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Predicting Future Poor Readers from Pre-reading Visual Skills: A Longitudinal Study

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1 **Predicting Future Poor Readers from Pre-reading Visual Skills:**

2 **A longitudinal study**

3 4 **ABSTRACT**

5 Reading is essential for learning, from literature to physics, from paper to screens on e-readers
6 and smart phones. Even if it is well known that learning to read implies good language skills,
7 children also need to develop good oculomotor and visual-perception skills. Thereby, any
8 deficits in visual processing may affect learning. The possible impact of visual deficits is rarely
9 considered, especially with regard to eye movements and visual perception. Hence, these
10 deficits are usually discovered much later or remain undiagnosed. The present study aimed at
11 assessing the usefulness of visual processing related measures in the early detection of reading
12 difficulties. Visual skill differences that are apparent early in kindergarten might provide
13 predictive insights into risk for learning difficulties at school entry. We used a prospective,
14 longitudinal approach where visual processes (assessed with the Developmental Eye Movement
15 (DEM) test) were measured in 51 preschoolers, and the impact of these processes on future
16 reading development was explored one year later, in Grade 1. Results showed that (1) 31% of
17 our sample of preschoolers showed visual processing impairments (without any clinical
18 complaints) and (2) reading accuracy and speed in first graders were significantly correlated
19 with visual skills assessed in kindergarten, thus confirming the significant role of oculomotor
20 and visual-perception processes in the acquisition of reading skills. These suggests the potential
21 for these measures to be used clinically for identifying children at risk for low academic
22 achievement, enabling appropriate targeting of early interventions.

23 Keywords: Longitudinal study; Reading acquisition; Kindergarten; Visual information
24 processing; Eye movements; DEM-test; Preliteracy skills

25 **INTRODUCTION**

26 Although reading is rapid and automatic in skilled readers, in beginning readers it
27 emerges only as a result of the complex and effortful interaction between perceptual/oculomotor
28 processes and language processing (Schatschneider et al., 2004). These processes rely on
29 children’s grasp of fundamental skills, such as visual perceptual skills, spoken language skills,
30 short-term memory and accurate eye control skills, that develop during the preschool years
31 before the beginning of formal reading instruction (Nicolson & Fawcett, 2010; Pollatsek &
32 Rayner, 2005; Rayner & Liversedge, 2011; Ziegler et al., 2008).

33 While a good deal of recent research has focused on the role of phonological skills in
34 learning to perceive written language, little attention has been paid to the development of visual
35 skills¹ in prereaders or about the role that these visual skills play in early reading development.
36 However, reading is a visual task, highly constrained by the anatomical and functional limits of
37 our visual system (for reviews, see Leibnitz et al., 2015, 2017). Whereas it is likely that both
38 phonology and visual processes contribute to skilled reading acquisition and its dysfunction,
39 few studies have been conducted to examine oculomotor and visuo-perceptual processes related
40 to word recognition skills in children as they learn to read. This paper is therefore focused upon
41 those processes and on their potential as explanation of reading behaviour and reading problems
42 in the context of general emergent literacy skills.

43 **The importance of visual processing in reading**

44 Previous researchers have found high overlaps between visual skills and domain-general
45 cognitive skills (e.g., sustained attention, nonverbal reasoning, and inhibitory control) (Buckley
46 et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019), as well as rapid automatic naming (RAN; Yang et al., 2020).

¹ By visual skills or visual processing, we do not mean visual acuity but rather a complex visual and/or visuo-attentional mechanism specific to the reading activity

47 For sighted people, written language is perceived visually. The high visual acuity that is needed
48 to rapidly identify words is spatially limited (Lee et al., 2003; Rayner & Bertera, 1979; Rayner
49 & Morrison, 1981) and most studies today agree about the link between visual attention and
50 oculomotor control during reading: visual attention affects saccadic programming, that is, the
51 position where the eyes land in a word and acts as a filter that enhances letter identification
52 under the attentional focus, thus limiting the detrimental effects of acuity and crowding
53 (Carrasco, 2011; Strasburger, 2005; Tydgate & Grainger, 2009; Yeshurun & Rashal, 2010). One
54 of the first tasks of the beginning reader is therefore to develop good oculomotor skills to
55 overcome anatomo-functional constraints of the eye and be able to land in the best position
56 within the words to be read, to extract the information being fixated, to program a saccade, to
57 position the eyes on the next word, and so on (Ducrot et al., 2013; O'Regan & Lévy-Schoen,
58 1987; Rayner, 1986).

59 Furthermore, visual processing shapes the way visual information is extracted from print
60 (Aghababian & Nazir, 2000; Ducrot et al., 2013). In order to process letters within foveal strings
61 and to apply grapheme-to-phoneme conversion rules, beginning readers must be able, at first,
62 to segment the fixated information by shifting from distributed attention to more focused
63 attention. Secondly, the child has to detect and take into account letter orientation (e.g. p
64 becomes q with an orientation change), letter sharpness (e.g. c and e only differ from each other
65 by a visual feature) and letter-in-word order (the same set of letters can make different words,
66 e.g. pat, tap, apt in English). Finally, the child has to develop to inhibit all surrounding letters
67 and words to reduce visual crowding—that is the interference generated by stimuli in close
68 proximity—and optimize letter identification under the attentional focus (Tydgate & Grainger,
69 2009). It follows that basic aspects of oculomotor control (which provide optimal visual input),
70 the ability to orient the focus of attention as well as the ability to control its size are assumed to
71 play a crucial role in the development of reading skills (Ducrot et al., 2013; Grainger, 2018;

72 Leibnitz et al., 2017; Morris & Rayner, 1991) and that their inadequate development might be
73 one cause of reading disabilities (e.g., Biscaldi et al., 2000; Fischer & Weber, 1990).

74 The idea of the implication of visual skills in learning to read is not a recent one
75 (Morgan, 1896), but it remains an infrequently investigated issue. However, the findings from
76 dyslexics and typically developing readers suggest a strong relationship between reading ability
77 and visual processing skills (such as visual-perceptual, oculomotor and visual-attentional
78 processes, for reviews, see (Bellocchi et al., 2013; Blythe & Joseph, 2011; Ducrot et al., 2013;
79 Kulp & Schmidt, 1996a). For example, Yang and Meng (2020) longitudinally followed 108
80 preschoolers and revealed a strong association between preschool visual processes and Grade
81 1 reading outcomes, thus supporting the concept that visual performance is key to learning and
82 more specifically to reading acquisition (see also González et al., 2014; Memiş & Sivri, 2016).

