

Benchmark Eye Movement Effects During Natural Reading in Autism Spectrum Disorder

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In 2 experiments, eye tracking methodology was used to assess on-line lexical, syntactic and semantic processing in autism spectrum disorder (ASD). In Experiment 1, lexical identification was examined by manipulating the frequency of target words. Both typically developed (TD) and ASD readers showed normal frequency effects, suggesting that the processes TD and ASD readers engage in to identify words are comparable. In Experiment 2, syntactic parsing and semantic interpretation requiring the on-line use of world knowledge were examined, by having participants read garden path sentences containing an ambiguous prepositional phrase. Both groups showed normal garden path effects when reading low-attached sentences and the time course of reading disruption was comparable between groups. This suggests that not only do ASD readers hold similar syntactic preferences to TD readers, but also that they use world knowledge on-line during reading. Together, these experiments demonstrate that the initial construction of sentence interpretation appears to be intact in ASD. However, the finding that ASD readers skip target words less often in Experiment 2, and take longer to read sentences during second pass for both experiments, suggests that they adopt a more cautious reading strategy and take longer to evaluate their sentence interpretation prior to making a manual response.

Keywords: autism spectrum disorder, reading, eye movements, lexical identification, syntactic ambiguity resolution

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is characterized by restrictive and repetitive patterns of behavior and significant impairments in social interaction/communication (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The cognitive differences that underpin this behavioral phenotype are often found to affect reading ability (e.g., Nation, Clarke, Wright, & Williams, 2006). Individuals with ASD who do not have an associated learning difficulty or those who have Asperger syndrome, in general, are found to have intact performance accuracy for “low level,” basic reading tasks (e.g., word identification; Frith & Snowling, 1983; Huemer & Mann, 2010; Mayes & Calhoun, 2006; Minshew, Goldstein, & Siegel, 1995; Saldaña, Carreiras, & Frith, 2009), but frequently display impairments in performance for “higher order” reading tasks (e.g., text comprehension, inferencing; Huemer & Mann, 2010; Jolliffe & Baron-Cohen, 1999, 2000; Jones et al., 2009; Minshew et al., 1995; but see also Åsberg, Kopp, Berg-Kelly, & Gillberg, 2010).

As yet, there has been no specific theoretical explanation put forward to explain how linguistic processing occurs in ASD. Previous hypotheses as to why performance on higher order linguistic tasks is impaired have been derived from domain general cognitive accounts of ASD. The weak central coherence theory (WCC) claims ASD to result in a local processing bias coupled with a lack of spontaneous strive for global coherence (Frith, 1989; Frith & Happé, 1994; Happé & Frith, 2006). In the context of reading this would suggest that individuals with ASD may not integrate information within and between sentences. Evidence for this lack of contextual/global processing during reading has most notably been demonstrated using the homograph task. The homograph task involves participants reading sentences aloud that contain a heterophonic homograph (i.e., a word with one spelling, but two meanings and pronunciations) and readers with ASD have been reported to identify and pronounce the dominant meaning of the homograph, regardless of sentence context (Frith & Snowling, 1983; Happé, 1997; Jolliffe & Baron-Cohen, 1999; López & Leekam, 2003; cf. Snowling & Frith, 1986). However, the validity of these studies has been criticized (e.g., Brock & Bzishvili, 2013; Brock & Caruana, 2014) and when other paradigms are adopted the findings of impaired integration during reading tasks is inconsistent, with some researchers finding poorer performance for individuals with ASD (e.g., Jolliffe & Baron-Cohen, 1999, 2000), whereas others do not (e.g., Au-Yeung, Kaakinen, Liversedge, & Benson, 2015; Hala, Pexman, & Glenwright, 2007). The theory of complex information processing (CIP; Minshew & Goldstein, 1998; Minshew, Goldstein, & Siegel, 1997; Minshew, Williams, & McFadden, 2008) proposes low-level “simple” processes to be intact in ASD, but “complex” processes that require the integration of information or the use of top-down knowledge, to be impaired.

This article was published Online First August 8, 2016.

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This research was funded by the Mayflower scholarship, provided by the Faculty of Social, Human and Mathematical Sciences at the University of Southampton and was completed as part of Philippa L. Howard’s doctoral thesis. We thank all of the postgraduates from the Centre of Vision and Cognition who assisted with data collection and all of the volunteers who participated.

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The evidence in support of this theory in relation to reading stems from studies showing that adults and children with ASD perform comparably to matched controls on batteries of standardized reading assessments that are defined as “simple” (i.e., tasks that are rule based and can be completed upon the basis of information explicitly stated in the text; e.g., word identification, grammar). In contrast performance is poorer compared to controls at reading tasks that are defined as “complex” (i.e., tasks that require processing beyond explicit text information, e.g., inferencing, comprehension; Minshew & Goldstein, 1998; Minshew et al., 1995; Williams, Goldstein, & Minshew, 2006).

The majority of research examining reading in ASD has focused on accuracy and reaction time (RT) measures of performance. Although these studies are informative in relation to off-line reading performance, they provide little insight into specific aspects of on-line cognitive processing associated with reading impairments in ASD. In the present work, we recorded participants’ eye movements as they read naturally, to gain an insight into the on-line linguistic processing of written language in ASD. A literature search indicated that only three peer-reviewed articles have adopted this approach when examining natural reading in ASD (Au-Yeung et al., 2015; Caruana & Brock, 2014; Sansosti, Was, Rawson, & Remaklus, 2013). This is the case, even though eye movement recording is one of the most widespread methods used to examine reading in a typical population (e.g., Rayner, 1998, 2009).

The first study that used eye movements to examine reading in ASD was conducted by Sansosti et al., (2013) who partially replicated an experiment originally conducted by Saldaña and Frith (2007), whereby a group of children and adolescents with ASD read vignettes consisting of two sentences, designed to invoke a bridging inference. Each vignette either evoked an inference that required social or spatial knowledge and was followed by a general knowledge question that was either related (e.g., 1a) or unrelated (e.g., 1b) to the evoked inference (e.g., for the examples below, *the rocks hurt the cowboys*).

1a.

The Indians pushed the rocks off the cliff onto the cowboys.

The cowboys were badly injured.

Can rocks be large?

1b.

The Indians pushed the cowboys off the cliff onto the rocks.

The cowboys were badly injured.

Can rocks be large?

Sansosti et al. (2013) replicated Saldaña and Frith’s (2007) main finding that both typically developed (TD) and ASD readers responded to questions related to an inference more quickly than questions that were unrelated to the inference. In addition, Sansosti et al. (2013) reported that when reading the vignettes, the ASD participants had longer average reading times, longer average fixation durations and made more fixations and regressions overall, in comparison to the TD group. This finding highlights the discrepancy between off-line and on-line measures of reading. The

lack of difference between the groups in response times to the general knowledge questions indicates that the ASD group made bridging inferences on-line. However, the eye movement data indicate that the on-line processing of the vignettes was significantly more effortful for ASD participants. Sansosti et al. (2013) interpreted their findings to be consistent with the WCC theory and suggested that ASD readers access world knowledge on-line, but have difficulty in the integration of this knowledge into the discourse model. Although possible, this interpretation should be considered tentative, as it is based upon global eye movement measures that are averaged across the reading of the entire vignette. In order to make precise deductions about the exact processes that may differ during reading, both global and localized eye movement measures on critical, experimentally manipulated words and regions of a text are required. Therefore, although this experiment gives evidence for the processing of text to be less efficient in ASD readers, the time course of such differences were not fully explored. Consequently, the aspects of cognitive processing that underpin eye movement differences are unclear.

The second study that used eye tracking to gain an insight into linguistic processing in ASD examined two opposing hypotheses as to why ASD readers have previously been found to perform poorly at the homograph task (Caruana & Brock, 2014). Recall that the homograph task involves participants reading sentences aloud that contain a heterophonic homograph, and readers with ASD are often reported to identify and pronounce the dominant meaning, regardless of sentence context (Frith & Snowling, 1983; Happé, 1997; Jolliffe & Baron-Cohen, 1999; López & Leekam, 2003). First, Caruana and Brock (2014) examined the predominant conclusion drawn from these studies on the basis of the WCC theory, that an impairment in contextual processing is present in ASD. To test this hypothesis, fixation times of students with various levels of self-reported ASD traits were measured (using the Autism Quotient [AQ]; Baron-Cohen, Wheelwright, Skinner, Martin, & Clubley, 2001), on words that were highly predictable by sentence context (e.g., 2a, target word italicized) and words that were unpredictable (e.g., 2b).

2a. Crocodiles live in muddy *swamps* most of the time.

2b. The girl knows about the *swamps* in the bush.

For TD readers, a highly constrained context is found to facilitate lexical access, with predictable words being identified more quickly and fixated for less time, than unpredictable words (e.g., Ehrlich & Rayner, 1981). Caruana and Brock (2014) found students with both high and low AQ scores to show equivalent contextual facilitation, with shorter first fixation durations on the target words when the sentence context was highly constrained (e.g., 2a), in comparison to when it was not (e.g., 2b). This suggests that readers with high AQ scores or “subclinical levels of ASD” process contextual information at the sentence level, similarly to those with low AQ scores. This contributes to the developing literature that suggests the contextual processing of language to be intact in ASD (e.g., Brock, Norbury, Einav, & Nation, 2008; Hahn, Snedeker, & Rabagliati, 2015; Hala, Pexman, & Glenwright, 2007; Henderson, Clarke, & Snowling, 2011; Norbury, 2005) and indicates that the previous reports of poor performance for ASD readers at the homograph task may not be a result of atypical contextual

processing (see Brock & Caruana, 2014; Brock & Bzishvili, 2013 for a discussion about methodological issues that may have contributed to previous findings of poor performance in the homograph task).

Caruana and Brock (2014) also examined an alternative hypothesis, that poor performance on the homograph task may be a result of less efficient comprehension monitoring. In other words, that individual's with ASD do not track comprehension as efficiently as TD readers and therefore may not detect when their interpretation of a sentence is no longer coherent. To examine this hypothesis, participants read sentences that contained a homograph (e.g., *crane* in 3a below) that was preceded by a determiner and therefore not contextually constrained.

