



HAL
open science

The handwriting brain in middle-childhood

Sarah Palmis, Jean-Luc Velay, Michel Habib, Jean-luc Anton, Bruno Nazarian, Julien Sein, Marieke Longcamp, Palmis Sarah, Velay Jean-Luc, Habib Michel, et al.

► **To cite this version:**

Sarah Palmis, Jean-Luc Velay, Michel Habib, Jean-luc Anton, Bruno Nazarian, et al.. The handwriting brain in middle-childhood. *Developmental Science*, 2020, 10.1111/desc.13046 . hal-02983854

HAL Id: hal-02983854

<https://hal.science/hal-02983854v1>

Submitted on 30 Oct 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

The handwriting brain in middle-childhood

Palmis Sarah¹, Velay Jean-Luc¹, Habib Michel¹, Anton Jean-Luc², Nazarian Bruno², Sein Julien², Longcamp Marieke.¹

¹ Aix Marseille Univ, CNRS, LNC, Marseille, France ; ² Aix Marseille Univ, CNRS, INT, Marseille, France

Corresponding author : Sarah Palmis, Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives, UMR 7291, CNRS - Aix-Marseille University, Marseille, 13331, France. +33 413551086, sarah.palmis@live.fr.

Keywords:

Handwriting, development, children, motor learning, expertise

Running title: The handwriting brain of children

Research Highlights

- We used fMRI to uncover the brain correlates of writing acquisition and demonstrate that the network previously described in adults is also strongly activated in children.
- However, group effects in the right cerebellum and left fusiform gyrus indicate that the network continues to mature between middle childhood and adulthood.
- We also found group differences in prefrontal and precentral regions, which likely underpin changes in the control of writing with the acquisition of expertise.
- These results fill a considerable gap in the field of writing acquisition.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the grant ECRIRE ANR-14-CE30-0013, and the grants ANR-16-CONV-0002 (ILCB), ANR-11-LABX-0036 (BLRI) managed by the French National Research Agency and the Excellence Initiative of Aix-Marseille University (A*MIDEX). We are grateful to Elie Fabiani, Lauriane Veron-Delor, Laura Beullier, and Sixtine Omont for help in data acquisition and preprocessing, Gabriel Weindel for statistical support and to Valerie Chanoine for support in data processing. The authors wish to thank David Wood (English at your Service, www.eays.eu) for revising the English of the manuscript.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Corresponding author : Sarah Palmis, Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives, UMR 7291, CNRS - Aix-Marseille University, Marseille, 13331, France. +33 413551086, sarah.palmis@live.fr.

Abstract

While the brain network supporting handwriting has previously been defined in adults, its organization in children has never been investigated. We compared the handwriting network of 23 adults and 42 children (8 to 11 year old). Participants were instructed to write the alphabet, the days of the week and to draw loops while being scanned.

The handwriting network previously described in adults (5 key regions: left dorsal premotor cortex, superior parietal lobule, fusiform and inferior frontal gyri, and right cerebellum) was also strongly activated in children. The right precentral gyrus and the right anterior cerebellum were more strongly activated in adults than in children while the left fusiform gyrus was more strongly activated in children than in adults. Finally, we found that, contrary to adults, children recruited prefrontal regions to complete the writing task.

This constitutes the first comparative investigation of the neural correlates of writing in children and adults. Our results suggest that the network supporting handwriting is already established in middle-childhood. They also highlight the major role of prefrontal regions in learning this complex skill and the importance of right precentral regions and cerebellum in the performance of automated handwriting.

1. Introduction

Handwriting is a very complex skill that requires years of practice to be mastered. The acquisition of handwriting is a factor contributing to academic and professional success and to social integration. The behavioral evolution of handwriting during learning has already been described (Palmis et al., 2017 for review) but currently the organization of the brain network sustaining handwriting in children is poorly understood.

In skilled adults, the main network is composed of 5 regions which display functional specificity for writing: the left inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), the left fusiform gyrus (FuG) the left superior parietal lobule (SPL), the left superior frontal gyrus or dorsal premotor cortex (SFG/PMd) and the right cerebellum (Ce) (for meta-analyses see Planton, Jucla, Roux, & Démonet, 2013; Purcell, Turkeltaub, Eden, & Rapp, 2011). These five regions display preferential involvement in either linguistic or motor processing during writing.

The left IFG pars opercularis and the left fusiform gyrus are consistently activated in tasks requiring orthographic recall (Planton et al 2013, Purcell et al 2011). The left FuG has an acknowledged role in access to or storage in orthographic long-term memory (Purcell, Turkeltaub, et al., 2011; Rapp et al., 2016; Rapp & Dufor, 2011). In addition, a part of the left FuG has been shown to respond specifically to visually presented letters (Joseph et al., 2006; Polk et al., 2002; Rothlein & Rapp, 2014). The fusiform gyrus is also consistently activated during the written production of letters (James & Gauthier, 2006; Longcamp et al., 2003). Rothlein & Rapp, 2014 have proposed that the left fusiform gyrus computes an abstract representation of letters that could therefore be accessed both when the letters are read and are written.

The left SPL, SFG and the right cerebellum are consistently mobilized in relation to the motor control of handwriting. Both the SPL and the SFG have been assigned a role in the manual motor representation of letters (Exner, 1881; Kadmon Harpaz et al., 2014; Magrassi et al., 2010; Roux et al., 2009; Seitz et al., 1997; Vinci-Booher et al., 2016). The consistent involvement of the right Ce in writing

tasks may be related to its known importance in the coordination of fine movements and in the retention of acquired motor skills in the form of internal models (Doyon, Penhune, & Ungerleider, 2003; Hardwick, Rottschy, Miall, & Eickhoff, 2013; Manto et al., 2012; Marien et al., 2007).

Whether the organization of this network is similar in children is currently an open question. The aim of the present study is therefore to define the handwriting network of typical middle-childhood aged writers, and to understand how it differs from that of adults. To date, one single fMRI study has directly measured the brain correlates of writing in children (Richards et al., 2011). The aim was to compare the brain activation patterns of good and poor 11 year old writers during the written production of graphic shapes. The results of Richards et al. indicated that the elements of the adult handwriting network are activated in children who produce single characters. Poor writers displayed extra activations in regions that do not belong to the core of the handwriting network. Interestingly, the activation of the left fusiform gyrus was stronger in good writers, and it correlated with standard measures of writing proficiency and orthographic coding.

Other studies have provided more indirect but valuable insights into the neural correlates of writing in children. The rationale is to relate anatomical or functional features of the brain in non-writing tasks to either measures of writing proficiency recorded outside the scanner (Gimenez et al., 2014; Richards et al., 2009), or to the children's previous experience with handwriting (James et al., 2016; James & Engelhardt, 2012; James, 2010).

For instance, Richards et al. (2009) showed that the activation patterns of good and poor 11 year old writers in a finger sequencing task differ in a series of regions involved in motor control (pre- and postcentral cortices, superior parietal cortex, cerebellum), but also in the fusiform and cingulate gyri. Moreover, the individual amount of activation within these regions correlated with the children's handwriting automaticity and/or with their spelling skills. In a group of preschoolers, Gimenez et al. (2014) found that the activation in the right inferior frontal gyrus during a phonological task correlated negatively with a measure of handwriting quality. The amount of gray matter in this same region correlated positively with handwriting quality. These findings were interpreted as evidence for the importance of neural efficiency in phonological processing for handwriting development. Changes also occur in the visual system: in preschoolers, letters trained through handwriting elicit stronger responses in the fusiform gyrus than letters trained by other means (tracing, typing, visual analysis), when they are subsequently presented visually (James 2010; James and Engelhart, 2012). In fact, writing knowledge not only enhances the fusiform response, but also increases the response of precentral and inferior frontal regions (James and Engelhart, 2012), and promotes the setup of functional connections between fusiform and precentral regions (Vinci-Booher et al., 2016). Overall, this body of data indicates that the functional systems associated with letter processing can be shaped by handwriting experience even in young children, and that the efficiency of processing in motor and phonological networks underpins writing proficiency during development.

All the studies cited above have focused on variability among children. In addition, the study of Richards et al. (2011), where children actually wrote in the scanner, was performed on a relatively small sample (11 good and 9 poor writers). In the present study, we measured the brain activations generated by writing tasks in a large group of typical middle-childhood aged writers and in a group of adults. We performed contrasts that are typically used to define the handwriting network in adults (writing letters or words vs. a control graphomotor task; see Planton et al., 2013, for examples of such contrasts). This allowed us to describe how the elements of this network are mobilized in children, and whether children recruit brain regions that do not belong to this network to perform the tasks. More importantly, we focused on the comparison between the two groups. This approach allowed us to

document the brain changes that likely underpin the shift between developing writing and writing expertise.

In addition to the possible maturation of the handwriting network, differences between the groups may also result from more general motor learning mechanisms (Palmis et al., 2017). For instance, plastic changes in the primary motor cortex are an important feature of the stabilization of a motor skill in memory (Galea et al., 2011; Hardwick et al., 2013; Karni et al., 1995; Pascual-Leone et al., 1995). Another typical feature of motor learning at the brain level is the variable involvement of the cortico-striatal and cortico-cerebellar loops in the different phases of the acquisition (Doyon et al., 2003; Doyon & Benali, 2005; Manto et al., 2012). It can thus be assumed that children and adults will differ in the involvement of the primary motor cortex and cortico-subcortical loops.

Finally, we expect to observe differences between children and adults in the lateralization of activations. Hemispheric lateralization during language and visuospatial tasks has been shown to evolve with age and to reflect the maturation of the underlying brain networks (Everts et al., 2009). In the context of graphomotor control, Planton et al. (2017) have shown that adults display stronger left lateralization during writing than during drawing tasks. According to these authors, this difference could be related to learning how to write. Writing may develop from networks that are initially bilaterally distributed, as they are for drawing, and “lateralization could arise through frequent interactions with the areas of the left hemisphere that support language processing when learning to write, at least in right-handed individuals”. Left lateralization should thus be less prominent in children than in adults.

Middle-childhood is an ideal period to study the acquisition of handwriting. In terms of writing kinematics, middle-age children are undergoing a massive transition between a previous strategy based on sensory control of the trajectory and a strategy based on a proactive mode of control where motor programs have been integrated (Palmis et al., 2017). In terms of spelling, 8 to 11 year old children are able to make use of both a lexical stock and sublexical knowledge (phono-graphic conversions) (Treiman, 2017), but their lexical stock is less rich and accessed less efficiently than that of adults (Zesiger, 1995).

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Participants

74 native French speakers took part in the experiment: Data from 9 participants (7 children and 2 adults) were discarded because of MRI acquisition problems (1 participant), problems with data quality (2 participants, see below), benign brain malformation (1 participant) and technical problems with the auditory stimulation (5 participants). The final group statistics were carried out on 65 participants: 23 adults (11 males and 12 females aged 19 to 40, mean 24.91) and 42 children (20 males and 22 females, aged 8 to 11, mean 8.88). All participants were right-handed (Edinburgh laterality test mean 81.49), had normal audition and normal or corrected-to-normal-vision. Their reading, graphomotor and spelling skills were in the normal range, as assessed by standardized tests. The detail of the tests used and the scores of the two groups for each sub-test are given in supplementary materials in section “pretest”.

Informed consent was signed by the adult participants and by the children’s parents after the experimental procedure was fully explained. The study received the approval of the Ethics committee 2017-A01789-44.

2.2 Procedure

The task was organized into 16 blocks, where participants wrote in a lying position on an MRI-compatible digitizing tablet while being scanned. Three conditions were tested: the writing of the letters of the alphabet, of the days of the week, and the tracing of loops. The participants were instructed to write in cursive at their usual writing speed. In the French educational system children are taught how write in cursive. Cursive remains the dominant writing style, although adults tend to mix it with script. This task allowed each participant to write at her own pace, the imposed factor being the time spent writing (block duration). Participants wrote without visual feedback.

Participants were trained to the task in a mock scanner, immediately before the actual scanning. After being familiarized to the scanner environment and the horizontal writing posture, they had to produce the blocks of the 3 conditions with and without visual feedback in two separate sub-sessions. The visual feedback was provided by a mirror system in front of the participant’s eyes, showing them a projection screen located at the back of the mock scanner and a video projector. It consisted of a black line unfolding on the screen as a function of the progression of the xy position of the stylus on the tablet. The order (with vs without feedback) was counterbalanced between participants. The aim was to measure the effect of removing visual feedback on the performance (see supplementary materials, Fig S1). We found that the performance was not disturbed by the absence of visual feedback compared to when the feedback was provided on the screen. This was true for both the adult and child participants. In fact, most participants wrote faster and more accurately without visual feedback.

The fMRI data was recorded in 1 session lasting 7 minutes 30 seconds where eight blocks of each of the three conditions were semi-randomly alternated. At the beginning of each block participants were instructed to hold the pen and to rest their hand in the left edge of the tablet. Each block began with an auditory instruction stimulus indicating the condition: “Jours” (Days), “Lettres” (Letters), “Boucles” (Loops). Participants had to start to write as soon as they recognized the instruction. A fixation cross was displayed in the middle of the screen throughout the block, and at the end the cross was replaced

by three #, indicating that the participants should stop writing and move their hand back to the initial hand position (Fig.1).

