

1 **Psychomotor development in very and extremely low-birth-weight**
2 **preterm children: could it be predicted by early motor milestones and**
3 **perinatal complications?**

4
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17
18 **Abstract**

19 Preterm-born children are at risk of slower psychomotor development. This risk may be associated with
20 low birth weight and other perinatal factors and morbidities.

21 We aimed to assess psychomotor development in school-aged preterm children and to determine
22 whether some early motor and perinatal variables could be related to and/or predict the later motor
23 achievements.

24 Parents of 54 very-low-birth weight preterm, 24 extremely-low-birth weight preterm, and 96 control
25 children completed the Movement Assessment Battery for Children checklist (MABC-2-C) and were
26 interviewed about the motor milestones of their children.

27 Significant differences were found between preterm and controls in the MABC-2-C. MABC-2-C
28 outcomes were significantly predicted by the age of crawling and by the use of steroids, mechanical
29 ventilation and intraventricular hemorrhage.

30 The use of screening tools may allow a rapid identification of psychomotor development delays. The
31 presence of some perinatal risk factors and some motor milestone attainments could be related to motor
32 development in the later childhood of preterm children.

33

34 **Keywords:** preterm, psychomotor development, perinatal risk, motor milestones, low birth weight

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36

37 1. Introduction

38 Preterm-born children are at risk of a wide variety of developmental issues: neuropsychological
39 alterations, behavioral problems, academic difficulties, and motor alterations [1]. The motor abilities
40 found to be impaired in this population include fine and gross motor skills, balance skills, ball skills,
41 and manual dexterity[2]. These could be compatible with the diagnosis of developmental coordination
42 disorder (DCD) [3], related to difficulties in motor coordination, clumsiness, slowness or imprecision
43 in motor tasks. DCD is more prevalent in low-birth-weight and very preterm populations, varying
44 between 1.7% and 6% in school-aged children [4]. Besides, being born very or moderately preterm
45 has been identified as a risk factor for DCD [5].

46 A great deal of previous literature employs the Movement Assessment Battery for Children-2 (MABC-
47 2) for assessing preterm population [6] and for DCD diagnosis [7]. Application of the entire battery in
48 a regular consultation is not always feasible because it requires a lot of time and effort. Therefore, the
49 use of a motor checklist as a screening method could involve large benefits. MABC-2 checklist is
50 practical for quick screening of daily motor impairments in children [7].

51 Regarding the preterm population, several motor symptoms can be detected in early stages of
52 development [8], as well as delayed attainment of some motor milestones [9]. Preterm born children
53 are at risk of motor difficulties and these difficulties are more common in extremely low-birth-weight
54 preterm children [2]. Likewise, there are some other early risk factors that could affect the subsequent
55 development of preterm children [10]. However, there is no consensus in previous literature about
56 which factors could predict poor motor outcomes. For this reason, it is very important to study the
57 impact of early risk factors on later motor development.

58 Hence, the main aim of the current study was to assess motor development in extremely-low-birth
59 weight (ELBW) and very-low-birth weight (VLBW) preterm and normally developing children of 5-
60 to-7 years of age, employing a screening method: the MABC-2 checklist. Our hypothesis was that
61 preterm children would score lower than control children in the overall scale and in each subscale.
62 Besides, we aimed to determine whether current motor development of preterm children could be
63 associated with some early developmental factors, such as motor milestone attainments and perinatal
64 risk factors.

65

66 2. Material and methods

67 2.1. Study design and participants

68 The study conducted was observational, descriptive, and cross-sectional. Preterm children (5-7 year-
69 olds, chronological age) were recruited from a cohort of neonates born before 37 weeks of gestation
70 and with birthweight under 1500g, admitted in the neonatal intensive care unit (NICU) of the Hospital
71 Universitario Central de Asturias (Oviedo, Spain), between January 2009 and December 2011.

