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## Rey osterrieth complex figure test child norms

Generate prescriptive data on ray-osteris complex body type (ROCF) in the Spanish-speaking pediatric population. The sample consisted of 4,373 healthy children from Latin America (Chile, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Puerto Rico) and nine Spanish countries. Each participant was given ROCF as part of a larger neuro-psychological battery. ROCF radiation and immediate recall (3-minute) scores were standardized using multiple linear regressions and standard deviations of residual values. Age, age2, gender, and average levels of parental education (MLPE) were included as predictors in the analysis. The final multi-linear regression model showed key effects on age for copy and immediate recall scores, which increased linearly as a function of age. Age2 affected ROCF copy scores for all countries except Puerto Rico. ROCF immediate recall scores for all countries except Chile, Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay and Puerto Rico. The model showed children with MLPE>12 years parents got higher scores compared to their parents≤12 years for Chile, Puerto Rico, Spain from ROCF copies, Paraguay and Spain immediate recall of ROCF. Gender impact ROCF copies and immediate recall scores for Chile and Puerto Rico and higher scores than girls boys. This is the largest Spanish-speaking pediatric normative study in the world, and in this country neuropsychologists may have a more accurate approach to interpreting ROCF tests in pediatric populations. In 1941, Swiss psychologist Andre Ray designed the Rey-Osteris Composite Figure Test (ROCF) to examine the non-space abilities and memories of patients with traumatic brain injury (Rey, 1941). The ROCF was standardized in 1944 by Paul-Alexandre Osterrieth, who proposed a scoring system for administration and collected the first set of normative data for children and adults (God, Park, Kwon, 2006). Since its initial verification, ROCF has become one of the most widely used neuropsychological assessments to assess construction and nonversal memory abilities (Ardila & Rosselli, 1994; Rosselli and Adilla, 1991). ROCF use asymmetrical complex stimuli in its design to evaluate cognitive performance through recognition and recall technology (Pastenau, 1996; off-duty, 2006). There are many cognitive abilities required for good performance, and these, tests are used to evaluate some other brain functions, including attention, working memory, visuospatial ability, and planning (such as Wattanabe, 2005). For example, a ROCF operation includes looking at and copying complex pictures. Next, the individual immediately reproduces it, after a delay, or both (god, etc., 2006). ROCF is often used to examine deficits caused by traumatic brain injury. Patients, tested for dementia, to study cognitive development in children (Kasai et al., 2006; Watanabe et al., 2005). Young, developing children or adults with weaknesses in the aforementioned abilities all generally find very difficult challenges (Akshoomoff, Feroletto, Doyle, and Stiles, 2002; Wasber & Holmes, 1985). ROCF has received psycho-measurement support for both reliability and validity in pediatric populations and past studies. Reliability among pediatric populations tends to be high for both radiant production ( $\alpha=0.95$ ) and recalled production ( $\alpha=0.94$ ). Wasber & Holmes, 1985). Evidence of convergence feasibility is also supported: scores of children aged six to eight at THE ROCF are correlated with other measures of visuospatial. Constructive and fine motor skills [e.g., Hoover Visual Tissue Test (Hooper, 1983), Wessler Elementary School and Aesthetics Scale Intelligence Revision (Wechsler, 1989), Groove Pegboard (Matthews & Kløve, 1964; Frith, Jacobson, Knight, Robertson, 2005)]. ROCF's psycho-measurement support has contributed to its popularity as a widely used neurological evaluation. Although age has the most notable impact, several variables have been shown to affect test performance among the pediatric population (Beltrán Dulcey & Solís Uribe, 2012; De Liu, 2010; Rosselli and Adilla, 1991). Copy scores tend to perform better at copying pictures accurately than children ages 9 to 12 (Beltran Dooxi & Solís Uribe, 2012) for an increase in 12- to 16-year-olds (Myers & Myers, 1996). Age also has a significant impact on children and adolescents' ability to remember figures as growth between the ages of 12 and 17 slows, increasing scores among 6- to 12-year-olds (Myers Meyers, 1996; Mitrushina, Boone, Rajani, Dielia, 2005). The evidence for gender differences in ROCF is obvious. The two studies found conflicting outcomes, with women outperforming boys between the ages of 8 and 12 in one study (Karapetas & Cantas, 1991), and boys outperforming girls in other studies (Adilla and Rosselli, 1994). However, no other studies have found gender differences (Beltran Dulcey & Solís Uribe, 2012; Demski, Karon, Burns, Sellers, 2000). While education levels were found to affect the performance of