2.3 Stimuli

The 3 auditory stimuli, used as auditory instructions for the 3 conditions, were recorded in an anechoic room by a French female speaker without regional accent. Stimuli were matched for their acoustic duration and pitch.

2.4 Material

Writing kinematics were recorded using an MRI compatible digitizing tablet and a PVC pen developed in our lab (Longcamp et al., 2014). The tablet is composed of a touchscreen whose force range was set between 0.1 and 0.8N and an USB controller board that allowed a 100Hz sampling rate. The tablet was placed on the participants' stomachs, and its position could be adjusted with a foam cushion to facilitate writing. The tablet and the right arm were elevated with cushions to ensure that participants were as comfortable as possible, and to prevent head movements. The auditory stimuli were presented via MRI compatible pneumatic earphones; Flat Response Over 100Hz - 8 kHz Bandwidth (SENSIMETRICS S14). The size of the earphones was adapted to participant's ear size particularly for children. A mirror system in front of the participant's eyes, together with a projection screen located at the back of the scanner and a video projector, allowed the participants to view the visual stimuli (fixation cross and #) during the task.

2.5 Behavioral data analysis

The xy position of the pen was tracked for each block and then converted from pixels to millimeters. The resulting writing traces were analyzed using custom-made software. Trials with unreadable or unrelated responses or with no response at all, were discarded from the statistical analyses. In a few cases (0.25% of the trials), the digitizer did not record the data correctly.

For each correct trial we analyzed the latency, the total writing duration (in seconds), time lapse between the first and the last contact with the tablet, and the total trajectory length between the first and the last contact with the tablet (in millimeters). The length measure accounted for the trajectory when the pen was touching the tablet. The latency measures were log-transformed prior to the statistical analysis.

The kinematic differences between groups and between conditions on these 3 variables were tested using Linear Mixed Effect models (LmerTest library (calls on the Lme4 library), function Lmer, (Kuznetsova et al., 2017)) implemented on R software. This model allowed missing values to be accounted for, as two participants did not have any kinematic measures for certain conditions. This

was the case for two 8 year old children who did not apply sufficient pressure when writing, making the written trace unreadable and unanalyzable. For each of the 3 variables analysis, two fixed effects (group and condition) and one random effect (subject) were included. We used the following 3 equations: Latency: $\text{Imer}(\text{mean latency} \sim \text{group} * \text{condition} + (1 | \text{subject}), \text{data} = \text{mean latency})$; Duration: $\text{Imer}(\text{mean duration} \sim \text{group} * \text{condition} + (1 | \text{subject}), \text{data} = \text{mean duration})$; Length: $\text{Imer}(\text{mean length} \sim \text{group} * \text{condition} + (1 | \text{subject}), \text{data} = \text{mean length})$. P-values were accessed by doing REML. t-tests using Satterthwaite's method, obtained with the summary function on the model.

A certain amount of trials were discarded from the analysis, according to several criteria.

- Empty trials due to recording issues were removed as were trials that did not have enough pressure segments (not allowing confirmation that the participant has performed the correct condition).
- Trials where writing or tracing duration was inferior to 2.5 standard deviation were discarded. Standard deviations were calculated separately for adults and children for the three conditions combined: Adult's inferior writing duration limit= 13.33s and Children's inferior writing duration limit = 10.24s. The discarded trials corresponded to abnormally short trials due to either a lack of pressure on the tablet at the beginning or at the end of the trace (23 trials for children (average time spent without writing on a total of 16.23s: 8.053s) and 9 for adults (average time spent without writing on a total of 16.23s: 4.40s)). This sorting method based on group performance did not impact slower/ younger participants because of the time limitation of trial duration with the fMRI blocks duration.
- The last step was to discard outlier trials when considering the writing length even if the performed condition was identifiable.

After the sorting process, a total of 1100 trials from an initial 1170 trials (94%) were kept for the final behavioral analysis. For adults, 13 trials (3% of the total amount) were removed. For children, 57 trials (8% of the total amount) were removed. Since most of those trials were removed because of recording issues, they were kept for the fMRI analysis.

2.6 fMRI acquisition and preprocessing

Structural and functional MRI data were acquired on a 3-Tesla MRI Scanner (Magnetom-Prisma, Siemens, Erlangen, Germany). For each participant, we acquired a high-resolution T1 volume, a fieldmap, and BOLD images.

BOLD images were acquired using a gradient-echo EPI sequence with TR= 957 ms, TE= 30 ms, voxel size= 2.5 mm³, multiband factor= 4, slices= 56, FOV= 210 x 210 mm², 335 volumes in a single session. Anatomical images: voxel size: 1mm³.

The quality of the individual T1 images was checked visually to identify possible movement artifacts. For the EPI images, we used the MRIqc toolbox (Esteban et al., 2017) to generate group descriptive statistics of image quality metrics (SNR, temporal SNR, Mean Framewise Displacement and DVARS) to identify possible outliers. With this procedure, the data from 2 participants were found to deviate by 2 STD from the rest of the group and were discarded from the analysis (one child with a low SNR, and one child with several abnormal image quality metrics due to large head movements). The quality metrics of the groups included in the final analyses are reported in supplementary table S1. Images were preprocessed using the SPM12 software. Head movements were corrected, images were co-registered to the mean image and T1 image was segmented. Structural and functional images were

normalized using DARTEL. The DARTEL toolbox allows the optimal alignment of the cortex masks of all participants of both groups.

The normalization stage creates a common template that takes into account the two groups' specific anatomies. Because the head size of a middle-age child is on average similar to that of an adult, all the participants were merged into a single template (Burgund et al., 2002; Hoefft et al., 2007). The results of this normalization procedure were checked participant by participant, in order to ensure that no deformation was induced in the child group. Finally, data were spatially smoothed (FWHM 5 mm)

2.7 fMRI Statistical analyses

2.7.1 First- and second-level statistical models:

The first-level statistical models were computed using the general linear model implemented on the SPM12 software. The models included one regressor for each of the 3 conditions. The blocks of each condition were modeled as boxcars with onset at the time of the auditory stimulus of the block, and duration 16.44 seconds convolved with the HRF. Regressors of no-interest were also included to account for head movement and for variations related to physiological activity (see below). The contrasts between the 2 writing conditions ("Words" and "Letters" and the graphomotor condition ("loops")) were calculated for each participant and entered in the second-level analysis.

As younger participants could be more prone to head movement and physiological noise, we followed a specific procedure to account for possible motion and physiological artifacts within the 1st level statistical models through extra regressors of non-interest (Caballero-Gaudes & Reynolds, 2017). First, we included 24 motion regressors. Those regressors were generated from the 6 classical motion parameters which were then squared, derived, and both squared and derived to constitute the 18 other parameters (Friston, 1996). Second, the toolbox ART (https://www.nitrc.org/projects/artifact_detect/) allowed us to pick up the scans where head movements exceeded a 3mm absolute motion threshold and to put them in an extra nuisance regressor. With this procedure, scans were detected and modeled as outliers for 15 children and 1 adult. The number of outliers varied between 2 and 16 functional images out of 335. Finally, the "TAPAS - PhysIO" toolbox was used to account for physiological noise (Kasper et al., 2017). This toolbox allows data-driven estimation of the physiological noise components for model-based noise correction. Physiological noise is estimated by computing a Principal Components Analysis on the white matter and cerebrospinal fluid, enabling the explanation of the signal variability present in these two ROIs and thus unrelated to actual BOLD variations. Twenty-six principal components were used as nuisance regressors in the GLM (12 components per ROI, and 2 regressors modeling the average of the principal components of each ROI, aCompCor method (Behzadi et al., 2007)).

The second-level statistical analyses were performed using the GLM flex fast 4 (<http://mrtools.mgh.harvard.edu/>) method to assess the whole brain activations for each group separately and the main effect of group (differences between adults and children), condition (differences between writing words and letters) and interaction between group and condition. Whole brain T contrasts for adults and children were performed in order to visualize the two groups' handwriting networks separately. These contrasts correspond to the conjunction of the two contrasts "Words vs Loops" and "Letters vs Loops". Activations were displayed and figures were created using

the bspmview toolbox (<http://www.bobspunt.com/bspmview/>). Activations were considered significant when they reached a threshold of $p < .001$ uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel-level and $p < .05$, FWE-corrected for multiple comparisons at the cluster level.

In order to check whether the results were influenced by possible behavioral confounds (different writing behavior of the two groups within the scanner) or by the procedure used to correct for head movements, we ran two complementary first-level models per participant. In the first complementary model, we added an extra regressor that represented the writing duration of each block, modeled as a parametric modulation of the task blocks convolved with the HRF. It allowed checking whether the group effects were influenced by the actual writing duration of each block. In the second complementary model, we used a more stringent threshold for scrubbing scans subject to head movements ($FD < 0.9$; Siegel et al., 2014). The group effect for these two complementary analyses are reported in supplementary figure S2 and supplementary table S2 and S3. The descriptive statistics for the amount of scans scrubbed in the second model are reported in supplementary table S1. The pattern of distribution of the activations in the main group contrasts with the two complementary models is very similar to that of the main analysis reported below. The group statistics remain very similar, with only minor changes in the t-values or in the clusters extent or position, suggesting that the results at the group level were not confounded by the individual behavior or by head movements.

2.7.2 Laterality analysis

The lateralization of the activations was evaluated for the whole hemispheres using the LI toolbox (Wilke & Lidzba, 2007) and a mask combining all the lobe images provided by the toolbox. We used an additional mask that excluded the signal at the midline + 5 mm. We calculated a laterality index (LI) using the method described in Wilke & Schmithorst (2006) and the corresponding matlab tools provided by Marko Wilke. The images used were the individual t-contrast images (Words vs Loops and Letters vs Loops), so that for each subject we obtained one LI for Words and one LI for Letters.

Briefly, this method iteratively explores the lateralization at increasing, regularly spaced, thresholds. At each threshold, a bootstrap algorithm is used to compute a large number of LIs based on the surviving voxels using the standard equation:

$$LI = \frac{\sum \text{activation left} - \sum \text{activation right}}{\sum \text{activation left} + \sum \text{activation right}}$$

Only the central 50% of the resulting distribution is then averaged. Finally, the values at the various thresholds are averaged, but the mean is weighted by the threshold value. This method therefore overcomes the problems of sensitivity to outliers, and of threshold dependency encountered in the usual calculation of LIs. Positive values of LIs indicate stronger activations in the left hemisphere, while negative values indicate stronger activations in the right hemisphere. Values above 0.2 and below -0.2 are considered to index significant lateralization of the activations. Values between -0.2 and 0.2 are considered to index bilateral activations (Seghier, 2008).

The distribution of LIs is known to be non-Gaussian (Wilke & Schmithorst, 2006). We therefore used nonparametric tests to assess the differences between groups and conditions.

3. Results

3.1 Behavioral data

3.1.1 Writing Duration

The group factor significantly impacted the writing durations (random effects: Subject (SD= 0.33), Residual (SD= 0.35); fixed effects: Child group (estimate= -0.43, SE: 0.12, $t(127.61) = -3.44$, $p = 0.0008$). Durations were higher for adults (mean= 14.91 s) than for children (mean= 14.38 s) due to increased latency for children. No main effect of condition and no interaction between condition and group were found. (Fig.1)

3.1.2 Writing Latency

The group factor significantly impacted the latency (random effects: Subject (SD= 0.25), Residual: (SD= 0.26); fixed effects: Child group (estimate= 0.47, SE= 0.095, $t(120.95) = 5.26$, $p = 6.37e-07$). The latencies were longer for children (mean= 1.62 s) than for adults (mean= 1.24 s). No main effect of condition and no interaction between condition and group were found. (Fig.1)

3.1.3 Trajectory length

The group factor significantly impacted the trajectory length (random effects: Subject (SD= 483.9), Residual (SD= 367.8); fixed effects: Child group (estimate= 623.5, SE= 0.13, $t(157.7) = 3.95$, $p = 0.0001$). The trajectory lengths were higher for children (mean= 1304.829 mm) than for adults (mean= 906.7748 mm). The condition factor also impacted the trajectory length with longer trajectories for Loops (mean= 1846.342 mm) than for Words (mean= 1062.582 mm; fixed effect: Words condition (estimate= -445.7, SE= 108.5, $t(108.5) = -4.11$, $p = 7.24e-05$; Loops vs Words: $t = 9.2$, $p < 0.001$, Tuckey) and Letters (mean= 984.5437 mm; fixed effect: Condition Letters (estimate= -502.4, SE= 108.5, $t(121.4) = -4.632$, $p = 9.17e-06$; Loops vs Letters: $t = 10.305$, $p < 0.001$, Tuckey). The interaction between group and condition was also significant: fixed Child group x Words condition (estimate= -358.4, SE= 135.4) $t(121.7) = -2.65$, $p = 0.009$, Child group x Letters condition (estimate= -395.1, SE= 135.8) $t(121.9) = -2.90$, $p = 0.0043$). The difference between Loops and the other two conditions was larger for children than for adults. (Fig.1).

