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Review Article

Understanding precocious puberty management and diagnosis: a review

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ABSTRACT

The precocious puberty (PP) typically defined as the onset of secondary sexual characteristics prior to the age of 8 years in females and 9 years in males. The retrospective studies proved that the rate of PP significantly elevated in last few decades. This can be the result of early activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis or due to autonomous production of sex steroids, independent of gonadotropin stimulation. The central precocious puberty is more common and is gonadotropin-dependent, whereas peripheral precocious puberty is gonadotropin-independent. Precocious puberty is associated with several challenges, including accelerated secondary sexual transformation, reduced adult height, psychosocial disturbances, and increased risk of certain malignancies. Recent years have witnessed a growing interest in understanding the genetic, environmental, and metabolic underpinnings of this condition, especially with the rising global incidence. In this review, we discuss the mechanism of precocious puberty and explore the epidemiology, etiology, clinical presentation, diagnostic workup, and management of PP, with a focus on recent advances in therapy and molecular insights. A multidisciplinary approach is essential to optimize outcomes and ensure psychological well-being.

Keywords: Precocious puberty, Central precocious puberty, Peripheral precocious puberty, Thelarche, Pubarche

INTRODUCTION

Puberty is the process of natural transition of child's body to mature adult body which is capable of sexual reproduction. Pubertal progression is modulated by the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis by various neurotransmitters that up or down regulate gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) secretion.

Throughout the childhood HPG axis stays dormant, but puberty begins as the dormancy lifts due to decreased central inhibition and heightened stimulatory signals. Reactivation triggers pulsatile GnRH secretion, prompting the anterior pituitary to release luteinizing hormone (LH). Then LH drives ovarian and testicular production of sex steroids—primarily estrogen and testosterone—resulting in the emergence of secondary sexual features in children.

This involves the pulsatile release of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH), leading to the secretion of luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), which in turn stimulate the gonads to produce sex steroids—estrogen in females and testosterone in males.[1] This neuroendocrine condition which stimulate the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis, comprises the following: gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) from the hypothalamus;

gonadotropins from the pituitary {luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH)}; and gonadal steroids (testosterone, estradiol, progesterone) and peptides (activins, kisspeptin, oxytocin), which are induced by pituitary gonadotropins.[2] The normal age range of puberty onset is between 8-13 years for the girls and 9-14 years in the boys. PP has profound clinical implications. Moreover, studies have shown that early exposure to sex hormones may play a role to increase the risk of hormone-related malignancies later in life.[3] During the last few decades, there have been studies which clearly show a trend may be ascribed to improved nutritional status, environmental endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs), obesity, and sociocultural factors. This makes timely diagnosis and management of PP increasingly relevant in modern clinical practice.[4,5] In the retrospective cohort studies showed that global prevalence of precocious puberty in different countries, with respect to body mass index, and also in year before 2000 to later 2010 among the children (Figure 1).