83 In the same vein, a body of research suggests that deficits in visual-perceptual or
84 oculomotor processing may contribute to reading difficulties (Franceschini et al., 2012; Gori &
85 Facoetti, 2015; Granet et al., 2006; Meng et al., 2011; Vidyasagar & Pammer, 2010; Zhou et
86 al., 2014; see also Bellocchi et al., 2013, for a review). For example, children who have deficits
87 in visual perception often cannot efficiently distinguish words printed in different sizes or colors
88 (Fischer et al., 2000; Visser et al., 2004). In addition to poor performance on tasks requiring
89 phonological awareness, children who had poor reading abilities may present visual perception
90 deficits, e.g. (1) disturbances in contrast sensibility (Lovegrove et al., 1980), weak sensitivity
91 in detecting coherent motion or forms (Cornelissen et al., 1995), letter identity confusions
92 and/or location errors (Pelli et al., 2004; Whitney & Levi, 2011); distortion, blurring, merging
93 or moving of letters or words (Kovács, 2000; Stein & Walsh, 1997), (2) oculomotor dysfunction
94 (e.g., increased duration and number of fixations, reduced saccade amplitude, increased ocular
95 regression leading to misread words, missing words and skipping lines (De Luca et al., 2002;
96 Hutzler & Wimmer, 2004) and/or (3) visual attention impairments (e.g. problems focusing

97 attention, Kramer & Hinojosa, 1999; high sensitivity to the crowding effect, Martelli et al.,
98 2009; Zorzi et al., 2012; symmetrical OVP curve, (Bellocchi & Ducrot, 2021; Ducrot et al.,
99 2003) when they attempt to read (see also, Bosse & Valdois, 2009; Ducrot & Lété, 2008, 2020;
100 Lallier et al., 2010; Lété & Ducrot, 2008). It also has been found that remediation based on
101 training of oculomotor and visuo-attentional abilities improves reading abilities in dyslexic
102 children (Caldani et al., 2020; Launay & Valdois, 2004; Lehtimäki & Reilly, 2005).

103

104 **Predictors of reading development**

105 The findings from dyslexics and typically developing readers suggest that the problems
106 children experience in learning to read during the elementary years and beyond are related to
107 the preliteracy skills that they bring with them from preschool and kindergarten (e.g. Lonigan,
108 2006; Wagner et al., 1994). It is generally accepted that phonological skills are important for
109 the development of reading (for a review, see Kirby et al., 2008). Evidence that these skills are
110 necessary precursors for learning to read, is that pre-reading children in kindergarten who score
111 poorly on tests of phonemic awareness (i.e., the ability to recognize and manipulate individual
112 speech sounds) and rapid automatic naming (RAN) are more likely to become poor readers over
113 the next few years (Carroll et al., 2003; Lonigan et al., 2000; Parrila et al., 2004; Schatschneider
114 et al., 2004)².

115 As previously stated, the importance of phonological and orthographic skills in learning
116 to read shouldn't overshadow the fact that a written or printed word is, above all, a visual
117 stimulus, and visuo-attentional and oculomotor skills (which provide optimal visual input) may
118 play a crucial role in successful reading development. If visual perception is not fully developed

² It should be noted that other linguistic skills play important roles in successful reading acquisition, as knowledge of alphabetic letters (Lonigan et al., 2000; Parrila et al., 2004; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002) and word forms (Goodman, 1986; Lonigan et al., 2000).

119 by the time a child is in preschool, his or her ability to read (Flax et al., 1984; Kulp & Schmidt,
120 1996a, 1996b), to spell, and to write (Borsting et al., 2005) may be affected. These visual
121 disorders which often appear in the absence of complaints expressed by the subject or his/her
122 family may lead to eye fatigue, increased tiredness of the child, blurriness, headaches, and/or
123 burning eyes, and then, depending on their severity, to difficulty sustaining attention and focus.
124 All of which may interfere with visual exploration, reading fluency and distract from reading
125 comprehension.

126 Recent research suggests that in addition to skills with language sounds, visual-spatial
127 attention may be an important predictor of reading development. Franceschini et al. (2012)
128 showed that children who had poor reading abilities during the first or second year of reading
129 education made significantly more errors on a visual-search task and a spatial-cueing task than
130 normal readers had when they were in kindergarten. Moreover, poorly developed visual
131 information processing skills, which refer to the cognitive abilities required to extract and
132 organise visual input derived from the environment, have also been associated with poorer
133 learning outcomes (Vinuela-Navarro et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2018). In an earlier study, Kavale
134 (1982) performed a meta-analysis of 161 major studies relating visual perception and reading
135 performance. His results indicated that visual perception is a significant correlate of reading
136 achievement, and is predictive of reading performance in school, especially during the
137 preschool and primary school grades. The initial landing position, the visual-attentional span
138 and visual-motor skills also explain part of the variance in the reading abilities after one year
139 of learning (Bellocchi et al., 2017; Bosse & Valdois, 2009; Chung et al., 2004; Ducrot et al.,
140 2021; Kwon et al., 2007; Valdois et al., 2019). These various findings suggested therefore that
141 visual and oculomotor processing is highly essential in the development of reading skills.

142

143 **The present study**

144 To sum up, in addition to the well-documented importance of phonological skills in
145 reading acquisition and dyslexia, visual processes also appear as important factors in learning
146 to read. Despite the evidence of 1) the importance of the oculomotor and visuo-perceptual
147 processes in learning to read, and 2) data showing perceptual and oculomotor deficits in
148 dyslexics, the assessment of these processes is not systematically carried out and many visual
149 deficits still remain undetected in preschool children. We assume that it is crucial to be able to
150 assess perceptual, and visuo-attentional prerequisites to reading development, in order to
151 identify children at-risk for reading disabilities at an early age and increases the chance of
152 success for charting later developmental trajectories (Jenkins et al., 2007; Shonkoff & Phillips,
153 2000).

154 It therefore seems important to find a reliable and practical test that could assess visual
155 processing skills in young children. At the current time, many tools available to professionals
156 are designed to assess phonological abilities as early as kindergarten, but there are very few
157 tools for assessing the relations between visual skills and the process of learning to read. In that
158 context, we have examined the usefulness of the Developmental Eye Movement (DEM) test
159 (Garzia et al., 1990) that provides an indirect measure of the efficiency of visual processes in a
160 simulated reading task (horizontal and vertical digit naming task, providing reading time and
161 errors) . This procedure was not chosen arbitrarily but in reference to previous work using the
162 DEM-test with and without eye-movement recording (Ayton et al., 2009; Bellocchi et al., 2021;
163 Facchin et al., 2011, 2014; Hopkins et al., 2019; Moiroud et al., 2018; Raghuram et al., 2019;
164 Webber et al., 2011). It is important to keep in mind here that all studies on the DEM-test point
165 agreed that visuo-perceptual and visuo-attentional processes play a major role in this task
166 (Ayton et al., 2009; Facchin et al., 2011, 2014; Hopkins et al., 2019; Larter et al., 2004; Moiroud
167 et al., 2018; Northway, 2003; Palomo-Álvarez & Puell, 2009; Portnoy & Gilaie-Dotan, 2020;
168 Raghuram et al., 2018). Moreover, there is a consensus on the relationship between the DEM-

169 test and reading abilities, both in school-age children (Ayton et al., 2009; Larter et al., 2004;
170 Palomo-Álvarez & Puell, 2009; Serdjukova et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2018) and in children with
171 learning difficulties (Bellocchi et al., 2021; Moiroud et al., 2018; Northway, 2003; Raghuram
172 et al., 2018). Note that Moiroud et al. (2018) with a video-oculography while performing the
173 DEM-test, even demonstrated that the time taken by the children (dyslexic and non-dyslexic)
174 to read Text C of the DEM-test was significantly correlated with children fixation ability and
175 the speed of reading a text. Taken together, these results argue for a strong link between visual
176 processing, performance of verbalization and the DEM-test to clinically assess the reading
177 performance of children with and without reading deficiencies³.