3.1.5 Errors

They were only 2 trials for which participants did not perform the right condition. Instead of being discarded, these two trials were added to the pool of the condition actually produced.

----- Figure 1-----

3.2 fMRI data

We will focus on the main effect of group. Several regions were found to be modulated by the condition. However, the main effect of condition did not differ between the two groups. A single interaction between group and condition was found in the middle occipital area and is reported below. The main effect of condition is therefore reported in supplementary material (Fig. S3 and Table S4).

3.2.1 Whole brain analysis:

Handwriting network of adults and children

For both groups, the contrast revealed a network composed of regions known to be reliably involved in handwriting and mostly lateralized in the left hemisphere (Fig. 2). Significant activations were found in the left fusiform gyrus, the left inferior frontal gyrus pars orbitalis, left inferior parietal lobule extending to the left superior parietal lobule, left superior frontal gyrus and at multiple locations on the right and left cerebellum (Table 1). In addition, children displayed significant activations in the left and right insulas, the left and right superior frontal/middle frontal gyri and their activation of the posterior medial frontal gyrus extended anteriorly towards the anterior cingulate cortex. In general, the child group displayed more clusters of activation in the frontal cortex. Children therefore displayed more activation clusters than adults. The activations found for the two groups are presented in table 1.

----- Figure 2-----

----- Table 1-----

Main effect of group:

Adults displayed stronger activations than children in the right precentral gyrus (PrCG), superior frontal gyrus and in the left and right posterior medial frontal gyrus. Two other significant differences were found in the left lingual / calcarine gyrus and in the right anterior cerebellar lobule IV- V (Fig. 3a and 3b). Conversely, children displayed stronger activations in the left inferior frontal gyrus pars orbitalis extending to the insula and in the anterior cingulate lobule (Fig. 3a and 3c). (Fig. 3, table 2).

----- Figure 3 -----

Interaction:

Only the right middle occipital gyrus showed an interaction between group and condition, with a weaker activation only for the Letter condition in children (Fig. 4, table S4 and Fig. S3).

----- Figure 4 -----

----- Table 2 -----

3.2.2 LI analysis

A pairwise Wilcoxon rank test indicated that for children, the LIs in the Words condition differed significantly from the LIs in the Letters condition ($W= 195, P< 0.001$). The difference between the two conditions was not significant in adults. A Mann-Whitney rank test indicated that in the Words condition, the lateralization among children was significantly different from that of adults ($U= 633, P< 0.04$). The difference between children and adults was not significant in the Letters condition. Figure 5 indicates that the lateralization of the activations during the writing of words in children was lower than in the other 3 samples.

One sample Wilcoxon rank tests where the sample was compared to a value of 0.2 indicated that in children, for the Words condition, the LI values differed significantly from 0.2 ($W= 164.5, p< 0.001$). Figure 5 shows that the corresponding median was located below 0.2. The LIs did not significantly differ from 0.2 for the other 3 samples (adult's letters and words, children's letters; Figure 5, medians located at about 0.2). This suggests that for the children, the lateralization values departed from the threshold indicating significant left-lateralization. For most children, the values in this condition were indeed either between 0.2 and -0.2 (bilateral activations) or below -0.2 (right lateralized activations).

----- Figure 5 -----

Discussion

The aim of this study was to describe the handwriting network of typical children and to compare it to that of adults.

Behavioral results are consistent with data of the literature (for review see Palmis et al. 2017). They show that significant differences remain in the control of the writing movement between middle-childhood and adulthood.

The fMRI results showed that the expected handwriting network was activated more strongly for writing Words and Letters than Loops in the adult group. Our results are consistent with previous studies (Planton et al., 2013; Purcell, Turkeltaub, et al., 2011a). This same network was also found to be preferentially activated for Words and Letters over Loops in 8 to 11 year-old children. However, the involvement of the left FuG and the right Ce differed between the two groups. Group differences were also found in other brain regions with preferential activation of prefrontal regions in children and of the right precentral cortex in adults.

The handwriting network of adults and children

No major differences between adults and children were observed in the organization of the handwriting network. An important result of the present study is therefore that the topography of the handwriting network is already established in typical 8 to 11 year old writers.

The differences between adults and typical children usually observed on spelling and motor accuracy may therefore not be linked to differences in the organization of the main components of the network. It is possible that most of the organization occurs earlier. In France, children learn to write their first letters and their first word (name, first name...) around the age of 4 or even earlier. Thus, the younger participants of our sample, already have at least 4 years of practice, which is actually enough to implement the neural bases of the handwriting network. Previous work has shown that functional brain changes occur with writing practice even in preschool children (Gimenez et al., 2014; James & Engelhardt, 2012; James, 2010; Vinci-Booher et al., 2016). More generally, the sensorimotor networks are already mature in children aged 6-7 years (Grayson & Fair, 2017; James & Kersey, 2018; Zielinski et al., 2010), and they vary little between ages 6 and 10 (Grayson & Fair, 2017; Zielinski et al., 2010b).

Regional differences between adults and children

Despite this generally similar organization, the two groups differed in the involvement of the right anterior cerebellum and the left fusiform gyrus. In addition, differences between the two groups were found in other brain regions. Prefrontal regions were more strongly mobilized in children than in adults, whereas the right precentral cortex and the SMA were more strongly mobilized in adults than in children.

Interestingly, the effect of condition (writing words or letters) on the BOLD signal was similar for both groups. The middle occipital gyrus was the only region showing an interaction between group and

condition. This effect is difficult to interpret given the nonspecific function of this region. No interaction was found in the regions of the handwriting network. This might be due to the fact that both tasks are realized frequently at school: the differences in the processes which allow the writing of letters of the alphabet and words corresponding to the days of the week may already be established in 8 to 11 year old children. Indeed, previous studies have shown that children process orthographic sequences in the same way as adults, when these sequences are frequent (Chase & Tallal, 1990; Gibson et al., 1962; McCandliss et al., 2003). An interaction effect between group and task could perhaps be observed if less frequent words, pseudowords, or words with higher spelling complexity were to be produced. Further neuroimaging research comparing adults and children during the production of various orthographic sequences is needed.

Differential cerebellar and fusiform involvement with writing expertise

One portion of the right anterior cerebellum was more strongly activated in the adults than in the children. This part of the right cerebellum is reliably activated in studies involving writing and has been identified as specific to writing, relative to other manual motor tasks (Planton et al., 2013). Case studies have shown that lesions in the right cerebellum can induce apraxic agraphia, in which patients can no longer access previously mastered motor programs (De Smet et al., 2011). More generally, researchers from the field of motor control assign to the cerebellum a role in the implementation of internal models that allow an automatic proactive movement coupled with performance monitoring (Kozioł et al., 2014; Manto et al., 2012; Wolpert et al., 1998). This result therefore points towards the major role of the cerebellum in the acquisition of writing skills. Increasing reliance on a cortico-cerebellar loop with writing acquisition is predicted by the computational model of Grossberg & Paine, (2000).

Group differences were also found in the left fusiform gyrus with stronger activation for children than adults. Several studies have shown that the specificity of the left occipitotemporal region for letter strings emerges with reading acquisition (Brem et al., 2010; Centanni, King, Eddy, Whitfield-Gabrieli, & Gabrieli, 2017; Dehaene-Lambertz, Monzalvo, & Dehaene, 2018; Hannagan, Amedi, Cohen, Dehaene-Lambertz, & Dehaene, 2015) and that the strength of activation correlates with the level of acquisition (McCandliss et al., 2003). The present finding of a stronger fusiform activation during writing in children than in adults might thus seem counterintuitive. In reading studies, the acquisition of functional specificity has been evidenced in younger children (James & Engelhardt, 2012; James, 2010). The involvement of the left fusiform gyrus in writing acquisition has previously been suggested by Richards et al., (2011): in their study, the activation of this region differed between good and poor writers, and correlated with writing proficiency and spelling skills. It is thus possible that the maturation of the functional properties of the left fusiform gyrus occur in different time-windows for writing and reading. Further experiments comparing the role of this region in reading and writing processes, with various control conditions, and in different age groups, would be useful to explore this important issue.

Other differences between adults and children

The stronger activation of the IFG pars opercularis/insula and of the ACC in children is another important result of the present study. With its ideal connection to the motor cortex, the ACC plays a prominent role in online monitoring, primordial in motor learning and in complex motor control

(Carter, 1998; Gehring, Goss, Coles, Meyer, & Donchin, 1993; MacDonald, 2000). In children, the structural patterns of the ACC are related to cognitive control efficiency (Cachia et al., 2014). The anterior insula is also implicated in performance monitoring as well as in domain general focal attention (Klein et al., 2013; Nelson et al., 2010). The combined stronger activation of the insula and the ACC in children could therefore be compatible with a performance monitoring account, with this system engaged in children but not in adults during writing. Alternatively, these activations could relate to additional linguistic processing in the child group: in children aged around 11, the two regions are commonly activated in spelling and phonological tasks, and their response is sensitive to the conflict between phonological and orthographic information (Bitan et al., 2007). Furthermore, the study of Gimenez et al. (2014) pointed towards a role of the IFG/insula in the link between phonological processing and writing proficiency in children.

Two motor areas (supplementary motor area -SMA, and the right precentral gyrus) were found to be preferentially activated for adults. The SMA is involved in movement control; its activation is reliably observed in writing tasks but its contribution is considered non-specific (Palmis et al., 2019; Purcell, Napoliello, et al., 2011; Rapp et al., 2016; Rapp & Dufor, 2011). More generally, it is often mobilized in language production tasks (Longcamp, Hupé, Ruiz, Vayssière, & Sato, 2019). Its stronger activation in expert adults is consistent with studies showing its critical role in the coordination of complex and overlearned movements (Gerloff, 1997; Goldberg, 1985; Toni et al., 1998).

The ipsilateral Precentral gyrus is reliably found activated during unimanual tasks. Its involvement has been interpreted as the result of an inter-hemispheric balance that promotes better control of movement. Several studies have evidenced ipsilateral BOLD activations for more complex tasks or for tasks with increased demands in precision (Buetefisch et al., 2014; Verstynen et al., 2005). fMRI does not discriminate neural excitation from neural inhibition, thus the exact functional role of the ipsilateral activation in unimanual tasks is not completely clear. However, TMS investigations have shown that the inhibition of motor cortex ipsilateral to the hand realizing the task improves the performance (Buetefisch et al., 2011; Kobayashi et al., 2003). Thus, learning to write could be associated with a better mobilization of the ipsilateral motor cortex. Furthermore, the primary motor cortex is the locus of important plastic changes with motor learning (Galea et al., 2011; Hardwick et al., 2013; Pascual-Leone et al., 1995). Even if it is not considered as being part of the core of the handwriting network, several studies have demonstrated its preferential activity for handwriting over motor control tasks (Kadmon Harpaz et al., 2014; Planton et al., 2017; Purcell, Napoliello, et al., 2011). This could suggest a greater role of the primary motor cortex in expert handwriting than usually thought.

Lack of leftward lateralization in the words writing condition in children

Finally, the lateralization analysis indicates that the hemispheric activations induced by the tasks were balanced differently in the two groups. This is in line with previous data showing an evolution of lateralization patterns with cognitive development (Szaflarski et al., 2006) and a relationship between lateralization and task performance from late childhood to adolescence (Everts et al., 2009). This also confirms that proficiency in writing could be indexed by the lateralization of the networks involved in the task (Planton et al., 2017). From that perspective, the difference in lateralization between the two tasks in children, and the difference between children and adults during words writing is noteworthy. This distinct lateralization pattern for words in children could suggest that the brain networks

underlying writing are less mature for the production of words than letters in middle-school aged children. Possibly, this occurs because words have a stronger linguistic component: Everts et al. (2009) showed that the functional asymmetry induced by a word production task continues to increase during adolescence.

Possible confounds in the interpretation of the present results

The interpretation of the present results nonetheless has some limitations, as would any brain imaging study in children.

The first possible confound is the general difference in task difficulty for the two groups. This raises a question on the nature of the activation of prefrontal regions. Although we made sure that the absence of visual feedback was not disabling for the performance of the two groups, maybe writing while lying down in the scanner environment is a source of more difficulties for children than adults (Chartrel & Vinter, 2006; van Doorn & Keuss, 1993). Thus, prefrontal activations could highlight a compensatory recruitment of regions involved in attention and monitoring due to the difficulty induced by the absence of feedback. However, it is important to point out that although there is an overall difference in performance between adults and children, the patterns of behavioral differences between the conditions of interest and the control conditions are similar for both groups. It is therefore unlikely that the effects are related to differences in the general task difficulty between groups. Further investigations are necessary to determine whether the differential implication of the ACC and inferior frontal cortices in the task for the two groups is related to a difference in the nature of the control processes implemented specifically for writing, or whether it is “artifactual” (induced by the particular conditions of writing in an unusual posture).

Another important possible confound is the difference in head movements between the two groups. Increased noise due to head movements in children has been counterbalanced by a larger number of participants included in this group. In addition, careful data denoising and verification procedures were implemented to minimize the possible effects of noise induced by head movements. However, the fact remains that the possible effects of head movements are a major drawback of any brain imaging study that compares adult to child participants.