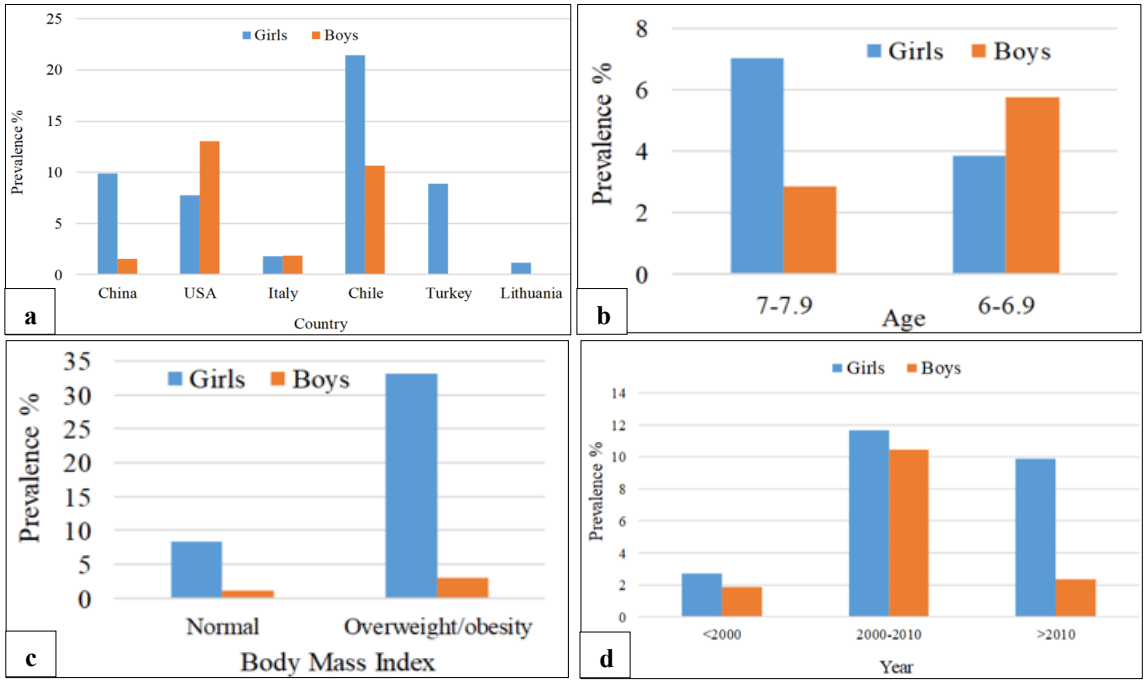

Figure 1: This figure depicts the precocious puberty prevalence in percentage (a) country wise, (b) age, (c) body mass index, and (d) in 10 years.

REVIEW

First case report published in 1832 by J. Le. Beau and TEC. Jr in which they mentioned girl started menses at the age of 3 years.[6] Later thelarche reported in 1960s in young girls by Van Wyk and Grumbach.[7] The retrospective studies on early puberty showed that this precocious puberty are of two types: GnRH dependent (central precocious puberty) and GnRH independent (peripheral precocious puberty). Diagnosis should be based not just on morphological appearance but also on hormonal evidence and growth parameters.[8] The etiology for precocious puberty mentioned in Table 1.

Central precocious puberty is gonadotropin-dependent and is defined as early activation of HPG axis, this results the early development of secondary sexual characteristics. CPP is commonly found in girls and is idiopathic in up to 90% of cases.[9,10] However, in boys it is more likely to have an identifiable cause such as a central nervous system (CNS) lesion or genetic mutation.[11] There are various factors leading to CPP such as idiopathic (especially in girls), CNS tumors (e.g., hypothalamic hamartoma, astrocytoma, glioma), CNS insults (e.g., trauma, infection, radiation, hydrocephalus), congenital anomalies (e.g., septo-optic dysplasia) and genetic mutations (MKRN3 or DLK1 gene).[11-16] CPP typically progresses in the same pattern as normal puberty but at an earlier age, with breast development in girls or testicular enlargement in boys being the first signs.

PPP results from excessive secretion of sex steroids from the gonads or adrenal glands. The PPP is independent of HPG axis activation and gonadotropin secretion. The LH and FSH levels are usually low or pre-pubertal, and the condition does not respond to GnRH stimulation.[17] The mostly PPP is found in girls due to functioning follicular cyst which secretes estrogen and results in premature breast development. Overproduction of estrogen in Granulosa tumors which leads to iso-sexual precocious puberty in girls.[18] High secretion of androgen (testosterone) from Leydig cell tumors which presents with contrasexual PP and causes asymmetric enlargement of testis in boys.[18] The McCune-Albright syndrome is a rare condition found in girls which is due to polyostotic fibrous dysplasia.

Table 1: The etiologies underlying precocious puberty.

