

Title: The association between perinatal and neonatal variables and neuropsychological development in very and extremely low-birth-weight preterm children at the beginning of primary school.

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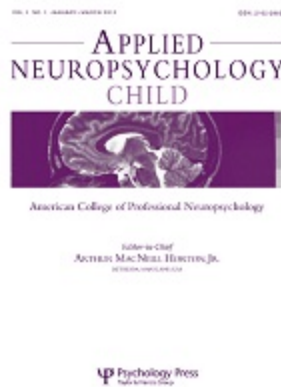
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The association between perinatal and neonatal variables and neuropsychological development in very and extremely low-birth-weight preterm children at the beginning of primary school.

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Title: The association between perinatal and neonatal variables and neuropsychological development in very and extremely low-birth-weight preterm children at the beginning of primary school.

Abstract

Preterm children with very low birth weight (<1500 g) and extremely low birth weight (<1000 g) have an increased risk of experiencing neuropsychological delays. The purpose of this study is to characterize the neuropsychological profile of very and extremely low birth weight preterm children and discover what maternal conditions, diseases, procedures, and alterations in preterm newborns could be related to their later neuropsychological development. Eighty-nine preterm children (aged from 5 to 7) were assessed on their intelligence quotient (IQ), executive function, memory, and visuospatial memory in a single session, using the RIST and NEPSY-II test. Parents provided sociodemographic data. Preterm children showed lower scores than normative values on impulsivity, visual short-term memory, and spatial relation abilities. Extremely-low-birth weight preterm children also showed less inhibitory control and worse mental rotation skills. Neonatal surgical procedures, late onset sepsis, and periventricular hemorrhages had the greatest impact on neurodevelopment. When one or more of these conditions is present, memory is the most affected neuropsychological function, followed by visuospatial skills, inhibitory control, and IQ. It is important to take into account the presence of maternal conditions, diseases, interventions, and neonatal alterations in preterm newborns in order to determine the risk of neuropsychological delays in later development.

Keywords

Preterm, neurodevelopment, perinatal risk, neuropsychological profile, memory deficits

1. Introduction

Preterm birth, defined as less than 37 completed weeks of gestation, encompasses a wide range of neuropsychological **difficulties** during childhood (Bhutta, Cleves, Casey, Cradock, & Anand, 2002; Delobel-Ayoub et al., 2009), **including** poorer executive functioning and attentional abilities (Loe, Chatav, & Alduncin, 2015) and some learning difficulties, such as reading, spelling, or mathematical abilities (Aarnoudse-Moens, Weisglas-Kuperus, van Goudoever, & Oosterlaan, 2009; Guarini et al., 2019; Hasler & Akshoomoff, 2019). Other cognitive problems have been reported less in preterm children, **such as** visuospatial abilities (Butcher et al., 2012; van Veen, van Wassenae-Leemhuis, van Kaam, Oosterlaan, & Aarnoudse-Moens, 2019) and memory (Aanes, Bjuland, Skranes, & Løhaugen, 2015; McCoy, Conrad, Richman, Nopoulos, & Bell, 2013; Omizzolo et al., 2014).

Neuropsychological alterations in this population impact their quality of life (Vieira & Linhares, 2016) and their school achievement (Aarnoudse-Moens et al., 2009; Twilhaar, De Kieviet, Aarnoudse-Moens, Van Elburg, & Oosterlaan, 2017). Therefore, the beginning of the primary school stage is a particularly sensitive period, due to the cognitive difficulties presented by preterm children when faced with a growing academic demand. This lower cognitive achievement can persist even in adulthood (Pyhala et al., 2011), due to a different structural, functional, and metabolic brain status in premature newborns (Duerden, Taylor, & Miller, 2013) that continues along a divergent developmental pathway during childhood and adolescence (Haebich et al., 2019; Ment et al., 2009; Mürner-Lavanchy, Rummel, Steinlin, & Everts, 2018).

Preterm children are usually classified according to their gestational age and birth weight. Neurodevelopmental risk is higher in children with **a** lower gestational age and

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2
3 lower birth weight (Aarnoudse-Moens et al., 2009; Bhutta et al., 2002). Therefore, very
4
5 low-birth-weight preterm children (VLBW) (who weigh 1,500 g or less at birth) **as well**
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7 **as extremely-low-birth-weight preterm children (ELBW) (who weigh less than 1,000 g**
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9 **at birth)** are vulnerable populations, demonstrating increased risk of a lower IQ score
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11 and academic and behavioral problems (Fan, Portuguese, & Nunes, 2013; Hutchinson,
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13 De Luca, Doyle, Roberts, & Anderson, 2013). They also have a higher risk of attention
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15 deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (Franz et al., 2018). Some of **these cognitive and**
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17 **behavioral problems** persist until adulthood (Aanes et al., 2015; Van Lieshout et al.,
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19 2018).
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25 Apart from this higher vulnerability related to birth weight at the time of a preterm birth
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27 and soon after it, diverse diseases, treatments, and conditions can potentially affect the
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29 later neurocognitive development of preterm children. Some of these variables are
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31 mainly related to the mother's health and delivery or to neonatal **diseases** and
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33 interventions. Therefore, studies have shown that maternal hypertension during
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35 pregnancy and antenatal steroids (Spinillo et al., 2009) or the mother's genitourinary
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37 infection and chorioamnionitis (Lee et al., 2014) are related to lower cognitive scores at
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39 two years of age in preterm children. Gestational age, patent ductus arteriosus, and head
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41 circumference are related to IQ scores of seven-year-old premature children (Cooke,
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43 2005). Periventricular hemorrhage is associated with lower IQ in preterm children
44
45 between four and 12 years old (Roze et al., 2009). Even in adulthood, several variables,
46
47 such as intraventricular hemorrhage or mechanical ventilation, continue to influence IQ
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49 achievement (Breeman, Jaekel, Baumann, Bartmann, & Wolke, 2017). However, the
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51 results are still controversial. Thus, preterm children who received early surgery due to
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53 post-hemorrhagic ventricular dilatation achieved mean IQ scores at five to eight years of
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55 age (Brouwer et al., 2012). Moreover, different cognitive profiles in preterm children at
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3 five years old are not explained by medical risk in the neonatal period (Lundequist,
4 Böhlm, & Smedler, 2013), and many other variables analyzed in later studies, such as
5 sepsis, premature rupture of membranes, necrotizing enterocolitis, etc., did not reveal
6 significant results (Cooke, 2005; Lee et al., 2014; Spinillo et al., 2009). Thus, we
7 observe that there are still inconclusive results in terms of the subsequent influence of
8 perinatal risk factors. Furthermore, these studies focus their evaluations on IQ, without
9 distinguishing between different neuropsychological capacities.