A final possible confound regarding both the behavioral and fMRI data is the writing style used by our participants. All the children still followed the French school guidelines and wrote in cursive whereas the adults wrote using a mix of cursive and script. The choice of this mixed style by many French adults may support the optimization of writing performance (van der Plaats & van Galen, 1991). It is thus difficult to fully distinguish the contribution of this change in writing style from the differences observed between adults and children in the present study. At the brain level, the existence of specific neural correlates of allographic selection is debated: Studies where this aspect has been specifically tested, (Rapp & Dufor, 2011a; Rapp & Lipka, 2011) did not evidence any association between patterns of brain activation and the selection of letter case.

Conclusion

The handwriting network of adults and of typical 8 to 11 year old children is composed of the same 5 key regions. The organization of the main handwriting network of children is thus already established and very similar to that of adults. Despite this general similarity, our data point towards a major role of the cerebellum, primary motor cortex and prefrontal regions in the acquisition of writing skills. In addition, they highlight a complex pattern of maturation in the fusiform gyrus with writing acquisition,

and a specific lateralization profile for the words writing task in children. This first study of the neural underpinning of writing in typically developing children opens important perspectives for the study of brain specificities in children with orthographic or motor learning difficulties during writing tasks.

Figures:

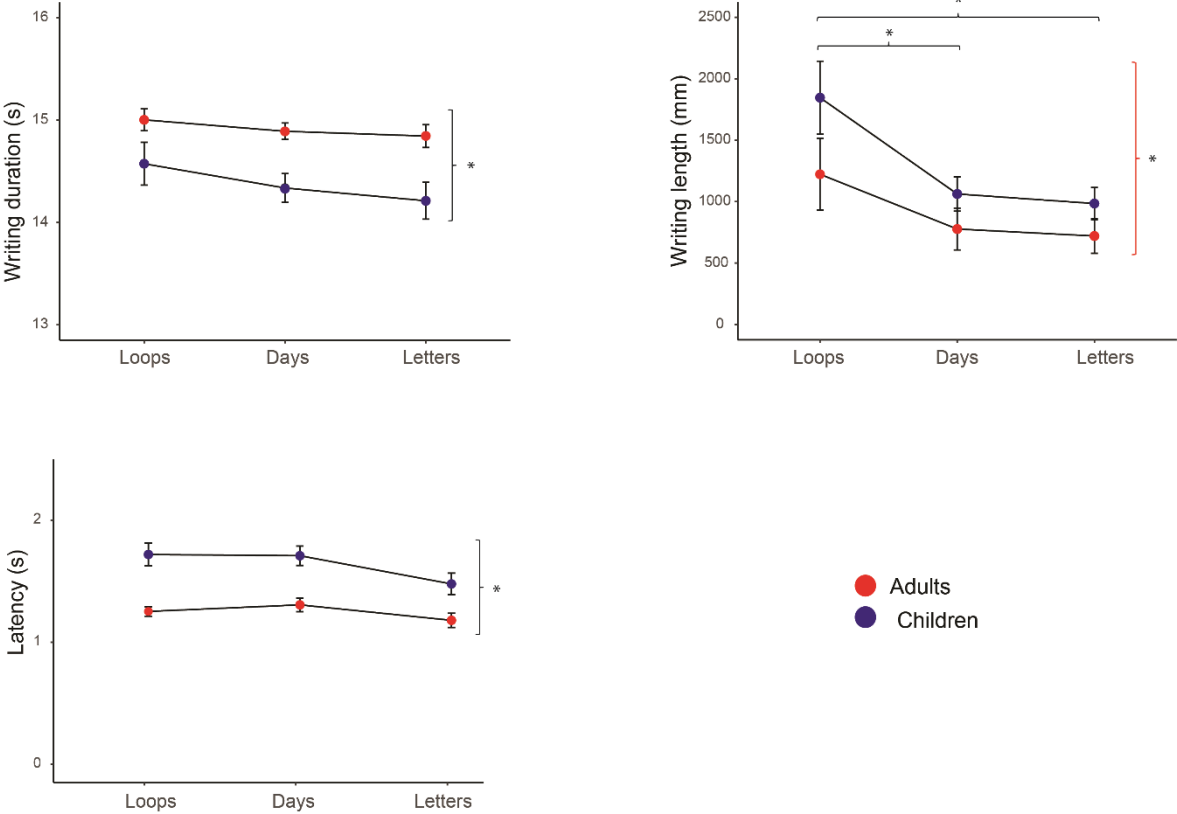


Figure 1: Behavioral results, as a function of the condition and to the group. Upper left panel: writing duration (second); Upper right panel: writing length (millimeter); Lower left panel: writing latency; for the three conditions: Loops, Words and Letters and for the two groups Adults (red dots) and Children (blue dots). Red braces indicate a significant interaction between group and condition.

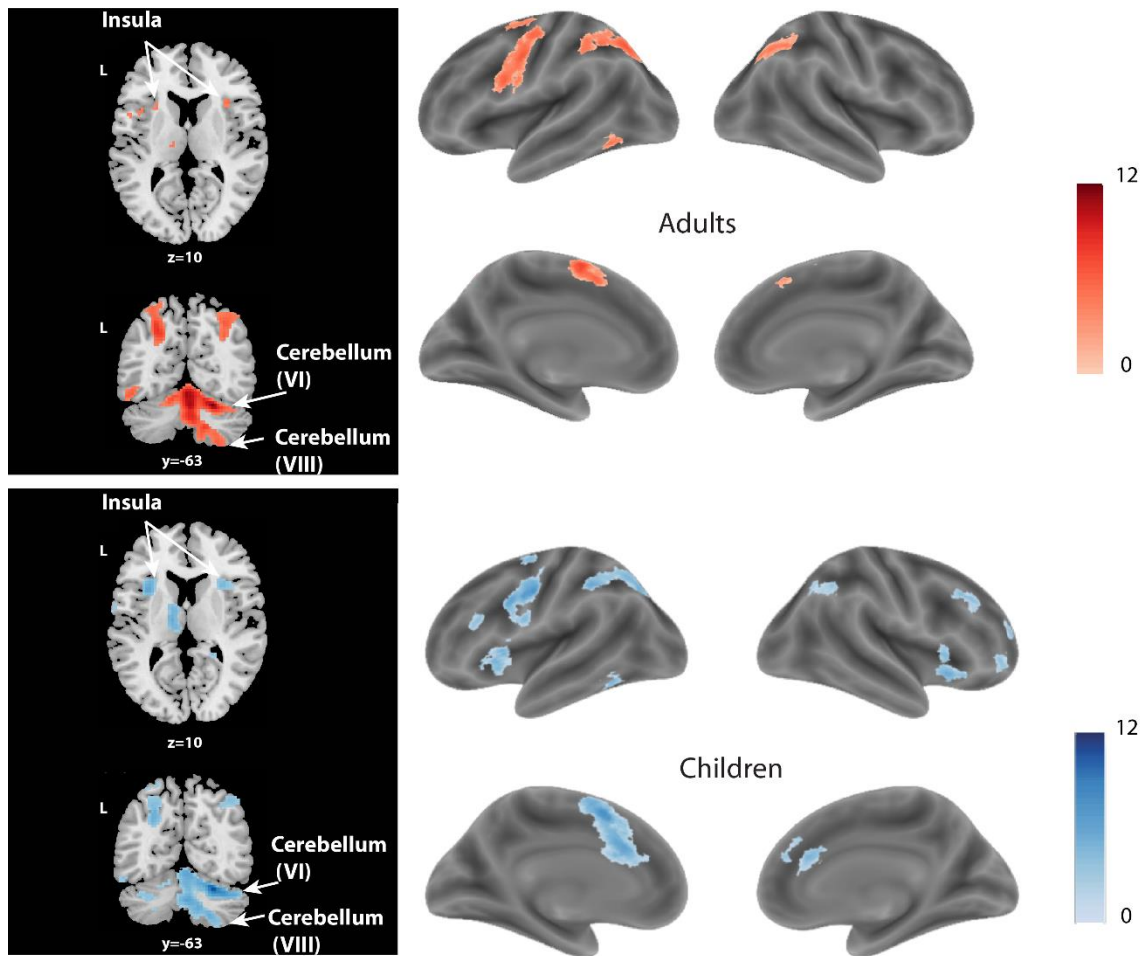


Figure 2: Results for the whole brain T contrast representing regions preferentially activated for Words and Letters than for Loops. Upper panel: Adults handwriting network (red); Lower panel: Children handwriting network (blue). Cortical activations were represented on a surface rendering and deep activations (insula and cerebellum) are represented on axial and coronal slices. The contrasts are displayed at a threshold of $p < 0.001$, uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel-level and $p < .05$, FWE corrected for multiple comparisons at the cluster level.

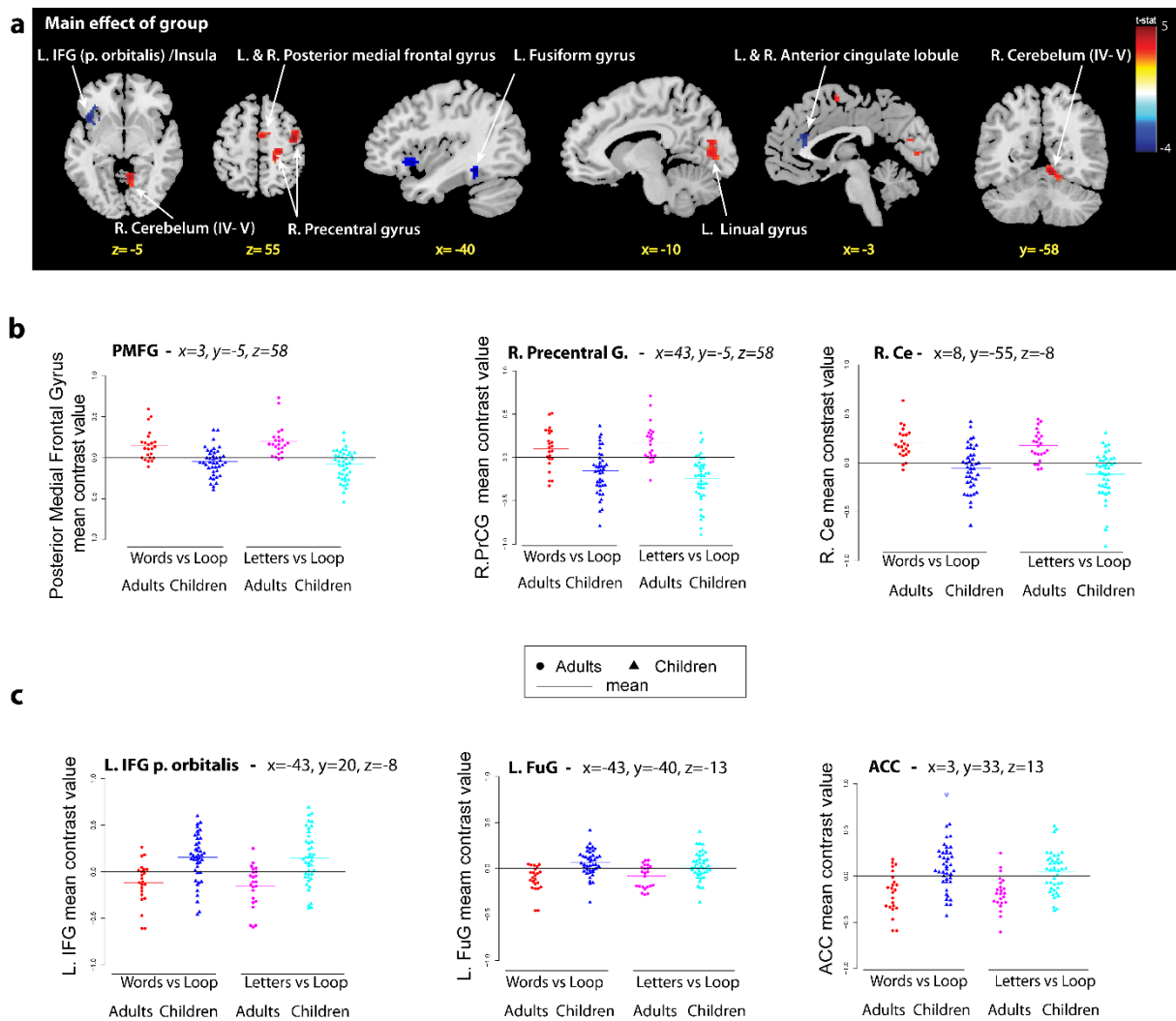


Figure 3: Results of the whole brain contrast for the main effect of group, and mean contrast values in the activated clusters. (a) Blue: regions preferentially activated for children. Red: regions preferentially activated for adults, displayed on axial, sagittal and coronal slices. (b & c) Individual mean contrast values for several of the regions presenting group differences. b – Regions preferentially activated for adults and c – Regions preferentially activated for children. Results are displayed for the two contrasts: Words vs Loops (red and blue) and Letters vs Loops (pink and cyan) and for the two groups: Adults (dots) and Children (triangles). The mean values for each contrast are represented by a line of the corresponding color. The contrasts are displayed at a threshold of $p < 0.001$, uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel-level and $p < 0.05$, FWE-corrected for multiple comparisons at the cluster level. Mean contrast value for each cluster has been extracted from the individual contrasts computed at the first level using the SPM12 marsbar toolbox. Abbreviations: R: right; L: left; G: gyrus; IFG: inferior frontal gyrus; PMFG: posterior medial frontal gyrus; Ce: cerebellum; FuG: fusiform gyrus; ACC: anterior cingulate lobule.