in the ROCF, the effects on the pediatric population were not supported (Beltrán Dulcey &amp; Solís Uribe, 2012; Myers & Myers, 1995). Finally, The ROCF's performance was also found to be directly related to intellectual abilities, where individuals with learning disabilities rarely improve on tests as they age (Waber & Bernstein, 1995). United States, Mexico, Colombia (Ardila & And) prescriptive data for children ages 5 to 14. 1994; Galindo & Cortes, 2003; Karapetsas & Kantas, 1991; Wabser & Holmes, 1985, 1986). Using a qualitative scoring system, children's ability to copy and remember pictures from memory was evaluated in multiple dimensions, including accuracy (for example, the quantity recovered from a design). Error (e.g. distortion) organization (ability to format pictures, for example, aligning all four sides); and style (i.e., continuity of lines; out of character, 2006). Children between the ages of 6 and 8 dramatically improve their ability to copy (Waber & Holmes, 1985), most likely due to improvements in approach and organization. By the age of 9, children can reliably produce every part of the design, and changes since that age tend to reflect the increased ability to plan and organize the reproduction of paintings (Ardila & Cortes, 1994; Wabser & Holmes, 1985). 6-year-olds score between the ages of 14.5 and 16.5 when copying images. Children 14 and older start scoring similarly to adults with an average score of about 32 (Adilla and Rosselli, 1994; Kolb &amp; Whishaw, 1985; Myers & Myers, 1996; Rosselli and Adilla, 1991; Sin et al., 2006). In terms of recalling numbers from memory, past studies have shown that 57% of children between the ages of 5 and 14 were able to reproduce the design in memory immediately after copying, and 43% had a 20-minute delay (Waber & Holmes, 1986) after it could. There are more errors when recalling images than copying images at all ages. In addition, children as old as 5 years old (Waber & Holmes, 1986) tends to make far more mistakes, and errors in each age group tend to decrease. In terms of organizational scores, five-year-olds tend to score the lowest, and these scores typically increase annually through age 14 (Waber & Holmes, 1986). As for style, young children tended to focus on certain parts of the picture, while older children began to express the picture as a whole in composition. By the age of six, children are beginning to show sensitivity to the individual characteristics and overall composition of the picture. Until then, young children tend to perform more accurately when they remember the left side of the picture than the right (Karapetsas & Kantas, 1991; Wabser & Holmes, 1985). Few studies have established prescriptive data on the Spanish-speaking pediatric population and ROCF. While prescriptive data on pediatric populations exists in Colombia (Adilla & Cortes, 1994) and Mexico (Galindo & Cortes, 2003), comprehensive normative data on pediatric populations does not exist in many other Spanish-speaking countries. The study worked to fill this gap in literature by providing prescriptive data on the population of children and adolescents in Latin American countries and Spain based on multiple linear regression analyses. Sample 절체, 쿠바, 에라도노, 과테말라, 온두라스, 멕시코, 페루, 푸에르토리코, 스페인에서 모집된 4,373명의 건강한 어린이 중 참가자는 다음과 같은 기준에 따라 선택되었다: a) 6 세에서 17 세 사이, b) 태어나고 현재 연구가 수행된 국가에서 살고 있는 국가에서 살고, c) 기본 언어로 스페인어, d) 비 인종 정보의 시험에 IQ=80 (TONI-2; 브라운, 세르바노, 존슨, 2009b), e) &lt;19 on the children's depression inventory (cdi; kovacs, = 1992), children with history of = neurologic = or psychiatric disorders = as reported = by the = parent(s) = parent(s) = were = excluded = due to its effects = on cognitive = performance = participants = in the study = were = from = public = or private = schools, = and = they = signed = an = informed = consent = to participate = socio-demographic = and = participant = characteristics = for = each = of the = countries = samples = have = been = reported = elsewhere = (rivera = arango-lasprilla = 2017) = ethics = committee = approval = was = obtained = for = the = study = in = each = country = a = trained = examiner = administered = the = rocf = figure = a = (copy) = and = after = 3 = minutes = the = immediate = recall = was = given = to = score = the = rocf = figure = the = spanish-language = rocf = manual = was = used = (rey = 2009) = the = rocf = includes = 18 = elements = and = the = maximum = score = for = each = of = the = two = tasks = (copy = and = immediate = recall) = is = 36 = in = terms = of = scoring = two = points = are = given = when = the = element = is = correctly = reproduced = one = point = is = given = when = the = reproduction = is = either = (a) = distorted = (b) = incomplete = but = placed = properly =, = or = (c) = complete = but = placed = poorly = and = 0.5 = point = is = credited = when = the = element = is = distorted = or = incomplete = and = placed = poorly = a = score = of = 0 = is = given = when = the = element = is = absent = or = is = not = recognizable = (osterrieth = 1994), detailed = statistical = analyses = used = to = generate = the = normative = data = for = the = rocf = copy = and = immediate = recall = (3 = minutes) = scores = are = described = in = rivera = and = arango-lasprilla = (2017) = in = summary =, = the = scores = were = standardized = using = multiple = linear = regression = analyses = by = means = of = a = four = step = procedure = 1) = first = the = rocf = copy = and = immediate = recall = test = scores = were = computed = separately = by = means = of = the = final = multiple = regression = models = the = full = regression = models = included = the = following = as = predictors = age = age2 = sex =, = and = mean = level = of = parental = education = (mlpe) = age = was = centered = (= calendar age - mean age = in = the = sample = by = country) = before = computing = the = quadratic = age = term = to = avoid = multicollinearity = (aiken = & = west = 1991) = sex = was = coded = as = male = 1 and = female = 0, = the = mlpe = variable = was = coded = as = 1 = if = the = participant = parent(s) = had = &lt;12 years of education = received = 0.05 of the alpha with a different model where statistically not significant, the variable was removed and the model was re-run. The final model was as follows: y = 14.300 + [1.550 \* (Age1-11.5)] + [-1.205 \* Sex] The boy is 12 years old. MLPE (14 years) is divided into 1 to 12 years (and allocated 1 year) or more than 12 years (and 1 allocated) in the model, but MLPE is not included in the model because it was not an important predictor in this case. In this case, the child is male, so the sex value is 1, because the gender is coded as male = 1 and female = 0. Thus, the predicted value equation is: y = 14.300 + [1.550 \* (12-11.5)] + [-1.205 \* 1] = 14.300 + 0.775 - 1.205 = 13.870. To calculate the residual value (shown in the equation ei), subtract the actual ROCF immediate recall test score (21 points) from the calculated prediction value (ei = yi-yi). In this case, ei = 21 - 13.870 = 7.130. 3) Next, refer to the SDe column in Table 2 to get the residual SDe (residual value). 5.507 for Chile. You can use this value to convert the remaining values to standardized z-scores using equations (zi = ei/SDe). In this case, there is 7.130/5.507 = 1.295. This is the standardized z-score of a 12-year-old Chilean boy who scored 21 in a ROCF immediate recall with parents with 14 years of education (MLPE). 4) The final step is to convert the z score to percentile by using the tables available in most statistical reference books (e.g. Strauss, Sherman, and Spreen, 2006). In this example, the z-score (probability) is 1.295 corresponding to the 90th percentile. The table for each test (copy vs. immediate recall) when performing these calculations. The four-step normative procedure described above provides clinicians with the ability to determine the correct percentility for a child with a specific score on a copy of THE ROCF or an immediate recall test. However, this method is prone to human error due to the number of hand calculations required. To improve user affinity, the authors completed these steps for various raw scores based on age, gender, and MLPE, and created a table where clinicians could more easily obtain percent ranges/estimates related to the raw scores given in this test. These tables are available for testing of countries and types in the appendix. To obtain an approximate percent of the above example, you must follow these steps to obtain a raw score of 21 using the simplified normative table provided in the appendix (converting a raw score of 21 in the ROCF immediate recall test for a 12-year-old Chilean boy). (1) First, identify the appropriate table that guarantees the appropriate country and test (copy-to-immediate recall). In this case, a table for ROCF immediate recall scores for boys in Chile can be found in A13. (2) In this case, look for the appropriate age for a 12-year-old child. (3) Next, look at the age column of 12 years old to find the approximate location of the raw score obtained from the test. Within the 12-year column, the score of 21 obtained by this Chilean boy is the approximate percent of 90, which can sometimes be calculated by hand and slightly different from the more accurate method, since the age-frequency table is based on a limited number of percentage values. Due to space limitations, individual percent ranges cannot be displayed in these tables. If the correct score is not listed in the column, you must estimate the percent by default value of list of available raw scores. ROCF is one of the most widely used neuropsychology tests in the world to evaluate visuospatial, visual motor and visual memory processes in both children and adults (Frisk et al., 2005). In Latin American countries and Spain, this test is one of the 10 most utilized neuropsychology tests by clinical neuropsychologists during their professional practice (Arango-Raspreya, Stevens, Moret Paredes, Adilla, Rivera, 2016; Olavarieta Randa et al., 2016). However, despite its large use, there is currently little validation and research on the standardization of this test for Spanish speakers. Most of the research has been conducted with the adult population, and to date very few studies have been conducted with the pediatric population. Therefore, neuropsychologists who use this test in Latin American