Central precocious puberty	Peripheral precocious puberty	Incomplete precocious puberty
Idiopathic; CNS pathology/lesion; hypothalamic hamartoma; tumors (astrocytoma, and glioma); congenital-hydrocephalus, arachnoidcysts, meningo-myelocele; acquired-CNS irradiation, trauma, infection; international adoption; secondary to peripheral precocious puberty	Ovarian causes-estrogen secreting tumors (granulosa cell tumor) androgen secreting tumors (arrhenoblastoma, sertoli-leydig cell tumors); adrenal causes-adrenal tumors, congenital adrenal hyperplasia, Cushings syndrome; McCune Albright syndrome (MAS); longstandin hypothyroidism; exogenous steroids-OCP's, anabolic steroids, facial creams	Premature thelarche; premature adrenarche

Not all early pubertal signs are pathological; many represent benign variants of normal adolescent development. Premature thelarche defines isolated breast development in girls at 2 years of age. The early appearance of pubic or axillary hair, body odor, and acne due to adrenal androgens is known as premature adrenarche. However, premature menarche is rare, and often mistaken for vaginal bleeding from other causes. These conditions usually do not progress to full puberty and may require only observation and reassurance.[19]

EPIDEMIOLOGY

In the past century, early puberty has started in the worldwide. Since 1977 to 2013, the previous studies showed that the age of breast development dropped by about 3 months per decade. The study performed in schoolgirls of southern Thailand showed thelarche and menarche ages decreasing by 0.2 and 0.3 years, respectively, between 1994 and 2012.[20] The global incidence of PP varies widely due to differences in diagnostic criteria, environmental exposures, and genetic predispositions. However, previous studies report that girls are affected far more commonly than boys, with a female-to-male ratio of 10:1 or higher.[21]

A cohort study in Denmark estimated the incidence of CPP in girls to be approximately 23 per 100,000 person-years, while the incidence in boys was significantly lower. Other study in United States of America done by the Pediatric Research in Office Settings network found that thelarche (breast budding) occurred before the age of 8 years in 15% of white girls, 27% of Hispanic girls, and approx. 50% of African-American girls.[22] Moreover, COVID-19-related lifestyle changes have been associated with increased cases of PP, potentially due to stress, increased screen time, disrupted sleep patterns, and weight gain.[23]

In previous research has suggested that genetic predisposition plays a significant role in precocious puberty, the girls whose mothers had early menarche they experience early puberty themselves. There are various genes involved to cause early puberty, the few of them mentioned in the Table 2.[24] Mutation in MKRN3, is reported monogenic cause of familial CPP. This gene acts as an inhibitor of GnRH secretion, and loss-of-function mutations lead to its premature activation. Another gene is DLK1, mutation in this gene contribute to early puberty. Whereas, KISS1/KISS1R gene mutations, affecting kisspeptin signaling which regulates GnRH release.[16] The DLK1 gene have inhibitory role in release of GnRH, in response to loss of function of this gene cause early precocious puberty. The functional loss of GABRA1 gene and polymorphism of NPYR1, TAC3 and TACR3 cause precocious puberty in children at early age.

EFFECT OF ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS ON PRECOCIOUS PUBERTY

Exposure to endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs) such as bisphenol A (BPA), phthalates, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), and pesticides is a growing concern in the pathogenesis of early puberty. These EDCs are commonly found in our day-to-day life, like in plastics, cosmetics, food packaging.[25] There are multiple studies that demonstrated higher BPA levels in PP children compared to healthy controls.[26] EDCs are chemicals which is present in the environment either be natural or synthetic. Few of them are mentioned in the Table 3.[53] Endocrine disruptors mimic like hormones therefore it affects the endocrine system in agonist or antagonist manner also categorize according to their mechanism of action. The anti-estrogenic and androgenic effects produced by EDs which further inhibit the enzymatic activity of aromatase and steroidogenic enzymes. Classification of endocrine disruptors according to their mechanism of action is presented in Table 4.[53]

