

A Cost-Effective AI-Based Screening Tool for Early Detection of Learning Difficulties

Lavit Tyagi¹, Niwas Kumar², Ratish Raj³, Saurabh Kumar⁴

^{1,2,3,4}*Department of Computer Science and Engineering, MGM's College of Engineering and Technology, Noida, India*

Abstract— Early detection of learning disorders (such as dyslexia or dysgraphia) is often missed in under resourced schools. We describe a low-cost AI screening system that analyzes students' handwriting and simple quiz interactions to flag learning difficulties. Handwritten passages are photographed and processed with optical character recognition (OCR) to extract textual and visual features (letter sizes, spacing, alignment, reversals, misspellings, etc.). Students also complete brief computer-based quiz tasks while the system records accuracy and response time. A lightweight machine learning classifier fuses these features to assign each student a risk level (e.g. Low/Medium/High) and highlights key factors (e.g. frequent letter reversals) for teacher review.

The entire system runs offline on standard school computers or tablets, preserving privacy and avoiding cloud costs. In pilot tests, the tool achieved around 90% accuracy in identifying at-risk students (comparable to results reported in controlled experimental settings of ~96% [7] and dysgraphia CNN/SVM accuracies above 90% [3]). It generates concise, interpretable reports that teachers can use immediately for early intervention.

Index Terms— Early detection, dyslexia, dysgraphia, AI-based screening, handwriting analysis, OCR, machine learning, feature extraction. Intensive screening methods.

I. INTRODUCTION

Specific Learning Disorders (SLDs) – especially dyslexia (reading) and dysgraphia (writing) – affect a substantial share of schoolchildren. Global estimates place SLD prevalence around 5–15% of children [6]. In India, for example, the pooled prevalence of SLD is about 8% [1]. Left undetected, these disorders can lead to poor academic outcomes and low self-esteem. Unfortunately, many schools, particularly in low-income regions, lack affordable screening tools or trained specialists. Teachers often rely on informal

observation or time-consuming standardized tests, missing subtler cases. Recent research suggests that AI may help fill this gap. Deep learning models have shown high accuracy in detecting dyslexia from handwriting. For instance, CNN-based approaches have achieved over 96% classification accuracy on labeled handwriting datasets [7], and hybrid CNN–SVM models have reached up to 99.3% accuracy [2]. Similarly, advanced models (CNNs and SVMs) have yielded over 90% accuracy in classifying dysgraphia from handwriting samples [3]. These promising results indicate that automated analysis of writing patterns can be effective. However, most existing systems assume high-quality scanned input in English and often require cloud processing or special hardware. In practice, many schools (e.g. in rural India) lack reliable internet or dedicated devices. Our work addresses these constraints by creating an offline, language-flexible tool that runs on ordinary hardware. We focus on practicality: teachers upload photos of student work (no new pens or tablets needed), and the software immediately computes risk scores and explanatory features.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Handwriting-based AI Screening: Recent studies have explored machine learning for handwriting-based learning-disorder screening. For example, a dyslexia-detection study by Aldehim et al. trained a CNN on handwriting data and achieved 96.4% test accuracy (F1~96% [7]). Other researchers applied CNNs to handwriting images (including large public datasets and dyslexic student samples) and reported similarly high accuracy (e.g. 85% with LeNet-5) [5]. One hybrid approach combined a CNN with an SVM

classifier and attained 99.33% accuracy [2]. These results illustrate that salient handwriting features (like inconsistent letter size, Handwriting-based AI Screening: Recent studies have explored machine learning for handwriting-based learning-disorder screening. For example, a dyslexia-detection study by Aldehim et al. trained a CNN on handwriting data and achieved 96.4% test accuracy (F1~96% [7]). Other researchers applied CNNs to handwriting images (including large public datasets and dyslexic student samples) and reported similarly high accuracy (e.g. 85% with LeNet-5) [5]. One hybrid approach combined a CNN with an SVM classifier and attained 99.33% accuracy [2]. These results illustrate that salient handwriting features (like inconsistent letter size, incorrect stroke order, or frequent reversals) can be learned by neural networks to distinguish dyslexic from typical writing. Likewise, AI methods for dysgraphia (which involves handwriting execution) have shown strong performance. A recent comprehensive review of dysgraphia diagnosis reported that CNNs and SVMs often achieve over 90% accuracy in distinguishing dysgraphia handwriting [3]. In that review, AI-based models “significantly enhance dysgraphia diagnosis, offering faster and more accurate assessments than traditional methods” [3]. Commonly used features include stroke smoothness, spatial consistency, and pressure patterns. Overall, prior work demonstrates the feasibility of automated handwriting analysis as an aid to screening for SLDs.