178 In the present study, we examined the influence of visual processes in kindergarten on
179 first graders decoding abilities. Specifically, we were interested in showing the importance of
180 visual processes in a model for predicting emergent literacy in kindergarten and subsequent
181 reading abilities in first graders. We here address this issue through the longitudinal follow-up
182 of a cohort of typical children from kindergarten to first grade. The two specific questions
183 addressed in this study were the following. First, what is the prevalence of visual deficits as
184 assessed by the DEM test at age 5, before children start formal reading instruction? Secondly,
185 does kindergarteners' visual skills significantly contribute to emergent literacy abilities and
186 later reading abilities?

187

188 **METHOD**

³ Note that only two issues are still being discussed regarding the DEM-test, i.e. (1) is it secure to use the ratio measure (Medland et al. 2010; Raghuram & al., 2018 vs. Ayton & al., 2009; Portnoy & Gilaie-Dotan, 2020; Webber et al., 2011; Wood et al., 2018) and (2) is it possible to use the DEM test as a specific measure of saccadic control (Ayton et al., 2009; Webber et al., 2011 vs. Moiroud et al., 2018; Raghuram et al., 2019). We do not feel concerned here, since investigating eye movement control in children was clearly not the focus of interest of this paper.

189 **Participants.** Fifty-one French-speaking children, enrolled from kindergarten to the 1st
190 grade, took part in this study. All the participants had normal or corrected-to-normal vision.
191 None of them suffered from any neurological, psychiatric, or emotional disorders or were
192 educationally disadvantaged. The children were recruited in three kindergartens located in the
193 Aix-Marseille academy, in the south of France, and we obtained informed consent from their
194 parents and the agreement of the board of education prior to the beginning of the study. The
195 task was administered longitudinally. At Time 0, a total of fifty-one kindergarten children (26
196 females; mean age 5.8 years; range 4.11 to 6.4) participated in the study. One year later,
197 participants were retested, in May of the first grade, that is, at the end of the school year. The
198 two testing sessions will hereafter be referred as test 0 (T0) and test 1 (T1). Thirty children (12
199 females; mean age 6.10 years; range 6.4 to 7.3) were re-assessed in T1.

200

201 **Material and method.**

202 *Visual skills.* Visual and oculomotor skills were assessed using the DEM-test
203 (Developmental Eye Movement Test; Garzia et al., 1990; Richman, 2009), which is composed
204 by horizontal and vertical digit reading tasks printed on four different sheets of paper: the pre-
205 test (a horizontal line of ten 0.5 cm high digits) to ensure that the child is familiar with all the
206 digits presented, two vertical tests (Test A and B; each composed of two vertical lines of twenty
207 0.5 cm high digits separated by a 10.5 cm horizontal margin and with a 0.5 cm vertical distance
208 between letters), which are supposed to evaluate the level of automaticity of the naming of
209 numbers with involving only basic oculomotor skills, and one horizontal test (Test C; sixteen
210 lines of five irregularly separated 0.5 cm high digits), that requires good oculomotor and visuo-
211 attentional skills, in addition to number naming skills, due to the variable lines spacing and
212 numerous line references making the ocular tracking of lines more difficult. Children were
213 asked to read aloud the digits as fast and as accurately as possible. The task was timed, and

214 errors or omissions were recorded. The DEM test provides four main indices: (1) the vertical
215 reading time (seconds) (VT) which represents the sum of the time spent on naming the eighty
216 vertically organized digits of Test A and B (in accordance with the test manual, errors were not
217 used for scoring purpose) ; (2) the adjusted horizontal time (seconds) (HT) which represents
218 the time required for reading the eighty horizontally organized digits presented in the Test C;
219 this score is corrected for omission or addition errors⁴; (3) the total number of errors (HE) which
220 gives the accuracy on the execution of Test C corresponding to the sum of the 4 possible types
221 of errors: addition errors (i.e., adding or repeating a digit), omission errors (i.e., forgetting a
222 digit), transposition errors (i.e., inversion between two digits) and substitution errors (i.e.,
223 replacing one digit with another); and (4) the Ratio score (R) which is calculated dividing the
224 HT by the VT ; This ratio is intended to isolate the involvement of oculomotor processes in the
225 horizontal naming task.

226 *Reading abilities.* The reading abilities of each participant were assessed using the
227 *Alouette* test (Lefavrais, 1967, 2005). This test is commonly used in France to assess reading
228 proficiency; it consists of reading aloud a text composed of syntactically correct but
229 semantically poor sentences. The reader cannot, therefore, use meaning to facilitate access to
230 lexical representations. Participants were instructed to read the text as fast and as accurately as
231 possible. The time required for this assessment was 3 min. Three main measures were scored:
232 the number of words reads, the reading time and the number of errors, thus providing two
233 indices for each participant: a reading accuracy index (CM) and a reading speed index (CTL).

234

235 **Procedure.** In this longitudinal study, children were tested twice (i.e., T0: kindergarten,
236 T1: May of the 1st grade). All the assessments always occurred in the schools in which the

⁴ Adjusted Horizontal Time = Test C time x [80/(80-number of omission + number of addition)]

237 children were enrolled. The children were tested individually in a quiet room in their school
238 during regular school hours. The brightness of the room was adapted according to the support
239 of the different tasks (i.e., paper or screen). At T0 of the study (i.e., kindergarten), children's
240 visual skills were assessed from the DEM-test. At T1 (i.e., Grade 1 - May), reading skills were
241 assessed using the Alouette-test. The administration of the DEM test lasted about 10 minutes,
242 and that of the Alouette test approximately 5 min.

243 The entire investigation process was conducted according to the principles expressed in
244 the Declaration of Helsinki (World Health Organisation, 2008), approved by the local Ethics
245 Committee Review Board (Comité de Protection des Personnes pour la recherche biomédicale,
246 CNRS, France). The children's parents gave their written consent for participation.

247

248 **Data analysis.** The statistical analyses were carried out using R and GraphPad statistical
249 software. Distributions for the outcome variables suggested no violations of the normality
250 assumption. The statistically significant threshold for all the analyses was set at $p = .05$.
251 Descriptive statistics were used to report group means and standard deviations for all the DEM
252 test parameters, to define the prevalence of visual difficulties in kindergarten. Prevalence data
253 were based on the threshold of 1 SD above mean⁵. Pearson's correlation analyses were
254 performed to examine the relationship between the performances on the DEM-test in
255 kindergarten and the reading level of these children (i.e., reading speed and accuracy) assessed
256 in the 1st grade. Linear regression analyses were subsequently performed in order to integrate

⁵ In reading or neuropsychological research, it is more often 1.5 or 1.65 (corresponds to 5%), to be able to identify disorders (Ratcliff, 1993; Saksida et al., 2016). But when the question of interest is to track difficulties or delay in the developmental trajectory, the threshold used traditionally is 1 SD below the average (16%), since this is the threshold beyond which the assessed skill can be considered as poor. This cut-off allowed us to identify all poor readers (reading test) and all children with visuo-perceptual difficulties (DEM test) (Lefavrais, 2005; Muneaux, 2018).