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20 Other studies have focused on the use of indexes or inventories to measure perinatal risk
21 and relate it to subsequent developmental measures. Thus, it appears that at least part of
22 children's cognitive, motor, and adaptive development (Howe, Sheu, Hsu, Wang, &
23 Wang, 2016), as well as deficits in visuoperceptual abilities (Sanchez-Joya et al., 2017),
24 can be explained by medical complications at birth. However, these studies were carried
25 out before the age of five and do not reveal whether this situation continues in their
26 subsequent development. Likewise, the creation of an index, despite its usefulness for
27 collecting information, makes it difficult to know which of these perinatal and obstetric
28 variables are influencing the child's subsequent development.

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41 The purpose of this study was to define the cognitive and neuropsychological profile of
42 very and extremely low-birth-weight preterm children (less than 1,500 g) and explore
43 the relationship between different perinatal and neonatal variables and the later
44 development of different cognitive functions at the beginning of the school stage. Thus,
45 we can find out which factors present in preterm newborns have more impact on their
46 later cognitive development. This knowledge will make it possible to plan interventions
47 in earlier stages of development in children who present some of these factors, and try
48 to ensure the least possible impact at the onset of primary education, when the cognitive
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3 demand level increases markedly and will continue to rise in successive stages of the
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5 educational process.
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8 **2. Materials and methods**

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10 11 2.1. *Participants*

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15 Data for this study were collected between February 2016 and May 2017. Cases were
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17 recruited from a cohort of neonates under 1,500 g and 37 weeks of gestation, born
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19 between January 2009 and December 2011, and hospitalized in the neonatal intensive
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21 care unit (NICU) of Central University Hospital of Asturias (HUCA), Spain.
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25 Children who met the following criteria were included in this study: a chronological age
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27 of between 5 and 7 years old at the time the study was carried out, a gestational age of
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29 less than or equal to 37 weeks, and a birth weight of less than or equal to 1,500 g.
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31 Exclusion criteria were death, lack of follow-up, birth weight greater than 1,500 g, and
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33 diagnosis of malformations and/or congenital syndromes that lead to evident
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35 neurological alterations.
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39 The study was conducted in accordance with the Helsinki declaration for investigations
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41 in human subjects, and it was approved by the regional ethics committee. Parents gave
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43 their written informed consent before the study began.
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47 The target sample size was determined based on the number of eligible P147 children.
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49 Sample size should be 107 (Confidence interval 95%, Margin of error 5%), but the final
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51 sample with reliable measures of all the variables was composed of 89 preterm children.
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53 Figure 1 shows the flow of participant selection. Comparing the responders and the non-
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55 responders, no statistically significant differences were found in the neonatal variables
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57 analyzed (weight, gestational age, sex, type of delivery, multiple gestation, APGAR test
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3 at birth, and diagnosis of pathology at discharge). For the analyses, this sample was
4 split, first according to their gestational age in weeks: 36 to 34 (N=17), 33 to 32 (N=10),
5 28 to 31 (N=41) and <28 (N=21; Range 28-24 weeks), and second according to their
6 birth weight in grams: from 1,500 to 1,001 g (VLBW) (N=62) and below 1,000 g
7 (ELBW) (N=27).
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15 The children's assessments were completed in a single session lasting 120 minutes with
16 breaks to avoid fatigue. Children were evaluated with neuropsychological function tests.
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Parents were asked about several sociodemographic data. Perinatal and neonatal
variables were obtained retrospectively through electronic medical records

2.2. Cognitive measures

Preterm children complete a neuropsychological test battery, including the assessment
of IQ and cognitive functioning on executive functions (inhibitory control), memory
(visuospatial and verbal), and visuospatial abilities (mental rotation and directionality
and spatial relation).

2.2.1. RIST (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2003)

The RIST (*Reynolds Intellectual Screening Test*) provides an IQ estimation score for
children and adults between 3 and 94 years old by employing two tasks: *Guess what* for
the verbal score and *Odd-item* for the non-verbal score. On "Guess what", the examiner
reads some definitions, and the child has to answer with the appropriate word. On
"Odd-item", the child is shown several pictures, and s/he has to point to the different or
incongruent one.

