



Published in final edited form as:

J Child Neurol. 2018 March ; 33(3): 198–208. doi:10.1177/0883073817750499.

Antenatal and neonatal antecedents of executive dysfunctions in extremely preterm children

Alan Leviton¹, Robert M Joseph², Elizabeth N Allred¹, T. Michael O’Shea³, H. Gerry Taylor⁴, and Karl KC Kuban⁵

¹Boston Children’s Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston MA, USA

²Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, MA, USA

³University of North Carolina School of Medicine, Chapel Hill NC, USA

⁴Nationwide Children’s Hospital and The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH, USA

⁵Boston Medical Center and Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, MA, USA

Abstract

To find out why children born extremely preterm are at heightened risk of executive dysfunctions (ED), we assessed 716 10-year-olds born extremely preterm whose IQ ≥ 70 . A working memory dysfunction (WMD) ($N = 169$), an inhibition dysfunction (ID) ($N = 360$), a switching dysfunction (SD) (355), and all 3 (ED) ($N = 107$), were defined on the basis of Z-scores ≤ -1 on the DAS-II working memory composite, and/or on the NEPSY-II Inhibition-Inhibition and Inhibition-Switching subtests. All risk profiles include an indicator of socioeconomic disadvantage. The risk profile of each of the 3 individual dysfunctions includes an indicator of the newborn’s immaturity, and the risk profiles of the ID and SD also include an indicator of inflammation. Only the SD dysfunction was associated with fetal growth restriction. The risk factors for ED can be subsumed under the four themes of socioeconomic disadvantage, immaturity/vulnerability, inflammation, and fetal growth restriction.

Keywords

extremely preterm; school performance; learning disabilities; mathematics; reading; special educational needs

Introduction

Children born very preterm are at higher risks of executive dysfunctions (variously defined at various ages) than children born at term.^{1–10} Among children born extremely preterm, those who have executive function impairments have poorer academic outcomes than their peers.^{11,12} Academic deficits in children who were born extremely preterm and had

Corresponding author: Alan Leviton, Boston Children’s Hospital, Au-414, 300 Longwood Avenue, Boston MA 02115-5724, alan.leviton@childrens.harvard.edu, telephone: 617 355-6491.

Conflict of interest:

The authors declare that this document poses no conflict of interest.

executive dysfunctions probably limit their “long-term economic and civic potential and productivity.”¹³

In our search for explanations why preterm newborns are at heightened risk of executive dysfunctions, we found only five reports that have in the title both ‘executive function’ and either ‘predict’ or ‘risk.’^{5,14–17} None of these, however, reported the results of a systematic examination of a moderately large number of candidate characteristics and/or exposures in a relatively large number of high-risk children.

One possibility reflects the association between executive function limitations and low intelligence. However, even when adjustment is made for low IQ, children born extremely preterm or at an extremely low birth weight are more likely than their peers to have executive function limitations.¹⁸

Another possibility is that children born preterm who have executive function limitations are more likely than others to have early-identified structural abnormalities of the brain.^{19–22} This might be a consequence of the extremely preterm newborn’s propensity to have systemic inflammation,²³ which appears to increase the risk of brain damage.^{24–26} This prompted us to evaluate the contribution of inflammation-provoking exposures, as well as other exposures and perinatal characteristics to the risk of executive dysfunctions.

In light of the view that executive functions comprise three separable but interacting components: working memory, inhibitory control, and mental shifting/cognitive flexibility,^{28,29} we assessed children’s performance on three corresponding measures: DAS-II Working Memory composite, NEPSY-II Inhibition-Inhibition, and NEPSY-II Inhibition-Switching, and sought the antecedents of limitations on each executive dysfunction component, as well as that of a composite comprised of all 3 limitations.

Methods

Participants

The ELGAN (Extremely Low Gestational Age Newborn) Study is a multi-center observational study designed to identify characteristics and exposures associated with increased risk of structural and functional neurologic disorders in extremely preterm infants.²⁷ During the years 2002–2004, women delivering before 28 weeks gestation at one of 14 participating institutions were asked to enroll in the study. A total of 1249 mothers of 1506 ELGANs consented to participate. Enrollment and consent processes were approved by the individual institutional review boards.

Ten years later, we invited 966 children to return for an age-appropriate assessment of cognition, executive function, behaviors, and achievement (Table 1). They were selected because the concentrations of inflammation-related proteins in their blood collected during the first postnatal month had been measured. Of these 966 children, 889 (92%) returned for follow up and 874 were administered the neurocognitive tests. Enrollment and consent procedures for this follow up study were approved by the institutional review boards of all participating institutions.

Procedures at age 10 years

The families of all children whose development was assessed at age 2 years were contacted by mail and then by phone to invite them to participate in the 10-year follow up. Lost to follow-up families were searched for on state vaccination registries, and other openly-available websites. Facebook was also used where approved by the local institution's IRB.

Families willing to participate were scheduled for one visit during which all of the measures reported here were administered in 3 to 4 hours, including breaks. The assessments were selected to provide the most comprehensive information about neurocognitive and academic function in one testing session.

General cognitive ability (or IQ) was assessed with the School-Age Differential Ability Scales-II (DAS-II) Verbal and Nonverbal Reasoning scales.³⁰ For this study, we included only children with scores of 70 or higher on both scales.

The DAS-II Recall of Digits Backward and Recall of Sequential Order yielded a working memory composite score, while the NEPSY-II (A Developmental NEUROPSYchological Assessment-II) Inhibition-Inhibition subtest measured simple inhibition and the Inhibition-Switching subtest measured inhibition in the context of set shifting.³¹ A low score on each assessment was defined as a Z-score of -1 . We also created an indicator of executive dysfunction, which required a Z-score -1 on each of these three assessments.

Data analyses

We evaluated the generalized form of the null hypothesis that each measure of executive dysfunction is not associated with any prenatal, or early postnatal characteristic or exposure in children who are not cognitively impaired (*i.e.*, DAS-II ≥ 70). We began with univariate analyses (Appendix Tables 1-8), which identified candidate variables for the multivariate logistic regression analyses (Table 2). Because postnatal phenomena can be influenced by antepartum phenomena, the variables entered into the logistic regression analyses were ordered temporally, with the earliest occurring predictors/covariates of the risk of each measure of executive dysfunction entered first and not displaced by later occurring covariates.³²

We used a step-down procedure seeking a parsimonious solution without interaction terms. The contributions of relevant variables are presented as risk ratios with 95% confidence intervals. The risk ratio for each variable expresses the increased or decreased risk of each measure of executive dysfunction in one category of a characteristic or exposure relative to the other.

Data interpretation—We found that even though the correlates of socio-economic disadvantage are so highly correlated, different sets of socio-economic correlates were associated with each of the four executive dysfunction entities. This prompted us to try to group the similar findings for each of the four executive dysfunction entities as themes that made sense in light of our familiarity with this data set.

Results

Of the 716 children who had an IQ ≥ 70 and had all 3 of the executive function subtests, 169 (24%) had a working memory Z-score ≤ -1 , 350 (49%) had an Inhibition-Inhibition Z-score ≤ -1 , 355 (50%) had an Inhibition-Switching Z-score ≤ -1 , and 107 (15%) had a Z-score ≤ -1 on all 3. As might be expected, children who had a Z-score ≤ -1 on one subtest were likely to have a low Z-score on one of the other subtests. Specifically, 63% of all children who had a working memory Z-score ≤ -1 , had a similarly low Z-score on the Inhibition-Inhibition subtest, and 80% had such a low Z-score on the Inhibition-Switching subtest (based on data in Appendix Table 1). Of all children who had an Inhibition-Inhibition Z-score ≤ -1 , 34% had a similarly low Z-score on the working memory composite, and 69% had such a low Z-score on the inhibition-switching subtest, while 38% of the children who had an Inhibition-Switching subtest Z-score ≤ -1 , had a working memory Z-score ≤ -1 , and 70% had an Inhibition-Inhibition Z-score ≤ -1 .