3a. The crane was slowly *flying* over the lake.

3b. The bird was slowly *flying* over the lake.

An off-line cloze task indicated that for such sentences, participants identified the dominant meaning of the word (e.g., crane—machine), as opposed to the subordinate meaning (e.g., crane—bird). Following the homograph, the sentences contained a disambiguating verb that indicated the dominant meaning of the homograph was incorrect and in fact that the subordinate meaning of the homograph was intended. Typical readers were expected to fixate the disambiguating verb for longer periods when it was preceded by a homograph in comparison to a control synonym (e.g., 3b), as a result of the detection of an initial misidentification of the ambiguous word. This manipulation however did not result in any differences in fixation measures on the disambiguating verb, regardless of AQ score. An interaction was found however, between heterophonic homographs (two pronunciations) and AQ score, but not homophonic homographs (one pronunciation), with participants who had high AQ scores having longer gaze durations (the sum of fixations from when a word is first fixated until the reader leaves that word to either the left or right) on the target, in comparison to those with low AQ scores. This may suggest that participants with high levels of self-reported autistic traits detected the discrepancy for heterophonic homographs, but that those with low levels did not. This is in contrast to what was predicted, as it indicates that readers with higher AQ scores were more sensitive to alternations of sentence meaning and therefore were monitoring their comprehension more carefully. Note though, this finding only occurred for a small number of heterophonic homograph stimuli and should therefore be treated with caution. Therefore, Caruana and Brock (2014) did not find support for either hypothesis; contextual processing appeared to be comparable across participants and the findings in relation to comprehension monitoring were unclear. An additional more general observation noted by Caruana and Brock (2014) was that a high AQ score was associated with longer fixations for all sentence and condition types (although only reliable in the predictability experiment). Note that this is similar to what Sansosti et al. (2013) reported for their sample of clinically diagnosed participants. If it is accepted that findings from a typical population with high levels of self reported autistic traits can be generalized to individuals with a clinical diagnosis, these findings suggest that contextual processing and comprehension monitoring at the single-sentence level are intact in ASD.

The third study was conducted by Au-Yeung et al. (2015), who had adult participants with and without ASD read passages of text that contained either a sincere or ironic statement. Previous work that has examined the processing of written irony in a typical population has found ironic statements to require longer processing time and in turn longer fixation times, in comparison to nonironic statements (Filik & Moxey, 2010). It was predicted that if readers with ASD are less sensitive to contextual information, as is predicted by the WCC theory, that the processing of ironic versus sincere utterances would not differ. Alternatively, it was also predicted upon the basis of the CIP theory, that the comprehension of figurative language is more complex than the comprehension of literal language and therefore readers with ASD should show increased processing disruption when encountering ironic statements, as apposed to sincere statements. However, no differences in first pass reading times (the time from when a region of text was initially fixated until that region was left to the left or right) for ironic statements were found between TD and ASD groups, with both displaying longer times for ironic than sincere statements, replicating what has previously been found for a typical population. This suggests that the comprehension of irony was as effortful for TD and ASD readers and is in contrast to both the WCC and CIP theory. The only group difference detected was that the ASD readers had longer total times (the total amount of time spent fixating a region) for the critical regions in comparison to the TD group. Note that no difference in first pass times were detected and that the increased time that was observed was found for both ironic and sincere texts. The increased total times appeared to be a result of the ASD participants rereading the passages following initial processing. The authors concluded that this difference was either a result of the ASD readers requiring longer to develop a discourse representation of the text, or that they required longer to conclude that their interpretation of the text was reasonable.

What should be evident from the above studies is that although very few have examined on-line reading processes in ASD, those that have, focus upon aspects of semantic and discourse processing that are predicted to be impaired by cognitive theories of ASD (e.g., Frith & Happé, 1994; Minshew & Goldstein, 1998). However, only two of these studies assessed a clinically diagnosed sample (Au-Yeung et al., 2015; Sansosti et al., 2013) and only one of these demonstrated a difference in the initial extraction of information from the text (Sansosti et al., 2013). Unfortunately this was evident in global reading time measures, which makes the precise cause or timing of this effect difficult to determine. Therefore, the question remains as to how the presence of this developmental disorder impacts upon the on-line processing of written language.

The aim of the present work was to extend the emerging literature examining on-line linguistic processing in ASD and to identify whether differences in fundamental lexical, syntactic and semantic components of sentence processing are present in individuals with ASD during natural reading. In order to achieve this we adopted robust, benchmark linguistic manipulations from the eye movement and reading literature (Rayner, 1998, 2009).

Experiment 1: Lexical Identification in ASD

Lexical identification refers to the processes a reader engages in to identify a word. There are multiple computational models that specify the exact mechanisms involved in visual word recognition in a typical population and each differ regarding particular aspects of lexical processing (e.g., Coltheart, Rastle, Perry, Langdon, & Ziegler, 2001; Grainger & Jacobs, 1996; Rumelhart & McClelland, 1982). For example, the Dual Route Cascaded Model (Coltheart et al., 2001) includes separate lexicons for phonological and orthographic information and the multiple read out model includes variable response criteria that can be altered dependent upon task requirements (Grainger & Jacobs, 1996). However, these models are similar at a more basic level, in that they propose words to be identified by a matching process between encoded orthographic information relative to a stored word representation in the mental lexicon (cf. Seidenberg & McClelland, 1986). Regardless of the precise mechanistic account underpinning lexical identification, in the current experiment, we were interested in whether the time course of such lexical processing is similar in ASD readers.

Performance accuracy for word identification tasks varies between individuals with ASD (e.g., Nation et al., 2006), however, for individuals without language impairment or learning difficulties, performance on word identification tasks is generally found to be intact. For example, children and adolescents with ASD have been found to use both phonological and orthographic decoding strategies when identifying words, be as accurate as TD peers in the reading of words aloud and have intact word comprehension (e.g., Huemer & Mann, 2010; Minshew et al., 1995; Saldaña et al., 2009).

There are also reports however, of atypical lexical processing in ASD that may be suggestive of a difference in the time course of word identification. For example, Kamio, Robins, Kelley, Swainson, and Fein (2007) found children, adolescents and young adults with ASD to respond as quickly and accurately as TD participants during a lexical-decision task, but to lack facilitation from closely related semantic primes. Note that this is in contrast to findings of normal semantic priming in ASD participants when other paradigms are adopted (e.g., Hala et al., 2007; López & Leekam, 2003; Kamio & Toichi, 2000; Toichi & Kamio, 2001), but this finding may be indicative of a slow in the access to word meaning. Further support for less efficient lexical processing comes from Sansosti et al. (2013) and Caruana and Brock's (2014) experiments that were previously discussed above and have reported participants with ASD to have longer average fixation durations in comparison to TD readers.

In this experiment, we aimed to directly examine the time course of on-line lexical identification in adults with ASD and identify whether the efficiency of such processing is comparable between ASD and TD readers. This is an important question to address, because if on-line lexical processing is less efficient, this may cascade forward impacting on later aspects of linguistic processing. Thus, prior to examining on-line higher order linguistic processing, it is necessary to have knowledge of the proficiency of on-line visual word identification.

We recorded the eye movements of TD and ASD participants as they read sentences that included words manipulated to be either high or low frequency. Word frequency is one of the most reliable lexical characteristics that affects the speed of lexical identifica-

tion. Word frequency is a measure of how often a word occurs in the written language. High frequency (HF) words (e.g., *people*) are identified more quickly than low frequency (LF) words (e.g., *zombie*) because they have been previously encountered more often. This difference in identification speed is reflected in fixation durations, with LF words being fixated for significantly longer than HF words (e.g., Inhoff & Rayner, 1986; Rayner & Duffy, 1986). Connectionist models posit that each time a word is identified, the baseline level of activity for that word increases and consequently, the more quickly a word reaches the activity threshold necessary for identification (e.g., Rumelhart & McClelland, 1982). Therefore, the frequency effect is thought to reflect a real difference in the time it takes to identify a stored word representation on the basis of visually encoded orthographic information. If lexical processing were less efficient in ASD, we would expect these readers to have longer fixations on target words and possibly even show an increased magnitude of the frequency effect, in comparison to the TD participants.

Experiment 1: Method

Participants. A group of 19 adults with a formal diagnosis of ASD took part in the experiment, 18 of which had a diagnosis of Asperger's syndrome and 1 with high functioning ASD (3 females, ages 18–52 years). Each ASD participant was administered module 4 of ADOS-2 (Lord et al., 2012) and all but four met the autism spectrum cut off criteria. When these participants were excluded the pattern of effects did not change and therefore all participants are included in all analyses reported below. The control group consisted of 18 TD adults (4 females, ages 20–52). Participants had normal or corrected to normal vision, were native English speakers and did not differ in age $t(35) = 0.94, p = .354$ (TD $M = 28.33$ years $SD = 9.18$, ASD $M = 31.37$ years $SD = 10.45$). The ASD group had a significantly higher number of self-reported autistic traits in comparison to the TD group, as measured by the AQ (Baron-Cohen et al., 2001) $t(32) = 9.24, p < .001$ (TD $M = 15.61$ $SD = 8.03$, ASD $M = 37.37$ $SD = 6.10$), but did not differ in verbal IQ $t(35) = 0.58, p = .621$ (TD $M = 116.50$ $SD = 11.07$, ASD $M = 118.32$ $SD = 11.06$), performance IQ $t(34) = 0.99, p = .331$ (TD $M = 111.94$ $SD = 11.45$, ASD $M = 116.21$ $SD = 14.75$) or full scale IQ $t(35) = 0.87, p = .389$ (TD $M = 116.17$ $SD = 10.79$, ASD $M = 119.42$ $SD = 11.89$), as measured by the Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (Wechsler, 1999). In addition, the two groups did not differ in expressive language ability $t(35) = 0.53, p = .599$ (TD $M = 88.00$ $SD = 5.87$, ASD $M = 86.95$ $SD = 6.22$), as measured by raw scores on the sentence repetition subscale of the Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals II (Semel, Wiig, & Secord, 2003). General reading ability was assessed using raw scores from the York Assessment of Reading Comprehension (Snowling et al., 2010) and performance between groups did not differ for a single-word reading task; $t(33) = 0.51, p = .614$ (TD $M = 67.74$ $SD = 2.96$, ASD $M = 68.17$ $SD = 2.12$) nor for a passage comprehension task; $t(34) = 0.35, p = .727$ (TD $M = 9.19$ $SD = 1.77$, ASD $M = 8.97$ $SD = 2.03$). Participants were paid for their time and either visited the University of Southampton to take part, or were visited at their homes and completed the experiment in the psychology departments mobile research unit.

