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How well are children with autism spectrum disorder doing academically at school? An overview of the literature

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How well are children with autism spectrum disorder doing academically at school? An overview of the literature

Abstract

The academic achievement of individuals with autism spectrum disorder has received little attention from researchers despite the importance placed on this by schools, families and students with autism spectrum disorder. Investigating factors that lead to increased academic achievement thus would appear to be very important. A review of the literature was conducted to identify factors related to the academic achievement of children and adolescents with autism spectrum disorder. A total of 19 studies were identified that met the inclusion criteria for the review. Results indicated that many individuals demonstrate specific areas of strength and weakness and there is a great deal of variability in general academic achievement across the autism spectrum. Adolescents and individuals with lower IQ scores were underrepresented, and few studies focused on environmental factors related to academic success. The importance of individualised assessments that profile the relative strengths and weaknesses of children and adolescents to aid in educational programming was highlighted. Further research on child-related and environmental factors that predict academic achievement is needed.

Keywords

children, autism, spectrum, literature, well, disorder, overview, doing, academically, school

Disciplines

Education | Social and Behavioral Sciences

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How well are children with ASD doing academically at school? An overview of the literature

Journal:	<i>Autism</i>
Manuscript ID:	AUT-14-0351.R1
Manuscript Type:	Review
Keywords:	academic achievement, education outcomes, School-age children, Autism spectrum disorders, predictors
Abstract:	The academic achievement of individuals with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) has received little attention from researchers despite the importance placed on this by schools, families and students with ASD. Investigating factors that lead to increased academic achievement thus would appear to be paramount. A review of the literature was conducted to identify factors related to the academic achievement of children and adolescents with ASD. Nineteen studies were identified that met the inclusion criteria for the review. Results indicated that many individuals demonstrate specific areas of strength and weakness and there is a great deal of variability in general academic achievement across the autism spectrum. Adolescents and individuals with lower IQ scores were underrepresented and few studies focused on environmental factors related to academic success. The importance of individualised assessments that profile the relative strengths and weaknesses of children and adolescents to aid in educational programming was highlighted. Further research on child-related and environmental factors that predict academic achievement is needed.

Abstract

The academic achievement of individuals with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) has received little attention from researchers despite the importance placed on this by schools, families and students with ASD. Investigating factors that lead to increased academic achievement thus would appear to be paramount. A review of the literature was conducted to identify factors related to the academic achievement of children and adolescents with ASD. Nineteen studies were identified that met the inclusion criteria for the review. Results indicated that many individuals demonstrate specific areas of strength and weakness and there is a great deal of variability in general academic achievement across the autism spectrum. Adolescents and individuals with lower IQ scores were underrepresented and few studies focused on environmental factors related to academic success. The importance of individualised assessments that profile the relative strengths and weaknesses of children and adolescents to aid in educational programming was highlighted. Further research on child-related and environmental factors that predict academic achievement is needed.

Keywords

Academic achievement, autism spectrum disorders, predictors, education outcomes

How well are children with ASD doing academically at school? An overview of the literature

Outcomes for adolescents and adults with autism spectrum disorder (ASD), although highly variable, have generally been reported as poor (Howlin and Moss, 2012; Levy and Perry, 2011). Some individuals may increase their overall skills and adaptive behaviour as they move into adulthood (Palmen et al., 2012; Shattuck et al., 2007), while others may develop mental health disorders (White et al., 2011). Others may experience a relatively stable course and experience success in further education, employment, and personal relationships (Levy and Perry, 2011). Outcome domains usually measured in studies of older adolescents and adults include independent living, friendships, employment and occupation (Howlin et al., 2004). Other studies have highlighted the impact of school experiences and self-determination in improving employment outcomes, independent living and a better quality of life (Autism Spectrum Australia, 2012; Burgess and Gutstein, 2007). A number of factors have been found to be predictive of these outcomes, including autism symptomatology, language, and cognitive functioning.

Far fewer studies have focused on academic achievement as an outcome measure, however research interest in academic achievement may be growing. In their extensive review of the intervention literature for children with ASD, Wong et al. (2013) identified 58 studies that primarily focused on academic outcomes, with the majority of these studies published post-2007. It should be noted, however, that these studies represented only a small proportion of the total sample (N=456) and the focus of their review was primarily on the effectiveness of interventions in achieving a variety of outcomes of which academic achievement was only one.

Academic achievement has been the subject of much scrutiny in past years and

1
2
3 the inclusion of students with disabilities in schools has complicated matters as these
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5 students may not always participate or be included in traditional measures of
6
7 achievement (Thurlow et al., 2005). Academic achievement is commonly measured
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9 through a variety of formal and informal measures with schools often including the
10
11 regular use of standardised measures to track achievement in literacy and numeracy.
12
13 Unfortunately research has shown that students with disabilities may be exempted
14
15 from these measures (Cumming et al., 2013) and not offered appropriate alternative
16
17 assessments. Thus, the status of academic achievement for students with ASD is
18
19 frequently unknown. With the move to more data-based decision making in schools,
20
21 this is a significant gap.
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23
24

25 The influence of school programs on academic achievement is another area that
26
27 bears scrutiny. A recent report (Autism Spectrum Australia, 2012) found that many
28
29 adolescents and adults with ASD reported significant negative experiences in school
30
31 that impacted not only their academic achievement, but also their future outcomes in
32
33 tertiary education and work settings. In addition, research has suggested that parents
34
35 are reporting low rates of satisfaction with the academic achievement in educational
36
37 programs for their children with ASD (Mackintosh et al., 2012; McDonald and Lopes,
38
39 2012; Starr and Foy, 2012). Parents also report frustration with the ways their child's
40
41 progress is measured and reported at school, particularly for children who may be
42
43 performing below grade level. Finally, little is known about how the type of program
44
45 in which a child is enrolled impacts on the academic engagement or performance of
46
47 children with ASD, although some research (Kurth and Mastergeorge, 2012) indicates
48
49 that there may be a distinct difference in expectations and academic instruction
50
51 between mainstream and specialised settings.
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53
54

55 Although the number of studies focusing on academic achievement may be
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1
2
3 increasing, our understanding about factors that may be predictive of, or related to,
4
5 educational outcomes is still limited. Increased knowledge in this area would facilitate
6
7 the development of strategies to effectively target factors known to have a positive
8
9 effect on academic outcomes. Research to date has found a strong correlation between
10
11 IQ and outcomes such as achievement, academic progress and an individual's
12
13 response to educational intervention for students with ASD (Mayes-Dickerson and
14
15 Calhoun, 2007, 2008). It is also clear, however, that academic performance is
16
17 influenced by factors other than IQ, whereby many individuals with ASD perform
18
19 significantly above or below the level predicted by their IQ and/or outside age-norms
20
21 in a range of academic domains (Jones et al., 2009). These factors may be related to
22
23 specific child characteristics or to environmental factors, including educational
24
25 programming. There has been some research in the past to suggest, for example, that
26
27 improvement in academic performance of children with ASD over the past 15-20
28
29 years may be due to the availability of continuous, structured educational programs
30
31 not previously available in the 1960s, 70s, and 80s (Venter et al., 1992).
32
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35