Univariable analyses (Appendix Tables 2-9)

Appendix Tables 2-9 display the prevalences of the four executive dysfunction entities among children classified by maternal, pregnancy, and newborn characteristics. The variables associated with each executive dysfunction are identified in the results section of the Appendix. Here we present these associations grouped by the variables that fit each of 4 themes. We identify each variable associated with each executive dysfunction entity with initials: W for working memory, I for Inhibition-Inhibition, S for Inhibition-Switching, and A for having all 3 limitations.

Theme #1: low socioeconomic characteristics

The indicators/correlates of mother's low socioeconomic status associated with an increased risk of executive dysfunctions include self-identification as Black (W, S, A), young age at the time of the delivery (W, I, S, A), not married (W, S, A), low level of educational achievement (W, S, A), eligibility for government-provided medical-care insurance (W, S, A), not trying to get pregnant (A), did not seek conception assistance (W, S, A), less than one year since previous pregnancy (A), smoked cigarettes during the pregnancy (I, S), and exposure to the smoke of others (S).

Theme #2: inflammation

We divide inflammation into 2 categories, antenatal and postnatal. Among the indicators of antenatal inflammation associated with an increased risk of executive dysfunctions are mother-reported periodontal infection (I, S, A), consumption of a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (I, S, A), recovery from the placenta parenchyma of multiple organisms (A), including Mycoplasma (W, A) and normal vaginal flora (A). Among the indicators of postnatal inflammation are postnatal antibiotic (W, I, S, A), postnatal bacteremia (S, A), tracheal colonization (S), "surgical" necrotizing enterocolitis (W, I, S), severe (W, I) and non-severe (S) bronchopulmonary dysplasia, retinopathy of prematurity (S).

Theme #3: immaturity/vulnerability

Low gestational age at birth (W, S, A), the quintessential indicator of immaturity and vulnerability, has many correlates that we view as conveying similar risk information. Those associated with an increased risk of executive dysfunctions include low birth weight (W, I, S), high illness severity score (SNAPPE II) (W, S, A), pulmonary deterioration (W, S), early and persistent pulmonary dysfunction (W, S), pneumothorax (W, S), pulmonary interstitial emphysema (S), pulmonary hemorrhage (W, I, S), tracheal colonization (S), retinopathy of prematurity (S), “surgical” necrotizing enterocolitis (W, I, S), severe (W, I) and non-severe (S) bronchopulmonary dysplasia, no antenatal corticosteroid exposure (W), no exposure to antenatal magnesium (A), high measurements of PaO₂ (S, A) and PCO₂ on 2 of the first 3 postnatal days (S), as well as postnatal receipt of surfactant (S), hydrocortisone (S), dexamethasone (A), a sedative (S), and recurrent transfusions (S).

Theme #4: fetal growth restriction

Low birth-weight Z-score, THE criterion for fetal growth restriction, was associated with all 3 executive dysfunctions (W, I, S), while correlates of fetal growth restriction in this sample, including fetal indication for delivery (W, A), mechanical ventilation (W and S most consistently, but also I for mechanical ventilation on day 21), early and persistent pulmonary dysfunction and pulmonary deterioration (W,S), severe bronchopulmonary dysplasia/chronic lung disease (W, I, S, A), and retinopathy of prematurity (S) exhibited more restricted associations.

Time-oriented risk models (TORMs)(Table 2)

This table is best viewed as the results of 4 regression analyses/models, each potentially consisting of variables from the three epochs, pre-pregnancy (*i.e.*, maternal socio-demographic characteristics), pregnancy characteristics/exposures, and early postnatal characteristics/exposures. The first epoch variables are entered first. They are retained and the second epoch (pregnancy) variables are then entered. The third epoch model retains the identified variables from the first and second epochs, while adding early postnatal characteristics and exposures.

a. working memory—The model for low working memory score included two maternal socio-demographic characteristics, Black self-identification and single marital status. When these were retained and pregnancy characteristics added, none were statistically significant. A high illness-severity score, which, to a large extent, reflects unstable/disturbed physiology during the first 12 postnatal hours was the only variable from the first postnatal month that supplemented risk information provided by the 2 socio-demographic variables.

b. Inhibition-Inhibition—Mother having no more than a high school education is the only socio-demographic variable associated with an increased risk of a low score on the Inhibition-Inhibition subtest. In contrast, three pregnancy variables provided supplemental information. They are consumption of a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug, chorionic plate inflammation of the placenta, and lack of exposure to magnesium sulfate. Low birth weight (< 750 grams) is the only early postnatal Variable that supplemented the risk information provided by the 4 variables already in the model.

c. Inhibition-Switching—The three separate socio-demographic variables associated with an increased risk of a low score on the Inhibition-Switching assessment were Black identification, no more than a high school education and single marital status. Although no pregnancy variable provided additional risk information, three early postnatal variables did, highest quartiles of P_aO_2 and PCO_2 on two of the first three postnatal days, and mechanical ventilation on day 21.

d. executive dysfunction composite measure—Only mother's eligibility for government-provided insurance provided information about the risk of the executive dysfunction composite.

Summary of Time-oriented risk models (Table 3)

We created this summary table to show the similarities and differences among the 4 executive dysfunction entities. We did this, in part, because we see each antecedent as a representative of other antecedents contained within the same theme.

Theme #1: Sociodemographic—All 4 entities have risk profiles that include at least one socio-demographic variable, with 2 entities, low scores on the working memory and Inhibition-Switching assessments, having the same 2 antecedents, Black-identification and not-married. No more than a high school education was shared by low scores on both the Inhibition-Inhibition and the inhibition-switching assessments.

Theme #2: Inflammation—The risk profiles of the working memory and executive dysfunction surrogate entities did not include an inflammation variable. In contrast, the risk profile of the entity characterized by a low score on the Inhibition-Inhibition assessment included 3 variables that conveyed information about inflammation, consumption of a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug, inflammation of the chorionic plate of the placenta, and no exposure to magnesium sulfate.

Mechanical ventilation on day 21 was the only inflammation-related variable associated with increased risk of a low score on the Inhibition-Switching assessment. In the ELGAN Study, “prolonged” mechanical ventilation (*i.e.*, beyond 2 weeks) was associated with systemic inflammation.³³

Theme #3: Immaturity/vulnerability—The risk profile of each of the 3 components of executive dysfunction included an immaturity/vulnerability indicator, but the risk profile of the executive dysfunction surrogate did not. The risk profile of a low score on the Inhibition-Inhibition assessment included an extremely low birth weight (*i.e.*, < 750 grams), while the risk profile of a low score on the working memory assessment was associated with a high illness severity score (*i.e.*, SNAP-PE 45+), indicative of physiologic instability and immaturity.^{34–36} In contrast, the risk profile of a low score on the Inhibition-Switching assessment included 3 separate, but highly related indicators of physiologic instability and immaturity, highest quartiles of P_aO_2 and PCO_2 on 2 of the first 3 days, and need for mechanical ventilation on postnatal day 21.

Theme #4: Fetal growth restriction—The only fetal growth restriction correlate identified by Time-oriented risk models was mechanical ventilation on day 21 as a risk factor for a switching limitation.

Discussion

Our main findings are that the risk profiles of executive function limitations appear to be best viewed as including indicators of socio-demographic disadvantage, inflammation, and immaturity/vulnerability.