Materials. Thirty-four sentence pairs were developed to include a target word located at approximately the center of each sentence that was either HF (e.g., 4a below) or (LF) e.g., 4b). In the examples below the slashes denote region of interest boundaries.

4a. IJohn walked to the largel officel yesterday morning.l

4b. IJohn walked to the largel cavernl yesterday morning.l

All target words were six letter nouns and significantly differed in frequency $t(33) = 12.95, p < .001$ (HF $M = 151.43$ $SD = 3.04$, LF $M = 3.04$ $SD = 10.04$), but not in the number of orthographic neighbors; $t(33) = 0.45, p = .659$ (HF $M = 1.71$ $SD = 2.38$, LF $M = 1.44$ $SD = 2.67$), mean bigram frequency; $t(33) = 1.34, p = .190$ (HF $M = 3896.04$ $SD = 7614.47$, LF $M = 3419.44$ $SD = 1353.73$), number of syllables; $t(33) = 0.37, p = .768$ (HF $M = 1.85$ $SD = 0.56$, LF $M = 1.88$ $SD = 0.48$) or number of morphemes; $t(33) = 0.81, p = .422$ (HF $M = 1.21$ $SD = 0.41$, LF $M = 1.26$ $SD = 0.45$), as obtained from the SUBTLEX database (Bryson & New, 2009). Target words were equally unpredictable $t(33) = 1.66, p = .107$ (HF $M = .01$ $SD = .03$, LF $M = .00$ $SD = .00$), as rated by 12 undergraduate students on a cloze task. In addition, sentences in each condition did not differ in plausibility $t(33) = 1.65, p = .109$ (HF $M = 4.35$ $SD = 0.49$, LF $M = 4.15$ $SD = 0.56$) as rated by 13 undergraduate students (who had not taken part in the cloze task) on a five point likert scale as to how likely it was that the events they describe would occur (1 = very unlikely, 3 = quite likely, 5 = very likely). A full set of the materials can be obtained by contacting the first author.

Procedure. Participants read sentences presented on a 19-inch LCD computer monitor (75 Hz) as their head position was stabilized using a forehead and chin rest. The right eye was monitored (viewing was binocular) using an Eyelink 1000 (SR Research, Ottawa, Canada) operating at a sampling rate of 1000 Hz. Before the experiment began, a calibration procedure was completed whereby participants fixated three dots on the screen that appeared sequentially on a horizontal line where the sentences were set to appear. Following calibration, a validation procedure was completed to assure fixations were within 0.5° of each point.

At the start of each trial, participants fixated a dot on the far left of the screen, where the first letter of each sentence was set to appear. If fixation was off-center, participants were recalibrated. If calibration was accurate, the experimenter triggered a sentence to appear. Sentences were presented one at a time and participants were instructed to read normally and to press a button on a controller once they had finished reading each sentence. Sentences were presented in random order. Following 50% of the sentences, participants were asked a simple comprehension question about what they had just read. Participants responded with a "yes/no" answer using a button controller. Instructions as to which button corresponded to each answer were included beneath each question. In total, the eye-tracking task took approximately 25 min.

Design. A 2×2 design was employed, with sentence type as a within participants variable (Experiment 1: HF vs. LF; Experiment 2: high vs. low attachment) and group (TD vs. ASD) as a between participants variable. The experimental sentences from Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 (44 sentence pairs manipulated to include an ambiguous prepositional phrase) were presented to participants within the same testing session. All experimental sentences were divided into four separate lists that each contained

only one version of each sentence pair. In total each list consisted of 88 sentences; 34 that included a frequency manipulation (17 HF, 17 LF), 44 manipulated to include an ambiguous prepositional phrase (22 high attached, 22 low attached) and 10 practice sentences that were presented prior to experimental sentences. Each participant read one of the four sentence lists.

Experiment 1: Results

Data preparation and analysis. Fixations below 80 ms and above 800 ms were removed from analysis, resulting in a loss of less than 1% of the original fixation data. Trials when a participant blinked while fixating the target word and when the trial was disrupted in some way were also removed, resulting in a loss of 7.95% of data. In addition, data points that were more than 2.5 standard deviations away from the mean (computed individually for each participant per condition) were further excluded. This led to a loss of less than 3% of data from each fixation measure calculated. Comprehension accuracy was high for both groups (TD $M = 0.94$, $SD = .07$; ASD $M = 0.97$, $SD = 0.04$), which indicates that off-line comprehension was not impaired for ASD readers.

For fixation measures, data was log transformed and confirmatory linear mixed effects models (Baayen, Davidson, & Bates, 2008) were computed using the lme4 package (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2014) for R (R Core Team, 2015), with group (TD vs. ASD) and frequency (HF vs. LF) defined as fixed categorical factors. Contrasts to obtain main effects and the associated interaction were coded using the `contr.sdif` function from the MASS library (Venables & Ripley, 2002). The full random structure was included (Barr, Levy, Scheepers, & Tily, 2013); with crossed random effects specified for both participants and items. At the participant level, random slopes were included for frequency. At the item level, random slopes were included for frequency, group and the associated interaction between these factors. This resulted in the following syntax; `lme(depvar ~ group × frequency + (1 + frequency|participants) + (1 + group × frequency|items), data = data)`. Effects were identified as significant if $t > 2$.

For binary variables (skipping and regressions), logistic linear effects models were computed. For logistic models, when the full random structure was included (as specified for continuous measures), models would not converge. Models were systematically trimmed of parameters, beginning with the interaction in the random structure, until model convergence was achieved. This resulted in a random structure whereby random slopes were only included for frequency at the participant level, as depicted in the following syntax; `glmer(depvar ~ group × frequency + (1 + frequency|participants) + (1 | items), data = data, family = binomial)`. Binary variables were identified as significant when $z > 2$.

Global measures. To examine whether there were any basic sampling differences between the two groups, the mean fixation duration, mean fixation count and total sentence reading time was calculated across each trial. Model parameters and observed means for each of these measures are presented in Table 1.

No difference between groups was found for mean fixation duration, but an effect of frequency was found, with sentences that included a LF word receiving longer average fixation durations than those that included a HF word. No interaction between group and frequency was detected. For mean fixation count, a reliable

Table 1
Model Parameters and Observed Means for Experiment 1 Global Analysis

Measure	Model parameters			TD		ASD	
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	High	Low	High	Low
MFD				217 (30)	220 (30)	229 (40)	233 (41)
Intercept	5.40	0.02	279.08*				
Group	−0.05	0.04	−1.24				
Frequency	0.02	0.01	2.54*				
Group × Frequency	<0.01	0.02	−0.29				
MFC				10 (4)	11 (4)	13 (6)	14 (6)
Intercept	2.40	0.05	44.83*				
Group	−0.24	0.10	−2.45*				
Frequency	0.02	0.02	1.33				
Group × Frequency	0.03	0.03	0.86				
SRT				2,243 (905)	2,359 (971)	3,174 (1,864)	3,223 (1,723)
Intercept	7.81	0.06	126.81*				
Group	−0.28	0.12	−2.41*				
Frequency	0.03	0.02	1.81				
Group × Frequency	0.03	0.03	0.93				
SSRT				774 (727)	679 (624)	1,483 (1,615)	1,555 (1,574)
Intercept	6.37	0.11	57.46*				
Group	−0.47	0.22	−2.11*				
Frequency	0.01	0.07	0.09				
Group × Frequency	−0.26	0.13	−1.91				

Note. MFD = mean fixation duration (ms); MFC = mean fixation count; SRT = sentence reading time (ms); SSRT = second pass sentence reading time (ms).

* $t > 2$.

difference between groups was found, with ASD readers making more fixations over the course of each trial, in comparison to TD readers. However, the number of fixations participants made over the course of each trial was not affected by the frequency of the target word, and there was no interaction. Total sentence reading times were also found to be significantly longer for the ASD group, in comparison to the TD group, but there was no effect of frequency and no group by frequency interaction.

These global measures indicate that the ASD group extracted information during fixations at a similar speed to TD readers, but made more fixations during the course of each trial and also had longer sentence reading times, in comparison to TD participants.

Target analysis. A region of interest was created around the target noun. For the target word, the following eye movement measures were calculated; skipping, first fixation duration (the duration of the first fixation on the target), single fixation duration (the duration of a fixation on the target, when this was the only fixation made on this word during first pass reading), gaze duration and total time.

All reading measure means and standard deviations for each region are included in Table 2 and the model parameters are presented in Table 3. Word frequency did not have an effect on the probability of the target word being skipped. However, frequency was found to affect the duration of first fixations, single fixations, gaze durations and total times on the target word, with each of these measures being greater for LF words in comparison to HF words. No interactions were found for any measure and the only group difference detected was that the readers with ASD had longer total times for the target region, in comparison to TD readers.