2.2.2. NEPSY-II (Korkman, Kirk, & Kemp, 2007)

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3 The NEPSY II battery allows us to obtain a neuropsychological profile in children from
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5 3 to 16 years old. The following subtests were used in the present study: *Inhibition*,
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7 *Memory for Designs*, *Geometric Puzzles*, and *Route finding*.
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10 The “*Inhibition*” subtest was used to measure inhibitory control. On this task, the child
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12 is shown several black and white geometric shapes (circle and square) or black and
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14 white arrows, and s/he has to say the correct (Denomination) and opposite (Inhibition)
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16 shape or direction of the arrow. The present study includes the errors made on both parts
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18 of the task, *Denomination errors*, mainly related to impulsivity, and *Inhibition errors*,
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20 associated with a lack of inhibitory control.
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25 The “*Memory for Designs*” subtest was employed to assess short- and long-term visual
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27 and spatial memory. In the short-term assessment, the child is shown a grid containing
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29 from 4 to 10 meaningless picture cards per page. Then, the examiner removes the page,
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31 and the child must select the designs s/he has seen from a set of target cards and
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33 distractors and place them on a grid in the same location s/he was previously shown.
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35 This procedure is repeated 15-25 minutes later for the long-term evaluation. This test
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37 measures, in addition to short- and long-term visuospatial memory, whether the content,
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39 that is, the correct picture and/or spatial position on the grid, was remembered correctly.
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41 Therefore, the following variables were included: *Content short-term* and *Content long-*
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43 *term*, both related to visual memory in the short and long term, and *Spatial short-term*
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45 and *Spatial long-term*, associated with short- and long-term spatial memory.
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51 The “*Memory for Names*” subtest was used for short- and long-term verbal memory
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53 evaluation. To assess short-term memory, the child is shown 6 to 8 cards containing
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55 pictures of children while the examiner reads the name of each child on the cards. Then,
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57 the cards are shown again, and the examinee is asked to remember the name of the child
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59 on each card. To assess long-term memory, the same test is applied after about 25-35
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3 minutes. On this test, the total number of items remembered immediately (*Short-term*)
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5 and 20 minutes after their latest presentation (*Long-term*) was registered.
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8 The “*Geometric Puzzles*” subtest was employed to measure mental rotation abilities.
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10 The child is shown pages containing a box with several geometric figures, with other
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12 geometric figures on the sides of the box. The child must match two of the figures
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14 outside the box with two of the figures inside it. On this test, the total number of correct
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16 items was considered.
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20 The “*Route finding*” subtest was employed for directionality, spatial relation, and map
21
22 interpretation assessment. The child is shown a schematic map indicating how to reach
23
24 a house. The child is then asked to find the house on a larger map with more roads and
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26 houses available. On this test, the total number of correct answers was considered.
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29 30 2.3. *Perinatal and neonatal factors*

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32 The perinatal and neonatal variables included were described in Table 1 (Stedman,
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34 2011). Early surgery procedures include ventriculoperitoneal shunt for hydrocephalus
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36 and colostomy and ileostomy related to necrotizing enterocolitis. Intraventricular
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38 hemorrhage includes grades I (N=17), II (N=5), and III (N=2). Sepsis was diagnosed by
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40 a positive blood culture or by elevated infection markers (C-reactive protein -CRP-,
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42 interleukin 6 -IL-6- and procalcitonine -PCT-) and clinical infection with a negative
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44 blood culture.
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50 [Table 1 near here]
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54 Developmental disorders (such as attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, learning
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56 disorders, infantile cerebral palsy, behavioral disorders, autism spectrum disorders, and
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58 language disorders), APGAR at 1 and 5 minutes, and intrauterine growth status,
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determined with the Fenton growth chart (Fenton & Kim, 2013), were taken into account in describing the sample.

2.4. *Statistical analysis*

All analyses were performed using SPSS 18.0 for Windows. Descriptive analyses were conducted for age, gender, gestational age, birth weight, intrauterine growth status, APGAR test, and neurodevelopmental disorders in the sample. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the neuropsychological tests, and these data were compared to the normative population using their respective standard scales. **Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to compare the gestational age groups. The Mann-Whitney test with Bonferroni correction was used as a post-hoc test. Correlation analysis and lineal multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to relate the RIST performance with the rest of the measures in the whole sample. Mann-Whitney U tests were employed to compare children on whether the perinatal variable was present or absent in each neuropsychological measure, and to compare the birth-weight groups. A p-value of 0.05 was considered significant.**

3. **Results**

3.1. *Group characteristics*

Table 2 showed characteristics of the participants.

[Table 2 near here]

3.2. *Neuropsychological outcomes and comparisons according to gestational age and birth weight.*

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3 Table 3 showed the direct neuropsychological scores obtained from the preterm
4 children, as well as the normative values for their age. Table 4 showed the
5 neuropsychological performance of the birth-weight groups.
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10 [Table 3 near here]

11 [Table 4 near here]

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16 Thus, preterm children had average values on the RIST, Inhibition Errors, short- and
17 long-term scores on Memory for Names, and spatial short-term and content long-term
18 scores on Memory for Designs and Geometric puzzles. However, they obtained slightly
19 below average values on content short-term from Memory for Designs, Denomination
20 Errors, and Route finding. Regarding weight, children with a birth weight from 1,500 to
21 1,001 g scored mean values on the RIST, Inhibition Errors, short and long-term
22 Memory for Names, spatial short and long-term Memory for Designs, content long-term
23 Memory for Designs and Geometric puzzles, and they showed values slightly below
24 what was expected on Denomination Errors, Route finding, and content short-term
25 Memory for Designs. Preterm children with a birth weight of less than 1,000 g obtained
26 average scores on the RIST, short- and long-term Memory for Names, spatial short- and
27 long-term Memory for Designs, and content long-term Memory for Designs. Scores
28 below normative values were obtained on Denomination Errors, Inhibition Errors,
29 Route finding, content short-term Memory for Designs, and Geometric Puzzles.
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49 In addition, Kruskal-Wallis comparison revealed significant differences between the
50 gestational age groups (36-34 vs. 33-32 vs. 31-28 vs. <28) on spatial short-term
51 Memory for Designs ($H_2=10.666$, $p=0.014$) and spatial long-term Memory for Designs
52 ($H_2= 9.443$, $p=0.024$). Post hoc analysis corrected by Bonferroni (considering a result to
53 be significant when $p<0.008$) showed that these differences were observed between 33-
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32 and 31-28 only on spatial short-term Memory for Designs ($U=92$, $p=0.007$, $r=0.376$). Analysing the birth weight groups (1,500-1,001 g vs <1,000 g) with Mann-Whitney's test, significant differences were found in Denomination Errors ($U=532.5$, $p=0.006$, $r=0.289$).

Moreover, the RIST was significantly associated with Inhibition errors ($r=-0.276$, $p=0.009$), short- ($r=0.355$, $p=0.001$) and long-term ($r=0.273$, $p=0.010$) Memory for Names, Geometric puzzles ($r=0.293$, $p=0.006$), spatial short-term Memory for Designs ($r=0.218$, $p=0.042$), and Route finding ($r=0.330$, $p=0.002$). Then, multiple linear regression was performed, revealing that these correlated variables explained 21.6% of the variance in the RIST test ($F_{8,79}=3.998$, $p=0.001$). However, only spatial short-term Memory for Names ($\beta=0.297$, $p=0.045$) and Route Finding ($\beta=0.299$, $p=0.014$) were significant independent predictors.