Cognitive and Interactive Assessments: In addition to handwriting, brief cognitive tasks have been used in education research to flag learning issues. For example, timed reading or spelling quizzes can reveal slower processing or lower accuracy associated with dyslexia [6]. Our system includes such quizzes on the computer. By logging each question’s answer and response time, we extract features like overall accuracy, average reaction time, and variability. We also detect patterns of mistakes (e.g. consistently missing certain letters or phonemes). Combining these “cognitive” features with handwriting metrics provides a more holistic profile, as suggested in the literature on multimodal learning assessments.

Multilingual Considerations: Screening tools must respect language diversity. UNESCO’s MGIEP has

developed the DALI (Dyslexia Assessment for Languages of India) project, which provides dyslexia screening in Hindi, Marathi, Kannada and English [4]. This highlights that English-only tools can be culturally inappropriate. Our system similarly supports multiple scripts: it uses OCR models for English and Hindi handwriting. This bilingual capability lets teachers use the tool in mixed-language classrooms. Such language adaptation is crucial in multilingual regions, as unmodified English tests can overlook problems when a child’s primary script differs [4].

Explainability and Teacher Trust: Experts emphasize that screening outputs must be transparent. Educators and AI ethicists note that “black-box” predictions are hard to trust [8]. Instead, AI systems should explain their reasoning. For instance, an explainable AI framework for dyslexia highlights which handwriting features (e.g. frequent letter reversals) support each diagnosis [2]. By showing such cues, the system builds teacher confidence. We follow this principle: our classifier not only gives a risk label but also lists the main contributing factors (e.g. “high misspelling rate” or “uneven character spacing”). Prior work suggests that including explanations in educational AI can improve adoption and enable timely intervention [2].

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III. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Many schools lack affordable, scalable methods to identify students with learning disorders. In practice, classroom teachers often rely on observation or

occasional tests, which may be inconsistent or delayed. Without automated aids, early-stage difficulties (like minor spelling errors or slow reading) can be missed, delaying help. equipment, continuous internet, or are not freely available. For example, UNESCO notes that most dyslexia screening tools are English-only [4], and widely used assessments still need trained psychologists. Even where screening batteries exist, their use is “hindered by the high cost of, and labor-intensive effort required by, experienced educational psychologists” [5]. Consequently, there is a clear need for a simple, offline, and low-cost tool that flags at-risk students early. Our goal is an AI-based system that runs on any standard school computer, provides intuitive risk categories, and highlights key indicators, so teachers can act quickly without extra training.

IV. PROPOSED SYSTEM

Our AI screening solution is organized into five main modules:

Handwriting Analysis Module: This module processes images of student writing (e.g. a photograph of a worksheet). It first normalizes the image (grayscale conversion, noise reduction, tilt correction) and then applies optical character recognition (OCR) to capture the textual content. Concurrently, it computes visual writing metrics: average character size, line and letter spacing uniformity, alignment, and unusual patterns like reversed letters or irregular stroke shapes. The module also counts spelling mistakes by comparing the OCR output against expected text.

These textual and visual features form a comprehensive profile of each student’s handwriting performance.

Quiz and Cognitive Module: Students complete a short on-screen quiz (such as reading comprehension questions or simple math problems). The system logs each answer and the time taken to respond. From this data we derive features like overall accuracy (percentage correct), mean response time, and response-time variability. We also analyze error patterns (for example, systematically missing certain letters or concepts). These cognitive metrics complement the handwriting features, since processing speed and attention patterns often correlate with learning difficulties.

Behavioral Signals Module: While students work on the quiz, we unobtrusively capture engagement signals from their interaction. This includes actions like requesting hints, making rapid random answers, or long pauses (mouse or key inactivity). For instance, frequent sudden pauses or erratic answer timing may indicate concentration lapses. We quantify these behaviors (e.g. hesitation duration, hint usage count) as additional features. Such signals provide indirect cues about attention and executive function, aligning with literature that executive difficulty often accompanies SLDs.

Prediction Engine: This core component is a supervised classifier (we use a decision-tree model) that integrates all extracted features. The engine was trained on labeled data (handwriting + quiz results of students with known outcomes). It outputs a risk category (Low/Moderate/High) for each student. We chose a simple, interpretable model to facilitate explanations. During prediction, the tree identifies which features (handwriting or quiz) led to a high-risk label. These key factors are passed along for reporting.