36 With a growing research interest in academic outcomes for students with ASD,
37
38 it is timely to examine the current state of knowledge in this area and consider
39
40 research priorities for the future. The purpose of this paper was to review published
41
42 research on factors that predict or are related to academic achievement in children and
43
44 adolescents with ASD. Specifically, we aimed to identify factors that have been
45
46 studied in relation to academic achievement to date, as well as the types of assessment
47
48 tools and measures applied, to review key findings and consider future research
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50 directions.
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52

53 54 **Method**

55
56 The ERIC[®], PsycINFO[®], CINAHL[®], and PubMed[®] databases were searched
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58
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1
2
3 using a combination of the following descriptors: *autis**, *asperger**, *academic*
4
5 *performance*, *academic achievement*. The search was limited to the title/abstracts of
6
7 peer reviewed materials. There were no date limits applied. The initial search resulted
8
9 in 107 papers after the removal of duplications.
10

11 *Inclusion and exclusion criteria*

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13
14 Studies were included in this review if they included empirical data about the
15
16 academic performance or achievement of children with ASD. They needed to utilise a
17
18 specific measure of academic performance or achievement and include participants
19
20 with a primary diagnosis of ASD aged 5 to 18 years. Studies were excluded if the
21
22 primary focus was to measure the effectiveness of a specific intervention as a review
23
24 of intervention outcomes was not the purpose of this paper.
25
26

27 *Procedure*

28
29 Using the inclusion and exclusion criteria, the titles and abstracts of 107 papers
30
31 were examined resulting in the exclusion of 92 papers. Reasons for exclusion were
32
33 participants outside the age range (6); participants not having an ASD diagnosis (29);
34
35 study not employing a measure of academic achievement (9); no empirical data (e.g.,
36
37 a review paper) (18); and studies focusing primarily on intervention (30). Following
38
39 an ancestry search of the remaining 15 papers, a further four papers were found that
40
41 met the inclusion criteria, resulting in a total of 19 papers for review. The following
42
43 information was extracted from each of the included studies: number of participants,
44
45 participant data including diagnosis, mean age, and mean IQ, setting, purpose of
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47 study, measures of academic achievement, academic outcomes, additional variables
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49 measured as potential predictors or correlates, and key findings.
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Results

Participants

The participant characteristics are provided in Table 1. The number of participants recruited for each study varied considerably (range = 15 to 164) with a mean of 65.3 participants across 19 studies (median = 58.5, SD = 39.5). Not all studies reported age ranges; some did not provide the mean age for the sample, while others provided ages for sub-samples but not the total sample. Overall, the mean age for participants across studies that reported these data was 10.8 years (median = 10.4, SD = 4.1), ranging from 5.8 years to 16.3 years. Studies varied in their reporting of participant diagnoses with some using the terms ASD or autism, and others differentiating subtypes such as Autistic Disorder (Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun, 2003a, 2007), Asperger syndrome (Foley-Nicpon et al., 2012; Griswold et al., 2002) and high functioning autism (HFA) (Ashburner et al., 2008, 2010; Assouline et al., 2012; Estes et al., 2011; Foley-Nicpon et al., 2012; Goldstein et al., 1994; Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun, 2007, 2008; Minshew et al., 1994; Troyb et al., 2014; Venter et al., 1992). Of the 19 studies, 12 involved children with HFA or Asperger syndrome defined in some studies as an IQ score ≥ 70 or 75, while other studies used an IQ score ≥ 120 . Studies that reported IQ used Full Scale, Verbal, Non-Verbal and/or Index Scores ranging from a mean of 58 (VIQ) to 124.89. Only two studies had participants with a mean IQ score below 65 (Eaves and Ho, 1997; Kurth and Mastergeorge, 2010), although Mayes-Dickerson et al. (2003a, 2003b) analysed their data by separating participants into low (IQ<80) and high (IQ>80) IQ groups.

<Insert Table 1 about here>

Measures of academic achievement

Academic achievement was treated as the primary outcome measure with the

1
2
3 exception of Troyb et al. (2014), who examined academic achievement as a predictor
4 of ASD 'optimal outcome'. A wide variety of assessment tools were used to measure
5 academic achievement across the studies (see Table 1). The most commonly used
6 tests were the Woodcock-Johnson Tests of Achievement (eight studies, four of which
7 shared the same lead author) and the WIAT (five studies). The following measures
8 were used in no more than two studies: a non-standardised teacher rating scale of
9 academic skills; the Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment; the
10 WRAT; the Differential Ability Scales (DAS) Achievement Tests; the Detroit Tests
11 of Learning Aptitude; the Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement; the Wechsler
12 Objective Reading and Numerical Dimensions; the Test of Word Reading Efficiency;
13 the Central Institute of Test Development school attainment test; the Neale Analysis
14 of Reading; Schonell Graded Spelling Test; and Enright Diagnostic Math Test.
15 Assessments were usually administered by the researchers rather than the school or
16 the students' teachers.
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33 *Setting*

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36 Of the 19 studies reviewed, eight did not provide any information on
37 educational enrolment or placement of participants (Goldstein et al., 1994; Mayes-
38 Dickerson and Calhoun, 2003a, 2003b, 2007, 2008; Minshew et al., 1994; Myles et
39 al., 1994; Troyb et al., 2014). Educational enrolment for participants in the other 11
40 studies was mixed with participants enrolled in mainstream or regular education
41 classrooms (Ashburner et al., 2008, 2010; Assouline et al., 2012; Eaves and Ho, 1997;
42 Estes et al., 2011; Griswold et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2009; Kurth and Mastergeorge,
43 2010; Venter et al., 1992), part time mainstream class (Estes et al., 2011; Griswold et
44 al., 2002), mixed special education/mainstream education class (Estes et al., 2011),
45 self-contained classrooms (Eaves and Ho, 1997; Griswold et al., 2002; Kurth and
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3 Mastergeorge, 2010; Venter et al., 1992), special schools (Jones et al., 2009; Manti et
4 al., 2011; Venter et al., 1992), and gifted and talented programs (Assouline et al.,
5 2012; Foley-Nicpon et al., 2012). In addition, some studies reported on whether the
6 student received support from special education or through a teacher aid (Eaves and
7 Ho, 1997).
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14 Only five studies (Ashburner et al., 2008, 2010; Jones et al., 2009; Kurth and
15 Mastergeorge, 2010; Manti et al., 2011) included measures of academic achievement
16 or other variables conducted at school and included input from school personnel such
17 as the child's teacher or a school psychologist. For the remaining 14 studies,
18 psychologists or other clinical personnel conducted measures in clinics or university
19 centers without input from the participants' school. One study (Myles et al., 1994)
20 collected data on academic achievement from school records, but accessed these at a
21 central office and did not include school personnel or direct measurement with
22 students in schools.
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33 34 *Study Purpose*

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36 Studies were grouped according to their stated purpose into one or more of the
37 following three categories: identifying predictors of academic achievement (eight
38 studies); identifying areas of relative academic strength/weakness (eight studies) and;
39 exploring levels of academic achievement within ASD subtypes (two studies) or
40 between ASD and other disorders or typically developing controls (four studies). A
41 more detailed analysis of the findings from the included studies using these categories
42 follows (see Tables [2](#), [3](#) and [4](#)). Note that studies by Assouline et al. (2012), Estes et
43 al., (2011) and Troyb et al., (2014) fell into several categories but appear in only one
44 of the tables below to avoid duplication of information.
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Predictors of academic achievement

In this section, findings related to predictors of academic achievement are reported (see Table 2). The predictor variables examined were usually associated with child characteristics, specifically autism symptomatology and IQ, although two studies also looked at environmental factors. In relation to autism symptomatology, Ashburner et al. (2008) found that sensory under-responsiveness and sensory seeking behaviours were associated with academic underachievement. Eaves and Ho (1997) observed that autism severity was related to academic achievement, while Manti et al. (2011) found that reduction in autism symptomatology did not predict academic growth. Social skills at age 6 were found to be predictive of academic achievement at age 9, but concurrent social skills at age 9 did not predict academic achievement at age 9 (Estes et al., 2011). Problem behaviours scores (irritability and hyperactivity) were not found to predict academic achievement (Estes et al., 2011).