Relation between perinatal and neonatal factors and cognitive scores

Perinatal variables, neonatal treatments, neonatal diseases, and neonatal neurological impairments were related to the neuropsychological test outcome. Significant results are shown in Table 5.

[Table 5 near here]

For each neonatal variable, children were divided into two groups, depending on whether the condition was present in their perinatal and neonatal period or not. Therefore, on the one hand, memory difficulties (*Memory for names* and *Memory for designs*) were significantly associated with perinatal variables such as cesarean and maternal hypertension, neonatal treatments such as surgery, inotropic medications, and CPAP, neonatal diseases such as PDA, apnea, and later sepsis, and neurological impairments such as intraventricular hemorrhage and leukomalacia.

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3 On the other hand, worse visuospatial skill scores (*Geometric puzzles* and *Route*
4 *finding*) were significantly related to the presence of perinatal variables such as
5 corticosteroid and cesarean section, neonatal treatments such as surgery or CPAP,
6 neonatal diseases such as NEC or later sepsis, and neurological impairments such as
7 intraventricular hemorrhage. Worse results on *Inhibition* were significantly associated
8 with neonatal diseases such as NEC, RSD, or late sepsis, as well as intraventricular
9 hemorrhages. Lastly, lower IQ scores (*RIST*) were significantly associated with
10 treatments such as surgery and diseases such as NEC.
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14 Finally, perinatal variables that were considered in the analysis but did not show
15 significant results were multiple delivery, in vitro fecundation, chorioamnionitis,
16 intubation, mechanical ventilation, surfactant, and transfused anemia.
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19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 **4. Discussion** 31