Based on this analysis, there is no evidence for the hypotheses that lexical processing is less efficient in ASD. However, in order

to infer the extent to which our data reflect a null effect of group, as apposed to a Type II error, we computed Bayes factor (Kass & Raftery, 1995; Rouder, Morey, Speckman, & Province, 2012) for the first fixation linear mixed effects (LME) model on the target word reported above (with a frequency by group interaction), when compared to a denominator model that had the same random structure, but only included frequency as a fixed effect. Bayes factor is a form of Bayesian analysis whereby one can quantify the relative evidence (probability) for opposing hypotheses, based on the change of prior odds to posterior odds, as a result of the observed data. One of the benefits of this approach is that one can assess evidence in favor of a null hypothesis, which is not possible through more traditional null hypothesis significance tests. A detailed description of this analysis is beyond the scope of this paper, however interested readers are referred to (Kass & Raftery, 1995; Rouder et al., 2012; Wagenmakers, 2007). Thus, to be clear, we directly compared our original model to one that did not specify group as a predictor. We chose to focus this analysis on the first fixation duration data because this measure is highly influenced by the lexical properties of a word and this measure for this region was the first point that frequency had an effect on fixations for the TD group. A Bayes factor of less than 1 would favor the denominator model and a value above 1 would favor the original model (that included a group by frequency interaction). We computed the Bayes factor in R (R Core Team, 2015) using the BayesFactor package (Morey & Rouder, 2015) with 100,000 Monte Carlo iterations and with g -priors scaled to $r = .5$ for fixed effects. The Bayes factor for the original model, when compared to the denominator model was 0.045. Based on Jeffreys (1961) evidence categories for Bayes factor, this provides strong evidence in favor of the denominator model that did not include group as a predictor. Moreover, the denominator model is 22 times more likely, based

Table 2
Model Parameters for Experiment 1 Region Analyses

Measure	Start			Target			End		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
SKIP ^a									
Intercept				-2.57	0.23	-11.33*			
Group				0.67	0.41	1.63			
Frequency				-0.59	0.32	-1.83			
Group × Frequency				0.23	0.48	0.48			
FFD									
Intercept				5.44	0.03	203.20*			
Group				-0.03	0.05	-0.56			
Frequency				0.08	0.02	4.02*			
Group × Frequency				0.04	0.04	1.03			
SFD									
Intercept				5.48	0.03	180.78*			
Group				-0.05	0.05	-0.86			
Frequency				0.11	0.03	4.45*			
Group × Frequency				0.01	0.05	0.26			
GD									
Intercept	6.86	0.08	82.42*	5.62	0.04	151.52*	6.20	0.08	75.67*
Group	-0.11	0.11	-1.03	-0.04	0.07	-0.64	-0.07	0.11	-0.60
Frequency	0.00	0.02	-0.12	0.17	0.03	6.03*	0.03	0.04	0.71
Group × Frequency	0.03	0.04	0.75	0.03	0.05	0.57	0.10	0.07	1.35
TT									
Intercept				5.86	0.05	119.92*			
Group				-0.18	0.09	-2.02*			
Frequency				0.23	0.05	4.86*			
Group × Frequency				-0.09	0.08	-1.08			
SPT									
Intercept	6.00	0.09	63.49*	5.55	0.06	94.29*	6.07	0.09	67.75*
Group	-0.38	0.18	-2.10*	-0.16	0.12	-1.36	-0.50	0.16	-3.20*
Frequency	0.02	0.07	0.23	0.15	0.08	1.85	-0.13	0.09	-1.57
Group × Frequency	-0.26	0.14	-1.91	0.04	0.15	0.26	-0.09	0.16	-0.56
RI ^a									
Intercept	0.38	0.28	1.38	-1.52	0.12	-12.63*			
Group	-0.85	0.53	-1.62	-0.22	0.21	-1.03			
Frequency	-0.21	0.20	0.28	0.39	0.21	1.88			
Group × Frequency	0.23	0.29	0.80	-13.00	0.39	-0.33			
RO ^a									
Intercept				-1.79	0.23	-7.67*	0.58	0.27	2.15*
Group				-0.30	0.33	-0.92	-0.88	0.53	-1.67
Frequency				-0.11	0.18	-0.59	-0.02	0.17	-0.15
Group × Frequency				-0.42	0.35	-10.22	0.55	0.34	1.65

Note. SKIP = skipping; FFD = first fixation duration; SFD = single fixation duration; GD = gaze duration; TT = total time; SPT = second pass time; RI = regressions in; RO = first pass regressions out.

^a Values in the *t* column for this variable correspond to *z* values.

* *t* > 2.

on our data, than the original model. This supports the conclusion that the ASD and TD groups did not appear to differ in the efficiency with which they lexically processed the target words.

Note that the lack of group differences in the early stages of target word processing indicates that the increased number of fixations and increased time spent reading the sentences in the global analyses, is not a result of differences in the early stages of lexical processing. In order to determine the possible cause of these global differences, the spatial and temporal characteristics of the extra fixations ASD participants made are examined in the analysis below.

First pass reading. In the following analyses, the start and end regions of the sentences were examined, in addition to the target word. The start region included all words prior to the target. The end region included all the words following the target. It is

possible that the increased sentence reading times and number of fixations made by the ASD group are a result of longer and more effortful first pass reading. To examine whether such a difference exists, gaze durations for the start and end region, and the proportion of regressions made out of the target and end region during first pass was examined.

Recall that no group differences were present for gaze durations in the target region. Similarly, for both the start and the end region, no effect of group, condition or an interaction was detected. Furthermore, for both the target and end region, there were no differences between groups or frequency in the proportion of regressions made out of these regions during first pass of the sentences. What this suggests is that the initial processing of each region of the sentence did not differ between groups.

Table 3
Observed Means (Standard Deviations) for Experiment 1 Region Analyses

Measure	SKIP	FFD	SFD	GD	TT	SPT	RI	RO
Start								
TD								
High				1,025 (525)		504 (417)	.49 (.50)	
Low				1,028 (497)		481 (427)	.47 (.50)	
ASD								
High				1,172 (613)		869 (837)	.63 (.48)	
Low				1,188 (707)		960 (874)	.59 (.49)	
Target								
TD								
High	.14 (.35)	225 (67)	230 (75)	268 (129)	334 (184)	264 (180)	.16 (.37)	.19 (.40)
Low	.12 (.32)	253 (81)	260 (83)	325 (147)	400 (212)	321 (256)	.20 (.40)	.15 (.36)
ASD								
High	.09 (.29)	239 (84)	245 (88)	281 (114)	385 (231)	386 (469)	.18 (.38)	.21 (.40)
Low	.07 (.26)	257 (94)	274 (97)	335 (154)	522 (338)	422 (353)	.24 (.43)	.23 (.42)
End								
TD								
High				569 (372)		492 (342)		.49 (.50)
Low				611 (393)		441 (444)		.55 (.50)
ASD								
High				679 (485)		948 (815)		.65 (.48)
Low				648 (440)		845 (657)		.63 (.48)

Note. SKIP = skipping (proportion); FFD = first fixation duration (ms); SFD = single fixation duration (ms); GD = gaze duration (ms); TT = total time (ms); SPT = second pass time (ms); RI = regressions in (proportion); RO = first pass regressions out (proportion).

Second pass reading. Given the lack of difference detected between groups during the initial processing of the sentences, it is possible that the increased reading and fixations made by ASD participants occurred during second pass reading, that is, after the participants had read each sentence once in its entirety.

Total second pass reading times were first calculated across the entire sentence (summed total times—summed gaze durations, see Table 1). Readers with ASD were found to have larger second pass reading times for the entire sentence, in comparison to TD readers, but there was no effect of condition or an interaction. To determine whether there was a particular area of the sentences that the ASD group were rereading, second pass reading times were computed for each region individually (total time—gaze duration) and the ASD group were found to have longer second pass reading times for the start and end region of the sentence. However, no effect of frequency or any interactions were detected.

To examine whether the ASD group were making more regressions into either the start or target region, in order to engage in second pass reading, the proportion of trials a regression was made into these regions was examined. No effect of group or word frequency was found for either region. This suggests that there was no reliable difference in the proportion of trials with which the two groups regressed into the start and target regions, but that when the ASD group did make such a regression, they spent longer rereading each region of the sentences, compared to the TD group.

Experiment 1: Discussion

We examined on-line lexical processing in ASD by measuring participant's eye movements as they read sentences that contained a target word manipulated to be HF or LF. The target analyses revealed that both TD and ASD readers showed normal word frequency effects for all target fixation measures. Fixations were

significantly longer on LF words, in comparison to HF words. This finding of a normal frequency effect extends our current knowledge in relation to lexical processing in ASD, as it demonstrates that in addition to intact performance accuracy for isolated word identification tasks (e.g., Frith & Snowling, 1983; Mayes & Calhoun, 2006; Minshew et al., 1995; Saldaña et al., 2009), that the processes engaged in to identify a word during normal reading appear to be comparable between ASD and TD readers. This is in line with cognitive theories of ASD that suggest low-level bottom-up processing to be intact (e.g., Minshew & Goldstein, 1998).

Our findings are inconsistent however with Sansosti et al.'s (2013) study that reported ASD readers to have longer average fixation durations. We found no evidence of such a difference in our data. This inconsistency may be attributable to the differences between the stimuli employed by our own and Sansosti et al.'s (2013) experiment. The vignettes in Sansosti et al.'s (2013) study were designed to evoke a bridging inference, whereas our sentences required no inferences to be made in order to comprehend sentence meaning. Our finding therefore gives indirect support for Sansosti et al.'s (2013) interpretation that the larger average fixation durations observed for ASD participants, reflected more effortful processing in relation to the computation of an inference, as opposed to differences in lexical processing.

In the global analyses, we found participants with ASD to spend longer reading sentences and make more fixations overall, during the course of a trial. This is consistent with what Sansosti et al. (2013) reported, however the time course of the increased reading time found for their experiment was not reported, making the cause of these global effects unclear. In our analysis we examined the time course of the increased reading times for the ASD participants, in order to determine whether these differences were related

to our experimental manipulation, and the nature of such increased reading. This analyses revealed no difference between the groups for first pass reading times or first pass regressions, which suggests that the speed and manner in which an initial sentence interpretation was constructed to be alike for both TD and ASD participants. Crucially, although our experiments were not designed to examine integrative processes, this finding is inconsistent with theories that suggest such processes to be atypical in ASD (e.g., Frith & Happé, 1994; Minshew & Goldstein, 1998). If integration were more effortful for ASD readers, we would have found longer gaze durations in each region and a larger proportion of first pass regressions being made. This was not the case.

