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Clinical Complexities in Vulnerable Populations: A Comprehensive Review of Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis Diagnostics and the Long-Term Neurodevelopmental Sequelae of Preterm Birth

Dr. Budi Santoso
Universitas Indonesia, Indonesia

Abstract

Background: Modern medicine faces distinct challenges in managing acute hyperinflammatory syndromes and chronic developmental sequelae. This article synthesizes evidence regarding Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis (HLH), a life-threatening immune dysregulation, and the long-term neurocognitive outcomes of preterm birth, representing two critical ends of the patient vulnerability spectrum.

Methods: We reviewed recent literature regarding HLH diagnostic criteria, specifically focusing on bone marrow histomorphology and the HScore, alongside meta-analyses of executive function (EF) in children born preterm. Efficacy data on etoposide regimens and global preterm birth statistics were analyzed to provide a holistic view of patient outcomes.

Results: Diagnostic precision in HLH remains difficult; bone marrow hemophagocytosis is sensitive but lacks specificity without the HScore. Malignancy-associated HLH, particularly T-cell lymphoma, carries the highest mortality. In the pediatric domain, survivors of preterm birth exhibit persistent deficits in executive functions—specifically working memory and inhibition—which significantly hinder academic performance at school age.

Conclusions: Effective management of vulnerable populations requires a dual focus: rapid, accurate diagnosis for acute crises like HLH using improved indices, and sustained neurodevelopmental support for preterm survivors. The intersection of inflammatory susceptibility and developmental fragility warrants further investigation to optimize long-term quality of life.

Keywords: Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis, Preterm Birth, Executive Function, Bone Marrow Histomorphology, Etoposide, HScore, Macrophage Activation Syndrome.



Introduction

The landscape of modern clinical medicine is defined by its ability to manage increasingly complex patient phenotypes. On one end of the spectrum lies the acute, rapidly progressing, and often fatal hyperinflammatory conditions such as Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis (HLH). On the other end lies the chronic, subtle, yet profoundly impactful developmental challenges faced by survivors of neonatal intensive care, particularly those born preterm. While these two domains—hematology/oncology and developmental pediatrics—may appear distinct, they share a fundamental commonality: the critical need for precise diagnostic criteria and the management of vulnerable biological systems under stress.

Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis (HLH) represents a syndrome of excessive immune activation, characterized by the presence of fever, cytopenias, splenomegaly, and hemophagocytosis in bone marrow, liver, or lymph nodes [12]. It is a condition where the immune system, designed to protect the host, turns against the body in a "cytokine storm," leading to multi-organ failure. Historically, HLH was categorized strictly into primary (genetic/familial) forms affecting infants and secondary (acquired) forms affecting adults and older children. However, recent insights suggest a continuum of genetic susceptibility and environmental triggers, blurring these lines [13]. The diagnosis of HLH is notoriously difficult because its clinical presentation mimics severe sepsis, multiple organ dysfunction syndrome, and various malignancies, leading to dangerous delays in treatment [10, 18].

A significant subset of secondary HLH is associated with malignancy, particularly lymphoid cancers. This entity, malignancy-associated HLH (M-HLH), presents a "diagnostic and medical challenge" of the highest order [6, 8]. The overlapping symptoms of the underlying cancer and the superimposed inflammatory syndrome often confound clinicians. Furthermore, the criteria for diagnosis have evolved. The traditional HLH-2004 guidelines, while pivotal, have been critiqued for their applicability in adult populations, leading to the development of new scoring systems like the HScore [11]. The presence of hemophagocytosis in the bone marrow, once considered the gold standard, is now understood to be neither strictly sensitive nor specific, requiring a more nuanced histomorphological interpretation [5, 9].

Simultaneously, in the pediatric realm, the survival rates of infants born preterm have increased dramatically due to advances in neonatal care. However, survival is not synonymous with intact survival. Preterm birth, defined as birth before 37 weeks of gestation, affects millions of infants globally and remains a leading cause of childhood morbidity [1]. As these children reach school age, a "silent" crisis often emerges: deficits in executive

function (EF) and academic underperformance [2, 4]. Unlike the visible scars of surgery or the immediate crisis of HLH, these neurocognitive deficits—manifesting as problems with working memory, inhibition, and cognitive flexibility—can derail a child's educational trajectory and social integration [3, 9].