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33 Although very low-birth-weight preterm children seem to present a neuropsychological
34 profile that is relatively appropriate for their age, those who undergo neonatal
35 interventions or have neonatal diseases and those whose mothers have certain
36 conditions during pregnancy or delivery have a greater risk of showing later cognitive
37 difficulties during development, compared to preterm children without these
38 circumstances.
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42 First, the results showed that all the preterm children obtained a neuropsychological
43 profile with an increased risk of higher impulsivity, lower visual short-term memory,
44 and lower directionality and spatial relation abilities. On other functions, such as
45 general intelligence, verbal and spatial memory, and mental rotation abilities, they
46 achieved normative values. These results partially coincide with previous studies in
47 which these functions seem to be impaired (Butcher et al., 2012; Reveillon, Huppi, &
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3 Barisnikov, 2018; van Veen et al., 2019). These lower neuropsychological
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5 achievements could lead VLBW and ELBW preterm children to show more frequent
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7 difficulties in slowing down and avoiding unreflective responses or taking turns,
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9 learning and later remembering visual material, and interpreting maps or directions.
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11 These neuropsychological problems could have social and academic consequences.
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13 Thus, impulsivity, which can also be present in comorbid hyperactivity/impulsivity
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15 ADHD disorder, frequently diagnosed in preterm children (Franz et al., 2018), can lead
16
17 to problems in social relations with peers (Andrade & Tannock, 2014). Visual memory
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19 and visuospatial skill problems could have a negative impact on school results. This
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21 could be especially important in subjects with important numerical, visual, and spatial
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23 content (Cornu, Schiltz, Martin, & Hornung, 2018; Crollen & Noel, 2015), where
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25 visuospatial abilities are related to arithmetic and mathematical performance even in
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27 typically developing children (Foley, Vasilyeva, & Laski, 2017; Li & Geary, 2013,
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29 2017). However, other functions that are frequently altered in premature children, such
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31 as IQ, are not impaired in the sample, perhaps because a screening test is used for IQ or
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33 global intelligence estimation assessment. Thus, in studies that used brief IQ
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35 assessments such as the K-BIT test, even when very preterm children performed
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37 significantly worse than term-born, they scored within the normative range (Guarini et
38
39 al., 2019). Therefore, in future research, more extensive IQ assessment should be
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41 carried out. Despite this, we found that the cognitive profile is related to performance on
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43 directionality and spatial relations, short- and long-term verbal memory, spatial short-
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45 term memory and inhibitory control. However, based on all these functions, their level
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47 of general intelligence could be predicted by short-term verbal memory and
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49 directionality abilities. Thus, we would expect preterm children who show low verbal
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51 memory and low directionality and map interpretation skills to present low IQ
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3 scores. This low IQ performance, pointed out by previous studies (Bhutta et al., 2002;
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5 Mangin, Horwood, & Woodward, 2017), seems to have its brain correlate in
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7 prematurity, with alterations in both the white and deep grey matters (Anderson et al.,
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9 2017), as well as in the cortical thickness (Sripada et al., 2018). Moreover, IQ
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11 achievements affected academic performance in preterm children, revealing that IQ
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13 predicted the level of attention reported by the teachers and the children's mathematics
14
15 performance (Aarnoudse-Moens, Weisglas-Kuperus, Duivenvoorden, van Goudoever,
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17 & Oosterlaan, 2013). However, it should be noted that the predictive power of these
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19 variables is not very high, and, therefore, the influence they might have on IQ would be
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21 quite limited. Even so, it is important to consider that different cognitive functions may
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23 influence IQ performance, which should be taken into account during the
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25 neuropsychological assessment of the premature population.
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31 On the one hand, different neuropsychological profiles can be found based on birth
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33 weight. Although several similarities were found in both groups, showing that functions
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35 such as impulsivity, directionality, and short-term visual memory were below the
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37 expected values, ELBW preterm children also presented low values on inhibition and
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39 mental rotation skills. In addition, when comparing the raw scores of the two groups,
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41 the ELBW group showed greater impulsivity. Thus, children born with extremely low
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43 weight tend to present greater difficulties in their visuospatial skills, inhibitory control,
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45 and impulsivity, compared to those with a very low birth weight. Therefore, the ELBW
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47 population will have greater difficulties in controlling their behavior and stopping
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49 automatic responses, as well as in adequately processing visuospatial information.
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51 Previous literature pointed out that lower birth weight is associated with lower
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53 inhibitory control in extremely low birth weight and extremely preterm children (Ford
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3 et al., 2011), as well as lower achievement on visuospatial skills, which could affect
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5 later academic performance (Johnson, Wolke, Hennessy, & Marlow, 2011).
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8 On the other hand, short-term spatial memory performance seems to depend on the
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10 gestational age of the preterm child. Specifically, 32- or 31-week-old children
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12 performed this task better than 31 to 28-week-old children. Previous studies showed that
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14 preterm children who were born before 33 weeks of gestation showed lower
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16 visuospatial memory scores, which were related to the severity of the white matter and
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18 grey matter impairment (Clark & Woodward, 2010). However, it is necessary to
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20 consider that there does not seem to be a progression in this capacity; that is, the older
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22 gestational age children did not perform better than those in the immediately lower
23
24 group, and so on. Therefore, we could not consider gestational age to be a determining
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26 factor in spatial memory results, although based on the data found, it seems advisable to
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28 keep in mind that children with a lower gestational age may present greater difficulties
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30 on this function.
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36 Regarding perinatal variables and their relationship with neuropsychological
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38 performance, the results showed that the maternal perinatal variables most related to
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40 cognitive functioning were the type of delivery, maternal hypertension, and
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42 corticosteroids. First, a caesarean delivery was associated with lower short-term verbal
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44 memory, directionality, and spatial relation scores. Some studies did not find a
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46 relationship between the type of delivery and later developmental outcomes in low
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48 gestational age preterm children (Kimura et al., 2017) or very low-birth-weight children
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50 (Zhu, Bao, Zhang, Ma, & Wu, 2014), whereas others reported an association with a
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52 later diagnosis of autism spectrum disorder (Curran et al., 2015; Gardener, Spiegelman,
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54 & Buka, 2011). Therefore, the relationship between the type of delivery and subsequent
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56 cognitive development is not very clear. Second, maternal hypertension was related to
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3 worse short- and long-term verbal memory. In term-born children, hypertension during
4 pregnancy seems to be associated with social, cognitive, and executive **function**
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6 difficulties (Wade & Jenkins, 2016), as well as a higher risk of ADHD and/or autism
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8 spectrum disorder diagnoses (Maher et al., 2018). On the other hand, in mothers with
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10 preeclampsia and preterm children, results are varied. Some of them found negative
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12 effects, such as a greater association with cerebral palsy (Backes et al., 2011; Spinillo et
13
14 al., 2009) and higher neurocognitive risk, whereas others showed a protective effect,
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16 with better scores on cognitive scales (Backes et al., 2011). Thus, the results of the
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18 present study show that maternal hypertension and cognitive difficulties in childhood
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20 were not clearly associated. Finally, the use of corticosteroids was associated with lower
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22 scores on spatial processing and directionality. Corticosteroids are usually administered
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24 to the mother when there is a risk of preterm delivery (Roberts, Brown, Medley, &
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26 Dalziel, 2017), and so this treatment has been associated with lower rates of perinatal
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28 and neonatal death (Travers et al., 2017). However, it appears that corticosteroid
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30 treatment is not related to intellectual impairment (Roberts et al., 2017), and only one
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32 study, to our knowledge, reported neurodevelopmental delay (Roberts et al., 2017).
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41 Regarding neonatal treatments, early surgery, continuous positive airway pressure, and
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43 inotropic treatment had a great impact on the different cognitive functions. Thus,
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45 surgical procedures have been associated with lower IQ, visuospatial and verbal
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47 memory, and visuospatial abilities scores. According to previous studies, early surgery
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49 in preterm children seems to be related to a greater risk of suffering future sensorineural
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51 disability (Hunt et al., 2018). More specifically, surgeries performed **in the sample in**
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53 **the present study** were due, on the one hand, to hydrocephalus and, on the other, to
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55 necrotizing enterocolitis. Hydrocephalus is also related to delays in motor and linguistic
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57 development at two years of age (Gilard et al., 2018). However, there seems to be no
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3 relationship between an increased risk of disability in childhood and a specific surgical
4 procedure (Hunt et al., 2018), although the invasiveness of the procedure, intubation,
5 and possible complications during the procedure could be potential causes of the worse
6 neuropsychological results in this population. Second, the administration of continuous
7 positive airway pressure was related to worse visuospatial long-term memory and
8 mental rotation abilities. **Contrary to the findings**, this intervention does not seem to
9 have a negative impact on the subsequent neurological development (Wintermark,
10 Tolsa, Van Melle, Forcada-Guex, & Moessinger, 2007), probably due to a better
11 perfusion of brain tissue in the low-birth-weight newborn (Sadeghnia, Zamani, &
12 Badie, 2017). **These cerebral vascularization problems can also explain**
13 **neuropsychological results: premature children who received continuous positive**
14 **airway pressure had a previous respiratory pathology and, therefore, were subjected to**
15 **irregularities in their brain blood flow and brain oxygen supply, compared to those**
16 **children who did not have this pathology.** Lower regional cerebral tissue oxygen
17 saturation has been found to be associated with worse cognitive performance at 2 to 3
18 years old in preterm children (Verhagen et al., 2015). Thus, in an adolescent preterm
19 population, those who received a longer period of oxygen in NICU showed worse
20 performance on language evaluation tests (Taylor, Minich, Bangert, Filipek, & Hack,
21 2004). Therefore, it does not mean that this treatment is related to memory and
22 visuospatial problems, but rather that worse oxygenation and cerebral blood flow prior
23 to treatment explain these results. **Finally, the results of the present study revealed that**
24 **inotropic treatment was associated with lower scores on visuospatial long-term memory.**
25 This treatment is related to reduced brain growth (Kidokoro et al., 2014), which could
26 affect later cognitive outcomes.
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3 Late onset sepsis seems to be the neonatal disease that causes greater cognitive
4 dysfunction, followed by necrotizing enterocolitis, respiratory distress syndrome, patent
5 ductus arteriosus, and apnea. First, late onset sepsis was related, in the long term, to
6 worse results on inhibitory control, visuospatial and verbal memory, and visuospatial
7 abilities. Previous literature has related sepsis to other disorders, such as cerebral palsy,
8 and brain alterations, such as white matter abnormalities (Mallard & Wang, 2012), as
9 well as lower performance on IQ, memory, and attention, but not executive function or
10 visuospatial abilities (van der Ree, Tanis, Van Braeckel, Bos, & Roze, 2011), contrary
11 to the results obtained in this study. On the one hand, necrotizing enterocolitis was
12 related to worse IQ achievement, inhibition capacity, and visuospatial abilities, which
13 have previously been related to changes in brain structure (Lee et al., 2014), less brain
14 growth (Kidokoro et al., 2014), and white matter alterations (Rand, Austin, Inder, Bora,
15 & Woodward, 2016), as well as lower IQ scores. (Rand et al., 2016), although other
16 studies did not find a greater risk of cognitive dysfunction in the presence of this disease
17 (Lee et al., 2014; Mitha et al., 2013). On the other hand, patent ductus arteriosus has
18 been associated with lower scores on visuospatial long-term memory, which in previous
19 studies have been related to small brain width (Kidokoro et al., 2014). Finally, the apnea
20 diagnosis was related to worse visuospatial short-term memory, which has been
21 associated with lower cerebral oxygenation (Horne et al., 2017). Thus, the results point
22 out that neonatal infectious diseases could be related to later cognitive impairment,
23 although previous results do not always support this. Therefore, the role of these
24 neonatal diseases in neuropsychological development is still controversial, and more
25 research would be necessary to establish clear conclusions.