countries or Spain with the pediatric population usually perform interpretation using norms of other countries (Arango-Raspreya, et al., 2016). Thus, there was an overwhelming need for normative data from the ROCF on pediatric populations in both Latin American countries and Spain (Arango-Raspreya and others, 2016; Olavarieta Randa et al., 2016). To fill the gaps in literature, the purpose of the study was to obtain normative data on ROCF copies and immediate recall (3-minute) scores for children and adolescents in nine Latin American countries (Chile, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru and Puerto Rico) and Spain. The study showed that there are different types of variables associated with the performance of tests such as age, secondary age, gender, and MLPE. In general, the final regression model was found to account for between 25.5% and 63.6% of variance for ROCF copies, and between 24.8% and 53.4% of variance for ROCF immediate recalls. Because age was largely related to the total score of both ROCF copies and ROCF immediate recalls, scores increased linearly as children got older. These results are similar to those reported in other studies that have shown ROCF scores to increase significantly with age (Frisk et al., 2005; Myers & Myers, 1996). In addition, the curvilinear effect of age on ROCF copies has been shown in all countries except Puerto Rico. Scores increased noticeably between ages 6 and 13, while those increasing slowly decreased to 13-14 after approximately age, later stabilizing and resembling adults. Other studies, however, found that an increase in scores began to occur mostly between the ages of 12 and 16 in 17 years when it matched the performance of adults (Myers & Myers, 1996). Curve effects have also been observed for rocf immediate recalls for all countries except Chile, Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay and Puerto Rico. Scores increased markedly among 6- to 15-year-olds, followed by a small increase among 16- to 17-year-olds. Past studies have found that ROCF for immediate and delayed recalls, following a small increase in scores between ages 6 to 12 and 17 (Anderson &amp; Lajoie, 1996; Boone, Lesser, Hill Gutierrez, Verman, and D'lia, 1993; Caffera, Bezdani, Diech, Jonato, Veneri, 2002; Chervinsky, Mitrusina, Satz, 1992; Chiuli, Haland, Laru, Gary, 1995; Denman, 1984; Hartman & Porter, 1998; Kramer & Wells, 2004; Myers & Myers, 1996; Mytton, Wolters, Lannu, Vingerhouts, 2004; Ponton et al., 1996; Van Gough, Satz and Mitrusina, 1990). On the other hand, the results of this study contradict those found by Beltrán Dulsy and Solís-Uribe (2012). In their study, ROCF copies and ROCF immediate recall scores were not associated with age. One possible explanation it can be the small sample size (141) used. Another potential explanation is that Beltrán Dulcey and Solís-Uribe (2012) divide the samples into two ages (9 to 12 years and 13 to 16) and compare the performance of these two groups using independent measures t-test. In this study, variable age was analyzed as a continuous variable, the sample size was symmetrical for each age. After that, the effect of age on each test score was calculated by several linear regressions. Sex is not associated with a copy of THE ROCF or test performance for ROCF immediate recall in most countries. These results are similar to those reported in other studies where sex was not associated with the performance of this test (Beltrán Dulcey & Solís-Uribe, 2012; Poulton, Moffit, 1995). However, sex was associated with copy and immediate recall scores in Chile and Puerto Rico, where Chilean and Puerto Rican girls scored better than boys. Despite the small interest in paying for parental education levels in the standardization of neuropsychological tests on pediatric populations, research supports the educational levels of influential parents in children's development of cognitive function (Schady, 2011). In this study, parents of MLPE Chile, Puerto Rico, were associated with ROCF copy scores in Spain and ROCF immediate recall scores in Paraguay and Spain. In both cases, children whose parents were educated for more than 12 years scored much higher than children whose parents were educated for less than 12 years. The results of this study have notable clinical implications. ROCF's established norms for 10 Spanish-speaking countries provide an excellent opportunity for clinical neuropsychologists to use this exam as part of their neuropsychological evaluation protocols for the purpose of assessing changes in aspatial, visual motor, and visual memory processes in pediatric populations between the ages of 6 and 17. Using these norms, each child's performance can be evaluated in a more accurate and standardized way based on age, gender, and parental education. The creation of standardized norms will improve neuropsychological evaluation and diagnosis in both normal and clinical populations. Deficits are common in children with learning disabilities (Kirkwood, Because it exists in Wyler, Bernstein, Forbes, Waber, 2001), brain injury (Berger et al., 2

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