<Insert Table 2 about here>

A number of studies looked at IQ as a predictor of academic achievement. Eaves and Ho (1997) found that for children with ASD and $IQ > 40$, IQ predicted academic achievement as well as it did for typical children. In a study by Assouline et al. (2012), both working memory and processing speed scores were significant predictors of reading achievement, as well as math and written language achievement for gifted students ($IQ \geq 120$) with ASD. Venter et al. (1992) followed high functioning children with autism over an eight-year period, providing the opportunity to look at early and current predictors of academic achievement at follow-up. They found early non-verbal IQ, the presence of functional speech before 5 years of age, severity of repetitive, restrictive behaviour and PPVT scores were significant predictors of academic achievement. At the eight-year follow-up, current verbal IQ,

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3 deviance of social behaviour, and PPVT scores were significant predictors of current
4
5 academic achievement. Finally, Mayes-Dickerson et al. (2008) found full scale IQ to
6
7 be the best predictor of word reading, reading comprehension, math and writing
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9 achievement for students with ASD and $IQ \geq 70$.

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11 Two studies looked at environmental predictors of academic achievement.
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13 Kurth et al. (2010) compared students across educational settings and found that
14
15 students with ASD in inclusive settings outperformed students matched on IQ and
16
17 adaptive behaviour in self-contained classrooms on reading, writing and math. In a
18
19 study by Assouline et al. (2012) involving gifted students with ASD, participation in
20
21 gifted and talented programs was a significant predictor of academic achievement in
22
23 math, reading, and oral language. Although Eaves and Ho (1997) considered a range
24
25 of factors as predictors of placement in mainstream or specialised educational
26
27 settings, they did not report the association between placement type and academic
28
29 achievement.

30 31 32 33 34 *Areas of relative academic strength/weakness*

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36 Studies described in this section focused on the academic skill areas of reading,
37
38 mathematics, writing and oral language (see Table 3). As detailed below, few patterns
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40 were evident at the group mean level. At the individual level, however, discrepancies
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42 between achievement and general intellectual ability were reported in a number of
43
44 studies. Most studies looked at a number of academic skills areas, particularly reading
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46 and mathematics. A smaller number of studies also investigated writing and two
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48 studies included a measure of oral language.

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52 <Insert Table 3 about here>

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54 *Reading.* Reading achievement was mostly found to be in the normal or average range
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56 and commensurate with IQ for groups of individuals with higher ability ($IQ > 80$), but
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3 varied widely at the individual level (Assouline et al., 2012; Estes et al., 2011; Jones
4 et al., 2009; Griswold et al., 2002; Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun, 2003a, 2003b;
5 Myles et al., 1994; Troyb et al., 2014). Scores varied from well below average to the
6 superior range, including for participants considered in the 'gifted' range (e.g., IQ
7 ≥ 120). For lower ability groups (IQ < 80), basic reading achievement appeared to be a
8 relative strength with reading scores significantly exceeding mean IQ for the group
9 (Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun, 2003a, 2003b). Standard scores on tests of basic
10 reading generally fell within the normal range.
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21 At the subtest level, however, Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2003a) found this
22 group unable to complete the reading comprehension subtest. Jones et al. (2009)
23 analysed academic profiles of 100 adolescents with ASD in both high and low ability
24 ranges and identified subgroups where academic achievement was not commensurate
25 with intellectual ability. In reading, the researchers identified a "reading peak" and a
26 "reading dip" subgroup. The "peak" group demonstrated basic reading levels in the
27 average range with below average full-scale IQ scores (FSIQ). The "dip" group
28 scored below average in basic reading with low-average FSIQ. A large number (37)
29 of adolescents displayed a dip in reading comprehension. For 26 of these 37
30 individuals, reading comprehension was an isolated deficit. This deficit was
31 associated with severity of social and communication difficulties. The finding that
32 reading comprehension is a relative weakness was also consistent with the findings of
33 Troyb et al. (2014) who found that children and adolescents with HFA scored much
34 lower on reading comprehension measures than did peers matched for nonverbal IQ.
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52 *Mathematics.* Group means for general mathematics achievement for individuals with
53 ASD and higher ability (IQ ≥ 70) were either in the average (Mayes-Dickerson and
54 Calhoun, 2003b; Troyb et al., 2014) or below average range (Estes et al., 2011;
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3 Griswold et al., 2002; Myles et al., 1994). In general, mathematics achievement was
4
5 also positively correlated with IQ for both low and high ability groups (Assouline et
6
7 al., 2012; Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun, 2003a, 2003b). However, as was the case
8
9 for reading, mathematics performance was highly variable (Estes et al., 2011;
10
11 Griswold et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2009; Myles et al., 1994) with large standard
12
13 deviations from the mean on mathematic subtest standard scores for individual
14
15 participants. Discrepancies between predicted achievement based on IQ and observed
16
17 achievement were evident across groups (Estes et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2009). These
18
19 discrepancies involved achievement scores on subtests that were either significantly
20
21 lower or higher than predicted.
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25 As in their analysis of reading achievement, Jones et al. (2009) also identified
26
27 “peak” and “dip” subgroups in mathematics scores in their study of 100 adolescents
28
29 with ASD. Both groups demonstrated a large discrepancy with Performance IQ (PIQ)
30
31 scores greater than Verbal IQ (VIQ) scores. The peak group was identified as having
32
33 an average FSIQ (although elevated when compared to the whole sample) and
34
35 exhibited numerical operations scores in the superior range. The dip group also had a
36
37 FSIQ in the average range, but exhibited numerical operations scores in the borderline
38
39 range. In addition, the peak group demonstrated a mean score for mathematics
40
41 reasoning that was significantly lower than numerical operations, a pattern not evident
42
43 in the dip group.
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47 *Writing.* Performance in written expression fell in the average range for children and
48
49 adolescents with ASD and $IQ \geq 70$ (Myles et al., 1994; Venter et al., 1992). Overall,
50
51 significant discrepancies between IQ and writing or spelling at the group mean level
52
53 were not identified in the included studies, although Estes et al. (2011) found much
54
55 variability in their sample of children with high IQ where spelling scores were
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3 significantly lower or higher than predicted on the basis of IQ for some participants.
4
5 Mayes-Dickerson et al. (2008) found that written expression on the WIAT-II subtest
6
7 was significantly lower than the norm and lower than scores on other subtests. In two
8
9 previous studies, Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2003a, 2003b) identified differences
10
11 at a subgroup level between individuals with high or low IQ scores. Specifically,
12
13 scores on written expression for the high IQ group were significantly lower than
14
15 expected based on IQ. Furthermore, performance in written expression was below
16
17 performance in other areas of academic achievement such as reading decoding and
18
19 reading comprehension. In contrast, spelling achievement for the high IQ group was
20
21 in the average range. Most of the low IQ group were unable to complete the written
22
23 expression tests, but demonstrated mean spelling scores within expectations based on
24
25 IQ with 50% scoring within the normal range despite scoring in the below average IQ
26
27 range.
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32 *Oral language.* Only two studies included measures of achievement in oral language.
33
34 Assouline et al. (2012) found oral language was positively correlated with Perceptual
35
36 Reasoning Index scores for children with ASD and $IQ \geq 70$. In contrast, there was no
37
38 link between oral language scores and other indices such as working memory, verbal
39
40 comprehension or processing speed. Griswold et al. (2002) found that performance in
41
42 oral expression was in the average range for children with Asperger syndrome and
43
44 was an area of strength when compared with scores for listening comprehension.
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46