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56 Regarding neurological impairments, intraventricular hemorrhages were associated with
57 worse achievement on all the neuropsychological functions, except IQ, whereas
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3 periventricular leukomalacia was related to lower scores on short-term verbal memory.
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5 This early brain damage in premature children has been previously associated with later
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7 neuropsychological problems in childhood (Roze et al., 2009) and adolescence (Nosarti
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9 et al., 2011), even in the lowest grades (I and II) (Patra, Wilson-Costello, Taylor,
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11 Mercuri-Minich, & Hack, 2006), which could be due to different patterns of brain
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13 activation that persist even in early adulthood in preterm children (Kalpakidou et al.,
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15 2014). Moreover, of all the neonatal variables considered in this study, the one that
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17 seems to be related to a greater number of altered neuropsychological functions is
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19 intraventricular haemorrhage. This finding is not surprising: it is to be expected that this
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21 early brain damage would cause greater later cognitive impairment than other factors
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23 that affect brain development indirectly.
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29 **This study has some limitations.** First, the neuropsychological data provided were not
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31 compared to a control group, but rather to the normative scores provided by the tests.
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33 Although the normative values are expected to fit these children, there is a possibility
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35 that the neuropsychological profile of very low-birth-weight preterm children would be
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37 different if directly compared to children of the same age, geographical area,
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39 socioeconomic level, etc. In addition, a more extensive neuropsychological evaluation
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41 that assesses executive functions and IQ in greater depth would be appropriate.
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46 **Second, due to the unequal size of the groups in the different prenatal risk variables,**
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48 **they are inadequate for multivariate analysis, making it impossible to control the effects**
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50 **of possible influential variables. For example, cases presenting necrotizing enterocolitis,**
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52 **surgery procedure, and periventricular leukomalacia are scarce, and so the results found**
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54 **need to be considered carefully.**
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58 **In conclusion, a general neuropsychological profile of very low-birth-weight premature**
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60 **children has been found, characterized by increased impulsivity, low visual memory**

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3 performance, and low directionality, spatial relation, and map-related skills. This same
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5 performance has been found in the extremely low-birth-weight preterm children, as well
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7 as less inhibitory control and worse mental rotation skills. We have also been able to
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9 verify that, in these populations, the IQ achieved is partially determined by verbal
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11 memory performance and directionality and spatial relation skills. In addition, some of
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13 the factors that could potentially affect the future neuropsychological performance of
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15 very low-birth-weight preterm children at the beginning of primary school have been
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17 detected, such as surgery as a neonatal treatment, late onset sepsis as a neonatal disease,
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19 and intraventricular hemorrhages as a neonatal neurological impairment. The most
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21 altered neuropsychological abilities in the presence of these variables are verbal and
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23 spatial memory, followed by visuospatial skills, inhibitory control, and IQ. These data
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25 can help to prioritize treatments and preventive actions in order to avoid later problems
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27 in the development of these children. However, the role of some of these conditions in
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29 subsequent neuropsychological performance is not yet clearly defined, and, therefore,
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31 more research is needed to determine the exact factors that can impact the cognitive
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33 development of premature children.
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Figure captions:

Figure 1. Participant selection flowchart

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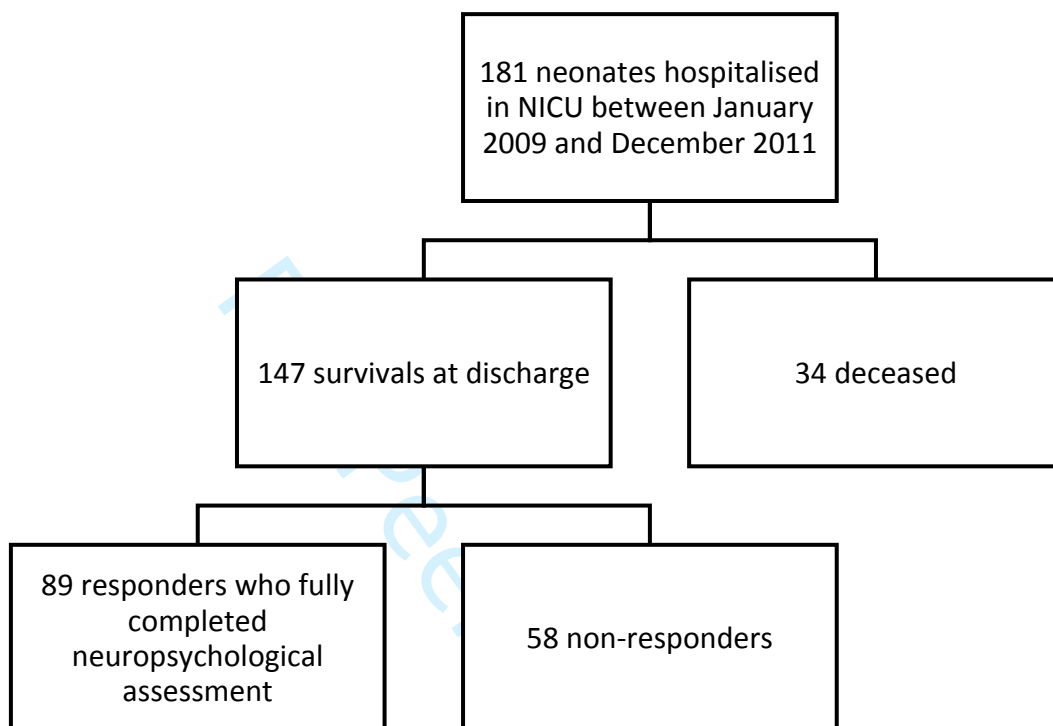