The analyses also suggested that the increased sentence reading times for ASD participants appeared to be wholly a result of the these participants rereading the sentences for significantly longer periods of time than the TD group. Note that this increased rereading appeared to be unrelated to our target word manipulation, with rereading occurring equally often for sentences that contained LF and HF words and is consistent with what Au-Yeung et al. (2015) report for ironic and sincere texts. In addition, no group differences in the proportion of regressions made between groups were found. This is inconsistent with Sansosti et al.'s (2013) finding of increased regressions being made by ASD participants and indicates that our ASD group were as likely as the TD group to make a regression out of a region and also that the target of this regression did not differ. What did differ, was that once having made a regression, the ASD readers spent longer rereading the sentences.

The cause of this rereading behavior is unclear, but it seems unlikely to be a result of a linguistic processing deficit per se, as any difficulty associated with the extraction of sentence or word meaning would have been evident during first pass reading. We speculate that this difference may reflect a "checking" strategy adopted by the ASD group. Recall that there were comprehension questions after 50% of sentences and this may have contributed to ASD participants being more cautious of their sentence interpretation and consequently spending longer than TD participants rereading sentences to ensure that they could answer the questions accurately. What is important is that the increased second pass reading was not a result of difficulties in the initial extraction of sentence meaning.

Experiment 2: Syntactic and Semantic Processing

It is common to encounter structural ambiguities within natural language; however, these often go unnoticed due to the parsing preferences readers hold. For example, in the sentence below (5) the prepositional phrase is syntactically ambiguous.

5. Jane hit the man with the handlebar moustache.

A reader can either attach the prepositional phrase high as a modifier to the verb *hit*, or low as a modifier to the noun phrase *the man*. The two possible syntactic structures result in a different sentence interpretation, with the first suggesting that Jane hit the man using a handlebar moustache and the latter suggesting that Jane hit the man who had a handlebar moustache. For Sentence 5, if a high-attached structure is adopted, the sentence meaning is implausible and reading is disrupted (e.g., Rayner, Carlson, & Frazier, 1983; Taraban & McClelland, 1988). This is because the

reader has to reevaluate their initial parse of the sentence, to adopt the alternative, low-attached structure. This disruption is evident in the eye movement record as increased fixation durations on the disambiguating noun and increased regressions out of this region, to reread previous parts of the sentence (e.g., Joseph & Liversedge, 2013; Rayner et al., 1983).

There are several theoretical positions adopted as to why certain structures are preferred and initially adopted by readers. The garden path theory (Frazier & Rayner, 1982) posits that sentences are parsed according to two principles: minimal attachment and late closure. Minimal attachment is a rule according to which a reader will always initially build the simplest syntactic structure, and the late closure rule stipulates that the parser will always attach a phrase to the currently open phrase structure. An alternative theoretical position is that of constraint-based models where the language processor is assumed to be interactive and higher order information such as contextual information can influence initial decisions (e.g., MacDonald, Pearlmutter, & Seidenberg, 1994). There are other theoretical accounts of parsing too; for instance, construal (Frazier & Clifton, 1996) race-based parsing (Van Gompel, Pickering, & Traxler, 2000), and good enough parsing (Ferreira, Bailey, & Ferraro, 2002). For present purposes, we again sidestep the issue of which theoretical account provides the most adequate account of processing, and instead simply accept that processing biases exist for sentences with particular linguistic characteristics. On this basis, in Experiment 2, analogous to Experiment 1, we investigate how comparable on-line syntactic processing is for TD and ASD readers.

The research that has examined syntactic processing in ASD during spoken language processing has reported mixed results (for a review, see Eigsti, de Marchena, Schuh, & Kelley, 2011), and little work has been conducted to examine the syntactic processing of written sentences. In a study assessing the impact of ASD and language phenotype on reading comprehension, Lucas and Norbury (2014) had children with ASD and typical language skills (ALN); children with ASD and language impairments (ALI) and TD participants read sentences that were syntactically "scrambled." All groups showed equivalent disruption to reading times when reading scrambled sentences, however there was a trend to suggest that the ALI participants took longer to read syntactically legal sentences, in comparison to the TD and ALN participants, who did not differ. This suggests that syntactic processing in ASD may be intact, but that the presence of language impairment has an impact upon the efficiency of syntactic processing during reading (Lucas & Norbury, 2014). Stockbridge, Happé, and White (2014) found that children with ASD were as accurate as TD children in the identification of the indirect object of a verb in sentences that varied in structural form. In addition, both TD children and children with ASD showed higher accuracy for sentences containing a preposition phrase construction (e.g., *Toby read the book to Jenny*) in comparison to a double object construction (e.g., *Toby read Jenny the book*), indicating that both TD and ASD children benefited from the indirect object being more explicit. These results are consistent with Lucas and Norbury's (2014) finding and suggest that syntactic processing of written sentences is intact in ASD. The important finding from these experiments in relation to the current work is that the individuals with ASD appeared to exhibit comparable syntactic processing to that observed in TD children.

There is evidence, however, of a delay in the detection of syntactic errors in ASD. Koolen, Vissers, Hendriks, Egger, and Verhoeven (2012) had adults with ASD take part in a “single” or “dual-level” reading task where sentences were presented in a serial viewing paradigm. For the dual-task participants had to detect orthographic errors (letter substitutions e.g., *the dog berks/ barks*) and syntactic errors (verb agreement errors e.g., *she takes the broom and sweep/s the floor*), and in the single-task participants had to detect only one error type (lexical or syntactic). Koolen et al. (2012) found that ASD and TD participants did not differ in their performance accuracy for either task and that for the single-task reaction times did not differ. However, during the dual-task, ASD participants were slower to detect both orthographic and syntactic errors, in comparison to the TD group who only showed a slowed response for orthographic errors. The lack of difference between groups for the single task was taken as evidence of intact lexical and syntactic processing in ASD. The slow in the detection of both types of errors under dual-task conditions however suggested that when both lexical and syntactic information had to be monitored simultaneously that processing became less efficient. Furthermore, Koolen, Vissers, Egger, and Verhoeven (2014) replicated this study but also recorded event-related potentials and found that when an orthographic error was encountered, both TD and ASD participants emitted comparable P600 (a positive waveform that has previously been associated with error detection) responses under both task conditions. However, larger P600 amplitudes were found for ASD readers upon the detection of syntactic errors under both dual- and single-task conditions. The authors concluded that it is reduced attentional modulation, as apposed to atypical linguistic processing that results in poor performance for reading tasks in ASD and that the increased P600 amplitudes for syntactic errors reflect a difficulty in the processing of language during complex tasks. It is therefore possible that more basic differences in the on-line processing of information are present in ASD during normal reading conditions, which requires the simultaneous processing of lexical and syntactic information.

From the work mentioned above, it would seem that individuals with ASD are able to accurately complete tasks requiring syntactic processing, however it is unclear whether the efficiency of such processing is similar between ASD and TD groups. A recent study (Riches, Loucas, Baird, Charman, & Simonoff, 2015) had adolescents with ASD complete an aural comprehension task for sentences that contained an ambiguous prepositional phrase (e.g., *the girl approached the butterfly on the log*). Response times were longer for each group when the picture displayed reflected the least plausible interpretation, suggesting that both groups had to reanalyse their initial plausible interpretation of the sentence, prior to making a response. In addition, participants with ASD had longer response times overall, indicating that they required longer to complete the task in all conditions. However, as noted by the authors, it is unclear whether this increase in response time reflects differences in the efficiency of language processing, or a more task oriented effect, such as increased scanning of the pictures. In addition, there was a trend to suggest that ASD participants may hold a stronger high-attachment bias, in comparison to a TD group. However, again, the exact cause of this effect is difficult to pinpoint given the analysis of reaction time. What this experiment does elucidate however is that when presented with visual displays

of an image, individuals with ASD were able to reanalyse their initial interpretation of a sentence and select an alternative.

In the present study we aimed to further examine the processing of such sentences in ASD, however we were specifically concerned with such processing and its time course during natural reading (as opposed to during listening, and in the absence of visual cues). We had participants with and without ASD read sentences that contained an ambiguous prepositional phrase and were designed to evoke a high-attachment preference. We were more specifically interested in whether the syntactic preferences held by ASD participants for ambiguous sentences are similar to those of TD readers and also whether the time course of disruption to reading by an initial syntactic misanalysis was comparable between groups. We predicted that if readers with ASD did not hold a high-attachment preference for sentence stimuli, they would not show disruption to reading upon encountering the disambiguating noun in low-attached sentences. Alternatively, if readers with ASD do hold a high-attachment preference, but are less efficient in the recovery from an initial syntactic misanalysis, we would expect to find increased disruption to reading for low-attached sentences, in comparison to the TD group.

The second aim of this experiment was to assess whether ASD readers use world knowledge on-line during reading. The detection of an incorrect interpretation for low-attached sentences is dependent upon a reader’s ability to evaluate their sentential interpretation against their knowledge of the world. Therefore, in Experiment 2 we were able to directly assess the efficiency of on-line world knowledge use during reading.

Impairments in performance accuracy are often found for reading comprehension and inferencing tasks in ASD (Huermer & Mann, 2010; Minshew et al., 1995; Jolliffe & Baron-Cohen, 1999) and for each of these tasks, the processing of world knowledge and then the integration of this information into the discourse model is critical (Graesser, Singer, & Trabasso, 1994; McKoon & Ratcliff, 1992). Furthermore, it has been suggested that top-down processing may be atypical in ASD (e.g., Minshew & Goldstein, 1998) and in the context of reading, this may result in the efficiency with which world knowledge is known to be used on-line being compromised.