Obesity is one of the most complex public health crisis and modifiable risk factors for early puberty in girls. Adipose tissue increases the availability of leptin, insulin, and sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG), influencing the HPG axis.[27] A longitudinal study from the U.S. observed that higher childhood BMI predicted earlier pubertal development in girls. Interestingly, the effect of obesity on boys is less consistent, with some studies showing delayed puberty and others suggesting acceleration.[27,28] The girls with PP are likely to experience chronic psychosocial stress, including family conflict, sexual abuse, depression and behavioral disorders. Previous studies have evaluated the psychological condition of girls with early puberty and their mothers. These stressors may influence the hypothalamic regulatory circuits involved in reproductive development.[29]

Table 2: The genes associated to precocious puberty.[24]

Gene	Protein	Mechanism of action	Relation to PP
KISS1	Kisspeptin	Kisspeptin which binds to KISS1 receptor is related to pulsatile gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) release	Gain of expression in KISS1 can lead to CPP
KISS1R	KISS1 receptor	KISS1 receptor, G-protein-coupled receptor that binds to kisspeptin is related to pulsatile GnRH release	Gain-of-function mutation in KISS1R can lead to CPP
MKRN3	MKRN3	MKRN3 plays a role in ubiquitination which means intracellular degradation that is related to intracellular degradation	Loss-of-function mutation in MKRN3 can lead to CPP
DLK1	Delta-like homolog 1	DLK1 plays an inhibitory role in GnRH release via inhibiting Notch signaling which needs to kisspeptin secretion	Loss-of-function mutation in DLK1 can lead to CPP
GABRA1	Gamma amino butyric acid A1 receptor α-1 subunit	GABA-A receptor α-1 subunit that binds to GABA may inhibit GnRH release	Loss-of-function mutations or polymorphisms in GABRA1 might be related to CPP
LIN28B	Lin 28 homolog B	Unknown, Homolog of C. elegans protein may play in GnRH secretion	Polymorphism in may be related to CPP
NPYR1	Neuropeptide Y (NPY)	NPY receptor 1 that binds NYP may have an inhibitory effect on GnRH pulse generator activity	NPYR1 mutation or polymer-phism may be related to CPP
TAC3	Neurokinin B (NKB)	NKB that binds to Neurokinin receptor 3 may play a role in GnRH release	TAC3 mutation or polymorphism may be related to CPP
TACR3	Neurokinin receptor	Neurokinin receptors, which is G protein-coupled receptor that bind to neurokinin B may play a role in GnRH release	TACR3 mutation or polymorphism may be related to CPP

DLK1: delta-like homolog 1 gene; GABRA1: gamma-aminobutyric acid receptor subunit alpha 1 gene; KISS1: kisspeptin gene; KISS1R: kisspeptin receptor gene; LIN28B: lin-28 homolog B gene; MKRN3: makorin ring finger protein 3 gene; NPYR: neuropeptide Y gene; TAC3: tachykinin 3 gene; TACR3: tachykinin receptor 3 gene; GABA: gamma-aminobutyric acid

Table 3: Chemicals of major endocrine disruptors.[53]

S. no.	Compounds	Class of compound
1	**Phthalates**	Diethylhexyl phthalate, butyl benzyl phthalate, di-n butyl phthalate, di-hexyl phthalate, di-propyl phthalate, dichloro hexyl phthalate, diethyl phthalate.
2	**Pesticides**	Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT), methoxychlor, endosulfan, 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid, alachlor, aldicarb, amitrol, atrazine, benomyl, dibromo chloropropane, carbaryl, chlordane, ethyl parathion, heptachlor, kepone, ketoconazole, lindane, methomyl, permethrin, malathion, trifluralin, vinclozolin
3	**Industrial products**	Bisphenol A, polybrominated biphenyls
4	**Phytoestrogens**	Daidzein, genistein, formononetin, biochanin-A, prunetin, pratensein, glycitein, equol, desmetilangolestin, enterolactone, enterodiol, matairesinol, zearalenone
5	**Organohalogens**	Dioxins, furans, polychlorinated biphenyls, hexachlorobenzene, pentachlorophenol
6	**Heavy metals**	Arsenic, cadmium, uranium, lead, mercury

Table 4: Classification of some of endocrine disruptors according to their mechanism of action.