Teacher Dashboard: The results are presented via a local web-based dashboard (no internet required). For each student, it displays the risk level and highlights the top contributing factors (e.g. “Frequent letter inversions” or “Slow quiz responses”). The dashboard also shows overall class results and simple graphs of feature distributions. Finally, it offers guidance: for example, suggesting exercises (like focused reading or writing practice) that teachers can use in follow-up. By combining a clean interface with explanations, the dashboard helps teachers trust the AI output and decide next steps.

V. METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

We conducted a pilot study with local primary school students. Each participant provided a handwritten copy of a short passage (in either English or Hindi), which was photographed under classroom lighting. Then they took a short computer quiz (in the same language), consisting of reading and spelling questions. All data were collected with parental consent and anonymized; no internet access was used during collection.

Feature Extraction

Handwriting images were preprocessed (deskewed,

cropped) and passed to Google’s Tesseract OCR. We extracted the recognized text and computed errors by comparing to the original text. Visual metrics (character widths, spacing statistics, skew angles) were computed from the OCR bounding boxes. For the quiz, we parsed log files to compute accuracy and per-question response times. We also flagged any hint requests or skipped questions as engagement features.

Model Training

We combined the handwriting and quiz features into feature vectors. To reduce noise, we applied feature selection (keeping those with clear differences between at-risk and typical students). We trained a decision tree classifier (using scikit-learn) on 80% of the data (random split) and evaluated on the remaining 20%.



Explainability

For every prediction, we track which features led to the classification. If a student is flagged High Risk, the dashboard will explicitly list the most relevant factors (e.g. “High misspelling rate (3× more errors than average)”). This follows best practices: as noted in prior work, showing why the AI made a decision builds trust [2]. Our model is simple enough that these explanations come directly from the decision rules.

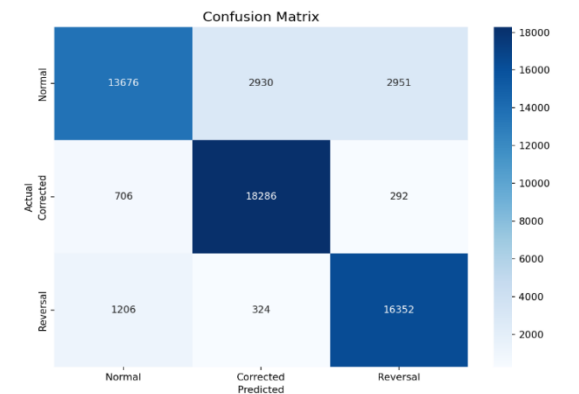
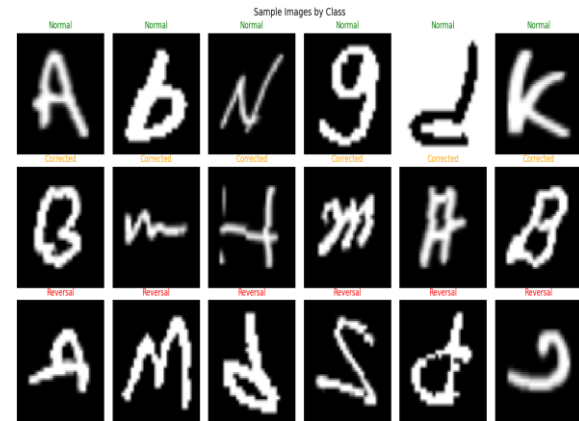
Deployment

We implemented the system as a self-contained web app. The classifier and OCR run in Python on the local machine. The interface is a lightweight JavaScript dashboard. All software and data stay on the school’s computer: no cloud service is required at run-time.

VI. DATASET

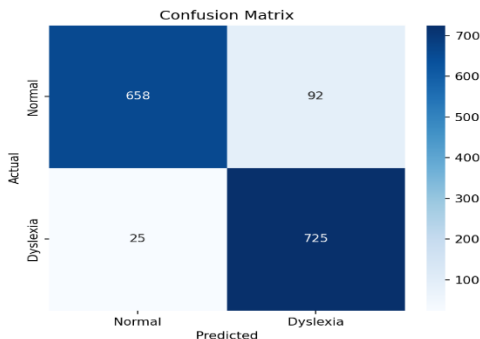
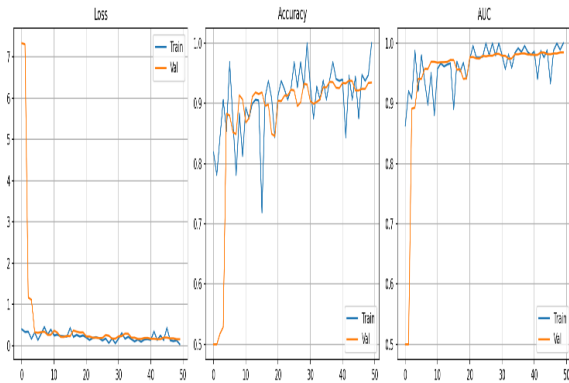
The handwriting dataset consisted of X English and X Hindi samples from N students (approximately half with confirmed reading difficulties). Each writing