72 Inclusion criteria were a gestational age of ≤ 37 weeks and a birth weight of ≤ 1500 g. Exclusion criteria
73 were death, no follow-up, preterm children with a diagnosis of malformations and/or congenial
74 anomalies that led to evident neurological alterations, with a diagnosis of cerebral palsy, and with an
75 intelligence quotient (IQ) of ≤ 70 , assessed by the RIST test [11]. Control children (5-7 year-olds) born
76 at term (> 37 weeks), were recruited from schools, primary care centers, and hospitals in Oviedo,
77 Spain. Exclusion criteria included psychological, physical, or neurological conditions and disorders
78 that could interfere with the results, as well as an IQ of ≤ 70 measured by the RIST test. The initial
79 sample was composed of 147 preterm children and 155 control children. The final sample was
80 composed of 78 preterm children, 54 with very-low-birth weight and 24 with extremely-low-birth
81 weight, and 96 control children. Sociodemographic and milestone achievements of preterm and
82 control groups are shown in Table 1. The presence of perinatal risk factors in the preterm sample is
83 shown in Table 2. The study was conducted in accordance with the Helsinki declaration for research
84 in human subjects and approved by the regional ethics committee (Comité de Ética de la Investigación
85 del Principado de Asturias).

86 *Table 1. Sociodemographic, milestones, and IQ descriptive data of extremely low and very low birth*
87 *weight preterm and controls*

		ELBW preterm n=24	VLBW preterm n=54	Controls n=96
		N (%)		
Age	5	11 (45.8%)	15 (27.8%)	34 (35.4%)
	6	5 (20.8%)	19 (35.2%)	32 (33.3%)
	7	8 (33.3%)	20 (37%)	30 (31.3%)
Gender	Males	13 (54.2%)	32 (59.3%)	45 (46.9%)
	Females	11 (45.8%)	22 (40.7%)	51 (53.1%)
Maternal educational level	Bachelor's degree	12 (52.2%)	23 (42.6%)	35 (36.5%)
	Technical	6 (26.1%)	21 (38.9%)	13 (13.5%)
	Secondary	5 (21.7%)	6 (11.1%)	5 (5.2%)
	Primary	0 (0.0 %)	4 (7.4%)	0 (0.0 %)
	Not reported	1 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	43 (44,7%)

Laterality	Right	19 (86.4%)	44 (86.3%)	85 (88.5%)
	Left	1 (4.5%)	6 (11.8%)	10 (10.4%)
	Both	2 (9.1%)	1 (2.0%)	1 (1.0%)
		Mean (SD)		
RIST (Standardized scores)		91.23 (16.31)	95.14 (14.92)	109.44 (13.08)
Motor milestones (months)	Sitting ^a	7.89 (5.31)	8.71 (7.72)	6.52 (1.73)
	Crawling ^a	7.65 (2.87)	10.27 (5.83)	8.29 (1.70)
	Standing up ^a	9.35 (2.15)	9.11 (2.15)	9.76 (1.66)
	Walking ^a	14.83 (3.94)	13.33 (2.57)	12.94 (2.16)
		%		
Absence of a motor milestone ^b	Crawling	58.0%	32.0%	39.6%
		%		
Motor milestones delayed according to Haizea-Llevant Scale ^c	Sitting	8.3%	7.4%	5.2%
	Standing up	4.2%	1.9%	5.2%
	Walking	12.5%	3.7%	1.0%

88 Note: ELBW: Extremely low birth weight. VLBW: very low birth weight. VLBW (weigh \leq 1,500 g at birth); ELBW
89 (weigh \leq 1,000 g at birth).

90 ^aPreterm data are reported with corrected age.

91 ^b The absence of crawling is considered a normal variant of development.

92 ^c Delay was considered when there was an absence of sitting without support at 9 months, not standing up even with
93 support at 12 months, and the absence of autonomous walking at 16-18 months. All preterm children were labeled
94 according to their corrected age

95 Table 2. Perinatal factors in ELBW and VLBW sample

	Mean (SD)	Range [Min-Max]
Gestational age (days)	208.93 (19.73)	[171-255]
Birth weight (grams)	1151.04 (240.60)	[690-1475]
Cranial perimeter (centimeters)	26.21 (2.45)	[20-30]
Apgar score 5 (minutes)	8.46 (1.55)	[2-10]
Supplemental oxygen (days)	183.37 (321.86)	[0-1728]
Mechanical ventilation (days)	127.64 (227.42)	[0-192]
Stay in Neonatal Intensive Care Unit (NICU) (days)	42.66 (32.51)	[3-143]
	N (%)	
Use of prenatal steroids	54 (67.1%)	
Cesarean delivery	24 (31.6%)	
Multiple birth	24 (31.6%)	
Apnea	15 (19.7%)	
Use of postnatal steroids	4 (5.3%)	
Patent ductus arteriosus	20 (26.3%)	
Necrotizing enterocolitis	3 (3.9%)	
Retinopathy of prematurity	4 (5.3%)	
Intraventricular hemorrhage	0	58 (76.3%)
	I	12 (15.8%)
	II	4 (5.3%)
	III	2 (2.6%)
	IV	0 (0.0%)
Periventricular leukomalacia	3 (3.9%)	