47 *Comparing levels of academic achievement*

48
49 A number of studies specifically compared the academic performance of
50
51 children and adolescents with ASD to other groups (typically developing or other
52
53 disabilities) or to individuals diagnosed with different subtypes of ASD ([see Table 4](#)).
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55
56 Three studies compared the academic achievement of students with ASD and $IQ \geq 70$
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3 to the achievement of typically developing (TD) peers. Ashburner et al. (2010)
4
5 reported high rates of academic under-achievement of students with ASD in their
6
7 sample (54%) compared with TD students (8%). It is important to note, however, that
8
9 under-achievement in this study was determined using a single teacher-rated item of
10
11 academic performance on the Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment.
12
13 Students with ASD in two other studies (Minshew et al., 1994; Goldstein et al., 1994)
14
15 were also found to differ significantly from TD groups in their performance of
16
17 comprehension and some interpretive tasks. Encouragingly, children with ASD under
18
19 13 years of age did as well or better than the TD group on procedural and mechanical
20
21 tasks (e.g., word attack, spelling and computation) and on some interpretive tasks
22
23 (e.g., reading comprehension), but less well on tasks involving complex linguistic
24
25 instructions. In comparison, students with ASD who were over 13 years old,
26
27 demonstrated below average scores on all subtests (except Word Attack). This older
28
29 group also performed more poorly than the TD group on interpretive tasks such as
30
31 reading comprehension, in contrast to the younger ASD group who performed as well
32
33 as their TD peers in these areas.
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38 <Insert Table 4 about here>
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41 In a large study conducted by Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2007), the
42
43 academic achievement of children with ASD and IQ >80 was compared to that of
44
45 children with ADHD, Anxiety/Depression, Oppositional Defiant Disorder and
46
47 typically developing controls. Academic achievement was measured using Word
48
49 Reading, Reading Comprehension, Numerical Operations, and Written Expression
50
51 subtests from the WIAT or WIAT-II. Results showed that children with ASD
52
53 performed less well than their typically developing peers on all subtests. Children
54
55 with ASD and ADHD did not differ except that the ADHD group had significantly
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3 more learning problems. Both the ASD and ADHD groups were found to exhibit
4
5 weaknesses in graphomotor skills, attention, and processing speed, which are often
6
7 predictors of academic achievement.
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9
10 In comparing subtypes of ASD, Foley-Nicpon et al. (2012) tested the hypothesis
11 that students with Asperger syndrome would perform better on verbally-based
12
13 academic tests than students with HFA, but this hypothesis was not supported by their
14
15 results. Mean scores for both groups on reading, math, writing and oral language were
16
17 in the high average to superior range, but with significant variability across all
18
19 domains. Troyb et al. (2014) compared the academic performance of three groups:
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21 individuals with HFA; optimal outcome (OO) individuals with a history of ASD but
22
23 no longer meeting diagnostic criteria; and typically developing (TD) peers. The HFA
24
25 group was distinguishable from the other groups by having significantly lower scores
26
27 on reading comprehension, mathematical problem solving and verbal IQ. All three
28
29 groups performed in the average range on all academic subtests and no significant
30
31 differences were found between the OO and TD groups.
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35 36 **Discussion**

37
38 The findings from this review indicate some patterns evident in the academic
39
40 achievement of children and adolescence with ASD. The limited number of studies
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42 highlights the need for further research to address a number of gaps in our knowledge.
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45 *Participant bias*

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47 An analysis of the participants in the 19 studies reviewed suggests that the
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49 autism spectrum was generally not well represented, with a bias toward individuals
50
51 younger in age (pre-adolescence) and of higher ability (IQ > 70). The bias towards
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53 individuals of higher ability may reflect difficulties in assessing academic
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55 achievement in individuals with lower IQs using standardised measures. Mayes-
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3 Dickerson and Calhoun (2003a, 2003b), for example, found the participants of lower
4 ability in their study were unable to complete the Written Expression and Reading
5 Comprehension subtests on the WIAT. Where a child was unable to achieve basal
6 scores on the WIAT, these researchers used the Woodcock Johnson Tests of
7 Achievement that is suitable for children from 2 years of age. However, many of the
8 studies in this review relied only on standardised assessments such as the WIAT that
9 may not be appropriate for individuals with lower levels of cognitive ability. The
10 inclusion of a greater variety of assessment types in future studies, including more
11 individualised forms of assessment such as teacher questionnaires, may be necessary
12 when investigating academic achievement among students with lower IQ scores.
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25 It is also troubling how few studies collected data from school personnel,
26 relying instead on standardised assessments such as the WIAT and Woodcock-
27 Johnson. The use of these assessments is often restricted to professionals such as
28 psychologists as they require specialised training in test administration, scoring and
29 interpretation. Results from these assessments are valuable when researching
30 academic achievement, but the inclusion of school-administered assessments could
31 complement these data and yield additional information about academic achievement
32 of relevance to schools and families. It is also important to investigate ways schools
33 can participate in the assessment of academic achievement and use the results to
34 inform educational programming. Given the dissatisfaction of parents (Starr and Foy,
35 2012) and educators (Fleury et al., 2014) regarding education outcomes for
36 individuals with ASD, it would seem paramount that future research employs
37 measures that are conducted in school settings and with school involvement.
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54 The bias toward measuring academic achievement of students with ASD and
55 higher IQ scores may also reflect the differing priorities placed on academic
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3 achievement in specialised versus inclusive educational settings. Children with ASD
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5 who are higher functioning are more likely to attend mainstream education programs
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7 where they access mainstream academic curricula and participate in standardised
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9 measures of academic achievement, particularly in the areas of literacy and numeracy.
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11 In contrast students with lower IQ scores are more likely to be participating in
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13 education programs conducted in specialised settings, and are more likely to be
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15 exempt or excluded from standardised measures of academic achievement (Cumming
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17 and Dickson, 2013; Witmer and Ferreri, 2014). Furthermore, the educational
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19 programs offered to students in specialised settings may place less emphasis on
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21 academics. Kurth and Mastergeorge (2010) found that individual education plans for
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23 students in special settings focused more on life skills and developmental areas,
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25 whereas individual education plans in mainstream settings focused on academic
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27 progress. Thus students with lower IQ scores may have fewer opportunities to engage
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29 with and demonstrate skills in academic areas than those with higher IQ scores. In
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31 light of these factors, the inclusion of students with lower IQ scores in studies of
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33 academic achievement is urgently needed to address the current gap in our knowledge
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35 and improve academic opportunities and outcomes for these students.
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40 The lack of studies involving participants in the adolescent years was
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42 disturbing, although it is consistent with a more general trend that has identified a lack
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44 of research relating to outcomes, strengths and needs of people with ASD in
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46 adolescence and adulthood (Jang et al., 2014; Magiati et al., 2014). This trend is
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48 especially concerning given the increased emphasis on academic knowledge and
49
50 outcomes for students in secondary schools (Cumming, 2012). An important focus for
51
52 future research is to include participants in the adolescent years and to explore how
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54 academic outcomes can be measured across the entire spectrum, inclusive of students
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3 with low ability and across primary and secondary schooling years.
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5 *Overall trends*
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7 In general, individuals with higher IQ scores tended to do better on measures of
8 academic achievement (e.g. Eaves and Ho, 1997) and individuals with more
9 behaviour issues and less social skills tended to do worse (Manti et al., 2011). In
10 addition, individuals with ASD, even those with HFA, tended to perform lower than
11 their typically developing peers in some areas, particularly those involving reading
12 comprehension and problem solving (e.g. Troyb et al., 2014), and some studies found
13 that individuals with ASD often underperformed in many areas (e.g. Ashburner et al.,
14 2008). With the onset of adolescence, the gap between children with ASD and their
15 typically developing peers appeared to widen (Goldstein et al., 1994), even in areas
16 such as mechanical and procedural skills that were a relative strength prior to
17 adolescence. An important task ahead is to consider ways of building on areas of
18 relative strength evident in the pre-teenage years as children transition into high
19 school.
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36 *Uneven patterns of achievement*
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38 This review clearly highlighted the significant variability in academic
39 achievement across the autism spectrum and across different academic skill areas.
40 Aggregating data for all participants in a study tended to mask this variability. Thus,
41 at the individual level, child-related factors varied in the degree to which they
42 predicted academic achievement. Some students did better than their IQ would predict
43 (Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun, 2003b) while others exhibited academic achievement
44 at lower levels than would be expected given their autism symptomology (e.g. Manti
45 et al., 2011) or IQ scores (e.g. Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun, 2007). In addition, an
46 uneven pattern of achievement was often evident within different academic skill
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3 areas. For example, Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2003a) found that students with
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5 both high and low levels of ability often performed much better on spelling than
6
7 written tasks. The variability across academic skill areas was further supported by the
8
9 identification of academic 'peaks' and 'dips' in reading and arithmetic for some
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11 individuals (Jones et al., 2009).
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14 This finding is significant and underscores the need for educators to identify
15
16 individual strengths and weaknesses across all academic skill areas. Individualised
17
18 assessment that leads to profiling the relative strengths and weaknesses of individuals
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20 with ASD, irrespective of age and IQ, can inform educational programming and
21
22 provide a baseline for measuring achievement over time.
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24 25 *Environmental factors* 26