257 the explanatory variables, identified in the correlation analyses, into a model and to isolate the
258 part of the variance explained by these factors. Finally, ROC curve analyses were conducted on
259 the DEM-test indices to determine whether this tool does indeed differentiate children with and
260 without reading difficulties. These analyses allowed us to obtain a measure of the diagnostic
261 test's effectiveness. Indeed, the Area Under the Curve (AUC) is an effective indicator,
262 combining both sensitivity and specificity, which indicates the inherent validity of diagnostic
263 tests (see Hajian-Tilaki, 2013, for more details). The AUC, area under curve, can be a value
264 between 0.5 (chance level) and 1.0 (perfect discrimination) (Swets, 1988); AUCs > 0.9 are
265 considered excellent, AUCs between 0.8 – 0.9 are very good, between 0.7 – 0.8 are good, 0.6
266 – 0.7 are average, and an AUC < 0.6 is poor (Choi, 1998). For this analysis, a child was
267 considered to have poor reading skills if at least one of the two reading indices (i.e., CM and/or
268 CTL) was below the clinical threshold -1 SD (see Footnote 5).

269

270 **RESULTS**

271 *Prevalence of Visual Impairment in Kindergarten and Reading Difficulties in the 1st* 272 *Grade*

273 Mean and standard deviations for VT, adjusted HT (HTaj), HE and R indices according
274 to the schooling level (i.e., kindergarten) are reported in Table 1. A total of 16 children had at
275 least one index below-average on the DEM-test in kindergarten, constituting 31% of the sample.
276 More precisely, among these 16 children, 5 were below average on the VT index, 5 on the HTaj
277 index, 2 on both VT and HTaj indexes, 10 on the HE index and 5 on the R index. Besides, the
278 10 children with a deviant performance on the HE index made between 46 and 65 errors in the
279 horizontal layout (M = 31.57, SD = 16.35). Regarding the nature of these children's errors, on
280 average, 70% were omissions, 25% were addition, 5% were substitution and only 1% were

281 transposition errors, thus confirming the role of visual attention in error scores (Coulter &
282 Shallo-Hoffman, 2001).

283 **[Insert Table 1 about here]**

284

285 Thirty of these children were followed longitudinally⁶, and among them, 6 presented
286 reading difficulties (RD) in the 1st grade including 4 children who already presented difficulties
287 with at least one DEM-test index in kindergarten (i.e., 13.33% of the cohort followed
288 longitudinally). Moreover, 5 children presented a deviant performance in the DEM-test without
289 subsequent reading difficulties (NoRD, i.e., 16.67%) which may indicate purely oculomotor or
290 orthoptic deficits. Note that for these children only the HE index was deviant. When these data
291 were merged together, the distributions of the different DEM-test variables behaved completely
292 differently between children with Reading Difficulties (RD) and without (NoRD), as shown in
293 *Figure 1*. Children with RD differed from children without RD in the VT distributions, with a
294 deviant density peak for the first ones. The HT and HE distributions of the data also confirmed
295 the amplitude of the difficulties encountered by the kindergartner children during this task.
296 Preschool children made a large number of errors, whatever they present RD in grade 1 ($M =$
297 34.50 , $SD = 23.18$) or not ($M = 30.83$, $SD = 14.75$). Note that this result cannot be attributed to
298 poor number knowledge since all children had previously successfully completed the pre-test.
299 As ever observed in other studies, the ratio does not seem an appropriate measure to predict or
300 assess children with RD (e.g., Wood et al., 2018).

301

302 **[Insert Figure 1 about here]**

⁶ Only 30 of the 51 children evaluated in kindergarten could be re-assessed and followed longitudinally to the 1st grade.

303

304 All the difficulties identified in the DEM-test in kindergarten were observed without
305 any clinical complaints from the children. Failure on this test can be attributed to various factors
306 such as visual fatigability, orthoptic disorders, poor saccadic control, or also a defect in visual-
307 attentional skills, but in any case the results showed that the visual difficulties observed on this
308 test are relatively frequent in kindergarten (around 1/3 of the children tested) and can have an
309 impact on the quality of reading acquisition.

310

311 *Predictive role of DEM-test outcomes on reading skills*

312 **Reading accuracy.** The correlation analyses, provided in *Table 2*, showed a significant
313 relationship between the reading accuracy (i.e., CM index) and all the time and error indexes
314 of the DEM-test (i.e., VT, HTaj and HE). Thus, the longer the vertical and adjusted horizontal
315 time are and the more errors there are at the DEM-test in kindergarten, the less accurate the
316 reading is in 1st grade. The R index did not correlate with the reading accuracy. The regression
317 analyses, as shown in *Table 3*, revealed that the variability in reading accuracy is best explained
318 by a simple linear model taking, as an explanatory variable, the VT index ($\beta = -.69$, $p < .001$).
319 More precisely, the reading accuracy is predicted at 37% by the VT index [$R^2 = .37$]; $F(1,28)$
320 $= 18.07$, $p < .001$], at 33% by the HTaj index [$R^2 = .33$]; $F(1,28) = 15.57$, $p < .001$] and at 18%
321 by the HE index [$R^2 = .18$]; $F(1,28) = 7.24$, $p < .05$]. The very close predictive properties
322 between the VT and HTaj indices can be explained by the strong correlation maintained
323 between these two factors ($r(28) = .74$; $p < .001$).

324 **Reading speed.** The correlation analyses (see *Table 2*) showed a significant relationship
325 between the reading speed (i.e., CTL index) and the VT index only. The HTaj, HE and R
326 indices did not correlate with the reading speed in the 1st grade. The regression analyses,
327 provided in *Table 3*, revealed that the variability in the reading speed is best explained by a

328 simple linear model taking the VT index as an explanatory variable. More precisely, the VT
329 index is the only predictor of the reading speed: it predicts 23 % [$R^2 = .24$]; $F(1,28) = 9.95$,
330 $p < .01$] of the variance.

331 **[Insert Table 2 about here]**

332 **[Insert Table 3 about here]**

333

334 ***ROC curves analyses.*** In order to better understand the potential role of the DEM-test
335 as an early screening tool for reading difficulties, the group of children was divided into two
336 different groups that separated children with and without RD. As previously mentioned in the
337 previous section, among the 30 children followed longitudinally, 6 presented weaknesses in
338 their reading skills in the 1st grade and 4 of these children already presented difficulties with at
339 least one DEM-test index in kindergarten (i.e., 13.33% of the cohort). The ROC curve analyses,
340 provided in *Figure 2*, were conducted on the basis of the 6 children with RD and the 24 children
341 without difficulties in this area of learning. The results showed that the VT index was the only
342 variable of the DEM-test that significantly dissociated children with and without RD. The AUC
343 for VT was $.7917 \pm .1412$ ($p < .05$), 95% CI [0.5169 – 1.000]. For HTaj, the results were in the
344 same direction as for VT with a marginally effect: $AUC = .7569 \pm .1087$ ($p = .055$), 95% CI
345 [.5439 – .9700]. On the other hand, ROC curve analyses showed that the AUCs for the HE and
346 R indices are not statistically significant (all $p > .10$).