SES

Children whose family is at socioeconomic disadvantage are at heightened risk of executive dysfunction regardless of whether they were born at term,^{37–40} late preterm (34 to 36 weeks' gestation),⁴¹ or preterm.^{17,42–48} Among the biological mechanisms hypothesized to mediate the effects of social adversity on developmental outcomes of these preterm infants are an increased risk of giving birth preterm,^{49,50} inflammation,^{51–56} epigenetic phenomena ((*i.e.*, DNA methylation, histone modifications, and mRNAs),^{57–59} exposure to neurotoxins, and sub-optimal parenting.⁶⁰ We expand on these.

Allostasis is the term applied to the stress that accompanies/follows from the need for constant adaptation.⁶¹ When intense or persistent over long periods of time, the resulting allostatic overload disturbs a variety of systems,⁶² including inflammatory immune activity,^{63–65} as well as brain function⁶⁶ and maturation.⁶⁷

“Environmental inequality”⁶⁸ and environmental injustice⁶⁹ are terms used to describe the increased likelihood of low socioeconomic adults and children to be exposed to violence, disorganization in school environments, crowding, and noise,⁷⁰ as well as toxins, some of which are known neurotoxins.⁷¹

Poor families face significant economic pressure and prejudice as they struggle to earn a living, pay bills, and make decisions about what is absolutely essential.⁷² The resulting stress and dysfunction among parents that head many of these families may render them less able than others to provide nurturing, stimulation, and responsiveness to their children's needs.⁶⁰ Such lower-quality parenting has been associated with executive function limitations in the child.¹⁵ Previously institutionalized children, who are presumed to have not received the equivalent of high-quality parenting, are also at increased risk.⁷³

In preclinical models, stressing the gravida adversely influences the fetal brain.⁷⁴ In humans, too, maternal stress, some of which is related to social disadvantage, appears to have detrimental effects on the fetal brain.^{75–79}

Immaturity

Compared to their peers born at term, children born very preterm or at very low birth weight are more likely to have executive dysfunction limitations.^{1–10,14,46–48} However, even within groups of children defined by low gestational or low birth weight, the lower the gestational age, the higher the risk usually,^{1,14,80,81} but not always.¹⁷

Several studies have also found that correlates of immaturity, such as high scores on the Neurobiological Risk Score (NBRs), a composite measure of neonatal risk,⁸² low weight gain during the first 6 weeks,² and number of surgeries¹⁴ were associated with one or more indicators of executive dysfunctions.

The gravida or placenta provides the fetus with neurotrophic proteins that the fetus is not yet able to synthesize in adequate amounts. These neurotrophic proteins promote the survival and differentiation of the brain cells in the fetus and newborn,⁸³ and are capable of promoting repair of brain damage,^{84,85} Birth before having the ability to synthesize adequate amounts of these needed developmentally-regulated proteins limits the extremely preterm newborn's capacity to protect the brain, and to initiate repair.

Another disadvantage of immaturity in this sample is the intensity of the inflammatory response. In the ELGAN Study, concentrations of inflammation-related proteins in blood collected during the first 2 postnatal weeks tended to decrease with increasing gestational age, regardless of whether or not the placenta was inflamed.⁸⁶

These 2 characteristics of immaturity are but just a few of those that have been identified. Consequently, we view indicators of immaturity as surrogates for all the unmeasured and unidentified developmentally regulated processes that might be associated with adversity,⁸⁷ including increased risk of executive dysfunctions.

Inflammation

Children who have executive dysfunctions are more likely than others to have been exposed to inflammatory phenomena such as necrotizing enterocolitis,⁸⁸ bronchopulmonary dysplasia,⁴³ and bacteremia.⁸⁹ Because children who have executive dysfunctions are more likely than their peers to have brain image abnormalities related to their executive function limitations,^{20,22,90–100} it is possible that the inflammation, especially if prolonged or recurrent, contributes to executive dysfunctions via structural changes in the developing brain.^{23,24,26,101–105}

Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs were among the over-the-counter drugs recommended for fever and malaise during the second trimester of pregnancy.¹⁰⁶ Thus this variable is likely to convey information about infection/inflammation during pregnancy. Histologic inflammation of the placenta's chorionic plate speaks for itself. During 2002–2004 when newborns were recruited for the ELGAN Study, magnesium sulfate was most often given to women who had severe preeclampsia. It was also used as a tocolytic, but less often. Thus, the absence of magnesium sulfate exposure can serve as an indicator of an inflammation-associated medical indication for extremely preterm delivery, as well as an indicator that the children not exposed to magnesium might have been deprived of magnesium's neuroprotective¹⁰⁷ and anti-inflammatory capabilities.^{108,109}

Fetal growth restriction

Children in the ELGAN study who had fetal growth restriction were less likely than their peers to have abundant concentrations in the blood of proteins with neurotrophic properties.¹¹⁰ In addition, they were more likely to display an inflammatory surge after the first

postnatal week.¹¹¹ These two phenomena might explain why growth restricted extremely preterm newborns who experience systemic inflammation are at especially heightened risk of cognitive limitations.¹¹²

Vulnerability as an integration of all four themes

The four themes of socioeconomic disadvantage, immaturity, inflammation, and fetal growth restriction are so interrelated that it is difficult to distinguish the contribution of each from the others to the etiology of executive dysfunctions. We offer the unifying concept of vulnerability. Each theme contributes information about (brain) vulnerability of ELGANs.^{112–118} Indeed, the co-occurrence of risk factors representing multiple themes might have a more adverse effect than the sum of the contribution of factors representing only one theme.¹¹⁹

Methodologic considerations

Categorization of outcome—We acknowledge that our dysfunction criterion of a score one or more standard deviations below the normative mean is arbitrary. Indeed, no sharp break (or discontinuity) in scores separates those with an executive dysfunction from their peers. As epidemiologists, we prefer to study categorical entities rather than continua. This is in keeping with our discipline's tendency to establish cut-offs for continuous measures of function/dysfunction (*e.g.*, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, glaucoma).¹²⁰

Executive function assessments—While other investigators who sought to identify the risk factors for executive dysfunctions did not use either the NEPSY-II Inhibition-Inhibition and Inhibition-Switching assessments, others have used low scores on these measures to define executive function limitations.^{121,122}

Heterogeneity of categorization of executive dysfunctions—We also acknowledge that the three executive dysfunction indicators tend to occur together, resulting in our assessing not isolated dysfunctions, but overlapping non-independent dysfunctions. Because each form of dysfunction might have its own risk profile, our including children who also had other executive dysfunctions impedes our ability to identify specific risk profiles.

Time-oriented Risk Models—Our Time-oriented risk models (TORMs) categorize sets of antecedents by the time they occurred or were identified. Only those variables in each epoch are retained that provide unique discriminating information. We do not allow variables from subsequent models to remove variables identified in previous epochs. What we are left with is a parsimonious model that might not be the most relevant from a biologic perspective, although it is from a discriminating perspective. That is why we emphasize themes rather than individual variables.

The multifactorial view of what contributes to the occurrence of dysfunctions—The multifactorial view of what contributes to dysfunction/disease postulates that the occurrence of every disorder/dysfunction reflects multiple factors.^{123–126} This has been our experience in the ELGAN Study. For example, the risk of a low mental development index (on the Bayley Scales-II) is increased among children who had indicators/correlates of

socioeconomic disadvantage,^{32,127,128} immaturity,^{34,127} were growth restricted at birth, ^{112,128,129} were exposed to antenatal inflammation,¹³⁰ and had systemic inflammation. ^{130,131} These observations have reinforced our acceptance of a multifactorial view of the etiology of executive dysfunctions, even among children with an IQ in the normal range.

Limitations and strengths of this study—Our arbitrary definition of dysfunction undoubtedly resulted in some misclassification. We are unable, however, to know the extent and nature of such misclassification.