The pathophysiology of preterm brain injury involves inflammation, hypoxia, and interrupted maturation of neural networks, particularly in the frontal lobes [7]. This creates a compelling thematic parallel to HLH: both conditions involve a system (the immune system in HLH, the central nervous system in preterm birth) that has been dysregulated by an initial insult, leading to cascading long-term consequences. Understanding the mechanisms of Executive Function (EF) is crucial for pediatricians, just as understanding the cytokine pathways is crucial for hematologists [8, 14].

This article aims to provide a comprehensive review of these two critical areas. First, we will examine the diagnostic nuances of HLH, evaluating the utility of bone marrow criteria, the HScore, and the management of malignancy-associated cases. Second, we will analyze the long-term neurodevelopmental outcomes of preterm birth, focusing on executive function and academic performance. By synthesizing data from these disparate fields, we highlight the overarching need for rigorous assessment tools—whether they be biomarkers for inflammation or psychometric tests for cognition—to improve outcomes in vulnerable patient populations.

Methods

To construct this review, a systematic search strategy was employed, focusing on high-impact literature published between 2014 and 2025. The dual focus of the paper required a stratified approach to literature gathering, ensuring that both the hematological and developmental aspects were covered with equal rigor.

Search Strategy and Data Sources

We queried major medical databases including PubMed, Scopus, and the Cochrane Library. For the HLH section, keywords included "Hemophagocytic Lymphohistiocytosis," "Macrophage Activation Syndrome," "HScore," "Bone Marrow Hemophagocytosis," and "Etoposide." We prioritized studies that addressed the diagnostic utility of specific criteria and the management of secondary HLH in adults. For the preterm birth section, keywords included "Preterm Birth," "Executive Function," "Academic Outcomes," "Neurodevelopment," and "School-age Children."

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

We included systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and



retrospective cohort studies that provided quantitative data on outcomes. Case reports were included only when they illustrated novel pathophysiological insights, such as rare T-cell lymphomas presenting as HLH [6].

- *For HLH:* Studies were required to utilize the HLH-2004 criteria or the HScore for case definition. We specifically sought articles analyzing the sensitivity and specificity of bone marrow aspirates [5, 9].
- *For Preterm Birth:* We focused on studies reporting outcomes at school age (5–12 years) and adolescence, as this is when executive dysfunction becomes most functionally apparent. Studies reporting only on infant developmental scales (e.g., Bayley Scales) were excluded if they did not have long-term follow-up.

Bias and Confounding Assessment

Recognizing the potential for "confounding by indication" in clinical research, particularly in retrospective studies regarding HLH treatment (where sicker patients might receive more aggressive therapy like etoposide), we applied the principles outlined by Kyriacou and Lewis [19]. We carefully evaluated observational data for adjustment of disease severity. In the preterm literature, we looked for studies that controlled for socioeconomic status and maternal education, as these are significant confounders in academic performance [4].

Statistical Interpretation

Where meta-analytic data were available (e.g., assessing the effectiveness of etoposide [16] or the magnitude of academic deficits [2]), we synthesized the effect sizes and confidence intervals reported in the primary literature. We did not perform a de novo meta-analysis but rather a qualitative synthesis of existing high-quality evidence.

Results

The review of the literature reveals a complex landscape in both the diagnosis of hyperinflammatory syndromes and the assessment of neurodevelopmental sequelae. The results are presented in three subsections: the diagnostic challenges of HLH, the therapeutic considerations for HLH, and the long-term outcomes of preterm birth.

Section 1: Diagnostic Markers and Challenges in HLH

The diagnosis of HLH relies on a constellation of clinical and laboratory findings. The HLH-2004 guidelines have long served as the benchmark, requiring either a molecular diagnosis or five out of eight clinical criteria (fever, splenomegaly, cytopenias, hypertriglyceridemia/hypofibrinogenemia, hemophagocytosis,

low NK-cell activity, high ferritin, and high soluble CD25) [12]. However, the real-world application of these criteria is fraught with difficulty.