Fig 1. Participant selection flowchart

Table 1. Description of perinatal and neonatal variables of preterm children

Perinatal and maternal variables	Multiple delivery	Procedure of assisting the birth of more than one fetus/newborns and expulsion of their placentas by manual, instrumental, or surgical means
	In vitro fecundation (IVF)	Assisted reproduction treatment of high complexity. It consists of the union of the ovule with a sperm in the laboratory
	Maternal corticosteroids	Maternal drug (with corticosteroids) treatment to mature fetal lungs in case of risk of premature delivery
	Maternal antibiotics	Maternal drug (with antibiotics) treatment to treat possible perinatal infection
	Maternal chorioamnionitis	Acute inflammation of the placental membranes of infectious origin that is accompanied by infection of the amniotic content (fetus, cord and amniotic fluid)
	Maternal arterial hypertension (AHT)	Systolic blood pressure (SBP) greater than 140 mmHg and / or diastolic BP (PAD) greater than 90 mmHg on two or more consecutive occasions and separated by a period of four to six hours
	Type of delivery	Mode and route by which the labor develops (vaginal or caesarean section)
Neonatal treatments in NICU (Neonatal Intensive Care Unit)	Intubation	Act of introducing a tube through the trachea in order to be able to better oxygenate and ventilate a patient
	Continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP)	Non-invasive ventilation mode consisting of applying positive nasopharyngeal pressure at the end of the airflow from the lungs
	Mechanical ventilation	System to oxygenate and ventilate the airways artificially using a mechanical device for this purpose
	Surfactant	Natural substance that prevents the collapse of the lungs. In the premature neonate, there is a surfactant deficit, and so it may be necessary to administer it tracheally
	Inotropic	Pharmacological drugs whose effect is to improve the cardiocirculatory system (dopamine, dobutamine, adrenaline, milrinone, ...)
	Surgery	Branch of medicine concerned with diseases and conditions requiring or amenable to operative or manual procedures
Neonatal diseases	Necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC)	Severe abdominal neonatal disease consisting of intestinal inflammation, which can lead to perforation and peritonitis.
	Respiratory	Neonatal respiratory disease consisting of difficulty in

	distress syndrome (RSD)	oxygenation and ventilation of the lungs of the newborn
	Patent ductus arteriosus (PDA),	Absence of the neonatal physiological closure of the duct that joins the aorta and pulmonary artery in the fetus
	Apnea	Isolated episodes of absence of breathing, which appear frequently in premature babies.
	Transfused anemia	Decrease in the amount of hemoglobin in the blood that needs treatment with administration of hematies external to the patient
	Early and late onset sepsis	Episodes of systemic infection of the patient. Early sepsis occurs in the first days of life and are due to infections of maternal origin. Late sepsis occurs after one week of life and are due to infections of hospital origin
Neonatal neurological impairment	Intraventricular hemorrhage	Hemorrhage that occurs in the patient's brain, inside the brain ventricles
	Periventricular leukomalacia	Injury of the cerebral white matter due to episodes of hypoxia or local ischemia. It is frequently associated with medium- and long-term motor problems

Table 2. Preterm children description

	Mean (SD)
Birth weight (grams)	1156.71 (240.92)
Gestational age (weeks)	30.12 (2.83)
APGAR test (1 minute)	7 (2.19)
APGAR test (5 minutes)	8.6 (1.49)
Intrauterine growth status	N (%)
Small for gestational age (< Percentile 10)	26 (29.20%)
Appropriate for gestational age	59 (66.30%)
Large for gestational age (> Percentile 90)	4 (4.50%)
Sex	N (%)
Boys	49 (55.05%)
Girls	40 (44.94%)
Age	N (%)
5 years	30 (33.70%)
6 years	29 (32.58%)

	7 years	30 (33.70%)
Neurodevelopmental disorders		N (%)
	Any developmental disorder	19 (21.30%)
	ADHD	3 (3.40%)
	Learning disorder	3 (3.40%)
	Cerebral palsy	5 (5.60%)
	Behavioral problems	3 (3.40%)
	Autistic spectrum disorder	3 (3.40%)
	Language disorder	12 (13.50%)

ADHD: attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder.

Table 3. Neuropsychological characterization of very low-birth weight preterm

	Mean raw scores (SD)	Percentile Median
RIST	90.51 (17.02)	28
Inhibition – Denomination Errors	5.10 (5.31)	11-25 (Range)*
Inhibition – Inhibition Errors	14.65 (14.43)	26-50 (Range)*
Route finding	3.09 (1.05)	11-25 (Range)*
		Scalar Score Median
MFN – Short term	10.16 (4.45)	9
MFN – Long term	3.73 (1.98)	10
MFD – Spatial Short term	15.49 (5.94)	8
MFD – Spatial Long term	4.80 (1.96)	8
MFD – Content Short term	33.36 (8.88)	7
MFD – Content Long term	9.94 (3.24)	8
Geometric puzzles	18.27 (5.78)	9

MFN: Memory for Names; MFD: Memory for Designs

* For subtest Inhibition and Route finding from NEPSY-II, the normative scores provided are divided into ranges.