Even though we restricted our sample to those who had an IQ \geq 70, thereby reducing the potential confounding of low IQ, this might not have been adequate to eliminate all residual confounding.

We create our models by selecting the variables that provide the most discriminating information. An unfortunate consequence might be that variables closely associated with this variable are not identified as risk factors.

With our large number of children who had each of the four executive dysfunction categories we assessed, we were able to appreciate risk ratios as low as 1.4 as statistically significant. Other strengths are the selection of infants based on gestational age (and not birth weight), ¹³² prospective collection of all data, and modest attrition.

Conclusions—In this sample of 10-year-old children born extremely preterm, increased risks of scores of one or more standard deviations below the normative mean individually on three assessments, DAS-II Working Memory, NEPSY-II Inhibition-Inhibition, and NEPSY-II Inhibition-Switching, as well as on all three together, were associated with perinatal antecedents that could be gathered under the headings of socio-economic disadvantage, immaturity, inflammation, and fetal growth restriction.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

The authors express their gratitude to the children and their families who participated in this study. They also gratefully acknowledge the contributions of the ELGAN Study Investigators, listed below.

Boston Children's Hospital, Boston MA

Janice Ware, Taryn Coster, Brandi Henson, Rachel Wilson, Kirsten McGhee, Patricia Lee, Aimee Asgarian, Anjali Sadhwani

Tufts Medical Center, Boston MA

Ellen Perrin, Emily Neger, Kathryn Mattern, Jenifer Walkowiak, Susan Barron

University of Massachusetts Medical School, Worcester MA

Jean Frazier, Lauren Venuti, Beth Powers, Ann Foley, Brian Dessureau, Molly Wood, Jill Damon-Minow

Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, CT

Richard Ehrenkranz, Jennifer Benjamin, Elaine Romano, Kathy Tsatsanis, Katarzyna Chawarska, Sophy Kim, Susan Dieterich, Karen Bearrs

Wake Forest University Baptist Medical Center, Winston-Salem NC

T. Michael O'Shea, Nancy Peters, Patricia Brown, Emily Anusinha, Ellen Waldrep, Jackie Friedman, Gail Hounshell, Debbie Allred

University Health Systems of Eastern Carolina, Greenville, NC

Stephen C. Engelke, Nancy Darden-Saad, Gary Stainback

North Carolina Children's Hospital, Chapel Hill, NC

Diane Warner, Janice Wereszczak, Janice Bernhardt, Joni McKeeman, Echo Meyer

Helen DeVos Children's Hospital, Grand Rapids, MI

Steve Pastyrnak, Wendy Burdo-Hartman, Julie Rathbun, Sarah Nota, Teri Crumb,

Sparrow Hospital, Lansing, MI

Madeleine Lenski, Deborah Weiland, Megan Lloyd

University of Chicago Medical Center, Chicago, IL

Scott Hunter, Michael Msall, Rugile Ramoskaite, Suzanne Wiggins, Krissy Washington, Ryan Martin, Barbara Prendergast, Megan Scott

William Beaumont Hospital, Royal Oak, MI

Judith Klarr, Beth Kring, Jennifer DeRidder, Kelly Vogt

Statement of financial support:

This study was supported by grants from the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (5U01NS040069-05; 2R01NS040069-06A2) and the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (5P30HD018655-28), and the Office of the NIH Director (1UG3OD023348-01).

Citations

1. Mulder H, Pitchford NJ, Hagger MS, et al. Development of executive function and attention in preterm children: a systematic review. *Developmental neuropsychology*. 2009; 34(4):393–421. [PubMed: 20183707]
2. Aarnoudse-Moens CS, Weisglas-Kuperus N, van Goudoever JB, et al. Meta-analysis of neurobehavioral outcomes in very preterm and/or very low birth weight children. *Pediatrics*. 2009; 124(2):717–28. [PubMed: 19651588]
3. Burnett AC, Scratch SE, Lee KJ, et al. Executive function in adolescents born <1000 g or <28 weeks: a prospective cohort study. *Pediatrics*. 2015; 135(4):e826–34. [PubMed: 25802342]
4. Farooqi A, Adamsson M, Serenius F, et al. Executive Functioning and Learning Skills of Adolescent Children Born at Fewer than 26 Weeks of Gestation. *PLoS ONE*. 2016; 11(3):e0151819. [PubMed: 26999522]
5. Taylor HG, Clark CA. Executive function in children born preterm: Risk factors and implications for outcome. *Semin Perinatol*. 2016
6. Wehrle FM, Kaufmann L, Benz LD, et al. Very preterm adolescents show impaired performance with increasing demands in executive function tasks. *Early Hum Dev*. 2016; 92:37–43. [PubMed: 26651084]
7. Joseph RM, O'Shea TM, Allred EN, et al. Neurocognitive and Academic Outcomes at Age 10 Years of Extremely Preterm Newborns. *Pediatrics*. 2016; 137(4) pii: e20154343.

8. Reveillon M, Huppi PS, Barisnikov K. Inhibition difficulties in preterm children: Developmental delay or persistent deficit? *Child neuropsychology: a journal on normal and abnormal development in childhood and adolescence*. 2017;1–29.
9. Baron IS, Kerns KA, Muller U, et al. Executive functions in extremely low birth weight and late-preterm preschoolers: effects on working memory and response inhibition. *Child neuropsychology: a journal on normal and abnormal development in childhood and adolescence*. 2012; 18(6):586–99. [PubMed: 22122351]
10. Sheehan JC, Kerns KA, Muller U. The effect of task complexity on planning in preterm-born children. *The Clinical neuropsychologist*. 2017; 31(2):438–58. [PubMed: 27750544]
11. Loe IM, Lee ES, Luna B, et al. Executive function skills are associated with reading and parent-rated child function in children born prematurely. *Early Hum Dev*. 2012; 88(2):111–8. [PubMed: 21849240]
12. Costa DS, Miranda DM, Burnett AC, et al. Executive Function and Academic Outcomes in Children Who Were Extremely Preterm. *Pediatrics*. 2017; 140(3)
13. Chung PJ, Opipari VP, Koolwijk I. Executive function and extremely preterm children. *Pediatr Res*. 2017; 82(4):565–6. [PubMed: 28853724]
14. Duvall SW, Erickson SJ, MacLean P, et al. Perinatal medical variables predict executive function within a sample of preschoolers born very low birth weight. *J Child Neurol*. 2015; 30(6):735–40. [PubMed: 25117418]
15. Clark CA, Woodward LJ. Relation of perinatal risk and early parenting to executive control at the transition to school. *Dev Sci*. 2015; 18(4):525–42. [PubMed: 25288501]
16. Aarnoudse-Moens CS, Weisglas-Kuperus N, Duivenvoorden HJ, et al. Neonatal and parental predictors of executive function in very preterm children. *Acta Paediatr*. 2013; 102(3):282–6. [PubMed: 23176183]
17. O’Meagher S, Kemp N, Norris K, et al. Risk factors for executive function difficulties in preschool and early school-age preterm children. *Acta Paediatr*. 2017
18. Orchinik LJ, Taylor HG, Espy KA, et al. Cognitive outcomes for extremely preterm/extremely low birth weight children in kindergarten. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society: JINS*. 2011; 17(6):1067–79. [PubMed: 21923973]
19. Woodward LJ, Clark CA, Bora S, et al. Neonatal white matter abnormalities an important predictor of neurocognitive outcome for very preterm children. *PLoS ONE*. 2012; 7(12):e51879. [PubMed: 23284800]
20. Beauchamp MH, Thompson DK, Howard K, et al. Preterm infant hippocampal volumes correlate with later working memory deficits. *Brain*. 2008; 131(Pt 11):2986–94. [PubMed: 18799516]
21. Clark CA, Woodward LJ. Neonatal cerebral abnormalities and later verbal and visuospatial working memory abilities of children born very preterm. *Developmental neuropsychology*. 2010; 35(6):622–42. [PubMed: 21038157]
22. Edgin JO, Inder TE, Anderson PJ, et al. Executive functioning in preschool children born very preterm: relationship with early white matter pathology. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society: JINS*. 2008; 14(1):90–101. [PubMed: 18078535]
23. Mann GE, Kahana M. The uncomfortable reality ... We simply do not know if general anesthesia negatively impacts the neurocognitive development of our small children. *International journal of pediatric otorhinolaryngology*. 2015; 79(9):1379–81. [PubMed: 26143125]
24. Edwards AD, Tan S. Perinatal infections, prematurity and brain injury. *Curr Opin Pediatr*. 2006; 18(2):119–24. [PubMed: 16601489]
25. Procianoy RS, Silveira RC. Association between high cytokine levels with white matter injury in preterm infants with sepsis. *Pediatr Crit Care Med*. 2012; 13(2):183–7. [PubMed: 21666535]
26. Lodygensky GA, West T, Stump M, et al. In vivo MRI analysis of an inflammatory injury in the developing brain. *Brain Behav Immun*. 2010; 24(5):759–67. [PubMed: 19945527]
27. O’Shea TM, Allred EN, Dammann O, et al. The ELGAN study of the brain and related disorders in extremely low gestational age newborns. *Early Hum Dev*. 2009; 85(11):719–25. [PubMed: 19765918]