347 Despite the small size of the present sample, impacting the power of our statistical
348 analyses, the AUCs we found for VT and HTaj remained very similar with other studies such
349 as Hopkins et al. (2019) and Larter et al. (2004). Indeed, for VT, Larter et al. (2004) also found
350 a significant AUC, very close to the current one, at .778. For HTaj, although the current study's
351 AUC (.757) was only marginally significant, other studies such as those by Hopkins et al.
352 (2019) and Larter et al. (2004) have shown that this index was a good indicator discriminating

353 children with and without RD, with AUCs of .72 and .83 respectively. Just to remind, AUCs >
354 0.9 are considered excellent, AUCs between 0.8 – 0.9 are very good, between 0.7 – 0.8 are
355 good, 0.6 – 0.7 are average, and an AUC < 0.6 is poor (Choi, 1998). Even if these studies
356 differed in terms of experimental design (transversal vs. longitudinal), children age, or tests
357 used to assess reading level, the DEM-test appeared to be an effective test in the screening
358 process for reading difficulties as early as kindergarten.

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360

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

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DISCUSSION

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Prevalence of Visual and Reading Difficulties from Kindergarten to the 1st grade

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In the early school years as children are learning to read letters and numbers (tasks requiring visual recognition, matching and recall of shapes), adequate oculomotor and visual

377 information processing skills (including visual analysis, visuo-motor integration, eye
378 movement control, attention orienting/focusing) are critical. One of the main objectives of the
379 present study was thus to examine children's visual skills at age 5, before they start formal
380 reading instruction, to assess the occurrence of visual skills difficulties in preschoolers and to
381 study more precisely beyond the linguistic ones, the oculomotor and visuo-attentional
382 mechanisms needed in learning to read.

383 Although data already available for the DEM-test in French school-aged children
384 (Bellocchi et al., 2021; Moiroud et al., 2018, 2020), no research, to the best of our knowledge,
385 has specifically questioned its usefulness in the assessment of visual skills in preschool children.
386 Therefore, the current study provides the first data collected in French kindergarten children.
387 The results corroborate findings from other studies showing that oculomotor and visual
388 processing difficulties are very common among children in kindergarten, with nearly 30% of
389 preschool children presented difficulties on this test, in the absence of complaints expressed by
390 the subject or his/her family. In addition to deviant performance on the VT and HT indexes,
391 preschool children made also a large number of errors, whatever they present RD one year later
392 or not (but see, Raghuram et al., 2018, for different results, suggesting an association between
393 reading level and the number of errors made on the horizontal presentation). The nature of these
394 errors is very relevant since most of them are errors of omission (i.e. nearly 70%) resulting
395 mainly from skipping lines and characters. In addition to immature or inaccurate eye movement
396 control, these errors may be due to visuo-attentional factors (Aslin & Ciuffreda, 1983; Coulter
397 & Shallo-Hoffman, 2001).

398 Approximately 14% of the children in the current sample presented difficulties on both
399 the DEM-test in kindergarten and the reading assessment in the 1st grade and it clearly appeared
400 that the performance distribution at the DEM-test in Kindergarten was different between good
401 and poor readers one year later. The results of this study are consistent with those of other

402 investigators who found that children with reading problems have a higher prevalence of
403 associated deficient visual efficiency skills, such as oculomotor (Brodney et al., 2001; Eden et
404 al., 1994; Kulp & Schmidt, 1996b; Maples & Ficklin, 1990), and visuo-attentional skills
405 (Bellocchi & Ducrot, 2021; Bosse & Valdois, 2009; Franceschini et al., 2012), than do children
406 who are proficient readers. In that vein, Portnoy and Gilaie-Dotan (2020) showed in a cross-
407 sectionally study that 14.3% of the children in their total sample (i.e., 4 children out of 28) were
408 both among the slowest on the DEM-test and in difficulty with reading speed, and that 17.9 %
409 of the cohort (i.e., 5 out of 28 children) were both among the least accurate on the DEM-test
410 and had difficulty with reading accuracy.

411 Visual deficits identified in kindergarten with the DEM-test can have different causes
412 such as visual fatigability, orthoptic disorders, poor eye movement control, defect in visual-
413 attentional skills or also insufficient exposure to written language, but whatever their causes,
414 the visual impairments in kindergarten detected with the DEM-test can have major
415 consequences on the children's developmental trajectory, particularly in their reading
416 acquisition leading more generally to academic difficulties (Case-Smith, 2009; Kramer &
417 Hinojosa, 2010). The vision-related symptoms include distortion, blurring, merging or moving
418 of letters or words (Stein & Walsh, 1997). Moreover, misread words, missing words and
419 skipping lines when reading, are also frequently presented, suggesting a consequence of poor
420 visual processing (Kulp & Schmidt, 1996a). Since visual deficits in preschool children do not
421 disappear as they grow up, they may continue to struggle visually when reading. This may have
422 adverse effects on reading motivation and performance.

423

424 **Predicting Reading Skills Based on Visual Processes in Kindergarten**

425 Preliminary results regarding prevalence of visual and reading impairments,
426 respectively and jointly, demonstrated that visual information processing ability, based on

427 measures of horizontal and vertical DEM times in preschool children, was significantly
428 associated with reading scores in Grade 1 school children, suggesting that visual information
429 processing plays a significant role in a child's academic performance in Grade 1. These findings
430 are consistent with other studies that have demonstrated associations between delayed visual
431 information processing skills and reduced classroom performance (learning to read in
432 particular, Hopkins et al., 2017, 2019; Kulp, 1999; Oberer et al., 2018; Pienaar et al., 2014;
433 Sortor & Kulp, 2003; White et al., 2017; Yang & Meng, 2020), which justify the need to include
434 visual perceptual skills in the prediction of reading achievement.

435 The question then was to determine whether kindergartners visual skills contribute to emergent
436 literacy skills and later reading abilities. This question is particularly useful for an early
437 identification of children at-risk for reading disabilities. The longitudinal approach of the
438 current study revealed also that the visual skills assessed by the DEM test could partially predict
439 reading outcomes one year later. More precisely, the correlation analyses showed that reading
440 accuracy in Grade 1 was significantly correlated with the HTaj, VT and HE indices assessed in
441 kindergarten, whereas reading speed was only correlated with the VT index. The relationship
442 we found between the DEM-test outcomes and the reading level corroborated previously
443 reported results from several studies, particularly for VT (Ayton et al., 2009; Larter et al., 2004;
444 Raghuram et al., 2018; Serdjukova et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2018) and HTaj (Ayton et al.,
445 2009; Moiroud et al., 2018; Northway, 2003; Palomo-Álvarez & Puell, 2009; Raghuram et al.,
446 2018; Serdjukova et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2018). In addition, children with developmental
447 dyslexia have also been shown to perform poorly on the DEM-test than control children
448 (Bellocchi et al., 2021; Moiroud et al., 2018; Raghuram et al., 2018). According to Portnoy and
449 Gilaie-Dotan (2020) and Wood et al. (2018), we found no correlation between the Ratio and
450 reading performances, suggesting that the DEM ratio is poorly associated with academic
451 outcomes (but see Ayton et al., 2009; Raghuram et al., 2018). The distribution of the ratio data

452 was in the same direction, failing to distinguish readers with RD from noRD ones. Moreover,
453 it is important to note that the DEM-test showed a high fidelity as demonstrated by several
454 studies, particularly for the VT and HTaj indices, while the ratio and HE indices, on the other
455 hand, did not reach a consensus (Facchin & Maffioletti, 2018; Orlansky et al., 2011; Tassinari
456 & DeLand, 2005).