S. no.	Compounds	Mechanism of action
1	Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) and its metabolites, Methoxychlor, Methoprene, Phytoestrogens (in high concentrations), Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), Bisphenol A, Endosulfan, Dioxins	Estrogenic
2	Phytoestrogens (in low concentrations)	Antiestrogenic
3	Phthalates, Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) Vinclozolin	Antiandrogenic
4	Testosterone, Trenbolone acetate	Androgenic

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS

The salient features of PP are the early development of breast or menstruation in girls and enlargement of testis in boys. The specific presentation depends on the sex of the child and whether the condition is CPP or PPP.

In girls

In girls, thelarche (breast development) is typically the first sign, followed by pubarche (pubic hair), growth acceleration, and eventually menarche (menstruation). These changes mirror normal puberty but occur earlier.

Common clinical features are breast development before age, rapid linear growth and advanced bone age, appearance of pubic and axillary hair, body odor, acne, mood swings, early menstruation (usually a later sign). In PPP, isolated vaginal bleeding or premature breast development without growth acceleration may be observed, especially in cases of ovarian cysts or tumors.[30]

In boys

Boys with CPP typically present with testicular enlargement (first sign of true CPP), increased penile length, pubic and facial hair, acne, voice deepening, accelerated growth and skeletal maturation.

Boys with PPP (e.g., due to testotoxicosis or adrenal tumors) may present with penile enlargement without testicular growth, which helps differentiate PPP from CPP.[31]

Psychosocial impact

Early puberty is associated with considerable emotional and psychological challenges, especially in girls. These may include poor self-image, anxiety and depression, risky behavior due to early maturation, bullying or social isolation.

These effects may persist into adulthood and underscore the importance of timely diagnosis and support.[29]

Diagnostic evaluation of precocious puberty

The diagnosis of PP requires clinical evaluation to differentiate between CPP and PPP, and to identify the underlying etiology, which may range from idiopathic causes to specific genetic syndromes or brain lesions. Early diagnosis is crucial to assess the need for medical intervention and to provide appropriate management strategies.[11,13]

The clinician should obtain information regarding the age of onset of pubertal signs, the pattern of development of secondary sexual characteristics, and any family history of early puberty. A detailed history should also assess for the presence of associated systemic symptoms, including headaches, visual disturbances, or neurological abnormalities, which may point to underlying CNS lesions.[32]

The hallmark sign of PP in girls is the early appearance of thelarche, followed by pubarche. The onset of menarche before the age of 8 years is also indicative of advanced puberty. In boys, testicular enlargement is typically the first sign, followed by the development of pubic hair and changes in voice.

The physical examination should assess the degree of pubertal development using established scales, such as Tanner staging, to evaluate breast development, pubic hair, and genital enlargement in both genders.[33]

LABORATORY INVESTIGATIONS

Hormonal testing

Hormonal testing plays a critical role in the diagnostic to evaluate CPP or PPP. The primary investigation of LH, FSH, estradiol (in girls), testosterone (in boys), and GnRH. In CPP, elevated LH and FSH levels in premature secretion of GnRH from the hypothalamus. An exaggerated rise in LH levels following GnRH stimulation supports the diagnosis of CPP. In PPP, the gonadotropins (LH and FSH) remain low or undetectable because the condition is gonadotropin-independent. Elevated estradiol or testosterone levels may be present, but gonadotropin levels are typically suppressed.[34] Thyroid function tests (TSH and free T4) to rule out thyroid disorders, which may sometimes mimic features of PP.[35]

Imaging studies

Brain imaging (MRI or CT scan)