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28 Only two of the included studies considered the relationship between academic
29
30 achievement and factors external to the child. Specifically, Kurth et al. (2010)
31
32 considered educational programs and Assouline et al., (2012) investigated educational
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34 settings. Both the type of educational program students accessed and the educational
35
36 setting (inclusive versus self-contained) predicted academic achievement for students
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38 with ASD. The lack of research investigating environmental predictors of academic
39
40 achievement was surprising given the amount of time children spend in educational
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42 settings and the growing body of evidence demonstrating the effects of a range of
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44 intervention practices on developmental outcomes (Wong et al., 2013). A systematic
45
46 review of intervention studies that have targeted academic achievement could help to
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48 identify some environmental factors that may enhance academic outcomes for some
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50 children. However intervention studies may focus on a specific intervention practice
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52 and participant numbers are often small and usually include individuals who share
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54 similar characteristics. Furthermore, changes in academic performance can be
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3 difficult to determine when educational interventions are of relatively short duration.
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5 These issues limit the information that can be gained from intervention studies about
6
7 factors external to the child that may significantly impact academic performance. It is
8
9 important that researchers and educators work together to determine environmental
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11 and programming factors that facilitate academic achievement for students with ASD.
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13 Fleury et al. (2014) stress that the data on poor postsecondary outcomes for
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15 individuals with ASD indicate that re-evaluation of educational programs needs to
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17 occur if achievement for these individuals is to improve.
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21 Large scale studies, involving individuals with ASD of varying ability and age,
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23 that examine academic achievement using a range of measures, and include common
24
25 environmental variables found across educational settings could contribute a great
26
27 deal to our understanding of factors that influence academic achievement. This is
28
29 particularly important, as factors that are external to the child are an obvious target for
30
31 future interventions aimed at enhancing academic outcomes. These external factors
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33 may include but are not limited to various pedagogical practices, teacher/student
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35 ratios, inclusive and self-contained settings, physical features of the classroom,
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37 curriculum type, design and focus, use of technology, school attendance, assessment
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39 practices, and parental involvement.
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42 43 **Conclusion**

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45 This review was conducted in order to ascertain what research has been
46
47 conducted on factors that either predict or are related to the academic achievement of
48
49 children and adolescents with ASD. Nineteen studies were found, that examined
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51 predictors of academic achievement, areas of relative academic strength and
52
53 weakness, and comparisons of levels of academic achievement between groups of
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55 individuals. A participant bias was noted in that few studies included participants with
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3 IQ scores below 70 or in the adolescent/young adulthood age range. Significantly,
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5 measures used to assess academic achievement were often conducted in clinical
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7 settings and did not gather data from education professionals or in education settings
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9 responsible for delivering the primary programs designed to address the academic
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11 knowledge and skills of children with ASD. Additionally, the majority of the studies
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13 that examined predictors of academic achievement, focused on child characteristics
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15 such as intelligence or language ability. Although these findings may highlight some
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17 aspects of the needs of these individuals, they reveal little about the programs or
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19 strategies that most directly influence academic achievement, and that have direct
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21 relevance for practice. Future research is needed to evaluate the environments and
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23 programs that teachers, parents and professionals can implement to build on the
24
25 strengths of individuals with ASD and enable them to achieve the academic
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27 knowledge they need to be successful as they move through adolescence and into
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29 adulthood.
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34 The results of this review also point to the heterogeneity of individuals with
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36 ASD and the need for educators to undertake individualized, comprehensive
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38 assessments of academic strengths and weaknesses to inform educational
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40 programming. Studies identified that individuals with ASD have a diverse profile of
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42 academic achievement, with some individuals performing below and others above
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44 expected levels. This variability highlights the need for psychologists and educators to
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46 undertake specific assessments across the range of academic skill areas to ensure
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48 educational programs are responsive to individual strengths, peaks and dips in
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50 academic learning. Furthermore, this review has highlighted the need for researchers
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52 to include measures and procedures that link clinical understanding of academic
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54 profiles of individuals with ASD with educational practices that will impact the
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3 academic achievement for these individuals. Raising the awareness of teachers about
4 individual variability in academic performance will be critical to improving academic
5 outcomes for individuals with ASD. The findings from this study confirm that there is
6 no single learning profile that characterizes students with ASD. Educational programs
7 and practices must account for diverse learning profiles through individualized
8 assessment and planning.
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16 In summary, there are significant gaps in current knowledge about predictors
17 and correlates of academic achievement, and addressing these gaps may help to
18 address the reported academic under-achievement of students with ASD. In particular,
19 research is needed in relation to adolescents, individuals with lower IQ scores, and the
20 impact of a range of environmental factors on academic achievement. Additionally
21 there is a need for research to focus on bridging the gap between understanding the
22 nature of academic achievement for individuals with ASD, and working with
23 educators to investigate and create environments and practices that support
24 individuals with ASD to achieve academic success.
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For Peer Review