Few studies have directly examined the use of world knowledge during reading in ASD and those that have report mixed results. Saldaña and Frith (2007) had participants read two sentence vignettes intended to produce an inference. Participants were then asked a comprehension question that was or was not related to the inference the vignette was intended to evoke. Reaction times to the questions did not differ between TD and ASD readers and both groups showed faster responses when the question was related to the evoked inference. This was interpreted to suggest that the use of world knowledge is intact in ASD, as ASD participants must have incorporated such information into the discourse model in order to demonstrate an inference priming effect on question reading times. Recall that Sansosti et al. (2013) reported their sample of ASD readers to make longer average fixation durations, more fixations and more regressions on average than their TD group when reading the vignettes originally used in Saldaña and Frith’s (2007) experiment. It is therefore possible that subtle differences in the on-line use of such knowledge are present in ASD and may impact upon the comprehension of larger portions of text, but are undetectable via relatively coarse measures, such as reac-

tion time. Consistent with this hypothesis, Wahlberg and Magliano (2004) found subtle differences between TD and ASD participants in the use of world knowledge to aid recall of ambiguous texts. Participants read passages that were either preceded by a title (informative or noninformative) and with, or without, a primer paragraph that explicitly described the events the stories referred to. Overall, when a cue was present (title or primer paragraph), TD readers recalled more clauses in total and recalled more clauses that demonstrated world knowledge had been integrated into the discourse model, in comparison to the ASD group. Note however that the number of clauses recalled that were inferred on the basis of world knowledge did not differ between groups. This suggests that readers with ASD accessed world knowledge on-line during reading, however they did not use this information as efficiently as TD readers to assist in the disambiguation and recall of the ambiguous texts. This is similar to the conclusions of Sansosti et al. (2013).

In Experiment 2, we aimed to directly examine the time course and efficiency of world knowledge use during reading of syntactically ambiguous sentences in ASD. We predict that if participants with ASD are less efficient in the use of world knowledge during reading, then there will be a delay in their detection of an initial misanalysis of low-attached sentences, in comparison to TD readers.

Experiment 2: Method

Participants, procedure and experimental design were identical to Experiment 1.

Materials. Forty-four sentence frames were devised that included a prepositional phrase that could either be attached high (HA) to a verb (e.g., 6a) or low (LA) to the noun phrase that immediately preceded the preposition (e.g., 6b). Both sentence types were identical aside from the disambiguating target noun.

6a. ICharliel demolishedl the dilapidated housel withl a hugel cranel lastl year.l

6b. ICharliel demolishedl the dilapidated housel withl a hugel fencel lastl year.l

To confirm that the chosen verbs elicited a high-attachment preference in a typical population, 13 undergraduate students completed a cloze task and the experimenter went through each sentence completion with each student, to clarify any possible ambiguities. The students completed the sentences using a noun that resulted in a high-attached structure, 98% of the time. On average, the target words did not differ in length $t(43) = 0.17$, $p = .868$ (HA $M = 5.59$ $SD = 1.69$, LA $M = 5.57$ $SD = 1.59$), frequency $t(43) = 0.64$, $p = .524$ (HA $M = 22.61$ $SD = 39.20$, LA $M = 27.83$ $SD = 61.08$), number of orthographic neighbors $t(43) = 1.25$, $p = .225$ (HA $M = 4.66$ $SD = 5.55$, LA $M = 5.89$ $SD = 6.53$), mean bigram frequency $t(43) = 1.34$, $p = .186$ (HA $M = 3587.87$ $SD = 1395.70$, LA $M = 4232.46$ $SD = 2079.95$), number of morphemes $t(43) = 0.38$, $p = .767$ (HA $M = 1.25$ $SD = 0.53$, LA $M = 1.23$ $SD = 0.48$) or number of syllables $t(43) = 0.83$, $p = .412$ (HA $M = 1.59$ $SD = 0.76$, LA $M = 1.52$ $SD = 0.73$), as retrieved from the SUBTLEX database (Brysbaert & New, 2009). To assure the HA and LA sentences did not differ in plausibility, 15 undergraduates (who had not com-

pleted the cloze task) rated how likely it was that the events described in the sentences would occur on a 5 point likert scale (1 = *extremely unlikely*, 3 = *quite likely*, 5 = *extremely likely*). To avoid the low attachment of the prepositional phrase acting as a confounding variable that may cause participants to rate these sentences as less likely, the sentences rated were an unambiguous description of the events depicted in the sentences (e.g., see 7a and 7b).

How likely is it . . .

7a. that a crane would be used to demolish a huge, dilapidated house.

7b. that a huge, dilapidated house that has a fence, would be demolished.

The order of items was pseudorandomized so that the same sentence versions (e.g., 7a & 7b) were at least 20 items apart. Participant ratings indicated that the events described in the sentences did not differ in plausibility $t(43) = 1.30$, $p = .200$ (HA $M = 3.39$ $SD = 0.78$, LA $M = 3.27$ $SD = 0.79$). A full set of materials can be obtained by contacting the first author.

Experiment 2: Results

Data preparation. Sentences were divided into eight regions, three of which were of primary interest; the pretarget region which consisted of a determiner and adjective that immediately followed the preposition; the target, which consisted of the disambiguating noun and the posttarget region which included the one or two words that followed the target (e.g., 6a & 6b).

Data exclusion procedures were the same as Experiment 1, which resulted a loss of 4.74% of the original data, and a loss of less than 3% of data from each fixation measure analyzed. Sentence comprehension was high for both participant groups and therefore, similarly to what we found for Experiment 1, any differences detected in the eye movement data did not appear to impact upon off-line comprehension outcomes (TD $M = .96$ $SD = .04$; ASD $M = .97$ $SD = .05$). Analyses procedures were also identical to Experiment 1, but with each model containing attachment condition (HA vs. LA) in place of frequency.

Global measures. Global measures were calculated across trials to identify whether there were any basic sampling differences between TD and ASD readers during the reading of the syntactically ambiguous sentences. Means, standard deviations and model parameters for the global analysis are displayed in Table 4. No differences between groups or sentence types were detected for mean fixation duration and there was no interaction. For mean fixation count, there was a significant effect of attachment, with both groups making more fixations when sentences were LA, in comparison to HA. In addition, there was a significant effect of group, with ASD readers making more fixations overall in comparison to TD readers, but there was no interaction. A similar pattern was also found for sentence reading time, with both groups having longer reading times for LA sentences, in comparison to HA sentences, and ASD readers having longer reading times overall, but again there was no interaction. These findings replicate what was found for Experiment 1 and are explored in more detail later.

Pretarget region. Means, standard deviations and model parameters for all region analyses are displayed in Tables 5, 6, and 7.

Table 4

Model Parameters and Observed Means for Experiment 2 Global Analysis

Measure	Model			TD		ASD	
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	High	Low	High	Low
MFD				218 (31)	219 (30)	226 (36)	226 (38)
Intercept	5.39	.02	274.52*				
Group	−0.03	0.04	−0.80				
Frequency	<0.01	0.01	0.31				
Group × Frequency	0.01	0.01	0.48				
MFC				12 (4)	14 (5)	18 (9)	20 (11)
Intercept	2.67	0.06	47.69*				
Group	−0.33	0.11	−2.98*				
Frequency	0.09	0.02	5.33				
Group × Frequency	−0.01	0.04	−0.37				
SRT				2,739 (1,069)	3,015 (1,277)	4,171 (2,486)	4,687 (2,898)
Intercept	8.07	0.07	123.41*				
Group	−0.36	0.13	−2.78*				
Frequency	0.09	0.02	4.39*				
Group × Frequency	−0.01	0.04	−0.29				
SSRT				774 (715)	1,064 (959)	2,064 (2,330)	2,571 (2,679)
Intercept	6.61	0.13	50.85*				
Group	−0.66	0.26	−2.56*				
Frequency	0.27	0.06	4.73*				
Group × Frequency	0.08	0.11	0.68				

Note. MFD = mean fixation duration (ms); MFC = mean fixation count; SRT = sentence reading time (ms); SSRT = second pass sentence reading time (ms).

* $t > 2$.

Note that the pretarget region was identical across both HA and LA sentences and as a result, no effect of attachment was found for skipping, first fixation durations, single fixation durations, gaze durations, go past times (the time from when a word is first fixated until the eyes leave this region to the right, including all time spent

rereading previous regions of the sentence) or the proportion of regressions made out of this region. In addition, group membership did not have an effect on any of these measures, and there were no interactions. An effect of both attachment and group was found, however, for total times, with the ASD group fixating this

Table 5

Model Parameters for Experiment 2 Start, Verb, Noun, and Preposition Region Analyses

Measure	Start			Verb			Noun			Preposition		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
GD												
Intercept	5.72	0.05	107.85*	5.53	0.04	125.71*	6.08	0.06	103.02*	5.31	0.04	146.75*
Group	−0.15	0.09	−1.63	−0.08	0.08	−1.02	−0.13	0.10	−1.38	−0.03	0.07	−0.48
Frequency	0.03	0.02	1.33	<.01	0.02	0.24	−0.03	0.03	−0.83	0.03	0.03	0.95
Group × Frequency	0.03	0.04	0.68	<.01	0.04	0.12	0.05	0.06	.82	<.01	0.05	0.19
SPT												
Intercept	5.61	0.07	78.10*	5.72	0.06	92.71*	5.92	0.09	68.83*	5.60	0.07	75.76*
Group	−0.33	0.14	−2.47*	−0.23	−0.12	−1.97	−0.41	0.16	−2.57*	−0.16	0.15	−1.03
Frequency	−0.06	0.07	−0.89	0.06	0.06	1.08	0.18	0.07	2.40*	0.14	0.10	1.39
Group × Frequency	−0.07	0.13	−0.55	0.08	0.11	0.72	0.07	0.16	0.44	0.08	0.21	0.38
RI ^a												
Intercept	−1.40	0.27	−5.23*	−0.81	0.26	−3.12*	−0.94	0.24	−3.90*	−0.69	0.21	−3.27*
Group	−0.86	0.50	−1.71	−0.63	0.51	−1.22	−0.77	0.47	−1.64	−0.31	0.40	−0.78
Frequency	0.17	0.15	1.13	0.09	0.14	0.65	0.34	0.16	2.08*	0.55	0.16	3.47*
Group × Frequency	−0.47	0.26	−1.78	0.32	0.27	1.21	0.26	0.32	0.82	0.07	0.31	0.22
RO ^a												
Intercept				−2.56	0.20	−12.57*	−2.07	0.18	−11.26*	−2.45	0.21	−11.58*
Group				0.27	0.39	0.68	0.02	0.34	0.07	−0.21	0.35	−0.61
Frequency				−0.03	0.18	−0.17	0.07	0.18	0.39	0.03	0.32	0.10
Group × Frequency				−0.44	0.37	−1.19	0.16	0.30	0.53	−0.23	0.51	−0.45

Note. GD = gaze duration; SPT = second pass time; RI = regressions in; RO = first pass regressions out.