Brain imaging is critical to evaluate for structural CNS lesions that could be responsible for CPP. An MRI of the brain is typically preferred due to its superior resolution for detecting hypothalamic and pituitary abnormalities, including hypothalamic hamartomas, which are one of the most common causes of CPP.[36]

Pelvic and abdominal ultrasound

A pelvic ultrasound is essential for evaluating ovarian or testicular size and structure. In girls an ovarian mass, such as a granulosa cell tumor, should be ruled out. In boys, a testicular ultrasound identifies gonadoblastomas or other gonadal tumors. Additionally, in children with suspected PPP due to adrenal causes, an abdominal ultrasound or CT scan may be used to detect adrenal tumors or hyperplasia.[37]

Bone age assessment

A bone age X-ray of the left hand and wrist is essential for assessing the degree of skeletal maturation in children with

PP. This test helps determine whether the child is experiencing accelerated growth, which is a key indicator of pubertal progression. This can also help estimate the potential for further growth and provide important prognostic information regarding final adult height.[38]

MANAGEMENT AND TREATMENT OF PRECOCIOUS PUBERTY

The treatment of PP depends on the underlying etiology, age, the degree of pubertal advancement, and the potential for long-term impact on growth and psychological well-being.

Central precocious puberty is typically treated with GnRH analogs, which suppress the premature secretion of gonadotropins and halt the progression of puberty. The primary treatment for CPP is the use of GnRH analogs, like leuprolide acetate, triptorelin, and histrelin. These analogs downregulating the pituitary gland's sensitivity to GnRH, which suppress LH and FSH release, thereby halting pubertal development.[11]

PPP depends on the underlying cause of the hormonal excess.

Treatment for gonadal tumors

If a gonadal tumor (e.g., granulosa cell tumor in girls or gonadoblastoma in boys) is identified as the cause of PPP, the primary treatment is surgical removal of the tumor. Following surgery, hormonal levels typically normalize, and pubertal development is halted. The chemotherapy or radiation therapy may be required if the tumor is malignant.[39]

Management of adrenal causes

Due to congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH), steroid replacement therapy (usually with hydrocortisone or fludrocortisone) is the mainstay of treatment. This helps to normalize adrenal hormone production and prevent further virilization. The dose of steroids is carefully titrated to avoid both under- and overtreatment.[40]

SURGICAL OPTIONS

Surgical intervention is reserved for cases of PPP where there is a benign or malignant tumor causing hormone secretion, such as in gonadal tumors or adrenal tumors. In cases of gonadoblastomas or granulosa cell tumors, surgery to remove the tumor is typically recommended. This can prevent further hormonal secretion and correct the pubertal abnormalities.[41]

LONG-TERM OUTCOMES AND PROGNOSIS

Treatment of children's with CPP or PPP have a good prognosis in terms of final adult height and overall health.[34] In growth and bone maturation GnRH analog therapy helps to slow the progression of bone age, thus allowing for continued growth and maximizing adult height potential. In psychosocial impact early pubertal development can have lasting psychological effects, but with appropriate psychological support, most children adapt well over time. Treatment can help ensure that the child enters puberty at a more appropriate age, which often alleviates social and emotional difficulties associated with early maturation.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS IN RESEARCH ON PRECOCIOUS PUBERTY

The management and understanding of PP have advanced significantly over the years. However, several gaps remain in our knowledge of its underlying mechanisms, optimal treatment strategies, and long-term outcomes. Future research in this field should aim to explore these gaps in order to develop more effective and personalized therapies, improve early diagnosis, and address the psychosocial impacts on affected children.[42]

Genetic etiology of CPP

Recent studies have begun to unravel the role of mutations in specific genes associated with the HPG axis, including those involved in GnRH production, gonadotropin secretion, and gonadal steroidogenesis. Exome sequencing and whole-genome approaches may reveal new mutations that predispose children to PP.[43,44]