28. Miyake A, Friedman NP. The Nature and Organization of Individual Differences in Executive Functions: Four General Conclusions. *Current directions in psychological science*. 2012; 21(1):8–14. [PubMed: 22773897]
29. Diamond A. Executive functions. *Annu Rev Psychol*. 2013; 64:135–68. [PubMed: 23020641]
30. Elliott, CD. *Differential Ability Scales*. 2nd. San Antonio, TX: Pearson; 2007.
31. Korkman, M., Kirk, U., Kemp, S. *NEPSY: A Developmental Neuropsychological Assessment*. New York: The Psychological Corporation; 1998.
32. Laughon M, O’Shea MT, Allred EN, et al. Chronic lung disease and developmental delay at 2 years of age in children born before 28 weeks’ gestation. *Pediatrics*. 2009; 124(2):637–48. [PubMed: 19620203]
33. Bose CL, Laughon MM, Allred EN, et al. Systemic inflammation associated with mechanical ventilation among extremely preterm infants. *Cytokine*. 2013; 61(1):315–22. [PubMed: 23148992]
34. Dammann O, Naples M, Bednarek F, et al. SNAP-II and SNAPPE-II and the risk of structural and functional brain disorders in extremely low gestational age newborns: the ELGAN study. *Neonatology*. 2010; 97(2):71–82. [PubMed: 19672122]
35. Logan JW, Dammann O, Allred EN, et al. Early postnatal illness severity scores predict neurodevelopmental impairments at 10 years of age in children born extremely preterm. *J Perinatol*. 2017; 37(5):606–14. [PubMed: 28079875]
36. Richardson DK, Gray JE, McCormick MC, et al. Score for Neonatal Acute Physiology: a physiologic severity index for neonatal intensive care. *Pediatrics*. 1993; 91(3):617–23. [PubMed: 8441569]
37. Lawson GM, Hook CJ, Farah MJ. A Meta-analysis of the relationship between socioeconomic status and executive function performance among children. *Dev Sci*. 2017
38. Briant A, Holmes CJ, Deater-Deckard K, et al. Household chaos as a context for intergenerational transmission of executive functioning. *Journal of adolescence*. 2017; 58:40–8. [PubMed: 28494413]
39. Hackman DA, Farah MJ. Socioeconomic status and the developing brain. *Trends in cognitive sciences*. 2009; 13(2):65–73. [PubMed: 19135405]
40. Ardila A, Rosselli M, Matute E, et al. The influence of the parents’ educational level on the development of executive functions. *Developmental neuropsychology*. 2005; 28(1):539–60. [PubMed: 15992255]
41. Brumbaugh JE, Hodel AS, Thomas KM. The impact of late preterm birth on executive function at preschool age. *Am J Perinatol*. 2014; 31(4):305–14. [PubMed: 23775064]
42. Ford RM, Neulinger K, O’Callaghan M, et al. Executive function in 7-9-year-old children born extremely preterm or with extremely low birth weight: effects of biomedical history, age at assessment, and socioeconomic status. *Archives of clinical neuropsychology: the official journal of the National Academy of Neuropsychologists*. 2011; 26(7):632–44. [PubMed: 21816952]
43. Potharst ES, van Wassenaer-Leemhuis AG, Houtzager BA, et al. Perinatal risk factors for neurocognitive impairments in preschool children born very preterm. *Dev Med Child Neurol*. 2013; 55(2):178–84. [PubMed: 23320575]
44. Bhutta AT, Cleves MA, Casey PH, et al. Cognitive and behavioral outcomes of school-aged children who were born preterm: a Meta-analysis. *Jama*. 2002; 288(6):728–37. [PubMed: 12169077]
45. Voss W, Jungmann T, Wachtendorf M, et al. Long-term cognitive outcomes of extremely low-birth-weight infants: the influence of the maternal educational background. *Acta Paediatr*. 2012; 101(6): 569–73. [PubMed: 22268710]
46. Taylor HG, Minich NM, Klein N, et al. Longitudinal outcomes of very low birth weight: neuropsychological findings. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society: JINS*. 2004; 10(2):149–63. [PubMed: 15012835]
47. Taylor HG, Minich N, Bangert B, et al. Long-term neuropsychological outcomes of very low birth weight: associations with early risks for periventricular brain insults. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society: JINS*. 2004; 10(7):987–1004. [PubMed: 15803562]
48. Saavalainen P, Luoma L, Bowler D, et al. Spatial span in very prematurely born adolescents. *Developmental neuropsychology*. 2007; 32(3):769–85. [PubMed: 17956181]