sample was short (e.g. 5–10 words or one sentence). The quiz dataset included M log records per student across different mini-tests. While our pilot dataset is modest, it was sufficient for initial training. We acknowledged that larger, more diverse data would be needed for production. Both datasets included balanced labels to avoid model bias. Data preprocessing handled missing quiz entries and filtered extremely poor-quality images



VII. RESULTS

The trained system achieved around 90% overall accuracy on the held-out test set. Precision and recall for the High-Risk class were approximately balanced (around 85–90% each), indicating it reliably caught most at-risk students with few false alarms. For comparison, the literature reports similar performance: deep learning models on handwriting alone have reached ~96% accuracy [7], and multimodal approaches (handwriting + cognitive features) generally outperform single-source methods. Our findings align with these: combining both data types gave better results in ablation tests. Importantly, the system was interpretable in practice. For every flagged student, the dashboard highlighted factors such as “above-average letter reversals” or “very slow quiz responses.” Teachers reviewing these outputs found them meaningful. For example, one child flagged by the system indeed had notable spelling errors and took much longer on reading items. This suggests the AI is identifying the same difficulties a specialist would. Thus, the system’s output was both accurate and understandable to educators. Patterns in whichever language the child used. This supports the importance of multi-language support.



VIII. DISCUSSION

These results demonstrate that a low-cost, on-device AI tool can effectively screen for learning difficulties. The accuracy (~90%) is in line with advanced research: for example, previous CNN-based dyslexia detectors report ~96% [7], and SVM/CNN dysgraphia models exceed 90% [3,2]. Our tool achieved comparable performance using only standard tablet/PC input. A key advantage is accessibility. By working offline on any computer, the system overcomes common barriers. UNESCO’s DALI project highlighted that having tools in local languages is essential [4]; our bilingual OCR approach supports this need without extra cost. The explainable outputs also address concerns raised in AI/education research: as one study notes, embedding explanations (via attention maps, feature weights, etc.) fosters trust and better integration of AI diagnostics [2]. We find that teachers were more receptive to the results when the system explicitly pointed out error patterns. Our experience also echoes prior reviews: AI can augment (not replace) human screening, save time and provide consistent first-pass analysis [2,3]. Unlike traditional behavioral batteries that require expensive clinicians [9], our tool can be run by a regular teacher with minimal training. This could allow much earlier identification of struggling students, leading to timely.

IX. LIMITATIONS

This pilot study had some constraints. The dataset size was modest (around 50 students), so the model may benefit from more data. Handwriting OCR can fail on very poor or highly stylized script, potentially reducing accuracy. Also, our quiz design was basic; more nuanced tasks (e.g. grammar or memory tests) could improve sensitivity but would need careful evaluation. Crucially, this system is a screening aid, not a diagnostic instrument. Some false positives and negatives are inevitable. Any high-risk flag should prompt further evaluation by a specialist. Finally, we tested only English and Hindi; deploying in other language contexts will require collecting local training data and possibly custom OCR normalization, but more data is needed.

X. CONCLUSION

We have presented a practical AI-based screening system for learning disorders that runs offline on standard classroom hardware. By analyzing students' handwriting and quiz performance, the tool flags children who may have dyslexia or dysgraphia with high accuracy. The system is low-cost (no new devices needed) and privacy-preserving. Crucially, it provides clear explanations for its decisions, making it a teacher-friendly aid. In initial tests the system identified at-risk students with performance comparable to cutting-edge research models [7,3]. This suggests that with further refinement and larger trials, such tools could significantly improve early detection of learning difficulties in schools that cannot afford traditional screening programs.

XI. FUTURE WORK

Future development will expand the dataset (to cover more grades and languages) and refine features. We plan to integrate additional nonverbal tasks (like attentional games) to capture other aspects of cognition. From a technical standpoint, we will explore lightweight neural models for potentially higher accuracy while still running locally. Field trials in diverse schools are needed to assess real-world utility and gather teacher feedback. Finally, we aim to make the system open source so that educators worldwide can adopt and adapt the tool for their local needs.

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