Epigenetic modifications

Epigenetics, the study of heritable changes in gene expression not involving changes in the DNA sequence, may also play a role in the development of PP. DNA methylation, histone modifications, and non-coding RNAs could affect the timing of puberty by influencing gene expression in key areas such as the hypothalamus and pituitary. Future research into epigenetic mechanisms might offer new therapeutic targets for regulating the onset of puberty.[45]

Advances in diagnostic techniques

Biomarkers for early detection

There is a growing interest in identifying biomarkers that could improve the early diagnosis of PP, allowing for timely interventions. This includes the identification of circulating microRNAs or hormonal biomarkers that may reflect pubertal timing. Research into salivary biomarkers is also promising as it would provide a non-invasive method for detecting changes in puberty-related hormones.[46,47]

Imaging advances

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the hypothalamus and pituitary is increasingly being used to assess children

with PP, especially in cases of neurogenic causes of PP. The utility of advanced MRI techniques, such as functional MRI (fMRI) and diffusion tensor imaging (DTI), to study changes in brain structures associated with early pubertal onset. These advancements could help in differentiating between central and peripheral causes of PP more accurately.[48]

NEW TREATMENT APPROACHES AND DRUG DEVELOPMENT

Targeted therapy for GnRH analog resistance

Some patients do not respond adequately to GnRH analogs. Research into GnRH receptor antagonists or other targeted therapies may offer a more personalized approach for such patients. This would involve developing drugs that more effectively modulate the GnRH receptor activity or the downstream signaling pathways in the pituitary and gonads.[49]

Gene therapy

Gene editing technologies such as CRISPR/Cas9 have shown promise in correcting specific genetic mutations responsible for early onset puberty.

In the future, gene therapy could potentially be applied to target specific mutations or abnormal pathways in the HPG axis, offering a curative treatment option for genetic forms of CPP.[16]

Use of selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs)

For cases of PPP caused by excessive estrogen production (e.g., McCune-Albright syndrome), selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) may offer a promising therapeutic option. These agents can act as antagonists in some tissues and agonists in others, providing a targeted approach to managing estrogen-driven PP without the side effects associated with GnRH analogs.[50]

LONG-TERM OUTCOMES AND MONITORING

Impact on bone health

Early puberty can lead to premature closure of growth plates, which results in a shorter adult height. Research focusing on the bone mineral density in children treated with GnRH analogs and other interventions will provide more clarity on this issue.[51]

Reproductive health

There is a growing interest in understanding how early puberty might affect reproductive health in adulthood. Studies that examine the fertility outcomes and the long-term reproductive health of individuals who underwent treatment for PP will be valuable for providing informed counseling for families.[52]

CONCLUSION

PP is a complex condition with profound physical, psychological, and social effects on children. While advances in understanding its causes, diagnosis, and treatment have been made, challenges remain in optimizing management and improving long-term outcomes. Early diagnosis through advanced genetic and biomarker research is crucial for timely intervention, reducing physical and emotional impacts. Current treatments, particularly GnRH analogs, are effective but have limitations, highlighting the need for more targeted therapies with fewer side effects. Future treatments could leverage gene editing and pharmacogenomics for personalized care.

The psychosocial impact of PP is significant, as affected children often experience emotional distress and social isolation. Addressing these needs through psychological support and evidence-based interventions is vital. Long-term outcomes, particularly concerning bone health, reproductive function, and psychological well-being, require more research to understand the risks and develop strategies to mitigate them.

Integrating multi-omics approaches will deepen our understanding of PP's molecular mechanisms, paving the way for precision medicine. Additionally, a holistic approach to care that involves interdisciplinary collaboration between pediatric endocrinologists, geneticists, and psychologists will be essential for optimal patient outcomes.

In conclusion, while current treatments are effective, the future of PP management lies in personalized, targeted therapies, with a focus on both physical and psychological well-being. Ongoing research and interdisciplinary collaboration hold promise for improving outcomes and providing comprehensive care for children with PP.

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