Table 1. Participant characteristics, setting, purpose, measures and variables studied for included studies

Author (year)	N	Diagnosis	Mean Age (yrs)	Mean IQ (SD)	Setting	Purpose	Measure of Academic Achievement	Variables Studied (in addition to academic achievement)
Ashburner et al. (2008)	28 ASD and 51 TDC	ASD IQ ≥ 80	6 - 10	N/A	Enrolled in mainstream class – evaluated at school	To explore the associations between sensory processing and classroom emotional, behavioural, and educational outcomes of children with ASD	Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment Teacher rating scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sensory processing IQ Symptoms of ASD Sensory aspects of environment
Ashburner et al. (2010)	28 ASD and 51 TDC	ASD IQ ≥ 80	6 - 10	N/A	Enrolled in regular education class – evaluated in school	To compare teachers' perceptions of academic performance, behavioural and emotional regulation of students with ASD compared to TDC	Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IQ ASD characteristics Emotional and behaviour regulation
Assouline et al. (2012)	59	ASD IQ Index Score ≥ 120	10.7	N/A (Index scores only)	Enrolled in mainstream class and gifted and talented program – evaluated in clinic	To examine the predictability of achievement among high ability youth with ASD (twice-exceptional) related to: diagnosis, measures of ability and educational interventions, and acceleration	Woodcock-Johnson III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IQ Eye-hand and fine motor coordination Educational program
Eaves and Ho (1997)	76	ASD, PDD, range of severity	11.6	VIQ 58 PIQ 62	Enrolled special classes (36%); mainstream class with aid (38%); mainstream class without aid (16%) – evaluated in clinic	Investigated school placement and variables related to the philosophy of least restrictiveness, achievement, and teachers' perceptions of a group of children with autistic spectrum disorders who had been exposed to “best Practices” for past decade including early identification, preschool, typical peers, IEPs, communication training, behaviour support.	WRAT-R; Teacher's rating of academic skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Autism symptomatology Behaviour IQ Class placement
Estes et al. (2011)	30	ASD IQ ≥ 70	6	89.57 (15.75)	Enrolled in mainstream (22) special ed/mainstream(5), mixed class (3) – evaluated at University autism centre	To investigate academic achievement patterns and their relationships with intellectual ability, social abilities and problem behaviour in a sample of children with ASD	DAS Achievement Tests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IQ Social skills Problem behaviour
Foley-Nicpon et al. (2012)	39	HFA AS ≥ 120 in at least one domain	6 - 16.6	HFA: 120.2 9 (9.18) AS:	Enrolment had been accelerated 1 grade (4); participated in gifted and talented program (11) received special ed	To examine the cognitive and academic profiles among high ability students with ASD and identify possible profile differences between those with HFA and AS	Woodcock-Johnson III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IQ ASD subtype

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				124.89 (13.59)	services (5) – evaluated in clinic			
Goldstein et al. (1994)	64	HFA IQ ≥ 70	16.11	95.88 (14.04)	Enrolment unspecified – evaluated in clinic	To investigate age differences in the academic profile of high-functioning autistic individuals as compared with normal controls	Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement	ASD symptomatology
Griswold et al. (2002)	21	AS	10	100.14 (26.06)	Enrolled in various educational settings – evaluation in clinic	To develop a profile of the academic strengths, deficits, problem-solving and critical thinking abilities of children and youth with AS and to compare profile with academic performance of normed population.	WIAT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem solving • Language-based critical thinking
Jones et al. (2009)	100	ASD Childhood autism	15.6	84.3 (18)	Enrolled in mainstream (57) and special school (43) – evaluated at school	To (i) establish an estimate of the frequency of specific attainment dips and peaks within the ASD population, and (ii) report the profile of intellectual ability of individuals with specific peaks or dips in their attainment profile.	Wechsler Objective Reading Dimensions Test of Word Reading Efficiency Wechsler Objective Numerical Dimensions	IQ
Kurth et al. (2010)	15	Autism	12.3 – 15.9	64.9 (inclusive) 60 (self-contained)	Enrolled in general education (7) or self-contained school settings (8) – evaluated at school	To describe the academic skill development of adolescents with autism who have been educated in inclusive and self-contained settings using three measures: cognitive assessments, adaptive behaviour, and academic achievement to describe strengths and concerns and to examine the effects of setting on academic skill acquisition.	Woodcock-Johnson III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education setting
Manti et al. (2011)	89	49.5% ASD 50.5% other	5.8	N/A	Enrolled in special school – evaluated at school	To explore the developmental course of children with autism attending special needs school, in particular the development of disorder symptoms and academic growth based on parent and teacher perceptions	Central Institute of Test Development (CITO) school attainment test	Autism symptomatology
Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2003a)	116	Autistic Disorder Young group Older group	4.8 8.5	Low IQ group : 66 (11) High IQ: 99 (13)	Enrolment unspecified – evaluated in clinic	To analyze intelligence, cognitive, and academic profiles in a large sample of children with autism using current measures of ability to delineate strengths and weaknesses and to determine whether differences exist as a function of age and IQ	WIAT, Woodcock-Johnson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IQ • Graphomotor skills
Mayes-	164	Autism	5.9	75	Enrolment unspecified	To identify and understand differences in ability	WIAT,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IQ

Dickerson and Calhoun (2003b)					– evaluated in clinic	test scores as a function of age and IQ and to generate implications for educational programming and intervention	Woodcock-Johnson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Graphomotor skills • Visual reasoning
Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2007)	118	AD IQ \geq 80	9	N/A	Enrolment unspecified – evaluated in clinic	To analyze learning, attention, graphomotor, and processing speed scores in typical children and children with ADHD, autism, anxiety, depression or ODD to determine differences between groups and to investigate interrelationships between and the coexistence of learning, attention, graphomotor and processing speed weaknesses.	WIAT or WIAT II	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diagnosis - disability • Attention • Graphomotor ability • Processing speed
Mayes-Dickerson et al. (2008)	54	HFA IQ \geq 70	8.2	101 (19)	Enrolment unspecified – evaluated in clinic	To analyze WISC-IV and WIAT-II scores in 54 children with HFA to determine if specific neuropsychological and learning profiles emerge and to compare findings with previous research on the WISC-III and WIAT.	WIAT II	IQ
Minshew et al. (1994)	54	HFA IQ \geq 70	16.3	95.5 (15.5 4)	Enrolment unspecified – evaluated in clinic	To investigate differences between academic profiles of high functioning autistic individuals and age, gender, and IQ matched normal controls, particularly between procedural tasks and those involving comprehension, problem solving, comprehension and encoding.	Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude (DTLA-2); Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests (WRMT-R); Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement (K-TEA)	ASD symptomatology
Myles et al. (1994)	41	HFA, PDD, PDD-NOS IQ \geq 70	N/A 3-18yrs	N/A	Enrolment unspecified – records pulled from US metropolitan school district	To identify characteristics of students from a school district who had been identified as having HFA in order to understand the unique educational features of the disorder.	Woodcock-Johnson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IQ • Speech/language • Social/adaptive behaviour
Troyb et al. (2014)	41 21	HFA OO*	13.81 12.91	HFA: VIQ 104.9 3 (14.5 5)	Enrolment unspecified – evaluation in university setting	To examine the reading, writing, and arithmetic problem solving of a group of children and adolescents who were diagnosed with ASDs in early childhood, but who no longer meet diagnostic criteria for these disorders	WASI Woodcock-Johnson III Test of Written Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IQ • Adaptive functioning • ASD symptomatology
Venter et al. (1992)	58	HFA Early IQ \geq 60	14.69	80.24 (19.2 8)	Enrolled in special ed class (28), mainstream class (13), special school/sheltered-supervised employment (13); unemployed/not in school (3) – evaluated in clinic	To evaluate the role of various cognitive and behavioural measures in childhood in predicting social-adaptive and academic attainment in high-functioning autistic adolescents and adults	Neale Analysis of Reading Schonell Graded Spelling Test Enright Diagnostic Math Test	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language • Autistic symptomatology • IQ • Adaptive behaviour •