457 Linear regression analyses of the current study have shown, more specifically, that the
458 reading speed and accuracy in the 1st grade may be predicted by different indices of the DEM-
459 test as early as kindergarten. The vertical time (i.e., VT) was the best predictor of reading
460 accuracy (37%) and speed (23%) in the 1st grade. The adjusted horizontal time (i.e., HTaj) also
461 partially predicts reading accuracy (33%). These results support the view that visual
462 information processing plays a role in reading achievement, particularly among younger
463 children in the early school grades (Kavale, 1982; Solan & Mozlin, 1986).

464 Our finding that the VT index was most strongly associated with the reading
465 performance⁷ of first graders was not in the same direction as the findings of Ayton et al. (2009),
466 or Wood et al. (2018) who reported the strongest correlations between the DEM horizontal
467 subtest and reading test scores in their sample of children, aged 8 to 11 years. This difference
468 may have been because the children in their sample (Grade 3 to 5) were beyond the ‘learning
469 to read’ stage. Indeed, it has been proposed that visual information processing skills play a more
470 significant role in the learning process of younger children (kindergarten to Grade 2) in the
471 ‘learning to read’ phase compared to older children (Flax, 2006). The oculomotor system is still
472 not mature in young children (e.g., Kowler & Martins, 1982) and the oculomotor behavior and

⁷ The possibility that this effect was linked to the small sample of children was ruled out since we obtained similar results, i.e., a superiority of the VT index, in another longitudinal study following 137 preschool children (Ducrot & Vernet, 2021, see also Footnote 8). We assume that this effect is linked to the young age of our participants; as children move through school, the role of language and other higher level cognitive skills become more significant in a child’s reading performance (Flax, 2006; Goldstand et al., 2005).

473 the visuo-attentional skills undergo substantial changes during reading development, with
474 longer saccade and perceptual span extent, shorter fixation durations, and lower refixation and
475 regression probabilities (Blythe, 2014; Blythe & Joseph, 2011; Ducrot et al., 2013; Rayner,
476 2009). Moreover, other factors such as visuo-attentional and visuospatial factors that are
477 important for performing the DEM test are also developing with the age of the child (Caldani
478 et al., 2020; Coulter & Shallo-Hoffman, 2001; Facchin et al., 2011) and the automatization of
479 this so-called "visuo-attentional" processing is another condition for reading success (see
480 Grainger et al., 2016). In that vein, Ammawat et al. (2019) demonstrated that naming speed
481 (strongly linked with VT performance) was also influenced by visual perception and attention.
482 One of the prominent findings of their study is that visual perception was the most significant
483 factor in predicting naming speed in young children. At the same time, their study provided
484 support for the theory that visual perception has a strong relationship with attention networks,
485 supporting the hypothesis that visual perception and attention networks may combine to affect
486 naming speed or reading readiness in RD children. For Kuperman et al. (2016), the well-
487 established predictive role of RAN for reading performance is in part due to the individual
488 ability to shift attention from one item to the next and to coordinate rapid sequential eye
489 movements to visual nonlinguistic stimuli (see also, Wolf & Bowers, 1999). We argue that the
490 implication of the oculomotor and visuo-attentional mechanisms involved in the DEM
491 horizontal vs. vertical subtests change during reading development and we believe that 5-6
492 years is a critical window where the weight of these processes are especially strong. Stanovich
493 et al. (1981) showed that digit naming time and errors significantly decreases between 5-and 6-
494 year olds and that automaticity significantly increases in the first grade (see also, Kulp &
495 Schmidt, 1997). According to the perceptual learning account, the visual training associated
496 with the regularity of reading eye movements improves word recognition within a restricted
497 horizontal region close to the fovea and mostly within the regions of the retina that fall on the

498 side of the reading direction (Dehaene et al., 2005). It is therefore likely that the HT index
499 become more strongly associated with the reading performance as children learn to read and
500 take the left-to-right directionality of visual scanning into account (see Ducrot et al., 2020, for
501 a change in landing position distributions between 5 and 6 year-old children, as a result of
502 reading experience).

503 These data provided a new contribution to the identification of precursors to reading
504 acquisition and to the understanding of the emergence of associated disorders. The emphasis
505 on the predictive potential of the visual skills assessed by the DEM-test on reading abilities
506 highlights the importance of these processes in the emergence of literacy skills and reading
507 abilities later in the learning process. These results were in line with previous studies that
508 demonstrated the involvement of visual skills such as the visual-attentional span, initial landing
509 position, and/or visual-motor skills and their potential underlying causes of learning difficulties
510 in some children (Bellocchi et al., 2017; Franceschini et al., 2012; Kwon et al., 2007; Valdois
511 et al., 2019; Yang & Meng, 2020). Thus, beyond the already accepted implication of linguistic
512 skills as strong predictors of reading level (Carroll et al., 2003; Lonigan et al., 2000; Piquard-
513 Kipffer & Sprenger-Charolles, 2013; Schatschneider et al., 2004), these findings demonstrate
514 the key role of visual skills in the mechanisms of reading acquisition.

515

516 **Usefulness of the DEM-test as an effective screening tool for reading difficulties**

517 As far as we know, no study analysed the precision of the DEM test at identifying French
518 preschool children at risk/non-risk of reading difficulty. Studies with this purpose are crucial
519 because this information is essential for reading difficulties screening. As pointed out before, a
520 trustworthy screening test can help preventive interventions to begin as soon as possible. The
521 interest of this tool for the early detection of reading difficulties in kindergarten has been
522 investigated in very few studies (Kulp & Schmidt, 1997; Xie et al., 2016), in contrast to the

523 combined association between the visual deficits identified in the DEM-test and the poor
524 reading performance which had already been demonstrated and which supports our results, as
525 demonstrated in the previous section (Ayton et al., 2009; Palomo-Álvarez & Puell, 2009;
526 Portnoy & Gilaie-Dotan, 2020; Serdjukova et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2018). Thus, another goal
527 of the present study was to evaluate the precision of the DEM test in predicting children at
528 risk/non-risk of reading as early as possible. A test's precision of classification can be evaluated
529 based on the ROC curve, considering the AUC (Swets, 1988). Although the sample size was
530 small, the results showed that the VT index (and the HTaj, to a lesser extent) were able to
531 dissociate children with and without RD. The AUC for VT was considered as very good (0.80)
532 and that for HTaj as good (comprised between 0.70 and 0.80). This suggests the potential for
533 these measures to be used clinically for identifying children at risk for low academic
534 achievement.

535 These conclusions raise critical perspectives regarding clinical diagnosis and
536 educational approach, by providing the opportunity to gain insight into the visuo-attentional
537 and perceptual difficulties children, in view of establishing thorough and accurate assessment
538 procedures and proposing child-specific guidelines and remediation methods that take into
539 account the particular processes affected. Such information is useful not only for uncovering
540 problems readers have with the different components of reading, but also can help in the
541 development of teaching strategies or methods appropriate for individual children's particular
542 strengths or weaknesses (e.g., implement early oculomotor training programs at school,
543 especially in kindergarten). Almost 70% of a school day is dedicated to learning activities
544 involving visual sensory input (Narayanasamy et al., 2016). This may explain, in part, why
545 children with visual impairment are more likely to fail at school (Goldstand et al., 2005; White
546 et al., 2017). Indeed, if visual processes are not operational and efficient from the beginning of
547 the reading learning process, academic achievements can be considerably impacted. Depending

548 on their severity, these deficits can lead to difficulty tracking, sustaining attention and focus,
549 all of which may interfere with visual exploration, reading fluency and distract from reading
550 comprehension. The importance of early screening then takes on its full meaning, making it
551 possible to intervene very early in children's developmental trajectory. If appropriate
552 interventions are implemented at an early age, academic skill development could be altered,
553 preventing subtle learning difficulties from becoming more pronounced over time. The earlier
554 an intervention is implemented, the better a child's chances of overcoming his or her deficit
555 (Ozernov-Palchik & Gaab, 2016).