^a Values in the *t* column for this variable correspond to *z* values.

* $t > 2$.

Table 6

Model Parameters for Experiment 2 Pretarget, Target, Posttarget, and End Regions

Measure	Pretarget			Target			Posttarget			End		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
SKIP ^a												
Intercept	-3.25	0.29	-10.96*	-2.27	0.25	-9.21*	-1.67	0.36	-4.64*			
Group	0.33	0.46	0.72	0.82	0.39	2.13*	0.09	0.41	0.23			
Frequency	0.58	0.35	1.65	-0.25	0.19	-1.28	-0.29	0.20	-1.44			
Group × Frequency	-0.02	0.52	-0.05	0.13	0.33	0.38	0.21	0.27	0.78			
FFD												
Intercept	5.29	0.19	273.44*	5.42	0.03	215.70*	5.40	0.03	200.86*			
Group	0.06	0.04	1.50	0.02	0.05	0.42	-0.02	0.05	-0.29			
Frequency	-0.02	0.01	-1.25	0.02	0.02	1.24	0.02	0.02	0.94			
Group × Frequency	0.01	0.03	0.43	-0.01	0.03	-0.40	-0.03	0.04	-0.79			
SFD												
Intercept	5.33	0.02	233.44*	5.46	0.03	186.04*	5.44	0.03	176.97*			
Group	0.02	0.04	0.45	0.02	0.06	0.29	-0.04	0.06	-0.66			
Frequency	-0.01	0.02	-0.73	0.06	0.02	2.49*	<0.01	0.03	0.03			
Group × Frequency	0.02	0.03	0.53	0.02	0.04	0.41	-0.03	0.06	-0.53			
GD												
Intercept	5.53	0.03	166.66*	5.58	0.03	172.10*	5.62	0.05	124.41*	5.62	0.05	110.62*
Group	-0.09	0.06	-1.52	-0.01	0.06	-0.17	-0.10	0.08	-1.18	-0.01	0.08	-0.13
Frequency	0.01	0.02	0.60	0.09	0.03	3.00*	0.01	0.03	0.42	-0.03	0.03	-0.95
Group × Frequency	-0.03	0.05	-0.70	<0.01	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.06	0.77	-0.06	0.06	-1.07
GP												
Intercept	5.68	0.05	108.09*	5.75	0.04	130.58*	60.40	0.07	85.15*			
Group	-0.18	0.10	-1.79	-0.07	0.08	-0.79	-0.29	0.13	-2.13*			
Frequency	-0.02	0.03	-0.82	0.10	0.03	3.07*	0.15	0.05	2.86*			
Group × Frequency	-0.01	0.04	-0.19	0.01	0.05	0.21	0.05	0.10	0.50			
TT												
Intercept	5.96	0.07	90.57*	5.82	0.05	107.04	5.90	0.06	94.07*			
Group	-0.33	0.13	-2.62*	-0.18	0.10	-1.73	-0.30	0.12	-2.63*			
Frequency	0.11	0.04	2.52*	0.18	0.04	4.41*	0.08	0.03	2.32*			
Group × Frequency	-0.01	0.07	-0.10	-0.04	0.05	-0.85	0.03	0.07	0.37			
SPT												
Intercept	5.75	0.06	90.30*	5.62	0.06	94.93*	5.69	0.07	83.54*	5.86	0.07	83.08*
Group	-0.35	0.13	-2.76*	-0.33	0.11	-2.95*	-0.25	0.14	-1.83	-0.55	0.14	-3.90*
Frequency	0.15	0.07	2.32*	0.13	0.06	1.95	0.06	0.08	0.74	0.08	0.09	0.94
Group × Frequency	0.14	0.13	1.15	0.11	0.13	0.84	-0.11	0.16	-0.71	0.04	0.17	0.24
RI ^a												
Intercept	0.07	0.18	-4.07*	-1.40	0.17	-8.90*	-1.19	0.17	-7.16*			
Group	-0.49	0.35	-1.39	-0.12	0.28	-0.42	-0.43	0.25	-1.72			
Frequency	0.43	0.12	3.57*	0.31	0.14	2.15*	0.04	0.14	0.32			
Group × Frequency	0.11	0.23	0.46	-0.08	0.27	-0.28	0.28	0.26	1.07			
RO ^a												
Intercept	-2.30	0.22	-10.30*	-1.72	0.16	-10.57*	-0.95	0.18	-5.34*	0.81	0.25	3.22*
Group	-0.61	0.41	-1.46	-0.15	0.32	-0.46	-0.02	0.28	-0.06	-0.77	0.49	-1.56
Frequency	-0.15	0.19	-0.79	0.12	0.17	0.69	0.40	0.13	3.07*	0.23	0.16	1.43
Group × Frequency	0.08	0.32	0.26	-0.10	0.30	-0.33	-0.03	0.25	-0.13	0.21	0.30	0.68

Note. SKIP = skipping; FFD = first fixation duration; SFD = single fixation duration; GD = gaze duration; TT = total time; SPT = second pass time; RI = regressions in; RO = first pass regressions out.

^a Values in the *t* column for this variable correspond to *z* values.

* *t* > 2.

region for longer than the TD group overall and both groups spending longer fixating this region when the sentence was LA. In addition, an effect of attachment for the proportion of regressions made into the pretarget region was found, with both groups regressing back into the pretarget region on a higher proportion of trials when the prepositional phrase was low attached, in comparison to when it was high attached. No group difference or interaction was detected.

Target region. The target word disambiguated the prepositional phrase attachment and was therefore the point at which participants were expected to first show disruption to reading for

low attached sentences. One unexpected finding was that ASD readers were less likely to skip the target region in comparison to TD readers, but this did not differ between attachment conditions and there was no interaction. No effect of group or attachment was found for first fixations durations, indicating that during the very early stages of target processing, neither TD nor ASD readers had detected an incorrect interpretation. An effect of attachment was first present in single fixation durations, with both groups spending longer fixating target words in LA sentences, in comparison to HA sentences. No group differences or interactions were detected, indicating that the onset and severity of

Table 7
Observed Means (Standard Deviations) for Experiment 2 Region Analyses

Measure	SKIP	FFD	SFD	GD	GP	TT	SPT	RI	RO
Start									
TD									
High				304 (137)			294 (178)	.21 (.41)	
Low				325 (196)			266 (159)	.20 (.40)	
ASD									
High				357 (167)			490 (403)	.31 (.47)	
Low				364 (176)			542 (623)	.38 (.49)	
Verb									
TD									
High				268 (122)			321 (204)	.26 (.44)	.11 (.32)
Low				272 (129)			368 (218)	.32 (.47)	.10 (.30)
ASD									
High				297 (126)			466 (333)	.42 (.49)	.07 (.26)
Low				301 (139)			527 (513)	.41 (.50)	.09 (.29)
Noun									
TD									
High				469 (261)			405 (315)	.23 (.42)	.14 (.34)
Low				472 (259)			495 (389)	.31 (.46)	.15 (.36)
ASD									
High				564 (302)			773 (714)	.37 (.48)	.15 (.36)
Low				553 (332)			864 (751)	.41 (.49)	.14 (.35)
Prep									
TD									
High				223 (105)			259 (144)	.29 (.45)	.38 (.49)
Low				229 (91)			328 (202)	.40 (.49)	.47 (.50)
ASD									
High				236 (106)			364 (253)	.09 (.28)	.09 (.29)
Low				241 (118)			447 (327)	.09 (.28)	.11 (.32)
Pretarget									
TD									
High	.07 (.26)	212 (50)	216 (51)	261 (115)	307 (164)	356 (197)	291 (179)	.27 (.44)	.11 (.32)
Low	.09 (.28)	209 (48)	214 (48)	262 (117)	299 (167)	408 (236)	373 (233)	.36 (.48)	.10 (.30)
ASD									
High	.07 (.26)	203 (57)	212 (63)	288 (138)	381 (269)	564 (485)	546 (439)	.37 (.48)	.20 (.40)
Low	.08 (.27)	198 (52)	210 (73)	299 (144)	373 (234)	616 (447)	582 (518)	.44 (.50)	.17 (.37)
Target									
TD									
High	.22 (.41)	239 (84)	242 (88)	276 (116)	328 (178)	322 (160)	253 (144)	.22 (.41)	.16 (.37)
Low	.19 (.39)	243 (82)	259 (98)	300 (119)	364 (198)	386 (203)	315 (193)	.26 (.44)	.18 (.38)
ASD									
High	.13 (.34)	234 (82)	242 (87)	278 (112)	375 (390)	401 (277)	445 (389)	.20 (.40)	.18 (.38)
Low	.10 (.30)	243 (90)	254 (93)	305 (127)	407 (306)	503 (355)	474 (383)	.25 (.43)	.21 (.41)
Posttarget									
TD									
High	.27 (.44)	236 (97)	244 (105)	298 (154)	421 (356)	361 (210)	311 (235)	.22 (.42)	.27 (.45)
Low	.25 (.43)	237 (95)	244 (105)	312 (175)	541 (472)	391 (221)	321 (281)	.25 (.43)	.35 (.48)
ASD									
High	.25 (.43)	236 (90)	250 (104)	339 (180)	684 (816)	533 (381)	482 (378)	.32 (.47)	.28 (.45)
Low	.21 (.41)	248 (107)	253 (107)	340 (201)	890 (1,256)	570 (415)	565 (522)	.31 (.46)	.35 (.48)
End									
TD									
High				349 (205)			345 (314)	.674 (505)	.54 (.50)
Low				324 (199)			338 (204)	.644 (452)	.60 (.49)
ASD									
High				342 (227)					.67 (.47)
Low				349 (236)					.72 (.45)

Note. Prep = preposition; SKIP = skipping (proportion); FFD = first fixation duration (ms); SFD = single fixation duration (ms); GD = gaze duration (ms); TT = total time (ms); SPT = second pass time (ms); RI = regressions in (proportion); RO = first pass regressions out (proportion).