49. Lorch SA, Enlow E. The role of social determinants in explaining racial/ethnic disparities in perinatal outcomes. *Pediatr Res.* 2016; 79(1–2):141–7. [PubMed: 26466077]
50. Ncube CN, Enquobahrie DA, Albert SM, et al. Association of neighborhood context with offspring risk of preterm birth and low birthweight: A systematic review and Meta-analysis of population-based studies. *Soc Sci Med.* 2016; 153:156–64. [PubMed: 26900890]
51. Schmeer KK, Yoon A. Socioeconomic status inequalities in low-grade inflammation during childhood. *Arch Dis Child.* 2016; 101(11):1043–7. [PubMed: 27371708]
52. Fagundes CP, Glaser R, Kiecolt-Glaser JK. Stressful early life experiences and immune dysregulation across the lifespan. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2013; 27(1):8–12. [PubMed: 22771426]
53. Black PH. The inflammatory response is an integral part of the stress response: Implications for atherosclerosis, insulin resistance, type II diabetes and metabolic syndrome X. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2003; 17(5):350–64. [PubMed: 12946657]
54. Miller GE, Borders AE, Crockett AH, et al. Maternal socioeconomic disadvantage is associated with transcriptional indications of greater immune activation and slower tissue maturation in placental biopsies and newborn cord blood. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2017; 64:276–84. [PubMed: 28434870]
55. Gilman SE, Hornig M, Ghassabian A, et al. Socioeconomic disadvantage, gestational immune activity, and neurodevelopment in early childhood. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2017; 114(26):6728–33. [PubMed: 28607066]
56. Wright RJ, Visness CM, Calatroni A, et al. Prenatal maternal stress and cord blood innate and adaptive cytokine responses in an inner-city cohort. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2010; 182(1):25–33. [PubMed: 20194818]
57. Rubin LP. Maternal and pediatric health and disease: integrating biopsychosocial models and epigenetics. *Pediatr Res.* 2016; 79(1–2):127–35. [PubMed: 26484619]
58. Burris HH, Baccarelli AA, Wright RO, et al. Epigenetics: linking social and environmental exposures to preterm birth. *Pediatr Res.* 2016; 79(1–2):136–40. [PubMed: 26460521]
59. Kundakovic M, Champagne FA. Early-life experience, epigenetics, and the developing brain. *Neuropsychopharmacology.* 2015; 40(1):141–53. [PubMed: 24917200]
60. Brody GH, Stoneman Z, Flor D, et al. Financial resources, parent psychological functioning, parent co-caregiving, and early adolescent competence in rural two-parent African-American families. *Child development.* 1994; 65(2 Spec):590–605. [PubMed: 8013241]
61. McEwen BS, Wingfield JC. What is in a name? Integrating homeostasis, allostasis and stress. *Hormones and behavior.* 2010; 57(2):105–11. [PubMed: 19786032]
62. Wise PH. Child Poverty and the Promise of Human Capacity: Childhood as a Foundation for Healthy Aging. *Academic pediatrics.* 2016; 16(3 Suppl):S37–45. [PubMed: 27044700]
63. Gruenewald TL, Karlamangla AS, Hu P, et al. History of socioeconomic disadvantage and allostatic load in later life. *Soc Sci Med.* 2012; 74(1):75–83. [PubMed: 22115943]
64. Deak T, Quinn M, Cidlowski JA, et al. Neuroimmune mechanisms of stress: sex differences, developmental plasticity, and implications for pharmacotherapy of stress-related disease. *Stress.* 2015; 18(4):367–80. [PubMed: 26176590]
65. Slopen N, Loucks EB, Appleton AA, et al. Early origins of inflammation: An examination of prenatal and childhood social adversity in a prospective cohort study. *Psychoneuroendocrinology.* 2015; 51:403–13. [PubMed: 25462912]
66. McEwen BS, Morrison JH. The brain on stress: vulnerability and plasticity of the prefrontal cortex over the life course. *Neuron.* 2013; 79(1):16–29. [PubMed: 23849196]
67. Hair NL, Hanson JL, Wolfe BL, et al. Association of Child Poverty, Brain Development, and Academic Achievement. *JAMA pediatrics.* 2015; 169(9):822–9. [PubMed: 26192216]
68. Bell ML, Ebisu K. Environmental inequality in exposures to airborne particulate matter components in the United States. *Environ Health Perspect.* 2012; 120(12):1699–704. [PubMed: 22889745]
69. Balazs CL, Morello-Frosch R, Hubbard AE, et al. Environmental justice implications of arsenic contamination in California’s San Joaquin Valley: a cross-sectional, cluster-design examining exposure and compliance in community drinking water systems. *Environmental health: a global access science source.* 2012; 11:84. [PubMed: 23151087]

70. Evans GW, Kim P. Multiple risk exposure as a potential explanatory mechanism for the socioeconomic status-health gradient. *Ann NY Acad Sci.* 2010; 1186:174–89. [PubMed: 20201873]
71. Grandjean P, Landrigan PJ. Neurobehavioural effects of developmental toxicity. *Lancet Neurol.* 2014; 13(3):330–8. [PubMed: 24556010]
72. Duncan GJ, Magnuson K, Votruba-Drzal E. Moving Beyond Correlations in Assessing the Consequences of Poverty. *Annu Rev Psychol.* 2017; 68:413–34. [PubMed: 27648987]
73. Merz EC, Harle KM, Noble KG, et al. Executive Function in Previously Institutionalized Children. *Child development perspectives.* 2016; 10(2):105–10. [PubMed: 27528884]
74. McEwen BS, Nasca C, Gray JD. Stress Effects on Neuronal Structure: Hippocampus, Amygdala, and Prefrontal Cortex. *Neuropsychopharmacology.* 2016; 41(1):3–23. [PubMed: 26076834]
75. O'Donnell KJ, Glover V, Barker ED, et al. The persisting effect of maternal mood in pregnancy on childhood psychopathology. *Development and psychopathology.* 2014; 26(2):393–403. [PubMed: 24621564]
76. O'Donnell K, O'Connor TG, Glover V. Prenatal stress and neurodevelopment of the child: focus on the HPA axis and role of the placenta. *Dev Neurosci.* 2009; 31(4):285–92. [PubMed: 19546565]
77. Fatima M, Srivastav S, Mondal AC. Prenatal stress and depression associated neuronal development in neonates. *Int J Dev Neurosci.* 2017; 60:1–7. [PubMed: 28389369]
78. Ostlund BD, Conratt E, Crowell SE, et al. Prenatal Stress, Fearfulness, and the Epigenome: Exploratory Analysis of Sex Differences in DNA Methylation of the Glucocorticoid Receptor Gene. *Frontiers in behavioral neuroscience.* 2016; 10:147. [PubMed: 27462209]
79. Scheinost D, Kwon SH, Lacadie C, et al. Prenatal stress alters amygdala functional connectivity in preterm neonates. *NeuroImage Clinical.* 2016; 12:381–8. [PubMed: 27622134]
80. Lundequist A, Bohm B, Lagercrantz H, et al. Cognitive outcome varies in adolescents born preterm, depending on gestational age, intrauterine growth and neonatal complications. *Acta Paediatr.* 2015; 104(3):292–9. [PubMed: 25394225]
81. Urben S, Van Hanswijck De Jonge L, Barisnikov K, et al. [Formula: see text]Gestational age and gender influence on executive control and its related neural structures in preterm-born children at 6 years of age. *Child neuropsychology: a journal on normal and abnormal development in childhood and adolescence.* 2017; 23(2):188–207. [PubMed: 26493779]
82. Luciana M, Lindeke L, Georgieff M, et al. Neurobehavioral evidence for working-memory deficits in school-aged children with histories of prematurity. *Dev Med Child Neurol.* 1999; 41(8):521–33. [PubMed: 10479041]
83. Reichardt LF. Neurotrophin-regulated signalling pathways. *Philosophical transactions of the Royal Society of London Series B, Biological sciences.* 2006; 361(1473):1545–64. [PubMed: 16939974]
84. Li J, McDonald CA, Fahey MC, et al. Could cord blood cell therapy reduce preterm brain injury? *Frontiers in neurology.* 2014; 5:200. [PubMed: 25346720]
85. Chew LJ, DeBoy CA. Pharmacological approaches to intervention in hypomyelinating and demyelinating white matter pathology. *Neuropharmacology.* 2016; 110(Pt B):605–25. [PubMed: 26116759]
86. Leviton A, Fichorova R, Yamamoto Y, et al. Inflammation-related proteins in the blood of extremely low gestational age newborns. The contribution of inflammation to the appearance of developmental regulation. *Cytokine.* 2011; 53(1):66–73. [PubMed: 20934883]
87. Leviton A, Blair E, Dammann O, et al. The wealth of information conveyed by gestational age. *J Pediatr.* 2005; 146(1):123–7. [PubMed: 15644836]
88. Taylor HG, Klein N, Drotar D, et al. Consequences and risks of <1000-g birth weight for neuropsychological skills, achievement, and adaptive functioning. *J Dev Behav Pediatr.* 2006; 27(6):459–69. [PubMed: 17164618]
89. Bright HR, Babata K, Allred EN, et al. Neurocognitive Outcomes at 10 Years of Age in Extremely Preterm Newborns with Late-Onset Bacteremia. *J Pediatr.* 2017; 187:43–9.e1. [PubMed: 28526224]
90. Taylor HG, Filipek PA, Juranek J, et al. Brain volumes in adolescents with very low birth weight: effects on brain structure and associations with neuropsychological outcomes. *Developmental neuropsychology.* 2011; 36(1):96–117. [PubMed: 21253993]