Bone Marrow Histomorphology:

Historically, the demonstration of hemophagocytosis (macrophages engulfing blood cells) in the bone marrow was considered a sine qua non of the diagnosis. However, recent evidence suggests this is a pitfall. Gars et al. demonstrated that while bone marrow criteria are part of the diagnostic picture, they are not pathognomonic [5]. Hemophagocytosis can be seen in sepsis, after blood transfusions, or in chemotherapy-induced marrow aplasia. Conversely, in the early stages of HLH, bone marrow aspirates may be negative. Lim et al. further clarified that the quantity of hemophagocytosis matters, but even then, it must be interpreted in the context of the systemic inflammatory state [9]. A negative marrow biopsy should never rule out HLH if the clinical suspicion is high.

The HScore Validation:

To address the limitations of the rigid HLH-2004 criteria, the HScore was developed to estimate the probability of HLH in adult patients. Fardet et al. validated this score, which incorporates immunosuppression history, temperature, organomegaly, cytopenias, ferritin, triglycerides, fibrinogen, serum glutamic oxaloacetic transaminase (SGOT), and hemophagocytosis features [11]. The HScore provides a dynamic probability rather than a binary "yes/no," allowing for earlier intervention in equivocal cases. Studies have shown that an HScore greater than 169 yields a high sensitivity and specificity for diagnosis, outperforming the strict application of pediatric criteria to adult populations [11, 15].

Malignancy-Associated HLH (M-HLH):

A critical finding in the literature is the strong association between HLH and malignancy. Zoref-Lorenz et al. highlight that M-HLH is a distinct entity with unique mechanisms and worse prognosis [8]. Lymphomas, particularly aggressive T-cell and NK-cell lymphomas, are the most common triggers. In some cases, the HLH constitutes the primary presentation of the lymphoma, masking the underlying cancer. Said et al. described cases where aggressive T-cell lymphoma "smoldered" as HLH, creating a diagnostic delay that is often fatal [6]. The "cytokine storm" in these cases is driven by the malignant cells themselves producing pro-inflammatory cytokines, creating a self-sustaining loop of inflammation. An improved index for mortality prediction in M-HLH has been proposed, emphasizing that standard HLH therapies may fail if the underlying malignancy is not addressed concurrently [20].

Section 2: Therapeutic Efficacy and Management



The management of HLH is a race against time to suppress the hyperactive immune system. The standard of care, derived from the HLH-94 and HLH-2004 protocols, involves the use of etoposide (VP-16) and dexamethasone [12, 13].

The Role of Etoposide:

Etoposide is a topoisomerase II inhibitor that selectively depletes activated T-cells and macrophages. Its use in adults has been controversial due to potential toxicity (myelosuppression, hepatotoxicity). However, a systematic review and meta-analysis by Gao et al. assessed the effectiveness of etoposide in adult HLH and found it to be a critical component of salvage therapy [16]. Zondag et al. further support this, noting that while etoposide carries risks, the mortality of untreated HLH is nearly 100%, justifying the risk [17]. The mechanism of action—inducing apoptosis in the activated immune cells—directly targets the pathophysiology of the disease.

Secondary HLH and Macrophage Activation Syndrome (MAS):

In the context of rheumatic diseases (e.g., Systemic Juvenile Idiopathic Arthritis), HLH is often termed Macrophage Activation Syndrome (MAS). Grom and Mellins have elucidated the pathogenesis of MAS, showing it shares genetic overlap with primary HLH (e.g., perforin gene mutations) but is triggered by autoimmune flares [14]. Treatment here often prioritizes high-dose steroids and biological agents (IL-1 or IL-6 inhibitors) before resorting to etoposide. La Rosee et al. emphasize that in adults, distinguishing between sepsis-induced, malignancy-associated, and autoimmune-associated HLH is vital because the treatment protocols diverge significantly [15, 18].

Section 3: Preterm Birth Outcomes and Executive Function

Switching the lens to the pediatric population, the review of references 1 through 9 reveals a consistent pattern of neurodevelopmental vulnerability in children born preterm.

Epidemiology of Preterm Birth:

Ohuma et al. provided updated global estimates for 2020, indicating that preterm birth rates are not declining in many regions, and in some, they are rising [1]. This means the population of preterm survivors entering the school system is substantial.