Table 4. Neuropsychological outcomes of preterm children according to birth weight

	1500-1001 grams of birth weight (N=62)		≤1000 grams of birth weight (N=27)	
	Mean raw scores (SD)	Percentile Median	Mean raw scores (SD)	Percentile Median
RIST	90.34 (16.62)	28	88.63 (18.08)	28
Inhibition – Denomination Errors	4.13 (4.24)	11-25 (Range)*	7.33 (6.77)	11-25 (Range)*
Inhibition – Inhibition Errors	13.19 (12.50)	26-50 (Range)*	18 (17.92)	11-25 (Range)*
Route finding	2.98 (2.62)	11-25 (Range)*	2.85 (2.44)	11-25 (Range)*
		Scalar Score Median		Scalar Score Median
MFN – Short term	9.90 (4.54)	9	10.74 (4.27)	10
MFN – Long term	3.73 (2.07)	10	3.74 (1.78)	10
MFD – Spatial Short term	15.56 (6.01)	8	15.33 (5.91)	8
MFD – Spatial Long term	4.87 (2.03)	8	4.63 (1.82)	8

MFD – Content Short term	33.73 (9.19)	7	32.52 (8.22)	7
MFD – Content Long term	10.16 (3.37)	8	9.44 (2.90)	8
Geometric puzzles	18.82 (5.91)	9	17.04 (5.38)	7

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Table 5. Significant neuropsychological results in perinatal variables, neonatal treatments, diseases, and neurological impairments in very and extremely low-birth-weight preterm children at age 5-7.

	Test	Condition present	Condition absent	P value
		Mean raw scores (SD)	Mean raw scores (SD)	
Perinatal and maternal variables				
Vaginal delivery (28/89)†	MFN – Short term	11.82 (4.64)	9.39 (4.18)	0.016
	Route finding	3.89 (3.03)	2.51 (2.19)	0.036
Maternal AHT (14/89)†	MFN – Short term	7.93 (3.83)	10.43 (4.37)	0.049
	MFN – Long term	2.57 (1.60)	3.94 (1.97)	0.016
Corticosteroids (62/89)†	Route finding	2.56 (2.28)	3.52 (2.90)	0.046
Neonatal treatments in NICU				
Surgery intervention (6/89)†	RIST	76.67 (15.42)	91.52 (16.77)	0.045
	MFN – Long term	1.83 (2.48)	3.87 (1.88)	0.015
	MFD – Spatial Short term	10.17 (2.92)	15.88 (5.93)	0.010
	MFD – Spatial Long term	3.33 (1.03)	4.90 (1.97)	0.003

	MFD – Content Long term	7.83 (0.98)	10.10 (3.29)	0.001
	Geometric puzzles	13.83 (3.76)	18.60 (5.78)	0.017
	Route finding	0.83 (0.98)	3.10 (2.56)	0.001
Inotropic treatment (10/89)†	MFD – Content Long term	8.20 (1.68)	10.16 (3.33)	0.007
CPAP (26/89)†	MFD – Content Long term	9.61 (2.97)	11.35 (3.99)	0.046
	Geometric puzzles	17.64 (5.67)	21.13 (5.58)	0.028
Neonatal diseases				
NEC (4/89)†	RIST	71.0 (4.690)	91.44 (16.85)	0.018
	Inhibition – Inhibition Errors	29.25 (12.73)	13.96 (14.20)	0.038
	Route finding	1.0 (0.816)	3.04 (2.57)	0.005
RSD (44/89)†	Inhibition – Denomination Errors	6.23 (6.26)	4.0 (3.94)	0.047
PDA (21/89)†	MFD – Spatial Long term	4.05 (1.93)	5.03 (1.93)	0.045
Apnea (16/89)†	MFD – Content Short term	27.19 (5.35)	34.71 (8.95)	0.001
Sepsis (24/89)†	Inhibition – Inhibition Errors	24.61 (19.11)	11.18 (10.54)	0.003
	MFN – Long term	2.87 (1.79)	4.03 (1.96)	0.015
	MFD – Spatial Short term	12.70 (3.89)	16.47 (6.24)	0.001
	MFD – Content Short term	30.26 (6.21)	34.44 (9.44)	0.020
	MFD – Content Long term	8.22 (2.17)	10.55 (3.34)	0.001
	Geometric puzzles	15.09 (3.84)	19.33 (5.95)	0.001
	Route finding	1.74 (1.78)	5.18 (2.00)	0.002

Neonatal neurological impairments				
IVH (24/89) [†]	Inhibition – Denomination Errors	7.96 (7.80)	4.05 (3.57)	0.026
	Inhibition – Inhibition Errors	22.17 (17-54)	11.88 (12.11)	0.013
	MFN – Short term	8.08 (3.97)	10.92 (4.40)	0.007
	MFN – Long term	3.04 (1.73)	3.98 (2.01)	0.046
	MFD – Spatial Short term	11.58 (4.70)	16.94 (5.73)	0.001
	MFD – Content Short term	28.88 (6.34)	35.02 (9.14)	0.030
	MFD – Spatial Long term	7.83 (1.73)	10.72 (3.32)	0.001
	MFD – Content Long term	3.58 (1.38)	5.25 (1.96)	0.001
	Geometric puzzles	14.17 (4.75)	19.81 (5.39)	0.001
	Route finding	1.75 (1.32)	3.38 (2.76)	0.001
PVL (3/89) [†]	MFN – Short term	7.00 (5.29)	10.48 (4.38)	0.044

NICU: Neonatal Intensive Care Unit; MFN: Memory for Names; MFD: Memory for Designs; AHT: Arterial Hypertension; CPAP: Continuous Positive Airway Pressure; NEC: Necrotizing Enterocolitis; RSD: Respiratory distress syndrome; PDA: Patent Arteriosus Ductus; IVH: Intraventricular Hemorrhage; PVL: Periventricular Leukomalacia. [†]Number of children who present the condition / Total sample