91. Skranes J, Lohaugen GC, Evensen KA, et al. Entorhinal cortical thinning affects perceptual and cognitive functions in adolescents born preterm with very low birth weight (VLBW). *Early Hum Dev.* 2012; 88(2):103–9. [PubMed: 21839590]
92. Scott FE, Mechelli A, Allin MP, et al. Very preterm adolescents show gender-dependent alteration of the structural brain correlates of spelling abilities. *Neuropsychologia.* 2011; 49(9):2685–93. [PubMed: 21651922]
93. Feldman HM, Lee ES, Yeatman JD, et al. Language and reading skills in school-aged children and adolescents born preterm are associated with white matter properties on diffusion tensor imaging. *Neuropsychologia.* 2012; 50(14):3348–62. [PubMed: 23088817]
94. Pogribna U, Burson K, Lasky RE, et al. Role of diffusion tensor imaging as an independent predictor of cognitive and language development in extremely low-birth-weight infants. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol.* 2014; 35(4):790–6. [PubMed: 24052505]
95. Cheong JL, Anderson PJ, Roberts G, et al. Contribution of brain size to IQ and educational underperformance in extremely preterm adolescents. *PLoS ONE.* 2013; 8(10):e77475. [PubMed: 24130887]
96. Anderson PJ, Treyvaud K, Neil JJ, et al. Associations of Newborn Brain Magnetic Resonance Imaging with Long-term Neurodevelopmental Impairments in Very Preterm Children. *J Pediatr.* 2017
97. Dean JM, Bennet L, Back SA, et al. What brakes the preterm brain? An arresting story. *Pediatr Res.* 2014; 75(1–2):227–33. [PubMed: 24336432]
98. Travis KE, Leitner Y, Feldman HM, et al. Cerebellar white matter pathways are associated with reading skills in children and adolescents. *Human brain mapping.* 2015; 36(4):1536–53. [PubMed: 25504986]
99. Martin A, Schurz M, Kronbichler M, et al. Reading in the brain of children and adults: a Meta-analysis of 40 functional magnetic resonance imaging studies. *Human brain mapping.* 2015; 36(5):1963–81. [PubMed: 25628041]
100. Moriguchi Y, Hiraki K. Prefrontal cortex and executive function in young children: a review of NIRS studies. *Frontiers in human neuroscience.* 2013; 7:867. [PubMed: 24381551]
101. Favrais G, van de Looij Y, Fleiss B, et al. Systemic inflammation disrupts the developmental program of white matter. *Ann Neurol.* 2011; 70(4):550–65. [PubMed: 21796662]
102. Glass HC, Bonifacio SL, Chau V, et al. Recurrent postnatal infections are associated with progressive white matter injury in premature infants. *Pediatrics.* 2008; 122(2):299–305. [PubMed: 18676547]
103. Anblagan D, Pataky R, Evans MJ, et al. Association between preterm brain injury and exposure to chorioamnionitis during fetal life. *Scientific reports.* 2016; 6:37932. [PubMed: 27905410]
104. Dean JM, Shi Z, Fleiss B, et al. A Critical Review of Models of Perinatal Infection. *Dev Neurosci.* 2015; 37(4–5):289–304. [PubMed: 25720344]
105. Kalpakidou AK, Allin MP, Walshe M, et al. Functional neuroanatomy of executive function after neonatal brain injury in adults who were born very preterm. *PLoS ONE.* 2014; 9(12):e113975. [PubMed: 25438043]
106. Ostensen ME, Skomsvoll JF. Anti-inflammatory pharmacotherapy during pregnancy. *Expert opinion on pharmacotherapy.* 2004; 5(3):571–80. [PubMed: 15013926]
107. Crowther CA, Middleton PF, Voysey M, et al. Assessing the neuroprotective benefits for babies of antenatal magnesium sulphate: An individual participant data Meta-analysis. *PLoS Med.* 2017; 14(10):e1002398. [PubMed: 28976987]
108. Dowling O, Chatterjee PK, Gupta M, et al. Magnesium sulfate reduces bacterial LPS-induced inflammation at the maternal-fetal interface. *Placenta.* 2012; 33(5):392–8. [PubMed: 22341339]
109. Amash A, Holberg G, Sheiner E, et al. Magnesium sulfate normalizes placental interleukin-6 secretion in preeclampsia. *Journal of interferon & cytokine research: the official journal of the International Society for Interferon and Cytokine Research.* 2010; 30(9):683–90.
110. Leviton A, Allred EN, Yamamoto H, et al. Antecedents and correlates of blood concentrations of neurotrophic growth factors in very preterm newborns. *Cytokine (under review).* 2017; 94:21–8.

111. McElrath TF, Allred EN, Van Marter L, et al. Perinatal systemic inflammatory responses of growth-restricted preterm newborns. *Acta Paediatr.* 2013; 102(10):e439–42. [PubMed: 23819682]
112. Leviton A, Fichorova RN, O’Shea TM, et al. Two-hit model of brain damage in the very preterm newborn: small for gestational age and postnatal systemic inflammation. *Pediatr Res.* 2013; 73(3):362–70. [PubMed: 23364171]
113. McQuillen PS, Ferriero DM. Selective vulnerability in the developing central nervous system. *Pediatr Neurol.* 2004; 30(4):227–35. [PubMed: 15087099]
114. Hagberg H, Mallard C. Effect of inflammation on central nervous system development and vulnerability. *Curr Opin Neurol.* 2005; 18(2):117–23. [PubMed: 15791140]
115. Oka A, Belliveau MJ, Rosenberg PA, et al. Vulnerability of oligodendroglia to glutamate: pharmacology, mechanisms, and prevention. *J Neurosci.* 1993; 13(4):1441–53. [PubMed: 8096541]
116. Gillespie CF, Phifer J, Bradley B, et al. Risk and resilience: genetic and environmental influences on development of the stress response. *Depression and anxiety.* 2009; 26(11):984–92. [PubMed: 19750552]
117. Hagberg H, Mallard C, Ferriero DM, et al. The role of inflammation in perinatal brain injury. *Nat Rev Neurol.* 2015; 11(4):192–208. [PubMed: 25686754]
118. Montagna A, Nosarti C. Socio-Emotional Development Following Very Preterm Birth: Pathways to Psychopathology. *Frontiers in psychology.* 2016; 7:80. [PubMed: 26903895]
119. Daskalakis NP, Bagot RC, Parker KJ, et al. The three-hit concept of vulnerability and resilience: toward understanding adaptation to Early-life adversity outcome. *Psychoneuroendocrinology.* 2013; 38(9):1858–73. [PubMed: 23838101]
120. Ragland DR. Dichotomizing continuous outcome variables: dependence of the magnitude of association and statistical power on the cutpoint. *Epidemiology.* 1992; 3(5):434–40. [PubMed: 1391136]
121. Treit S, Chen Z, Rasmussen C, et al. White matter correlates of cognitive inhibition during development: a diffusion tensor imaging study. *Neuroscience.* 2014; 276:87–97. [PubMed: 24355493]
122. Rigoli D, Piek JP, Kane R, et al. An examination of the relationship between motor coordination and executive functions in adolescents. *Dev Med Child Neurol.* 2012; 54(11):1025–31. [PubMed: 22845862]
123. Braveman P, Gottlieb L. The social determinants of health: it’s time to consider the causes of the causes. *Public Health Rep.* 2014; 129(Suppl 2):19–31.
124. Melchior M, Moffitt TE, Milne BJ, et al. Why do children from socioeconomically disadvantaged families suffer from poor health when they reach adulthood? A life-course study. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2007; 166(8):966–74. [PubMed: 17641151]
125. Moncayo R, Ortner K. Multifactorial determinants of cognition - Thyroid function is not the only one. *BBA clinical.* 2015; 3:289–98. [PubMed: 26672993]
126. Philippe P, Mansi O. Nonlinearity in the epidemiology of complex health and disease processes. *Theoretical medicine and bioethics.* 1998; 19(6):591–607. [PubMed: 10051792]
127. Logan JW, O’Shea TM, Allred EN, et al. Early Postnatal Hypotension and Developmental Delay at 24 Months of Age among Extremely Low Gestational Age Newborns. *Archives of Disease in Childhood.* 2011
128. Helderman JB, O’Shea TM, Goldstein DJ, et al. Antenatal antecedents of low scores on the Bayley Scales of Infant Development at 24 months among children born before the 28th post-menstrual week. The ELGAN Study. *Pediatrics.* 2012; 129(3):494–502. [PubMed: 22331342]
129. Streimish IG, Ehrenkranz RA, Allred EN, et al. Birth weight- and fetal weight-growth restriction: Impact on neurodevelopment. *Early Hum Dev.* 2012; 88(9):765–71. [PubMed: 22732241]
130. Yanni D, Korzeniewski S, Allred EN, et al. Both antenatal and postnatal inflammation contribute information about the risk of brain damage in extremely preterm newborns. *Pediatr Res.* 2017; 82(4):691–6. [PubMed: 28549057]