556 Currently, reading instruction and reading intervention techniques employed focus
557 primarily on the language components of reading development. Although these programs are
558 based on solid research that identifies phonological processing, vocabulary, and comprehension
559 as core components of reading development, the integration of visual skills assessment from
560 kindergarten onward to limit reading disorder is a real necessity. To do so, the DEM-test can
561 be a useful tool, in particular for the early identification of children at risk for reading
562 difficulties. It provides additional information to existing tools assessing linguistic skills. For
563 clinicians, this tool could improve the diagnostic assessment to better understand the difficulties
564 observed and thus improve the management of children. In that sense, the combined use of
565 investigation tools in early detection can result highly effective for these children. Furthermore,
566 the rehabilitation methods which stimulate both the phonological and the visual-spatial
567 attention skills are proved to be the most effective in children already diagnosed with dyslexia
568 (Facoetti et al., 2003; Gaggi et al., 2012). For example, although eye movement deficits may
569 not be the only contributory factor to reading difficulties, better control of saccadic eye
570 movements can translate to more precise and quicker reading speed and reduce the percentage
571 of reading errors (Fischer et al., 2000; Fischer & Hartnegg, 2008). Training both linguistic and

572 visual skills together before the child begins to learn reading, can help his/her future reading
573 ability.

574 The main limitation of the present study is the size of the sample that could be followed.
575 This limitation is directly related to the longitudinal design since children were followed during
576 18 months from kindergarten to the first grade, leading inevitably to an attrition effect. But we
577 truly believe this is the best way to better understand the issue of pre-requisites and
578 developmental trajectory in the academic learning process⁸. We also acknowledge that some
579 studies evaluating the validity of the DEM test (Facchin et al., 2011; Garzia et al., 1990) have
580 demonstrated that it did not seem to correlate directly with pure eye movement control
581 parameters; however they also showed that visuo-perceptual and visuo-attentional processes
582 play a major role in this task and that it was strongly correlated with different aspects of reading
583 performance and it is useful in clinical practice (Ayton et al., 2009; Bellocchi et al., 2021;
584 Palomo-Álvarez & Puell, 2009; Powers, 2009). Even though the DEM test does not assess basic
585 components of eye movement control and can be influenced by several cognitive processes,
586 such as sustained attention (Coulter & Shallo-Hoffman, 2001), number recognition and
587 retrieval, visual-verbal integration time, speaking time and visuo-spatial attention (Facchin et
588 al., 2011), the fact remains that the DEM test has been shown to be a measure related to visual
589 and visuo-attentional skills, which in turn are related to ocular movements in a reading-like
590 condition. Furthermore, while eye movement clinically available instruments are expensive and

⁸ Note that the data we collected in the interim with a computerized version of the DEM-test made us confident that the effects obtained are replicable and generalizable. This experiment was conducted in a larger sample composed by 137 preschoolers, using the same procedure and longitudinal design, with a group of 137 preschool children. The data we obtained support those first obtained in this study, with the paper-based version of the DEM test, that is., the VT and HTaj measures (1) are significantly correlated with reading outcomes one year later and (2) significantly predict children's reading achievement in Grade 1, i.e., 12 months before reading training (Ducrot & Vernet, 2021).

591 hard to use during screening or routine eye examination, the DEM-test is an inexpensive paper-
592 and-pencil test that is performed in only 5 minutes⁹.

593 **CONCLUSION**

594 The current study fills a gap in reading research, by identifying oculomotor and visual
595 perception skills as overlooked components of prerequisites for word recognition. It is clear
596 from the current study, that a few of the preschool children who have problems with visual
597 deficits showed a particularly severe pattern of difficulties, which has significantly impacted
598 their learning one year later. Based on the key findings in this study, it is essential to raise
599 awareness among professionals regarding the importance of eye movements and visual
600 perception in preschool children. Any child who shows signs of visual difficulties should be
601 referred for more in-depth visual assessment to identify the actual cause of the difficulties.
602 There is a real challenge in the early identification of additional factors that may contribute to
603 literacy impairments, both for academic success but also for the quality of life of these children.

604

605 **Authors' Notes**

606 The first and the last author contributed equally to this work.

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⁹ The creation of an easy-to-use software for clinical practice is in progress in our laboratory, with the aim to assess visuo-perceptual and attentional abilities, taking the children school level into account. This software, called Diaglect, would allow us to obtain an automatic diagnosis and several remedial modules will be proposed according to the child's visual profile.

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- 1050

1051 Table 1. Descriptive analysis of French data for preschool children.

	Kindergarten			
	<i>n = 51</i>			
	VT	HTaj	HE	R
Mean	105,51	193,00	30,35	1,85
Standard deviation	32,16	77,14	15,34	0,51

1052 *Notes.* VT: Vertical Time; HTaj: adjusted Horizontal Time; HE: Horizontal Errors; R: Ratio.

1053

1054

1055 Table 2. Correlation matrix of the DEM indices (z-score) assessed in kindergarten and the
 1056 Alouette-test indices (z-score) assessed in Grade 1.

	READING ACCURACY (CM)	READING SPEED (CTL)
VT	-0.626***	-0.512**
HTaj	-0.598***	-0.318
HE	-0.453*	-0.229
R	-0.150	-0.097

1057 *Notes.* * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; VT: Vertical Time; HTaj: adjusted Horizontal Time;
 1058 HE: Horizontal Errors; R: Ratio.