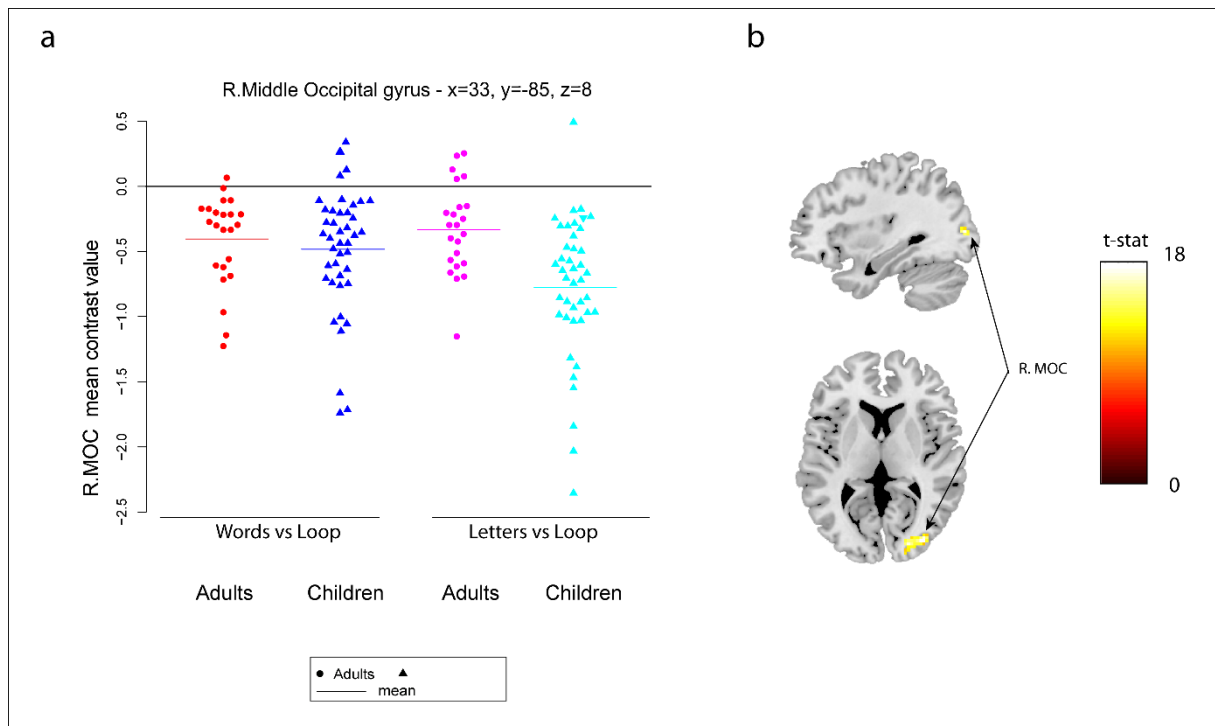


Figure 4: Interaction between Group and Condition in the right Middle occipital gyrus (a) Position and t-stat of the activation of the right middle occipital cortex on sagittal (top) and axial (bottom) slices. (b) Individual contrast values within the Middle Occipital cluster. Results are displayed for the two contrasts: Words vs Loops (red and blue) and Letters vs Loops (pink and cyan) and for the two groups: Adults (dots) and Children (triangle). The contrasts are displayed at a threshold of $p < 0.001$, uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel-level and $p < .05$, FWE-corrected for multiple comparisons at the cluster level. Mean contrast value for each cluster has been extracted from the individual contrasts computed at the first level using the SPM12 marsbar toolbox. Abbreviations: R: right; MOC: middle occipital cortex.

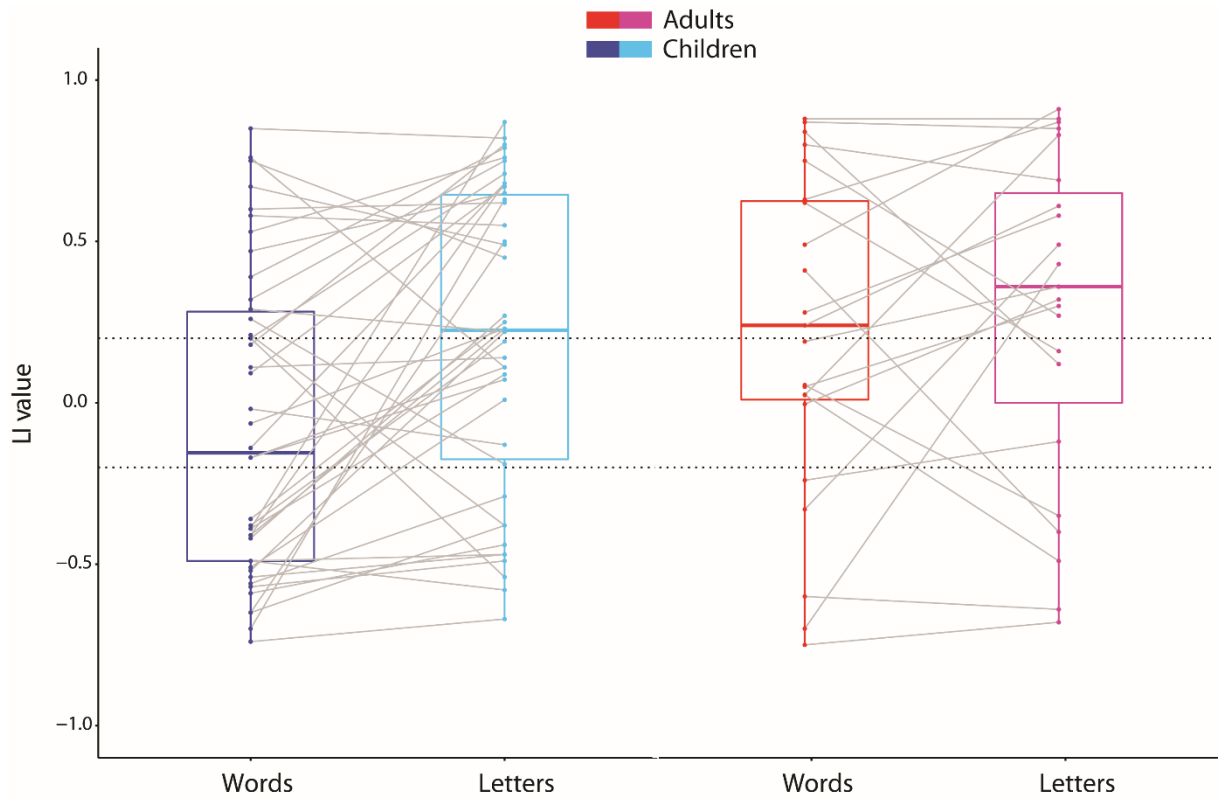


Figure 5: Results of the Laterality analysis. Laterality indexes are displayed for all participants for the two contrasts: Words vs Loops and Letters vs Loops and for the two groups: Adults (red and pink) and Children (blue and cyan). The median values and the quartiles for each contrast are represented by a boxplot superimposed on the individual values. The dotted lines mark the values that correspond to thresholds for left ($LI > 0.2$) and right ($LI < -0.2$) lateralization.

Location		Cluster size	Stats t-value	MNI Coordinates		
				x	y	z
Adults						
FRONTAL						
Left/Right	Posterior medial frontal gyrus	1314	8.8815	-3	0	60
Left	Precentral gyrus		6.5247	-55	-3	45
Left	IFG p. opercularis		6.3387	-45	3	23
TEMPORAL						
Left	Inferior temporal gyrus	75	5.6351	-50	-60	-13
PARIETAL						
Left	Superior parietal lobule	615	6.8085	-25	-65	45
Left	Inferior parietal lobule		5.9720	-30	-45	43
Right	Inferior parietal lobule	339	5.7783	35	-58	45
CEREBELLUM						
Right	Cerebellum (VI)	1991	9.4372	23	-63	-23
Right	Cerebellar lobule Vermis 6		9.3419	3	-60	-23
Right	Cerebellum (VIII)		6.1979	28	-55	-53
SUB- LOBAR						
Left	Midbrain/Thalamus	63	4.8934	-8	-18	-10
Children						
FRONTAL						
Left	Precentral gyrus	575	10.0246	-50	-5	40
Left	IFG p. opercularis		5.1380	-58	3	23
Left	Posterior medial frontal gyrus	1006	8.8030	-8	8	50
Left	Anterior cingulum lobule		7.1821	-8	20	28
Right	Anterior Cingulate cortex		4.4394	8	40	23
Left	Insula	344	6.5768	-35	15	13
Left	IFG p. triangularis		3.4915	-53	18	-8
Right	Insula	247	5.9461	30	18	-10
Right	Insula		5.3397	33	18	13
Left	Superior Frontal gyrus	113	5.0702	-23	-10	50
Right	Middle Frontal Gyrus	88	4.9846	35	25	38
Right	Middle Orbital Gyrus	59	4.3018	38	48	0
TEMPORAL						
Left	Inferior temporal gyrus	93	5.4017	-53	-55	-15
CEREBELLUM						
Right	Cerebellum (VI)	1927	12.3139	25	-60	-25
Right	Cerebellum (X)		8.2758	30	-43	-35
Right	Cerebellar vermis 8		7.7357	3	-68	-35
Left	Cerebellum Crus 1	202	5.3455	-38	-53	-33
Left	Cerebellum (IX)		4.6707	-15	-58	-38
PARIETAL						
Left	Inferior parietal lobule /Superior parietal lobule	431	6.2417	-28	-65	40
Left	Inferior parietal lobule		6.0319	-45	-38	45
Right	Inferior parietal lobule	331	5.4119	48	-50	55
Right	Angular gyrus		4.3849	35	-68	50
SUB- LOBAR						
Left	Thalamus	265	6.6718	-13	-13	8
Left	Midbrain		3.3939	-5	-20	-20
Left	Pons	86	5.2969	-3	-40	-55

Table 1: Results of the whole brain analysis for Adults and Children, showing preferential activations for Words and Letters than for Loops, coordinates are in the MNI space. The contrasts are displayed at a threshold of $p < 0.001$, uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel-level and $p < .05$, FWE-corrected for multiple comparisons at the cluster level.

Location		Cluster	Stats t-value	MNI Coordinates			Contrasts
				x	y	z	
Main effect of group							
FRONTAL							
Right	Precentral gyrus	161	5.5472	38	-10	50	Adults vs Children
Right	Precentral gyrus	152	4.7785	20	-33	55	Adults vs Children
Right/Left	Posterior medial frontal gyrus		4.5594	3	-5	58	Adults vs Children
Right	Superior frontal gyrus		3.9558	20	-18	70	Adults vs Children
Left	Inferior frontal gyrus (pars Orbitalis) / Insula	76	4.4635	-43	18	-5	Children vs Adults
Left	Anterior Cingulate lobule	76	4.1973	-3	33	23	Children vs Adults
TEMPORAL							
Left	Fusiform gyrus (SVC)	38	4.7512	-40	-40	-13	Children vs Adults
OCCIPITAL							
Left	Linual gyrus / Calcarine	126	4.3426	-10	-78	5	Adults vs Children
CEREBELLUM							
Right	Anterior cerebellar lobule (IV –V)	134	5.1063	8	-58	-8	Adults vs Children

Table 2: Results of the main effect of group at the whole brain level, MNI space, $p < .05$, FWE-corrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel and cluster level. The “Contrast” column shows significant pairwise t-tests between Adults and Children for voxels located at the local maxima ($p < .001$).

Bibliography

Data Availability Statement: The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Corresponding author : Sarah Palmis, Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives, UMR 7291, CNRS - Aix-Marseille University, Marseille, 13331, France. +33 413551086, sarah.palmis@live.fr.