131. O'Shea TM, Allred EN, Kuban K, et al. Elevated concentrations of inflammation-related proteins in postnatal blood predict severe developmental delay at two years in extremely premature infants. *J Pediatr.* 2012; 160(3):395–401.e4. [PubMed: 22000304]
132. Arnold CC, Kramer MS, Hobbs CA, et al. Very low birth weight: a problematic cohort for epidemiologic studies of very small or immature neonates. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1991; 134(6):604–13. [PubMed: 1951265]

What is known

Very little is known about the antecedents of executive dysfunctions in children born at an extremely low gestational age.

What this study adds

This study confirms that socioeconomic disadvantage and immaturity are important risk factors for these dysfunctions. It also suggests that inflammation, both antenatal and postnatal, might also be important.

Table 1

Sample description

| | Yes | No |
|---|------|-----|
| Enrolled | 1506 | |
| Returned for an assessment at age 10 years | 889 | |
| DAS-II IQ ≥ 70 | 739 | |
| All relevant assessments completed | 716 | |
| Working memory (WM) Z-score ≥ -1 | 169 | 547 |
| Inhibition-Inhibition (I-Inhib) Z-score ≥ -1 | 360 | 356 |
| Inhibition-Switching (I-Switch) Z-score ≥ -1 | 355 | 361 |
| Z-score ≥ -1 on all 3: WM, I-Inhib, I-Switch | 107 | 609 |

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Table 2

Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for the association of each learning limitation with the antecedents listed on the left. These are based on a time oriented logistic regression model that added variables sequentially as they were identified. Earlier occurring variables could not be displaced. The selection of variables to offer the model is based on what was seen in earlier tables. Children with each of the learning limitations are compared to the same referent group of children who did not have that learning limitation.

| A. Working Memory (WM) | | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| | Socioeconomic | Socioeconomic & Pregnancy | Socioeconomic, Pregnancy & Early postnatal |
| Socioeconomic | | | |
| Black identification | 2.1 (1.4, 3.1) | 2.1 (1.4, 3.1) | 1.9 (1.3, 2.9) |
| Single marital status | 2.0 (1.3, 2.9) | 2.0 (1.3, 2.9) | 1.9 (1.3, 2.9) |
| Pregnancy | | | |
| Nothing | | ----- | ----- |
| Early postnatal | | | |
| SNAPPE-II 45+ | | | 1.8 (1.2, 2.7) |

| B. Inhibition-Inhibition (I-Inhib) | | | |
|---|----------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| | Socioeconomic | Socioeconomic & Pregnancy | Socioeconomic, Pregnancy & Early postnatal |
| Socioeconomic | | | |
| Maternal education 12 years | 1.7 (1.2, 2.3) | 1.6 (1.2, 2.2) | 1.6 (1.2, 2.2) |
| Pregnancy | | | |
| NSAID during pregnancy | | 2.2 (1.2, 4.1) | 2.1 (1.1, 3.9) |
| Chorionic plate inflammation | | 1.5 (1.03, 2.3) | 1.5 (1.02, 2.3) |
| No magnesium sulfate | | 1.7 (1.2, 2.3) | 1.7 (1.2, 2.4) |
| Early postnatal | | | |
| Birth weight 750 grams | | | 1.5 (1.1, 2.1) |

| C. Inhibition-Switching (I-Switch) | | | |
|---|----------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| | Socioeconomic | Socioeconomic & Pregnancy | Socioeconomic, Pregnancy & Early postnatal |
| Socioeconomic | | | |
| Black race | 2.4 (1.6, 3.6) | 2.4 (1.6, 3.6) | 2.8 (1.8, 4.5) |
| Maternal education 12 years | 1.4 (1.03, 2.1) | 1.4 (1.03, 2.1) | 1.0 (0.7, 1.6) |
| Single marital status | 1.6 (1.1, 2.2) | 1.6 (1.1, 2.2) | 1.9 (1.2, 2.8) |
| Pregnancy | | | |
| Nothing | | ----- | ----- |
| Early postnatal | | | |
| Highest Q highest $P_aO_2^*$ | | | 2.0 (1.3, 3.1) |
| Highest Q highest PCO_2^* | | | 2.1 (1.4, 3.2) |
| Mech ventilation, day 21 ^{MV} | | | 1.8 (1.2, 2.5) |

| D. Executive Dysfunction composite (All) | | | |
|---|----------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| | Socioeconomic | Socioeconomic & Pregnancy | Socioeconomic, Pregnancy & Early postnatal |
| Socioeconomic | | | |
| Eligible for public insurance | 2.2 (1.4, 3.3) | 2.2 (1.4, 3.3) | 2.2 (1.4, 3.3) |
| Pregnancy | | | |
| Nothing | | ---- | ---- |
| Early postnatal | | | |
| Nothing | | | ---- |

* Extreme quartile for gestational age on two of the first three postnatal days

MV Includes conventional mechanical ventilation and high frequency ventilation

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Table 3

Single table summary of the four parts of Table 2

| | Antenatal | Pregnancy | Early Postnatal |
|---|-------------------|------------------|------------------------|
| Low socioeconomic status | | | |
| Black | WM, I-Switch | | |
| Single marital status | WM, I-Switch | | |
| Maternal education < 12 years | I-Inhib, I-Switch | | |
| Public insurance | All | | |
| Inflammation | | | |
| NSAID during pregnancy | | I-Inhib | |
| Chorionic plate inflammation | | I-Inhib | |
| No magnesium sulfate | | I-Inhib | |
| Mechanical ventilation, day 21 | | | I-Switch |
| Immaturity | | | |
| Birth weight < 750 grams | | | I-Inhib |
| SNAP-PE 45+ | | | WM |
| Highest Q P _a O ₂ * | | | I-Switch |
| Highest Q PCO ₂ | | | I-Switch |
| Mechanical ventilation, day 21 | | | I-Switch |
| Fetal growth restriction | | | |
| Mechanical ventilation, day 21 | | | I-Switch |