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Table 2. Purpose and key findings for included studies in the Predictors of Academic Achievement category

Author (year)	Purpose	Key findings
Ashburner et al. (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To explore the associations between sensory processing and classroom emotional, behavioural, and educational outcomes of children with ASD 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Auditory filtering difficulties, sensory under responsiveness, and sensory seeking - with academic underachievement in the children with ASD. Under-responsive/seeking sensation and auditory filtering difficulties - 47% of variance in academic performance IQ not significant predictor of academic performance Auditory filtering, negative correlation with inattention to cognitive tasks; hyperactivity, tactile hypersensitivity positive correlation with inattention.
Assouline et al. (2012) ¹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To examine the predictability of achievement among high ability youth with ASD (twice-exceptional) related to: diagnosis, measures of ability and educational interventions, and acceleration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Working Memory and Processing Speed significantly correlated with reading, mathematics, and written language scores and significant predictors in reading achievement, and predictive of math and written language achievement. Perceptual Reasoning Index scores positively correlated with oral language. Involvement in talented and gifted programming predicted academic achievement in math, reading, and oral language
Eaves and Ho (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigated school placement and variables related to the philosophy of least restrictiveness, achievement, and teachers' perceptions of a group of children with autistic spectrum disorders who had been exposed to "best Practices" for past decade including early identification, preschool, typical peers, IEPs, communication training, behaviour support. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Age, IQ, and severity of autism were related to class placement and school achievement. Older, less able, more autistic pupils were more likely to be in special classes. Teachers reported 25% were average compared to their peers in academic subjects, about 10% were average in behavioural areas such as working independently, completing tasks, and paying attention. Teachers rated participants as having difficulties in abstract reasoning, language expression and comprehension, following instructions and problem solving. IQ predicted school achievement. None of the children with IQs below 40 had literacy skills; for those above 40, achievement was correlated with IQ. Teachers rating of academic skills correlated with achievement results. Teacher reported high levels of class behaviour that interfered with achievement.
Estes et al. (2011) ¹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To investigate academic achievement patterns and their relationships with intellectual ability, social abilities and problem behaviour in a sample of children with ASD 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Significant discrepancies between actual academic achievement and the level of academic achievement predicted from overall intellectual ability. 27/30 demonstrated at least one discrepancy in Spelling, Word Reading, or Basic Number Skills. Lower than predicted achievement was observed in at least one domain in 18 children and 18 children demonstrated at least one area of higher than predicted achievement. Word Reading and Basic Number Skills were related to IQ, whereas Spelling was not. After controlling for IQ, level of social skills at age 6 was predictive of level of academic achievement at age 9. Most strongly, social skills at age 6 were related to Word Reading scores at age 9. Concurrent measures of social skills at age 9 were not associated with academic achievement at age 9, over and above Nonverbal IQ. Furthermore, level of problem behaviours assessed at either age 6 or 9 years of age, was not significantly correlated with level of academic achievement at age 9.
Kurth et al. (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To describe the academic skill development of adolescents with autism who have been educated in inclusive and self-contained settings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No significant difference between groups (students in inclusive or self-contained settings) on intelligence or adaptive behaviour measures. Statistically significant differences between groups on achievement. Included group outperformed self-contained group on all subtests (reading, writing, math) although matched for

	using three measures: cognitive assessments, adaptive behaviour, and academic achievement to describe strengths and concerns and to examine the effects of setting on academic skill acquisition.	intelligence and adaptive behaviour. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academic achievement scores were generally one to four standard deviations below the mean expected based on student grade level. • Areas of strength in concrete, procedural academic tasks. • Relative weaknesses in performing abstract and inferential tasks, including passage comprehension, writing passages, and solving applied math problems (e.g. word problems).
Manti et al. (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To explore the developmental course of children with autism attending special needs school, in particular the development of disorder symptoms and academic growth based on parent and teacher perceptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers and parents perceptions of children's symptomology differed significantly with teachers but not parents, reporting a significant reduction after two years. • Both groups had gains in different aspects of school-based academic skills but no association between symptom reduction and academic growth.
Mayes-Dickerson et al. (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To analyze WISC-IV and WIAT-II scores in 54 children with HFA to determine if specific neuropsychological and learning profiles emerge and to compare findings with previous research on the WISC-III and WIAT. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written Expression was significantly lower than the other achievement scores and the norm. • Word Reading, Reading Comprehension, and Numerical Operations did not differ significantly from each other or the norm. • Correlations between FSIQ and achievement were all significant. The best overall single predictor of reading, math, and writing achievement was FSIQ. • FSIQ was the most powerful predictor of achievement in word reading, reading comprehension, math, and written expression.
Venter et al. (1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To evaluate the role of various cognitive and behavioural measures in childhood in predicting social-adaptive and academic attainment in high-functioning autistic adolescents and adults 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Predictors from T1 measures: Early non-verbal IQ and speech before 5 years were significant predictors of achievement scores in all areas: reading accuracy and reading comprehension, spelling, and computations. • Early language deviance was associated with reading accuracy and comprehension above an 8-year-old level at follow-up. • There was also an association between early PPVT scores and decoding and spelling above an 8-year-old level. • Predictors from T2 measures: Verbal IQ, current deviance of social behaviour, and the PPVT were all significant predictors of academic achievement. • Verbal IQ and comprehension of oral language were significant predictors of all achievement scores except mathematic computations. • Performance IQ and current language deviance were associated with reading accuracy, comprehension, and spelling at above an 8-year-old level. • The PPVT was also associated with reading accuracy and comprehension above an 8-year-old level at follow-up.