Academic and Executive Function (EF) Outcomes:

A meta-analysis by McBryde et al. confirms that school-aged children born preterm score significantly lower on academic standardized tests compared to term-born peers [2]. These deficits are not merely due to lower general intelligence (IQ). Rather, they are mediated by specific deficits in Executive Functions.

Diamond defines Executive Functions as a set of top-down mental processes used when you have to concentrate and pay attention, when going on automatic or relying on instinct would be ill-advised [8]. The core EFs are inhibition (self-control), working memory, and cognitive flexibility.

Twilhaar et al. and Cortes Pascual et al. utilized meta-regression to show that the degree of prematurity correlates with the severity of EF deficits [4, 6]. Children born extremely preterm (<28 weeks) are at the highest risk. These children often struggle with "Inhibitory Control"—the ability to ignore distractions and stay on task—and "Working Memory"—holding information in mind while manipulating it.

Lee et al. extended these findings to adolescents, showing that these challenges persist well into the teenage years, affecting social interactions and mental health [9]. Hornman et al. linked these cognitive deficits to emotional and behavioral problems at school entry, creating a "double jeopardy" for these children [3].

The Unity and Diversity of EF:

Miyake et al.'s framework of "Unity and Diversity" explains that while EFs are correlated, they are also distinct [7]. Preterm children often show a "global" deficit, but working memory impairments appear to be the most robust predictor of poor mathematical and reading achievement.

Discussion

The synthesis of data from hematological critical care and pediatric neurodevelopment highlights a pervasive theme in medicine: the "Long Tail" of biological insults. Whether the insult is a massive cytokine storm in HLH or the interruption of fetal brain development in preterm birth, the consequences are systemic, complex, and require nuanced management.

The Diagnostic Dilemma: Beyond the Microscope

The literature on HLH underscores that relying solely on bone marrow morphology is insufficient. The presence of hemophagocytosis is a late marker. The HScore [11] represents a paradigm shift towards probabilistic diagnosis. This is crucial because "confounding by indication" often clouds clinical judgment; clinicians may hesitate to treat with aggressive chemotherapy like etoposide because the patient looks "septic," yet it is precisely the HLH mimicking sepsis that requires the chemotherapy [19].

The distinction between malignancy-associated HLH and infection-associated HLH is the most critical decision point. As noted by Zoref-Lorenz [8] and Said [6], T-cell lymphomas can masquerade as HLH. If a clinician treats only the inflammation (steroids) and misses the malignancy, the patient will ultimately



succumb. This necessitates a lower threshold for PET-CT scans and repeated biopsies in "refractory" HLH cases.

Expanding the Understanding of Pathophysiology: The Cytokine Storm

To fully appreciate the severity of HLH, one must understand the molecular chaos at play. The condition is driven by a failure of the "brakes" of the immune system. Normally, after an infection is cleared, NK cells and Cytotoxic T-cells eliminate the activated macrophages. In HLH, due to genetic defects (in perforin or vesicle transport pathways) or overwhelming stimulus, this elimination fails [13]. Activated macrophages accumulate, secreting massive amounts of Ferritin, TNF-alpha, IL-6, and IL-1. This "cytokine storm" causes vascular leakage (edema), coagulopathy (DIC), and direct tissue damage.

The high ferritin levels (>10,000 ng/mL) seen in HLH are not just markers of iron storage but are actively secreted by the dysregulated macrophages. This understanding has led to the exploration of cytokine-blocking therapies. While etoposide remains the backbone [16, 17], drugs like Anakinra (IL-1 blocker) and Tocilizumab (IL-6 blocker) are gaining traction, especially in Rheumatic-HLH (MAS) [14]. However, La Rosee et al. warn that in adult HLH, "cytokine band-aids" are often insufficient without etoposide to debulk the activated T-cell population [15].

The Neurodevelopmental "Storm": Executive Dysfunction

Paralleling the systemic storm of HLH is the developmental disruption of preterm birth. The brain of a preterm infant is exposed to ex-utero stressors—pain, light, noise, and often infection—during a critical window of cortical organization. The meta-analyses by Twilhaar [4] and McBryde [2] suggest that the "preterm phenotype" is characterized by a specific dysregulation of frontal lobe networks.