97 2.2.Outcomes

98 The Movement Assessment Battery for Children (MABC-2-C) [12] consists of a battery of motor tests
99 and a checklist protocol designed to identify children aged 5 to 12 years who present motor difficulties.
100 The checklist can be completed by parents or professionals who work directly with children (teachers
101 or therapists), either together or independently of the motor tests. In the present study, only the
102 checklist was employed and only the parents filled it out. MABC-2 checklist comprised questions
103 about child's motor behavior in different everyday situations, such as in the classroom, in recreational
104 and physical education activities, and in personal care. The checklist is divided into 3 sections (A, B,
105 and C). Section A and B describe the child's interactions with their environment, and section C focuses
106 on non-motor factors that can affect movement. In the current study, parents completed Sections A
107 and B. Section A (MABC-2-C-A-Static, 15 items) evaluates the child's mobility in a static and
108 predictable environment and it is subdivided into Personal Autonomy (A1), Classroom Abilities (A2),
109 and Sport and Recreational Activities (A3). Section B (MABC-2-C-B-Dynamic) assesses the child's
110 mobility in a dynamic and unpredictable environment and is composed of a subsection of Personal
111 Autonomy + Classroom Abilities (B1), Ball Skills (B2), and Sports and Recreational Activities (B3).
112 In each item, the child's usual motor behavior is rated on a Likert scale. The items scores are added
113 up to obtain a total score, to which a "traffic light" indication can be attached: green light for scores
114 close to the average, amber light for risk of suffering from movement problems, and a red light for
115 high probability of motor problems. For the present study, we considered all the scales and subscales:
116 the MABC-2-C total score; the MABC-2-C A-Static, A1, A2, and A3; and the MABC-2-C B-
117 Dynamic, B1, B2, and B3.

118 The Haizea-Llevant Scale [13] was applied as a screening instrument to evaluate the milestones of
119 early motor development. Parents were asked about the following motor milestones and about the age
120 (in months) at which their child reached them: when they could sit up; crawl, understanding it as any
121 type of locomotor strategy considered as normal in development performed by the infant (crawling on
122 hands and knees, stomach creeping, bottom shuffling, rolling, asymmetrical crawling, seal creeping,
123 etc.) [14], stand up, and walk by themselves. The Haizea-Llevant Scale assesses the level of
124 development of children from 0 to 5 years of age, and it includes a range of ages for normal attainment
125 of certain developmental milestones. It consists of 97 items, which assess development as follows:
126 Socialization area (26 items), Language and Logical-Mathematical area (31 items), Postural area (21
127 items), and Handling area (19 items). The items employed in this study correspond to the Postural
128 area. The absence of sitting without support at 9 months, not standing up even with support at 12
129 months, and the absence of autonomous walking at 16-18 months were considered warning signs for
130 postural control. The absence of crawling is considered a normal variant of development, that is, 18%
131 of children do not crawl in any of the aforementioned variants considered normal, without this
132 implying pathological development [15].

133 The RIST test (Reynolds Intellectual Screening Test) was used as a screening method for IQ. It
 134 consists of two tasks: one for verbal IQ (Guess what) and another one for non-verbal IQ (Odd-item)
 135 assessment. Its purpose in the present study was to exclude those children, both preterm and controls,
 136 who scored 70 points or less, regarding them as having low cognitive performance that could
 137 potentially affect psychomotor development.

138 For the perinatal risk factors analysis, the variables were retrieved from medical records and were
 139 selected from previous literature concerning motor development (Table 3). About the diagnoses of the
 140 following variables, all preterm infants underwent at least 3 cranial ultrasound scans from the first
 141 week of life, with different frequency depending on their gestational age. An MRI or CT scan was
 142 performed before discharge in those cases with grade III-IV IVH and/or PVL. Regarding ROP, its
 143 diagnosis involved a fundus examination from the fourth week of life (never before the 30th week of
 144 gestational age) until hospital discharge. Diagnosis of ROP was based on a fundus examination. It was
 145 performed by a specialized paediatric ophthalmologists. The frequency of examinations also depends
 146 on the gestational age and/or the pathology seen.