Behzadi, Y., Restom, K., Liau, J., & Liu, T. T. (2007). A component based noise correction method (CompCor) for BOLD and perfusion based fMRI. *NeuroImage*, 37(1), 90–101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2007.04.042>

Bitan, T., Burman, D. D., Chou, T.-L., Lu, D., Cone, N. E., Cao, F., Bigio, J. D., & Booth, J. R. (2007). The interaction between orthographic and phonological information in

children : An fMRI study. *Human Brain Mapping*, 28(9), 880–891.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.20313>

- Brem, S., Bach, S., Kucian, K., Kujala, J. V., Guttorm, T. K., Martin, E., Lyytinen, H., Brandeis, D., & Richardson, U. (2010). Brain sensitivity to print emerges when children learn letter–speech sound correspondences. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 107(17), 7939–7944. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0904402107>
- Buetefisch, C. M., Hines, B., Shuster, L., Pergami, P., & Mathes, A. (2011). Motor demand-dependent improvement in accuracy following low-frequency transcranial magnetic stimulation of left motor cortex. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 106(4), 1614–1621. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00048.2011>
- Buetefisch, C. M., Revill, K. P., Shuster, L., Hines, B., & Parsons, M. (2014). Motor demand-dependent activation of ipsilateral motor cortex. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 112(4), 999–1009. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00110.2014>
- Burgund, E. D., Kang, H. C., Kelly, J. E., Buckner, R. L., Snyder, A. Z., Petersen, S. E., & Schlaggar, B. L. (2002). The feasibility of a common stereotactic space for children and adults in fMRI studies of development. *NeuroImage*, 17(1), 184–200.
- Caballero-Gaudes, C., & Reynolds, R. C. (2017). Methods for cleaning the BOLD fMRI signal. *NeuroImage*, 154, 128–149. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.12.018>
- Cachia, A., Borst, G., Vidal, J., Fischer, C., Pineau, A., Mangin, J.-F., & Houdé, O. (2014). The Shape of the ACC Contributes to Cognitive Control Efficiency in Preschoolers. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 26(1), 96–106. https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn_a_00459

- Carter, C. S. (1998). Anterior Cingulate Cortex, Error Detection, and the Online Monitoring of Performance. *Science*, *280*(5364), 747–749.
<https://doi.org/10.1126/science.280.5364.747>
- Centanni, T. M., King, L. W., Eddy, M. D., Whitfield-Gabrieli, S., & Gabrieli, J. D. E. (2017). Development of sensitivity versus specificity for print in the visual word form area. *Brain and Language*, *170*, 62–70. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2017.03.009>
- Chartrel, E., & Vinter, A. (2006). Rôle des informations visuelles dans la production de lettres cursives chez l'enfant et l'adulte. *L'Année psychologique*, *106*(1), 43–63.
- Chase, C. H., & Tallal, P. (1990). A developmental, interactive activation model of the word superiority effect. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *49*(3), 448–487.
- De Smet, H. J., Engelborghs, S., Paquier, P. F., De Deyn, P. P., & Mariën, P. (2011). Cerebellar-induced apraxic agraphia : A review and three new cases. *Brain and Cognition*, *76*(3), 424–434. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandc.2010.12.006>
- Dehaene-Lambertz, G., Monzalvo, K., & Dehaene, S. (2018). The emergence of the visual word form : Longitudinal evolution of category-specific ventral visual areas during reading acquisition. *PLOS Biology*, *16*(3), e2004103.
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2004103>
- Doyon, J., Penhune, V., & Ungerleider, L. G. (2003). Distinct contribution of the cortico-striatal and cortico-cerebellar systems to motor skill learning. *Neuropsychologia*, *41*, 252–262.
- Doyon, Julien, & Benali, H. (2005). Reorganization and plasticity in the adult brain during learning of motor skills. *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, *15*(2), 161–167.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conb.2005.03.004>

- Esteban, O., Birman, D., Schaer, M., Koyejo, O. O., Poldrack, R. A., & Gorgolewski, K. J. (2017). MRIQC : Advancing the automatic prediction of image quality in MRI from unseen sites. *PLOS ONE*, *12*(9), e0184661.
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0184661>
- Everts, R., Lidzba, K., Wilke, M., Kiefer, C., Mordasini, M., Schroth, G., Perrig, W., & Steinlin, M. (2009). Strengthening of laterality of verbal and visuospatial functions during childhood and adolescence. *Human brain mapping*, *30*(2), 473–483.
- Exner, S. (1881). *Untersuchungen über die Localisation der Functionen in der Grosshirnrinde des Menschen*. Braumüller.
- Friston, K. J. (1996). Imaging cognitive anatomy. *Trends Cogn Sci*.
- Galea, J. M., Vazquez, A., Pasricha, N., de Xivry, J.-J. O., & Celnik, P. (2011). Dissociating the roles of the cerebellum and motor cortex during adaptive learning : The motor cortex retains what the cerebellum learns. *Cerebral Cortex (New York, N.Y.: 1991)*, *21*(8), 1761–1770. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhq246>
- Gehring, W. J., Goss, B., Coles, M. G. H., Meyer, D. E., & Donchin, E. (1993). A Neural System for Error Detection and Compensation. *Psychological Science*, *4*(6), 385–390.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.1993.tb00586.x>
- Gerloff, C. (1997). Stimulation over the human supplementary motor area interferes with the organization of future elements in complex motor sequences. *Brain*, *120*(9), 1587–1602. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/120.9.1587>
- Gibson, E. J., Gibson, J. J., Pick, A. D., & Osser, H. (1962). A developmental study of the discrimination of letter-like forms. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, *55*(6), 897–906.
- Gimenez, P., Bugescu, N., Black, J. M., Hancock, R., Pugh, K., Nagamine, M., Kutner, E., Mazaika, P., Hendren, R., McCandliss, B. D., & Hoeft, F. (2014). Neuroimaging

- correlates of handwriting quality as children learn to read and write. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2014.00155>
- Goldberg, G. (1985). Supplementary motor area structure and function : Review and hypotheses. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 8, 567–567.
- Grayson, D. S., & Fair, D. A. (2017a). Development of large-scale functional networks from birth to adulthood : A guide to the neuroimaging literature. *NeuroImage*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2017.01.079>
- Grossberg, S., & Paine, R. W. (2000). A neural model of cortico-cerebellar interactions during attentive imitation and predictive learning of sequential handwriting movements. *Neural Networks*, 13(8–9), 999–1046. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0893-6080\(00\)00065-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0893-6080(00)00065-4)
- Hannagan, T., Amedi, A., Cohen, L., Dehaene-Lambertz, G., & Dehaene, S. (2015). Origins of the specialization for letters and numbers in ventral occipitotemporal cortex. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, 19(7), 374–382.
- Hardwick, R. M., Rottschy, C., Miall, R. C., & Eickhoff, S. B. (2013). A quantitative meta-analysis and review of motor learning in the human brain. *NeuroImage*, 67, 283–297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2012.11.020>
- Hoefl, F., Ueno, T., Reiss, A. L., Meyler, A., Whitfield-Gabrieli, S., Glover, G. H., Keller, T. A., Kobayashi, N., Mazaika, P., & Jo, B. (2007). Prediction of children’s reading skills using behavioral, functional, and structural neuroimaging measures. *Behavioral neuroscience*, 121(3), 602.
- James, Karin H., & Engelhardt, L. (2012). The effects of handwriting experience on functional brain development in pre-literate children. *Trends in Neuroscience and Education*, 1(1), 32–42. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tine.2012.08.001>

- James, Karin H, & Gauthier, I. (2006). Letter processing automatically recruits a sensory–motor brain network. *Neuropsychologia*, *44*(14), 2937–2949.
- James, Karin H, Jao, R. J., & Berninger, V. (2016). The development of multi-leveled writing brain systems; Brain lessons for writing instruction. *Handbook of writing research*, 116–129.
- James, Karin H., & Kersey, A. J. (2018). Dorsal stream function in the young child : An fMRI investigation of visually guided action. *Developmental Science*, *21*(2), e12546.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/desc.12546>
- James, Karin Harman. (2010). Sensori-motor experience leads to changes in visual processing in the developing brain. *Developmental Science*, *13*(2), 279–288.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2009.00883.x>
- Joseph, J. E., Cerullo, M. A., Farley, A. B., Steinmetz, N. A., & Mier, C. R. (2006). FMRI correlates of cortical specialization and generalization for letter processing. *NeuroImage*, *32*(2), 806–820. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2006.04.175>
- Kadmon Harpaz, N., Flash, T., & Dinstein, I. (2014). Scale-invariant movement encoding in the human motor system. *Neuron*, *81*(2), 452–462.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2013.10.058>
- Karni, A., Meyer, G., Jezzard, P., Adams, M. M., Turner, R., & Ungerleider, L. G. (1995). Functional MRI evidence for adult motor cortex plasticity during motor skill learning. *Nature*, *377*(6545), 155–158. <https://doi.org/10.1038/377155a0>
- Kasper, L., Bollmann, S., Diaconescu, A. O., Hutton, C., Heinzle, J., Iglesias, S., Hauser, T. U., Sebold, M., Manjaly, Z.-M., Pruessmann, K. P., & Stephan, K. E. (2017). The PhysIO Toolbox for Modeling Physiological Noise in fMRI Data. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods*, *276*, 56–72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2016.10.019>

- Klein, T. A., Ullsperger, M., & Danielmeier, C. (2013). Error awareness and the insula : Links to neurological and psychiatric diseases. *Frontiers in human neuroscience*, 7, 14.
- Kobayashi, M., Hutchinson, S., Schlaug, G., & Pascual-Leone, A. (2003). Ipsilateral motor cortex activation on functional magnetic resonance imaging during unilateral hand movements is related to interhemispheric interactions. *NeuroImage*, 20(4), 2259–2270.
- Koziol, L. F., Budding, D., Andreasen, N., D'Arrigo, S., Bulgheroni, S., Imamizu, H., Ito, M., Manto, M., Marvel, C., Parker, K., Pezzulo, G., Ramnani, N., Riva, D., Schmahmann, J., Vandervert, L., & Yamazaki, T. (2014). Consensus Paper : The Cerebellum's Role in Movement and Cognition. *The Cerebellum*, 13(1), 151–177.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12311-013-0511-x>
- Kuznetsova, A., Brockhoff, P. B., & Christensen, R. H. B. (2017). **lmerTest** Package : Tests in Linear Mixed Effects Models. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 82(13).
<https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v082.i13>
- Longcamp, M., hupé, JM., Ruiz, M., Vayssière, N., & Sato, M. (2019). Shared premotor activity in spoken and written communication. *Brain and Language*.
- Longcamp, Marieke, Anton, J.-L., Roth, M., & Velay, J.-L. (2003). Visual presentation of single letters activates a premotor area involved in writing. *Neuroimage*, 19(4), 1492–1500.
- Longcamp, Marieke, Lagarrigue, A., Nazarian, B., Roth, M., Anton, J.-L., Alario, F.-X., & Velay, J.-L. (2014). Functional specificity in the motor system : Evidence from coupled fMRI and kinematic recordings during letter and digit writing. *Human Brain Mapping*, 35(12), 6077–6087. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.22606>

- MacDonald, A. W. (2000). Dissociating the Role of the Dorsolateral Prefrontal and Anterior Cingulate Cortex in Cognitive Control. *Science*, 288(5472), 1835–1838.
<https://doi.org/10.1126/science.288.5472.1835>
- Magrassi, L., Bongetta, D., Bianchini, S., Berardesca, M., & Arienta, C. (2010). Central and peripheral components of writing critically depend on a defined area of the dominant superior parietal gyrus. *Brain Research*, 1346, 145–154.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres.2010.05.046>
- Manto, M., Bower, J. M., Conforto, A. B., Delgado-García, J. M., da Guarda, S. N. F., Gerwig, M., Habas, C., Hagura, N., Ivry, R. B., Mariën, P., Molinari, M., Naito, E., Nowak, D. A., Oulad Ben Taib, N., Pelisson, D., Tesche, C. D., Tilikete, C., & Timmann, D. (2012). Consensus paper : Roles of the cerebellum in motor control--the diversity of ideas on cerebellar involvement in movement. *Cerebellum (London, England)*, 11(2), 457–487. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12311-011-0331-9>
- Marien, P., Verhoeven, J., Brouns, R., De Witte, L., Dobbeleir, A., & De Deyn, P. P. (2007). APRAXIC AGRAPHIA FOLLOWING A RIGHT CEREBELLAR HEMORRHAGE. *Neurology*, 69(9), 926–929. <https://doi.org/10.1212/01.wnl.0000267845.05041.41>
- McCandliss, B. D., Cohen, L., & Dehaene, S. (2003). The visual word form area : Expertise for reading in the fusiform gyrus. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, 7(7), 293–299.
- Nelson, S. M., Dosenbach, N. U., Cohen, A. L., Wheeler, M. E., Schlaggar, B. L., & Petersen, S. E. (2010). Role of the anterior insula in task-level control and focal attention. *Brain structure and function*, 214(5–6), 669–680.
- Palmis, S., Velay, J.-L., Fabiani, E., Nazarian, B., Anton, J.-L., Habib, M., Kandel, S., & Longcamp, M. (2019). The impact of spelling regularity on handwriting production :

A coupled fMRI and kinematics study. *Cortex*, 113, 111–127.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2018.11.024>

Pascual-Leone, A., Nguyet, D., Cohen, L. G., Brasil-Neto, J. P., Cammarota, A., & Hallett, M. (1995). Modulation of muscle responses evoked by transcranial magnetic stimulation during the acquisition of new fine motor skills. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 74(3), 1037.