* $t > 2$.

initial processing disruption was equivalent for TD and ASD readers. Similarly, gaze durations and go past times were found to be longer for target words within LA sentences. Again, no group differences or interactions were found for these measures. Expectedly, an effect of attachment was also present in total times, with longer time being spent fixating target words for LA sentences in comparison to HA sentences, but no group difference or interaction was present. In addition, both groups made a higher proportion of regressive fixations into the target region when the sentence was LA, in comparison to HA, but the proportion of first pass regressions made out of the target region did not differ between groups or attachment conditions.

The results above provide no evidence for the hypothesis that readers with ASD may display increased disruption for LA sentences, or a delay in the onset of disruption, in comparison to TD readers. In order to examine the supportive evidence for this null effect, we again compared the single fixation duration LME reported above to a denominator model that only included prepositional phrase attachment as a fixed effect, using Bayes factor. We were therefore, once again able to directly compare the relative evidence for the original model to a model that excludes group as a predictor. We analyzed the single fixation duration data because this was the first point in time an effect of prepositional phrase attachment was detected for the TD group, and this is a critical measure in relation to our hypotheses, where differences in the magnitude or onset of the effect might be expected to occur. A Bayes factor of 0.037 was computed using the same methods as detailed in Experiment 1. This indicates that there is strong evidence that the denominator model is more probable and is 27 times more likely based on the observed data, than the original model that included a group by prepositional phrase attachment interaction. Our analysis provides evidence in favor of a null effect of group in our data during the initial processing of the target word.

Posttarget region. The posttarget region was examined to assess the extent to which low-attached sentences continued to disrupt reading, following processing of the target noun. No spill-over effects were found, with no effect of group, attachment or any interactions for skipping, first fixations, single fixations, or gaze durations. Attachment did however influence go past times, with both groups taking longer to progress to the right, past the posttarget region, when the sentences were LA, in comparison to HA. In addition, there was a difference between groups, with ASD participants having longer go past times overall for this region, but this did not interact with condition. For total times, there was a main effect of attachment and group, with all participants spending longer fixating this region for LA sentences and the ASD group spending longer in this region overall. Participants made significantly more regressions out of the posttarget region when the sentences were LA and this did not differ or interact with group. There were no differences between groups or sentence types in the proportion of regressions made into this region.

First pass reading. To examine whether the increased sentence reading time and number of fixations made by ASD participants in Experiment 2 was a consequence of increased first pass or second pass reading times, additional first and second pass measures were examined. Recall from the main analyses, there were no group differences or interactions in gaze durations for the pretarget, target or posttarget region. This was also true for the start, verb, noun, preposition and end regions. Furthermore,

there was no effect of attachment and no interactions. The probability of readers making a regression out of each region during first pass reading was also examined. If ASD readers made more regressions during first pass this may have contributed to the increased sentence reading times. Recall that in the main analysis, no group differences or interactions were detected in the pretarget, target, or posttarget regions. Similarly, there were no reliable differences between the proportion of first pass regressions made between groups for any other region and there was also no effect of attachment. These analyses suggest that there were no differences in the way the two groups sampled information during first pass reading.

Second pass reading. Analysis of second pass reading time for the entire sentence (see Table 4) indicated that the ASD group had longer second pass reading times overall, in comparison to the TD group and that both groups engaged in more rereading for LA sentences in comparison to HA sentences. To determine whether this increase in second pass reading of the sentences was a result of the ASD group rereading a particular area of the sentence, second pass times were calculated for each region. The ASD group had longer second pass times in comparison to the TD group for the start, noun, pretarget, target and end. No differences between second pass reading of the preposition, posttarget, or verb regions were detected, but there is a numerical trend in the data, consistent with the above findings. In addition, a reliable effect of attachment was detected for the noun and pretarget region, indicating that when sentences were LA, both groups reread these areas of the sentence more so, to assist in structural reanalysis. No interactions or effects of attachment were detected for any other region. Recall from the main analysis that both groups made a higher proportion of regressions into the target and pretarget regions, when the sentences were LA. This was also true for the noun and preposition, indicating that this information was crucial for both groups, when reanalyzing an initial structural interpretation. These findings replicate the findings from Experiment 1, with ASD readers spending significantly longer rereading each region of the sentence, regardless of sentence condition. Once again this demonstrates that this increased rereading is independent of our sentence manipulation.

Experiment 2: Discussion

We examined aspects of syntactic and semantic processing by having participants read sentences that contained an ambiguous prepositional phrase. Our first research question was related to whether readers with ASD hold similar syntactic preferences to TD readers. Both TD and ASD readers displayed disruption to reading for low-attached sentences upon fixation of the target word, which indicates that similarly to TD readers, adult readers with ASD hold a high-attachment preference. Furthermore, the severity of this disruption did not differ between groups, which suggests that readers with ASD are also as efficient as TD readers, in the recovery from an initial structural misanalysis. These findings suggest that the syntactic parsing of written sentences is intact in ASD.

Our results are consistent with Lucas and Norbury's (2014) study that demonstrated children with ASD to show similar disruption to TD children when reading syntactically scrambled sentences. In addition, similarly to Riches et al.'s (2015) study we

found adult readers with ASD to be successful in the reanalysis of an initial interpretation of a sentence containing an ambiguous prepositional phrase. Note however there was no evidence that adults with ASD show a stronger high-attachment preference, as a trend in Riches et al.'s (2015) data suggested. Our findings are inconsistent with Koolen et al.'s (2012, 2014) work that suggested syntactic processing to be less efficient in ASD. This inconsistency may be attributable to the difference in task types adopted in our own and Koolen et al.'s (2012, 2014) experiments. The current study simply required participants to read sentences for comprehension, whereas Koolen et al.'s (2012, 2014) studies required readers to detect and respond to lexical and syntactic errors during a serial viewing paradigm. This requires additional memory load and decisional processes that are not necessary during natural reading.

Our second research question was related to the use of world knowledge on-line during reading. We predicted that if such processing was less efficient that there would be a delay in the onset of reading disruption for the target word for low-attached sentences. However, no such delay was detected, with both groups first showing disruption in single fixation durations. What this suggests, is that counter to our hypothesis and to theories that predict top-down, higher order processing to be atypical (e.g., Minshew & Goldstein, 1998), ASD readers had access to and made use of world knowledge on-line and did so as efficiently as TD readers. This finding is consistent with Saldaña and Frith's (2007) study that reported participants with ASD to use world knowledge in order to make an inference, and in turn respond more quickly to comprehension questions that were related to such an inference. However, our finding is inconsistent with Wahlberg and Magliano's (2004) report of ASD readers being less efficient in the use of world knowledge. Note that Wahlberg and Magliano's (2004) study examined the use of such knowledge to aid in the recall of ambiguous texts and it is therefore possible that the difference reported by Wahlberg and Magliano (2004) is specifically related to memory functions following text comprehension, as opposed to linguistic processing per se.

There were two subtle differences found between the participant groups in the early processing of the sentences examined for Experiment 2. First, the ASD readers were less likely to skip the target word of both HA and LA sentences, in comparison to TD readers. The lack of difference in skipping found in Experiment 1 and all other critical regions of the sentences in Experiment 2, suggests that the lower rate of skipping was not a result of an inherent difference in skipping probabilities in ASD, but is localized to this region. Decreased skipping of the target word in the ASD group may reflect the adoption of a more cautious reading strategy. It is possible that this is a result of the ASD readers being sensitive to the manipulation of attachment and consequently the importance of the disambiguating target noun. Therefore, decreased skipping may have been a strategy adopted in order to avoid overlooking a potential misanalysis.

The second group difference was that ASD readers were found to have longer go past times for the posttarget region, and was present across both HA and LA conditions. If this was evidence of increased disruption for LA sentences for readers with ASD, we would have found an interaction whereby go past times were larger for ASD readers for LA sentences only. However, this is not the case and thus it is likely a consequence of the increased rereading

that ASD participants engaged in for all sentences (note that the posttarget region was often the penultimate word in the sentence).

Differences in the later stages of sentence processing were also detected. Replicating what was found for Experiment 1, no group differences or interactions for first pass reading were found. What this suggests is that the ASD readers did not differ from the TD group in the speed with which they constructed an initial interpretation of the sentence. The ASD group did differ however in the amount of second pass reading they engaged in, following intact initial processing. Again this increased rereading was found across both sentence types and was unrelated to the sentence manipulation. As for Experiment 1, we speculate that this may be a strategy adopted by the participants with ASD to "check" their understanding of the sentence, prior to (possibly) answering a comprehension question. Different reading strategies have been previously identified in a TD population (Hyönä, Lorch, & Kaakinen, 2002) and it is therefore possible that the increased rereading and reduced skipping for the target region may be part of a more general, cautious reading strategy, adopted by ASD participants.

Finally, in relation to what would be expected in terms of typical cognitive processing from general theories of reading, the overall findings from the two experiments for TD readers replicate previous findings. In ASD readers however, this was not the case. Here, the findings replicate those that would be predicted for normal cognitive processing in first pass measures, but for second pass reading there was evidence for atypical strategies that are not in line with any general theory of reading.

Conclusion

We aimed to gain a more accurate understanding as to how lexical, syntactic and semantic processing occurs in adults with ASD during natural reading, by measuring eye movements as participants read single sentences. Overall, there were striking similarities in first pass reading of sentences between TD and ASD readers. Experiment 1 indicated that lexical processing is intact in ASD, with both groups showing a comparable frequency effect. Experiment 2 indicated that there is no difference in syntactic preferences between the groups of readers, and in their ability to detect and recover from an initial syntactic misanalysis through the use of world knowledge. This was demonstrated by the immediacy with which an initial syntactic misanalysis was detected and the magnitude of disruption to reading being comparable between TD and ASD readers. More critically, what these findings imply, is that an impairment in lexical identification, syntactic parsing or the use of world knowledge during the processing of single sentences is unlikely to contribute to the off-line performance differences for reading comprehension and inferencing tasks that have been reported in the literature. The only group differences that were present in the current study appear to be independent of the linguistic manipulations in our experimental sentences and, instead, reflect a more cautious reading strategy that the ASD readers show a preference to adopt.

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Received November 12, 2015

Revision received February 12, 2016

Accepted March 21, 2016 ■

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