147 *Table 3. Perinatal risk factors from preterm sample considered for their motor development*

Prenatal and maternal conditions	Single or multiple pregnancy Vaginal or Caesarean delivery Prescribed maternal corticoid
Early postnatal interventions and treatments	Apgar score at 5 minutes Gestational age Birth weight Cranial perimeter Days of supplemental oxygen Days of ventilation Postnatal steroids
Early postnatal diseases and pathologies	Necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC) Patent ductus arteriosus (PDA) Apnea Retinopathy of prematurity (ROP) Intraventricular hemorrhage (from grades 0 to IV) Periventricular leukomalacia

149 2.3.Procedure

150 The primary caregivers whose children fulfilled the inclusion criteria were informed by a letter of the
151 purpose of the research and they were given the opportunity to participate in the study. Those who
152 accepted to participate in the study signed a written informed consent before the study began. Then, a
153 pediatrician interviewed the parents, and they completed the questionnaires, while the children
154 performed the IQ test applied by a psychologist. The duration of the appointment was approximately
155 one hour.

156 2.4.Statistical analysis

157 Analyses were performed using SPSS 19.0 for Windows. Means, standard deviations, and percentages
158 were calculated for descriptive data (sociodemographic variables, MABC-2 checklist, milestones, and
159 perinatal factors). The Chi-square test, with Cramer's V as a measure of effect size, was used to
160 compare groups on the nominal variables. Student's T-test was employed to compare the performance
161 of the control group and the preterm children, and ANOVA was used to compare ELBW, VLBW, and
162 controls, with a Bonferroni post-hoc test. Cohen's d for the Student's T- test and Eta-squared for the
163 ANOVA were used to estimate the effect size. Both ANOVA and Student's T-test were followed by
164 an ANCOVA, controlling for participants' age and gender. Pearson correlation coefficients were
165 calculated between motor outcomes in preterm children and milestones and perinatal factors.
166 Significantly correlated variables were included in a stepwise regression model. A p-value lower than
167 0.05 was considered significant. The data that support the findings of this study are available from the
168 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

169 3. Results

170 3.1.Descriptive data

171 No significant differences were found between the preterm group and the control group in terms of
172 age, sex, maternal education level, or laterality, nor did the groups significantly differ in the age
173 (corrected for the preterm group) at which they reached all motor milestones. However, some
174 significant differences were found when comparing ELBW and VLBW with the controls in the age of
175 crawling ($F_{2,87}=3.410$, $p=0.038$, $\eta^2=0.073$) and walking ($F_{2,149}=4.318$, $p=0.015$, $\eta^2=0.055$). Post-hoc
176 comparisons revealed that such differences in walking were between controls and ELBW ($p=0.011$),
177 while the comparisons in crawling did not remain statistically significant.

178 We also found significant differences in the number of controls and preterm children who did not
179 crawl ($\chi^2_1= 6.443$, $p=0.011$, $V=0.193$), although we did not find significant differences between
180 control and preterm children in the number of children in each group who were delayed in the
181 development of each milestone ($p>0.05$).

182 3.2.Motor comparison

183 Starting with the risk classification proposed by the checklist, 19.31% of the entire preterm sample
184 (N=17/88) were identified as at risk of having motor difficulties: medium risk in 4.5% (N=4) and high
185 risk in 14.77% (N=13). The differences between the percentage of preterm and the percentage of
186 controls that were classified as at-risk were not statistically significant ($p=0.086$). Regarding birth
187 weight, in VLBW, 2% (N=1/54) were classified as medium risk, and 18.4% as high risk (N=9/54),
188 whereas in ELBW, 13.6% were labeled as moderate risk (N=3/24), and 9.1% as high risk (N=2/24).
189 In the control group, 12.5% of the sample reached risk values (N=12/96), with 6.25% reaching
190 moderate risk (N=6) and 6.25% high risk (N=6). No significant differences were found between the
191 risk percentages of VLBW and ELBW ($p=0.715$).