Planton, S., Jucla, M., Roux, F.-E., & Démonet, J.-F. (2013). The « handwriting brain » : A meta-analysis of neuroimaging studies of motor versus orthographic processes. *Cortex; a Journal Devoted to the Study of the Nervous System and Behavior*, 49(10), 2772–2787. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2013.05.011>

Planton, S., Longcamp, M., Péran, P., Démonet, J.-F., & Jucla, M. (2017). How specialized are writing-specific brain regions? An fMRI study of writing, drawing and oral spelling. *Cortex*, 88, 66–80. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2016.11.018>

Polk, T. A., Stallcup, M., Aguirre, G. K., Alsop, D. C., D’Esposito, M., Detre, D. A., & Farah, M. J. (2002). Neural specialization for letter recognition. *J Cog Neurosc*, 14(2), 145–159.

Purcell, J. J., Napoliello, E. M., & Eden, G. F. (2011). A combined fMRI study of typed spelling and reading. *NeuroImage*, 55(2), 750–762.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2010.11.042>

Purcell, J. J., Turkeltaub, P. E., Eden, G. F., & Rapp, B. (2011a). Examining the central and peripheral processes of written word production through meta-analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 2, 239. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00239>

Rapp, B., & Dufor, O. (2011a). The Neurotopography of Written Word Production : An fMRI Investigation of the Distribution of Sensitivity to Length and Frequency. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 23(12), 4067–4081. https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn_a_00109

- Rapp, B., & Lipka, K. (2011). The literate brain : The relationship between spelling and reading. *Journal of cognitive neuroscience*, 23(5), 1180–1197.
- Rapp, B., Purcell, J., Hillis, A. E., Capasso, R., & Miceli, G. (2016a). Neural bases of orthographic long-term memory and working memory in dysgraphia. *Brain*, 139(2), 588–604. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awv348>
- Richards, T. L., Berninger, V. W., Stock, P., Altemeier, L., Trivedi, P., & Maravilla, K. (2009). Functional magnetic resonance imaging sequential-finger movement activation differentiating good and poor writers. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology*, 31(8), 967–983. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803390902780201>
- Richards, T. L., Berninger, V. W., Stock, P., Altemeier, L., Trivedi, P., & Maravilla, K. R. (2011). Differences between good and poor child writers on fMRI contrasts for writing newly taught and highly practiced letter forms. *Reading and Writing*, 24(5), 493–516.
- Rothlein, D., & Rapp, B. (2014a). The similarity structure of distributed neural responses reveals the multiple representations of letters. *NeuroImage*, 89, 331–344. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.11.054>
- Roux, F.-E., Dufor, O., Giussani, C., Wamain, Y., Draper, L., Longcamp, M., & Démonet, J.-F. (2009). The graphemic/motor frontal area Exner's area revisited : Graphemic/Motor Frontal Area. *Annals of Neurology*, 66(4), 537–545. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.21804>
- Seghier, M. L. (2008). Laterality index in functional MRI : Methodological issues. *Magnetic Resonance Imaging*, 26(5), 594–601. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mri.2007.10.010>
- Seitz, R. J., Canavan, A. G., Yágüez, L., Herzog, H., Tellmann, L., Knorr, U., Huang, Y., & Hömberg, V. (1997). Representations of graphomotor trajectories in the human parietal cortex : Evidence for controlled processing and automatic performance. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, 9(2), 378–389.

- Szaflarski, J. P., Schmithorst, V. J., Altaye, M., Byars, A. W., Ret, J., Plante, E., & Holland, S. K. (2006). A longitudinal functional magnetic resonance imaging study of language development in children 5 to 11 years old. *Annals of Neurology*, *59*(5), 796–807.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.20817>
- Toni, I., Krams, M., Turner, R., & Passingham, R. E. (1998). The Time Course of Changes during Motor Sequence Learning : A Whole-Brain fMRI Study. *NeuroImage*, *8*(1), 50–61. <https://doi.org/10.1006/nimg.1998.0349>
- Treiman, R. (2017). Learning to Spell Words : Findings, Theories, and Issues. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *21*(4), 265–276. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10888438.2017.1296449>
- Van der Plaats, R. E., & van Galen, G. P. (1991). Allographic variability in adult handwriting. *Human Movement Science*, *10*(2–3), 291–300. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-9457\(91\)90008-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-9457(91)90008-L)
- Van Doorn, R. R., & Keuss, P. J. (1993). Does the production of letter strokes in handwriting benefit from vision? *Acta Psychologica*, *82*(1–3), 275–290.
- Verstynen, T., Diedrichsen, J., Albert, N., Aparicio, P., & Ivry, R. B. (2005). Ipsilateral Motor Cortex Activity During Unimanual Hand Movements Relates to Task Complexity. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, *93*(3), 1209–1222. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00720.2004>
- Vinci-Booher, S., James, T. W., & James, K. H. (2016). Visual-motor functional connectivity in preschool children emerges after handwriting experience. *Trends in Neuroscience and Education*, *5*(3), 107–120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tine.2016.07.006>
- Wilke, M., & Lidzba, K. (2007). LI-tool : A new toolbox to assess lateralization in functional MR-data. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods*, *163*(1), 128–136.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2007.01.026>

- Wilke, M., & Schmithorst, V. J. (2006). A combined bootstrap/histogram analysis approach for computing a lateralization index from neuroimaging data. *NeuroImage*, 33(2), 522–530. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2006.07.010>
- Wolpert, D. M., Miall, R. C., & Kawato, M. (1998). Internal models in the cerebellum. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 2(9), 338–347. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1364-6613\(98\)01221-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1364-6613(98)01221-2)
- Zesiger, P. (1995). *Ecrire. Approches cognitive, neuropsychologique et développementale*. (Vol. 1). PUF.
- Zielinski, B. A., Gennatas, E. D., Zhou, J., & Seeley, W. W. (2010a). Network-level structural covariance in the developing brain. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 107(42), 18191–18196. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1003109107>

Supplementary material

Pretests

Three standardized tests were chosen in order to ensure that all participants were in a normal range for their ages or grades. These tests aimed at evaluating their graphomotor, reading and orthographic skills.

Orthographic level: “Le Petit Poucet” dictation task

The “Petit Poucet” test is a classic dictation task, dictated at the participant’s pace. The length of the text is suitable for the school grade. The score obtained by each participant was compared to the average for the population of the same school level (8/9 years old to CE2/ 3rd grade and 10/11 years old to CM2/ 5th grade). Adults’ scores were compared to the average of the population of 9th grade (highest grade available for this test). Several kinds of skills are tested: lexical stock, common orthographic knowledge, phonological system, semantic control and morphosyntactic knowledge. We chose to focus only on common spelling errors (cat -> Kat) and barbarisms (errors leading to the production of a non-existing word). Mean score on common spelling errors adults: -0.22; Mean score on common spelling errors children: 0.05; Mean score on barbarisms adults: -0.39; Mean score on barbarisms children: -0.83.

Graphomotor level: BHK

The BHK is a fast evaluation test which consists of copying a text for 5 minutes at normal speed on a sheet of white paper. Two versions of the BHK “children: 1st to 5th grade” and “adolescent: 6th to 9th grade” exist. The evaluation relies on criteria of handwriting quality (size, respect of the margin and the line, link between letters, space between words...) and speed (number of characters written). The evaluation leads to a score that was compared for each participant to the average of the population of the same school level (8/9 years old to CE2/ 3rd grade and 10/11 years old to CM2/ 5th grade). Mean score adults: 10.39; Mean score children : 8.5

Reading level: “L’Alouette” test

“L’Alouette” is a reading task based on a text, to be read in maximum of 3 minutes. The number of errors (E), reading time (T), the number words read (W) and number of correctly read words (CW= W-C) are measured. These measures allow us to calculate two parameters: the reading precision = (CW/W)*100 and the reading speed = (CW*180)/T. The scores of each participant were compared to the average of the population of the same school level (8/9 years old to CE2/ 3rd grade and 10/11 years old to CM2/5th grade). Adults’ scores were compared to the average of the population of 9th grade. Mean score adults: 98.96; Mean score children: 95.14

Methodological validation: effect of the absence of visual feedback on task performance:

We chose to suppress visual feedback in order to avoid brain activations related to the reading of words being written. For this reason, all participants were carefully trained in a mock scanner prior to the fMRI scanning. Participants had to write, on the same tablet as the one used for fMRI, single words with or without visual feedback. The order of the sessions with or without visual feedback was counterbalanced across subjects.

We therefore analyzed the writing kinematic parameters (writing duration, length and number of pauses). This procedure allowed us to evaluate the impact of the suppression of this particular feedback (vision of the written trace through a mirror that reflects a projection onto a screen and without hand vision) on writing performance. This analysis was conducted on data from 19 adults and 26 children.

The Data first showed a significant difference in performance between the two groups: with writing times ($t(83.08)=2.996$ $p<2e-16$, Tukey $p<0.0001$) and a higher number of pauses for children ($t(86)=5.531$ $p=3.38e-07$, Tukey $p<0.0001$) (Fig.S1).

The most interesting result is that the performance (duration ($t(43)=-5.147$ $p=6.25e-06$, Tukey $p<0.0001$; writing length ($t(85.014)=-34.486$ $p<2e-16$, Tukey $p<0.0001$; number of pauses ($t(86)=-4.830$ $p=5.89e-06$, Tukey $p<0.0001$) of both groups was better under the "no visual feedback" condition (Figure S1). We also found an interaction effect between the group and the condition for the number of pauses ($t(86)=-2.716$ $p=0.00798$) (Fig.S1).

This particular visual feedback and the fact that the participants focused a lot on the written trace in the "with" condition (to ensure the quality of the trace produced whilst lying down in an position) must

have disturbed the participants. Removing this feedback promoted more proactive control and smoother writing. Thus, methodologically, it was preferable to suppress visual feedback.

----- Figure S1 -----

Quality metrics of the raw data for the two groups:

The quality metrics used for the raw data are presented in table S1. Fd_perc corresponds to the percentage of frames censored at a threshold of $FD > 0.9$ mm. Stars correspond to significant differences between groups assessed by between sample T-tests.

----- Table S1 -----

Complementary analyses for behavioral and head movement confounds:

In order to check whether the results were influenced by possible behavioral confounds (different writing behavior of the two groups within the scanner) or by the procedure used to correct for head movements, we ran two complementary first-level models per participant. In the first complementary model, we added an extra regressor that represented the writing duration of each block, modeled as a parametric modulation of the task blocks convolved with the HRF. It allowed checking whether the group effects were influenced by the actual writing duration of each block. In the second complementary model, we used a more stringent threshold for scrubbing scans subject to head movements ($FD < 0.9$; Siegel et al., 2014).

The results are presented in Figure S2 and Table S2 and S3.

----- Figure S2 -----

----- Table S2 -----

----- Table S3 -----

Main effect of condition:

In addition to the main effect of group, we observed a significant main effect of condition (table S4 and Fig. S3).

Regions that were preferentially activated for the writing of Letters were located in the Left PMd extending to the IFG pars triangularis, in the right superior frontal lobule, in the bilateral temporal lobes (left inferior temporal gyrus and right superior temporal gyrus) and in the left superior parietal lobule extending to the inferior parietal lobule. Significant activations in this contrast were also found in the right Ce (VIII) and in subcortical regions (Left Putamen extending to the caudate nucleus and right putamen).

We observed a network composed of the left and right middle cingulate gyrus, the right FuG and middle temporal gyrus and the left postcentral gyrus preferentially activated for the writing of Words. Additional activations were found in the left FuG / inferior occipital gyrus extending to the middle

occipital gyrus, the left middle occipital gyrus extending to the angular, the left and right cuneus and the right superior occipital gyrus.