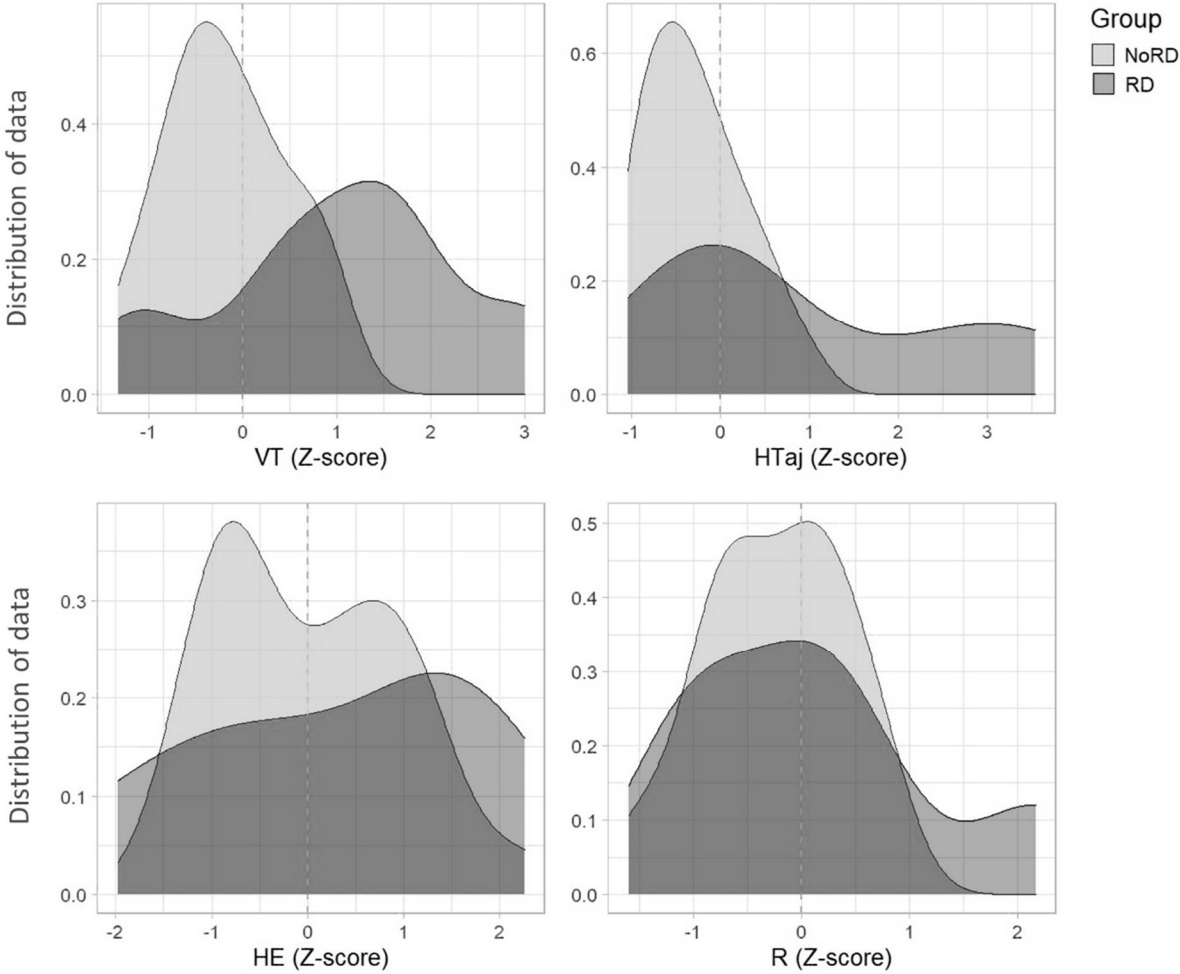
1059

1060 Table 3. Simple linear regression analysis assessing the predictive role of the DEM indices
 1061 (z-score) in kindergarten on the reading outcomes (z-score) in Grade 1

	READING ACCURACY (CM)			READING SPEED (CTL)		
	R ²	B	t	R ²	β	t
VT	0.370	-0.558	4.249***	0.235	-0.426	-3.147**
HTaj	0.334	-0.485	3.946***	-	-	-
HE	0.178	-0.320	-2.694*	-	-	-

1062 Notes. * p<.05 , ** p<.01 , *** p<.001; VT: Vertical Time; HTaj: adjusted Horizontal Time;
 1063 HE: Horizontal Errors

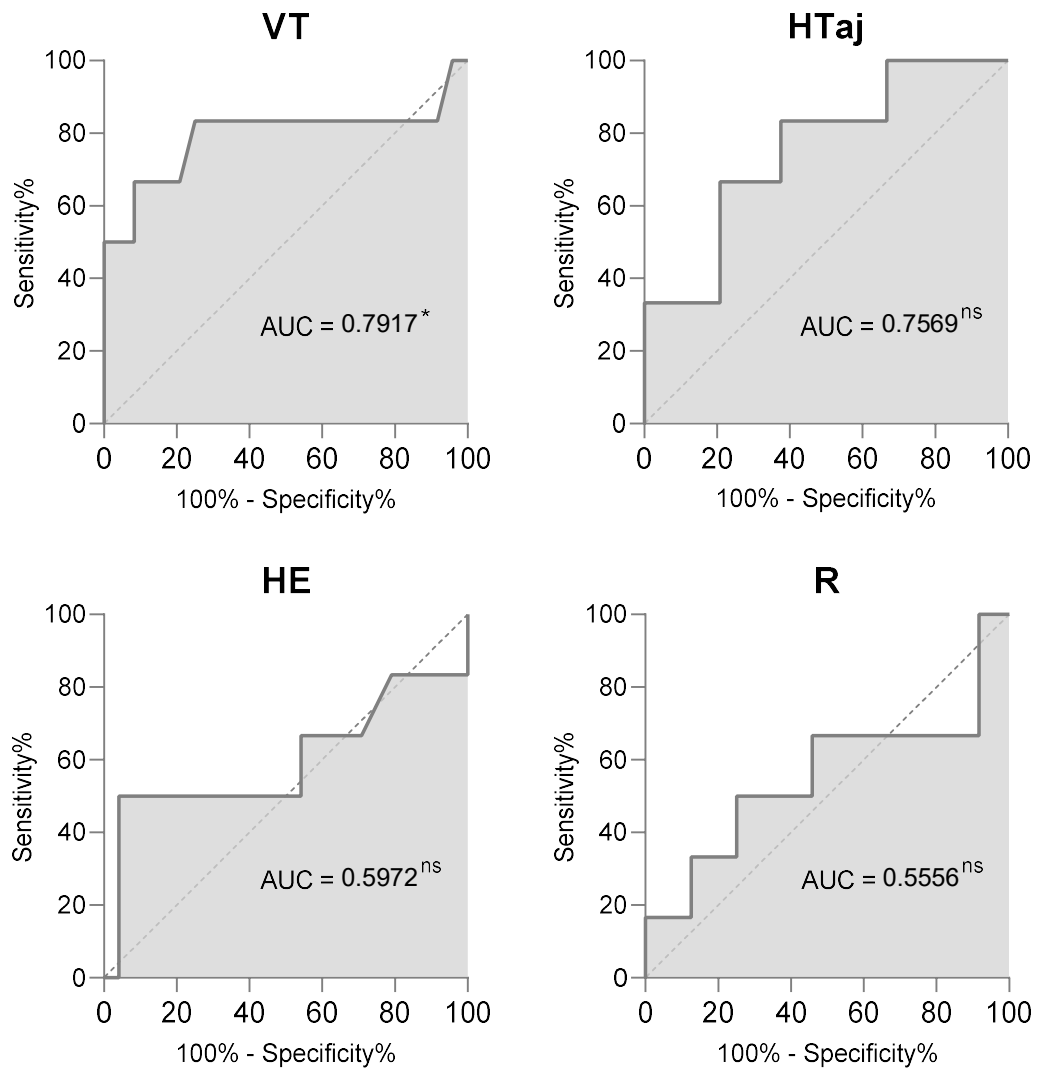
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1065

1066 Figure 1. Data distribution for all the DEM-test indices across children with and without
1067 reading difficulties.

1068 *Notes.* Since the explanatory variables were time, number of errors, or ratio, a high score reflects
1069 poorer performance than a lower score, thus a negative Z-score represents better performance
1070 than a positive Z-score; RD: Children with reading disorders; NoRD: Children without reading
1071 disorders.



1072

1073 Figure 2. ROC curve analyses for each DEM-test index assessed in kindergarten between
 1074 children with and without reading difficulties.

1075 Notes. AUC: Area Under the Curve; ns $p > .05$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.