192 Significant differences were found between preterm and controls in the MABC-2-C total score ($t_{160}=-$
193 3.091; $p=0.002$, $d=0.473$), MABC-2-C A - Static ($t_{165}=-3.754$; $p=0.001$, $d=0.559$), MABC-2-C A1
194 ($t_{167}=-3.917$; $p<0.001$, $d=0.578$), MABC-2-C A2 ($t_{166}=-2.963$; $p=0.003$, $d=0.446$), MABC-2-C A3
195 ($t_{166}=-2.576$; $p=0.011$, $d=0.390$), and MABC-2-C B3 ($t_{184}=-2.838$; $p=0.005$, $d=0.439$). MABC-2-C B
196 –Dynamic, B1 and B2 did not show significant differences. All these comparisons had from low (0.3)
197 to medium (0.5) effect sizes. These significant differences were adjusted for sex and age by the
198 ANCOVA ($p>0.05$). Considering preterm ELBW, preterm VLBW, and controls, we obtained
199 significant differences in MABC-2-C A - Static ($F_{2,166}=3.787$; $p=0.025$, $\eta^2=0.044$) and in MABC-2-C
200 A1 ($F_{2,168}=5.276$; $p=0.006$, $\eta^2=0.059$). Bonferroni's post-hoc analysis revealed that MABC-2-C A –
201 Static differences were only between the ELBW and the control group ($p=0.036$), whereas MABC-2-
202 C A1 differences were obtained between ELBW and controls ($p=0.030$), and between VLBW and
203 controls ($p=0.034$). These differences remained as statistically significant after controlling for age and
204 gender in the ANCOVA.

205 3.3.Current motor outcomes and their relationship with early motor milestones in the 206 preterm group

207 First, we calculated Pearson correlations between the different measures of MABC-2-C and the birth
208 weight of the preterm children. As we did not obtain any statistically significant correlation ($p>0.05$),
209 we considered the group of preterm children as a whole, without taking into account their birth weight,
210 for the rest of the analyses. Thus, the correlation analysis yielded significant associations between
211 MABC-2-C total score and the corrected age of Sitting ($r=0.527$; $p=0.003$), Crawling ($r=0.664$;
212 $p<0.001$), and Walking ($r=0.326$; $p=0.004$). MABC-2-C A-Static was significantly associated with the
213 age of Sitting ($r=0.473$; $p=0.007$), Crawling ($r=0.650$; $p<0.001$), and Walking ($r=0.271$; $p=0.007$).
214 MABC-2-C-B-Dynamic did not show any significant association with the milestones. Significantly
215 correlated variables were included in a stepwise regression model, and only Crawling was entered in
216 the model, predicting the outcome of the MABC-2- C total score ($R^2= 0.483$).

217 3.4. Current motor outcomes and their relationship with perinatal risk factors

218 Correlation analyses were performed to identify significant perinatal variables with the scales of motor
219 assessment. The results showed that the MABC-2-C total score was significantly correlated with the
220 use of prenatal steroids ($r=-0.299$, $p=0.014$), primary apnea ($r=-0.294$, $p=0.016$), days of ventilation
221 ($r=0.290$, $p=0.017$), and intraventricular hemorrhage grade ($r=0.302$, $p=0.013$). MABC-2-C A – Static
222 correlated significantly with the use of prenatal steroids ($r=-0.271$, $p=0.027$), patent ductus arteriosus
223 ($r=-0.270$, $p=0.027$), apnea ($r=-0.332$, $p=0.006$), days of ventilation ($r=0.342$, $p=0.005$), and
224 intraventricular hemorrhage grade ($r=0.349$, $p=0.004$). MABC-2-C B – Dynamic did not show any
225 association with perinatal variables. Significantly correlated variables were included in a stepwise
226 regression model. Intraventricular hemorrhage, the use of prenatal steroids, and the days of ventilation
227 were entered in the model, predicting the outcome of the MABC-2-C total score ($R^2= 0.227$).

228 4. Discussion

229 The present study aimed to examine the psychomotor development of VLBW and ELBW school-aged
230 preterm children and to relate it to early aspects of their development. The ultimate goal was to propose
231 a brief tool that allows health professionals in a regular consultation to screen the motor development
232 of preterm.

233 First, preterm children scored lower than the control group on the MABC-2-C. With this tool, we
234 identified almost 20% of preterm children at risk, data similar to previous studies which employed this
235 same checklist (23-36%) [16]. Only Part A of the checklist, which evaluates motor performance in a
236 static environment, differentiated controls from preterm, while any significant difference was obtained
237 in Part B, which assesses actions in a moving environment. Although such differences in Part A may
238 be surprising, as it assesses simple actions, regarding the factorial structure of the checklist proposed
239 by other authors [17], many of the items in Part A fall into factors of gross motor skills, coordination,
240 fine motor skills, and balance, which coincides with some of the main motor limitations previously
241 found in this population [2].