----- Figure S3 -----

----- Table S4 -----

Figures:

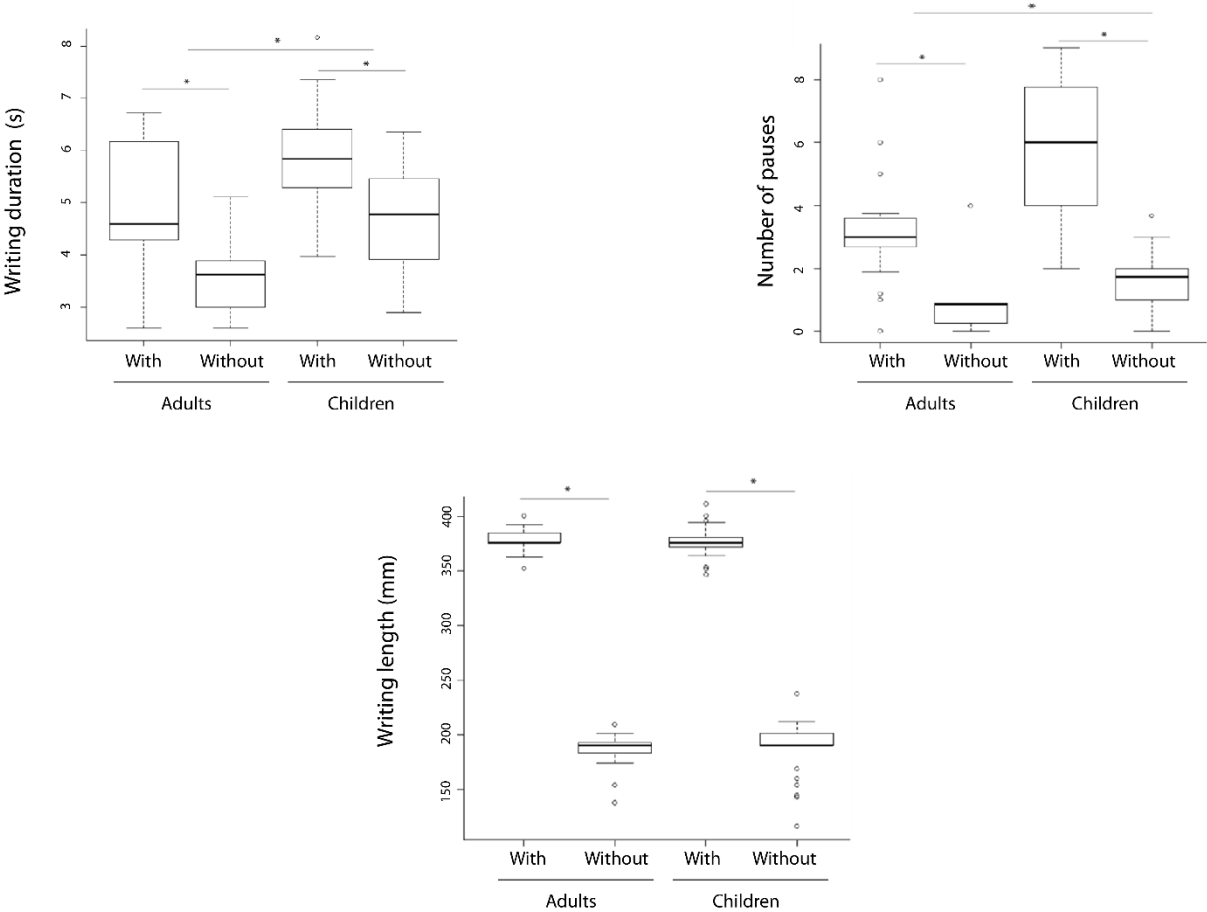


Figure S1: Boxplots representing the writing duration (top left), writing length (bottom) and number of stops (top right) during writing word production, for adults and children with or without visual feedback of the written traces.

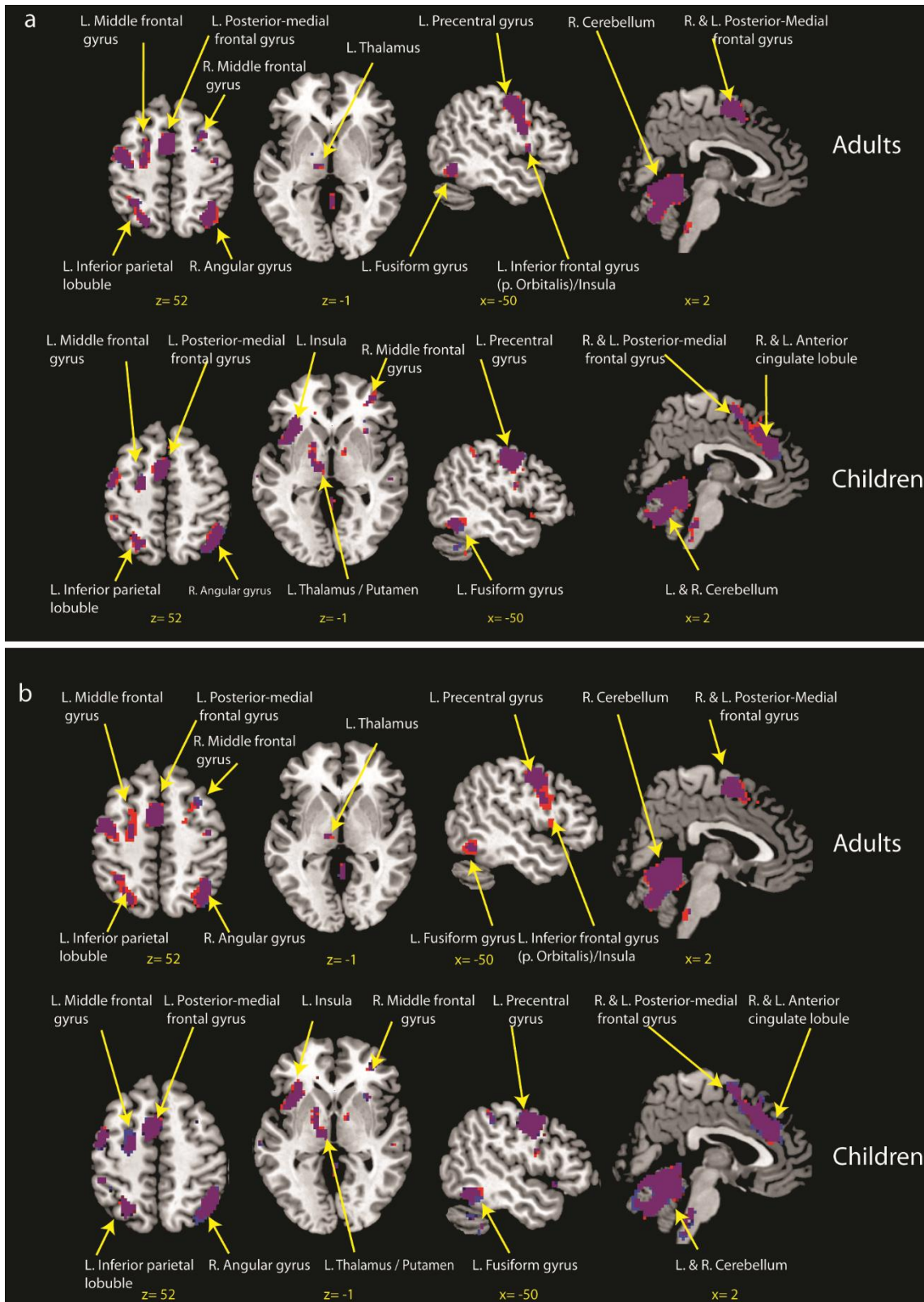


Figure S2: Results for the whole brain T contrast representing regions preferentially activated for Words and Letters than for Loops for complementary analysis 1 (effect of behavioral confounds; panel A) and 2 (Effect of head movement correction; panel B). Upper panel: Adults handwriting network; Lower panel: Children handwriting network. Activations were represented on axial and sagittal slices. The contrasts are displayed at a threshold of $p < 0.001$, uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel-level. Color code: Red: Results of the analysis presented in the main text (figure 2). Blue: Results of the complementary analysis. Violet: Overlap between the two.

	dvars_std*		Tsnr*		snr		fd_mean*		fd_perc*	
	adults	children	adults	children	adults	children	adults	children	adults	children
N	23	42	23	42	23	42	23	42	23	42
Mean	1.080	1.153	39.986	33.821	2.283	2.282	0.184	0.374	0.597	5.590
Median	1.088	1.136	41.375	34.263	2.290	2.273	0.178	0.309	0.000	2.687
Std. Dev	0.044	0.071	5.926	6.654	0.217	0.188	0.083	0.190	1.924	7.872
IQR	0.072	0.100	6.444	9.443	0.247	0.193	0.084	0.175	0.299	7.388
Range	0.148	0.263	24.031	27.887	0.917	1.098	0.410	0.849	9.254	41.194

Table S1: Quality metrics used for the raw data. Fd_perc corresponds to the percentage of frames censored at a threshold of FD>0.9 mm. Stars correspond to significant differences between groups assessed by between sample T-tests.

Location		Cluster size	Stats t-value	MNI Coordinates			Contrasts
				x	y	z	
Main effect of group							
FRONTAL							
Right	Middle frontal gyrus	185	5.4196	42	-5	57	Adults vs Children
Right/Left	Posterior-Medial frontal gyrus	61	4.6832	2	-5	57	Adults vs Children
Right	Superior frontal gyrus	67	4.3082	20	-32	55	Adults vs Children
Right	Precentral gyrus		4.2598	27	-17	67	Adults vs Children
Right/ Left	Anterior cingulate lobule	71	4.2609	5	35	10	Children vs Adults
Left	Inferior frontal gyrus (p. Orbitalis)/ Insula	60	4.2509	-42	17	-5	Children vs Adults
TEMPORAL							
Left	Fusiform gyrus	38	4.1302	-25	15	-17	Children vs Adults
OCCIPITAL							
Left	Lingual gyrus	140	4.4895	-10	-77	5	Adults vs Children
CEREBELUM							
Right	Cerebellum (IV-V)	161	5.1062	10	-55	-7	Adults vs Children
Right	Lingual gyrus		4.03	2	-67	10	
Interaction							
Right	Middle occipital gyrus	7	14.1154	35	-85	5	Group x Condition

Table S2: Results of the main effect of group at the whole brain level for complementary analysis 1 (effect of behavioral confounds), MNI space, $p < 0.001$ uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel level and FWE-corrected (SVC) for multiple comparisons at the cluster level. The “Contrast” column shows significant pairwise t-tests between Adults and Children for voxels located at the local maxima ($p < .001$).

Location		Cluster size	Stats t-value	MNI Coordinates			Contrasts
				x	y	z	
Main effect of group							
FRONTAL							
Right	Middle frontal gyrus	122	5.5571	42	-5	57	Adults vs Children
Right/Left	Posterior-Medial frontal gyrus	58	4.8386	2	-5	55	Adults vs Children
Left	Inferior frontal gyrus (p. Orbitalis)/ Insula	44	4.8819	-42	15	-5	Children vs Adults
Left/Right	Anterior cingulate lobule	34	3.7106	-2	15	30	Children vs Adults
TEMPORAL							
Left	Fusiform gyrus	22	4.4584	-40	-40	-12	Children vs Adults
OCCIPITAL							
Left	Lingual gyrus	66	4.0652	-7	-80	7	Adults vs Children
CEREBELUM							
Left	Cerebellum (IV-V)	230	5.2939	7	-55	-5	Adults vs Children
Right	Calcarine gyrus		4.3003	25	-70	12	
Interaction							
Right	Middle occipital gyrus	5	13,1618	22	-87	7	Group x Condition

Table S3: Results of the main effect of group at the whole brain level for complementary analysis 2 (Effect of head movement correction), MNI space, $p < 0.001$ uncorrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel level and FWE-corrected (SVC) for multiple comparisons at the cluster level. The “Contrast” column shows significant pairwise t-tests between Adults and Children for voxels located at the local maxima ($p < .001$).

Location	Cluster size	Stats t-value	MNI Coordinates			Contrasts	
			x	y	z		
Main effect of condition							
FRONTAL							
Left	Superior Frontal gyrus	863	7.8061	-23	-5	53	Letters vs Words
	Inferior frontal gyrus (pars triangularis)		6.7714	-48	8	30	Letters vs Words
	Inferior frontal gyrus (pars triangularis)		5.2806	-38	33	13	Letters vs Words
Right	Superior frontal lobule	94	5.7109	23	-8	53	Letters vs Words
Right	Middle cingulate gyrus	60	4.0600	8	-40	50	Words vs Letters
Left	Middle cingulate gyrus		3.5542	-10	-35	40	Words vs Letters
TEMPORAL							
Left	Inferior temporal gyrus	92	5.6052	-45	-58	-5	Letters vs Words
Right	Superior temporal gyrus	76	5.8093	68	-25	10	Letters vs Words
Right	Fusiform gyrus	65	4.2471	28	-53	-8	Words vs Letters
Right	Middle temporal gyrus	55	3.9977	45	-68	10	Words vs Letters
PARIETAL							
Left	Superior parietal lobule	854	6.6674	-23	-63	63	Letters vs Words
	Inferior parietal lobule		5.8737	-33	-43	45	Letters vs Words
Left	Postcentral gyrus	215	6.6661	-43	-23	53	Words vs Letters
OCCIPITAL							
Left	Fusiform gyrus/ Inferior occipital gyrus	271	5.1443	-38	-80	-10	Words vs Letters
Left	Middle occipital gyrus		4.7997	-28	-95	18	Words vs Letters
Left	Middle occipital gyrus		4.0872	-45	-85	10	Words vs Letters
Right	Superior occipital gyrus	98	4.1916	20	-90	30	Words vs Letters
Right	Cuneus	84	4.3246	13	-83	45	Words vs Letters
Left	Cuneus	83	4.4886	-5	-100	15	Words vs Letters
Left	Cuneus		3.3750	-3	-83	28	Words vs Letters
Left	Middle occipital gyrus	63	4.4608	-38	-80	43	Words vs Letters
	Angular gyrus		3.7059	-50	-63	43	Words vs Letters
CEREBELLUM							
Right	Cerebellum (VIII)	145	6.1812	20	-70	-53	Letters vs Words
SUB - LOBAR							
Left	Putamen	258	6.9151	-18	5	3	Letters vs Words
Left	Caudate nucleus		3.9849	-18	-8	23	Letters vs Words
Right	Putamen	160	6.2991	23	0	10	Letters vs Words
Interaction							
OCCIPITAL							
Right	Middle occipital gyrus	70	18.3094	33	-85	8	

Table S4: Results of the main effect of condition and the interaction at the whole brain level, MNI space, FWE-corrected for multiple comparisons at the voxel and cluster level. The “Contrast” column shows significant pairwise t-tests between Words and Letter for voxels located at the local maxima ($p < .001$).