¹These papers were also included in the category 'Areas of Relative Academic Strengths and Weakness'

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Table 3. Purpose and key findings for included studies in the Areas of Relative Academic Strengths and Weakness category

Author (year)	Purpose	Key findings
Griswold et al. (2002)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To develop a profile of the academic strengths, deficits, problem-solving and critical thinking abilities of children and youth with AS and to compare profile with academic performance of normed population. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participant scores for academic achievement varied considerably from significantly above to far below what might be predicted from their grade level. Aggregate mean Language Composite scores on the WIAT fell within the average range while scores on the TOPS-R/TOPS-A were on average 2 standard deviations below the mean. Lowest achievement scores (but within the average range) were shown for Numerical Operations, Listening Comprehension and Written Expression. Relative strengths on the WIAT in oral expression and basic reading.
Jones et al. (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To (i) establish an estimate of the frequency of specific attainment dips and peaks within the ASD population, and (ii) report the profile of intellectual ability of individuals with specific peaks or dips in their attainment profile. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 72% of participants had at least 1 area of literacy or mathematical achievement that was highly discrepant from their general intellectual ability. No significant differences were found at the group mean level, across the spectrum of IQ, between intellectual skill and either arithmetical ability, basic word reading or spelling. However, 42.4% of individuals had a significant discrepancy between full scale IQ and word reading (Reading Peak and Dip subgroups) or arithmetic (Arithmetic Peak and Dip subgroups).
Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2003a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To analyze intelligence, cognitive, and academic profiles in a large sample of children with autism using current measures of ability to delineate strengths and weaknesses and to determine whether differences exist as a function of age and IQ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For children 3–7 yrs in both low and high IQ groups, nonverbal IQs were significantly greater than verbal IQs. There was a nonsignificant difference between nonverbal and verbal IQs for children 6- 15yrs. Generally, children performed well academically relative to IQ. For young children in the high IQ group, mean academic achievement test scores in reading decoding, math, and writing were in the average range and were commensurate with IQ. For older children in the low IQ group, mean math and spelling scores were within expectancy based on IQ, and reading decoding was significantly higher. Approximately half of these children earned reading decoding and spelling standard scores that were within normal limits, in spite of below normal intelligence. This is consistent with their relative strength in rote learning and previous reports of hyperlexia in some children with autism. However, most of the older children in the low IQ group were not able to complete the reading comprehension and written expression subtests, suggesting weaknesses in these areas. Older children in the high IQ group also performed well in reading decoding, math, and spelling, as well as in reading comprehension. Mean scores were in the average range and were consistent with IQ. Specific learning disabilities in reading decoding or reading comprehension were uncommon and found in only 7% of the children. A specific learning disability in math was also not prevalent (22%). However, 63% of the children had a specific learning disability in written expression, and mean performance on the WIAT Written Expression subtest was significantly lower than IQ and other academic scores.
Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2003b)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To identify and understand differences in ability test scores as a function of age and IQ and to generate implications for educational programming and intervention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Significant and positive relationships between increasing IQ and increasing age until age 8, when verbal and nonverbal IQs for the total group stabilized. Visual reasoning test scores significantly exceeded graphomotor scores in all four of the IQ/age groups, and visual reasoning was superior to overall IQ in all groups except school-age children with high IQs. Academically, school-age children in the low-IQ group performed at or above expectancy based on IQ. Math, spelling, and written expression scores were not significantly different than IQ, and reading scores significantly

		<p>exceeded IQ.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For both of the high-IQ groups, mean IQ, reading, math, and spelling scores were in the average range. • For school-age children with high IQs, though, written expression was significantly lower than IQ.
Myles-Dickerson et al. (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To identify characteristics of students from a school district who had been identified as having HFA in order to understand the unique educational features of the disorder. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students tended to have academic achievement scores writing, reading and mathematics within one standard deviation of the mean, but at the lower end of the average continuum. • Students received the highest mean standard score on the Reading subtest (M = 92.00) and the lowest mean score on the Mathematics subtest (M = 80.00).
Troyb et al. (2014) ²	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To examine the reading, writing, and arithmetic problem solving of a group of children and adolescents who were diagnosed with ASDs in early childhood, but who no longer meet diagnostic criteria for these disorders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Groups were matched on age, sex, and nonverbal IQ; however, the HFA group scored significantly lower than the optimal outcome (OO) and typically developing (TD) groups on verbal IQ. • All three groups performed in the average range on all subtests measured, and no significant differences were found in performance of the OO and TD groups. • The HFA group scored significantly lower on subtests of reading comprehension and mathematical problem solving than the OO group.

²This paper was also included in the category 'Levels of Academic Achievement'

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Table 4. Purpose and key findings for included studies in the Levels of Academic Achievement category

Author (year)	Purpose	Key findings
Foley-Nicpon et al. (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To examine the cognitive and academic profiles among high ability students with ASD and identify possible profile differences between those with HFA and AS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Verbal and nonverbal skills were higher than working memory and processing speed skills for HFA and AS groups. The size of the discrepancy, particularly when comparing Verbal Reasoning and Processing Speed or Perceptual Reasoning and Processing Speed, is larger than what is typical for the gifted student population, but not uncommon for high ability students with disabilities or students with ASD. The AS group had significantly higher verbal comprehension scores than the HFA group. Processing speed scores were higher for students with HFA than for students with AS. Vocabulary skills of the AS group were higher than among those with HFA. Group differences were not apparent on tests measuring verbal abstract reasoning and social judgment. Students with HFA performed better on a task of visual scanning and cognitive processing than those with AS. Both groups demonstrated clinically lower scores on Coding than on other subtests (Matrix Reasoning for both groups and Similarities for the AS group). Academic domain scores did not differ amongst the AS and HFA groups, but there was a notably large score distribution.
Ashburner et al. (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To compare teachers' perceptions of academic performance, behavioural and emotional regulation of students with ASD compared to TDC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students with ASD exhibit significantly higher levels of behavioural and emotional difficulties than their typically developing peers. 43% had clinically significant issues with perfectionism. A high proportion of students with ASD had attention difficulties including hyperactive symptoms (36% clinically significant and 36% borderline) and inattentive symptoms (32% clinically significant and 43% borderline). High rates of academic under-achievement of the students with ASD (54% of students with ASD as compared to 8% of typically developing students) Poor attention and emotional regulation in classroom
Goldstein et al. (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To investigate age differences in the academic profile of high-functioning autistic individuals as compared with normal controls 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Younger (<13 years) participants with ASD performed as well or better than younger controls on psychoeducational measures of mechanical and procedural skills, and on some complex, interpretive tasks. However, participants with ASD performed more poorly than controls on tasks that involve following complex linguistic instructions. Younger participants with ASD and controls did not differ significantly from each other on interpretive tasks, while the older participants with ASD did significantly more poorly than the older controls on such tasks.
Mayes-Dickerson and Calhoun (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To analyze learning, attention, graphomotor, and processing speed scores in typical children and children with ADHD, autism, anxiety, depression or ODD to determine differences between groups and to investigate interrelationships between and the coexistence of learning, attention, graphomotor and processing speed weaknesses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Control children performed better than children with autism and ADHD in all areas. Children with ADHD and autism did not differ, except that children with ADHD had greater learning problems. Attention, graphomotor and speed weaknesses were likely to coexist, the majority of children with autism and ADHD had weaknesses in all three areas, and these scores contributed to prediction of academic achievement.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 Minshew et al. (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• To investigate differences between academic profiles of high functioning autistic individuals and age-, gender, and IQ matched normal controls, particularly between procedural tasks and those involving comprehension, problem solving, comprehension and encoding.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Significant differences between ASD and controls were found for all subtests of the DTLA-2, Visual-Auditory Learning and Passage Comprehension, and Reading Comprehension.• There was a consistent pattern of significant differences on the comprehension tasks in the absence of such differences on encoding and procedural tasks.• ASD subjects did not differ from controls with regard to overall reading and mathematical scores, nor did they differ with regard to basic procedural skills related to reading.• Significant differences were found for those composites that contrasted procedural and mechanical skills on the one hand with comprehension skills on the other.• This dichotomy was also reflected in the finding that the autistic group was better at Word Attack relative to Word Identification, while the opposite was true for the control group.
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