary care physicians (PCPs). However, this model faces challenges regarding insurance reimbursement and the "fragmentation of care," where a patient may receive a diagnosis in a retail clinic but lack a clear pathway to a surgical specialist.

4. Discussion

The integration of teleophthalmology and artificial intelligence into routine clinical practice represents more than a technical upgrade; it is a fundamental shift in the socio-technical landscape of vision care. The findings of this review demonstrate that while the "technological promise" of AI—characterized by high AUC values and expert-level diagnostic accuracy—is largely being met, the "social promise" of equitable access remains unfulfilled. The discussion hereafter focuses on the structural, ethical, and professional dimensions of the digital divide in ophthalmology.

4.1. The Socio-Technological Paradox of AI A central theme in recent literature is the paradox of innovation: technologies designed to expand healthcare access often benefit those who already have the most resources. While systems like IDx-DR offer powerful autonomous diagnostics, their success depends on expensive, high-end imaging hardware. This equipment is rarely available in rural or low-income clinics.

This creates a "two-tiered" system of care:

- **Well-funded centers:** Use AI to further increase their efficiency and quality of care.
- **Underserved areas:** Remain stuck with overburdened manual screening because they cannot afford the "digital entry fee."

In social science, this is known as the "Matthew Effect"—the digitally rich get richer, while the poor fall further behind. To fulfill the true promise of AI, the focus must shift from simply creating better algorithms to developing affordable, durable hardware that can work in any environment.

4.2. Trust, Transparency, and the "Black Box" Barrier The "black box" nature of deep learning is a major psychological barrier to its adoption. In many communities, there is a historical distrust of automated systems. When an AI provides a life-changing diagnosis without explaining why, patient trust and cooperation often drop. As Hashemian et al. (2024) argue, Explainable AI (XAI) is not just a technical feature—it is a requirement for clinical trust. To work effectively with humans, AI must provide visual evidence (such as heatmaps) that doctors can understand. Without this transparency, AI risks being seen as an impersonal, cold tool rather than a helpful medical assistant.

4.3. Reclaiming Professional Leadership in the Digital Era The shift towards digital health has introduced competitive market forces and medical bureaucracy into the sanctum of the patient-doctor relationship. To prevent the fragmentation of ophthalmic services into disconnected commercial "screening kiosks," the profession must reclaim its role as a comprehensive provider of total eye care. This review argues that teleophthalmology should not be a standalone product but a component of a physician-led multidisciplinary team. The leadership of ophthalmologists is crucial for establishing the formal accreditation and certification standards mentioned in the vanguard of medical innovation. Defining the "scope of practice" in the digital realm ensures that technological progress is guided by the Hippocratic principle of *primum non nocere* rather than purely by market efficiency.

4.4. Ethical Implications of Data Diversity The challenge of algorithmic bias is rooted in the optical properties of the fundus. For instance, increased melanin density in individuals of African or South Asian descent can lead to lower contrast in digital fundus images, potentially increasing the rate of false negatives in AI-driven glaucoma and DR screening. Research indicates that models trained predominantly on Caucasian cohorts may exhibit a significant drop in performance when applied to diverse populations, with some studies showing a variance in AUC of up to 0.05–0.08 across different ethnic groups (Burlina et al., 2021). This 'data poverty' reinforces the digital divide by providing lower diagnostic accuracy to the very populations that suffer the highest burden of disease."

4.5. Limitations and Future Research Directions While this review synthesizes a broad range of data, several limitations must be acknowledged. There is a notable predominance of studies from high-income countries, leaving a gap in our understanding of long-term teleophthalmology outcomes in sub-Saharan Africa or Southeast Asia. Furthermore, most research focuses on diagnostic accuracy (the "what") rather than the socio-behavioral aspects of patient engagement (the "how"). Future research should employ participatory methods, involving older adults and persons with disabilities in the design of digital interfaces to ensure "universal usability."

4.6. Legal Liability and Ethical Accountability.

Establishing a clear legal framework for AI-induced errors remains a challenge. Aligning with the multilevel governance model proposed by Martinho et al. (2026), the implementation of ophthalmic AI requires a systemic framework where ethical responsibility is shared between developers, healthcare providers, and regulatory bodies. This approach ensures that the burden of transparency and accountability does not rest solely on the individual clinician, but is integrated into a broader institutional policy.

5. Conclusions

Teleophthalmology has the potential to transform vision care, but technology alone is not a "silver bullet." While AI and remote screening offer incredible diagnostic precision, their success depends on a commitment to equity. Without deliberate efforts to improve infrastructure and inclusive design, these innovations risk deepening the digital divide. To truly serve those in greatest need, future advancements must align technological progress with principles of health justice, ensuring that eye care is accessible to all, regardless of geography or technical proficiency.

6. Policy and Practice Recommendations

Teleophthalmology can contribute to reducing preventable vision loss, but only if implemented with deliberate attention to equity and accessibility. Based on the synthesized literature, several policy and practice directions emerge as essential for future development.

First, universal design principles must be embedded in digital health innovation. Applications and platforms should be evaluated for usability among older adults and persons with visual impairment before being integrated into clinical pathways. Incorporating accessibility standards such as adjustable interfaces, audio guidance and simplified navigation could improve digital participation without costly redesigns.

Second, teleophthalmology implementation should be accompanied by community-based digital literacy support. Programmes delivered through libraries, senior centres or primary care facilities may improve patient confidence and ability to use digital tools. Training aimed at caregivers is equally important, as they often facilitate access among vulnerable patients.

Third, sustainable financing models are needed to reduce economic barriers to digital care. Insurance coverage of teleconsultations, device subsidies and improved broadband affordability could mitigate the role of socioeconomic status in determining access to eye care.

Finally, evaluation frameworks should include equity-sensitive outcome measures. Clinical adoption should be monitored with attention to differences in uptake, adherence and disease progression across regions and demographic groups. Policymakers must ensure that expansion of telemedicine strengthens, rather than fragments, existing care pathways.

Prioritizing equity in teleophthalmology is therefore not only a technological challenge but also a strategic and societal obligation.

Author's contribution:

- **Research concept and design** – Weronika Matwiejuk, Karol Marcyś, Wojciech Ługowski, Julia Samek, Jakub Komorowski-Roszkiewicz
- **Data collection and/or compilation** – Weronika Matwiejuk, Wojciech Ługowski, Karolina Bartoszevska, Iga Kwiecień, Kamil Dziekoński
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- **Supervision, project administration** – Weronika Matwiejuk

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