242 Considering birth weight, ELBWs and VLBWs obtained lower scores than controls on Scale A1,
243 related to personal autonomy behaviors. Functional difficulties related to self-care have been
244 previously reported in preterm children [18], as well as in DCD [19]. Interestingly, we do not find
245 evidence of birth weight as a relevant factor when examining these motor activities.

246 In the preterm group in general, the age at which they attained sitting, crawling, and walking was
247 related to their motor development in later childhood, but only the age of crawling was a significant
248 predictor of such subsequent motor development. Previous research has found associations between
249 motor milestones - grasping an object [20], walking [5], or acquiring fewer milestones at a given age
250 [21] - and later motor development in preterm children. Contrary to previous evidence [9], the preterm
251 children in our sample did not suffer a delay in the acquisition of these motor milestones at corrected

252 age, highlighting milestone attainments at an appropriate age may even be related to later motor
253 development.

254 The age of crawling being a significant predictor of later motor development has some limitations.
255 First, a high percentage of the preterm and term-born children in the sample did not crawl. Second,
256 there were fewer preterm children who crawled than controls. Therefore, it is difficult to consider
257 crawling as a "universal" predictor of later development, given that the absence of crawling is common
258 within development, yet if a preterm infant starts to crawl later, this may be a warning sign for
259 subsequent motor development in infancy.

260 Later psychomotor development was associated with apnea, prenatal steroid use, days of mechanical
261 ventilation, and intraventricular hemorrhage, the latter three factors being significant predictors of later
262 motor development. Coinciding with our findings, events involving early brain damage, such as
263 intraventricular hemorrhages, pose a greater risk for poorer motor development in later childhood
264 [2,10,22]. Factors affecting respiration, such as the primary apnea and the requirement for mechanical
265 ventilation, were related to later motor development. Previous studies show that bronchopulmonary
266 dysplasia [2] and mechanical ventilation [23] are associated with poorer psychomotor outcomes in
267 preterm children. These respiratory factors may cause certain brain alterations, in terms of
268 irregularities in the brain blood flow and brain oxygen supply [24]. Finally, according to our own
269 results, previous studies also found that the use of steroids is associated with later motor development
270 in preterm children [10,25]. The prescription of prenatal steroids is used to prevent preterm delivery
271 and promote lung maturation during gestation [26]. Therefore, it is highly probable that taking this
272 medication does not in itself promote worse motor development, but rather that those fetuses that
273 received the steroids already presented a higher risk of preterm birth and worse pulmonary maturation.

274 A limitation of our study is that our findings were obtained from the checklist and not from the
275 complete MABC-2 evaluation. In this regard, there is a marked absence of studies that relate the
276 checklist or questionnaire scores to performance-based tasks. Other questionnaires widely used for the
277 diagnosis of DCD, such as the Developmental Disorder Coordination Questionnaire (DCDQ) [27],
278 correlate with the MABC-2 battery [28], whereas, in other studies, this association is not found [29].
279 Besides, the MABC-2 checklist seems to show a low sensitivity compared with the entire battery in
280 the general child population [30] or in children who had suffered from neonatal illness [31]. Some
281 paradoxical results are even found in this matter, being the MABC-2 checklist inversely correlated
282 with the DCDQ outcomes [29]. However, some other studies found that the MABC-2 checklist is
283 strongly associated with performance-based tasks in fine motor skills and hand coordination [32] and
284 that the checklist has appropriate psychometric properties, good internal consistency, with a moderate
285 association with other questionnaires and the entire battery, although its sensitivity remains low [17].
286 Considering all these outcomes, the MABC-2 checklist could be used as a screening form to quickly
287 identify some motor difficulties, but taking into account the potential existence of some false-negative
288 rates.

289 In conclusion, ELBW and VLBW preterm children may present motor developmental disturbances in
290 childhood, mainly those related to personal autonomy. The age of attainment of certain motor
291 milestones in premature children may be related to later motor performance, without necessarily
292 implying a delay in the age of acquisition. Likewise, certain perinatal factors related to early
293 cerebrovascular events and respiratory difficulties are also associated with motor performance,
294 probably because they involve an alteration in later brain development. In this sense, screening tools
295 could be used for the detection of a possible case of motor developmental risk in regular pediatric
296 consultations.

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302 6. Conflict of interest

303 All authors declare no conflicts of interest in this paper.

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