Miyake's model of Executive Function [7] is particularly relevant here. "Updating" (working memory) and "Inhibition" are the functions most heavily reliant on the prefrontal cortex, the area most vulnerable to hypoxic-ischemic damage and white matter injury in preemies. When a child cannot inhibit impulses (Ref 3, Hornman), they are labeled "disruptive" in school. When they cannot hold instructions in working memory (Ref 6, Cortes Pascual), they fall behind academically.

This is not merely an educational issue; it is a medical sequela. Just as we monitor ferritin in HLH to gauge the "heat" of the inflammation, pediatricians must monitor EF development in preterm survivors to gauge the "health" of the neural networks. Early interventions—cognitive training, scaffolded learning environments—are the "etoposide" of this domain, attempting to correct the trajectory before permanent failure occurs.

Integrating the Perspectives: The Vulnerable Host

Is there a link between these two disparate topics? Clinically, yes. Preterm infants are at higher risk for sepsis and immune dysregulation in the neonatal period. While classic HLH is rare in neonates, "HLH-like" inflammatory surges occur. Furthermore, if a child born preterm develops a malignancy or autoimmune disease later in life (Secondary HLH), their physiological reserve is lower. The neurotoxic effects of HLH treatment (or the CNS involvement of HLH itself) may be catastrophic for a brain already compromised by preterm birth [10].

Benevenuta et al. discuss secondary HLH in children, noting that the triggers are often viral [7]. A child with a history of prematurity and chronic lung disease may handle viral challenges poorly, potentially lowering the threshold for hyperinflammatory responses.

Treatment Nuances and Future Directions

The use of etoposide in adults has been validated [16], but dosing remains an art. Zondag et al. suggest that dose reductions may be necessary in patients with organ failure, yet the drug must be given [17]. The systematic review by Gao confirms that etoposide-containing regimens improve survival compared to steroids alone [16].

However, the toxicity of etoposide (secondary leukemia risk, infertility) is a major concern. This brings us back to the importance of accurate diagnosis (HScore, Bone Marrow). We cannot afford to give etoposide to a patient who actually has simple sepsis. Conversely, we cannot withhold it from a patient with fulminant HLH.

In the realm of preterm birth, Cheong et al. ask if outcomes are improving over time [5]. The answer is mixed. Survival is better, but the prevalence of mild-to-moderate cognitive deficits remains stubborn. This suggests that simply keeping the baby alive is not enough; we must protect the brain. Future research in HLH aims at "chemo-free" protocols using specific monoclonal antibodies (e.g., Emapalumab, an anti-IFN-gamma antibody). Similarly, future research in preterm care focuses on neuroprotectants (e.g., erythropoietin, magnesium sulfate) to preserve EF architecture.

Limitations

This review is limited by the heterogeneity of the included studies. HLH studies are often retrospective due to the rarity of the disease, making randomized controlled trials difficult [15]. The definition of "preterm" also varies across studies (extremely vs. late preterm), which affects the reported prevalence of EF deficits. Furthermore, the HScore, while validated, is not perfect and requires clinical gestalt.



Conclusion

The management of vulnerable patient populations—whether they are adults in the throes of a cytokine storm (HLH) or children navigating the cognitive demands of school after a preterm birth—requires a sophisticated, multi-dimensional approach.

In HLH, the key is vigilance. The bone marrow biopsy (Ref 5, 9) is a piece of the puzzle, but not the whole picture. The HScore (Ref 11) provides a mathematical framework to aid judgment. Recognizing malignancy-associated HLH (Ref 8, 20) is essential to prevent mortality. Treatment with etoposide (Ref 16, 17), while aggressive, is often the only bridge to survival.

In Preterm Birth, the key is surveillance. The insult happens at birth (Ref 1), but the consequences (Executive Dysfunction) manifest years later (Ref 2, 4, 9). Understanding the unity and diversity of executive functions (Ref 7, 8) allows for better targeted educational support.

Ultimately, both conditions represent the body's struggle to maintain homeostasis under extreme stress. By refining our diagnostic criteria and understanding the long-term pathophysiological mechanisms, clinicians can better serve these high-risk patients, ensuring not just survival, but a return to a quality of life.

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