

LANGUAGE OF TESTING IN THE ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING DISABILITY IN READING (DYSLEXIA): IMPLICATION FOR MOTHER TONGUE LITERACY

By

Bukunmi Adetayo OGUNSOLA

National Institute for Nigerian Languages (NINLAN)

Aba-Abia State.

book2470@gmail.com

+2348065517809

Abstract

This paper sheds light on the importance of language of testing in the identification, assessment and management of students with learning disability. The study is descriptive in nature. Bilingual Reading Achievement Test (BRAT) was deployed to elicit data from 86 pupils from private and government owned schools. Three research questions were raised and responses provided. Previously, the primary issues in the identification and assessment of dyslexia can be summed up in the construction and validation problem of identification tools. However, embracing the use of Nigerian languages as Language-in-Education (LiE) and its use put into consideration for assessing students for learning disability will yield a different result. The performance of pupils from government owned schools in English and Yorùbá language revealed that the transparency of the Yorùbá orthography resulted in the low percentage of pupils with difficulty in reading comprehension compared with English since 42.9% had zero as raw score in L₁ BRAT (Yorùbá) while 76.7% had zero as raw score in L₂ BRAT (English). On the other hand, their counterparts from private schools exhibited a different relation. Eight point two percent (8.2%) had a raw score of zero in L₁ BRAT (Yorùbá) and 3.6% had zero in L₂ BRAT (English). Hence, more pupils in public schools are at-risk of learning disability than in private schools.

Key words: mother-tongue literacy, learning disability, dyslexia, literacy, language-in-education

1.0 Introduction

“Maybe it is time to consider young people’s out-of-school knowledge and cultures not as ‘distractions’ from the main business of schooling, but as rich, complex, diverse and powerful sources for learning ... ” (Sutherland *et al.* 2009 cited in MacBeath, 2012).

Biologically, people do not need to talk to survive. However, the sophisticated neurophysiological mechanisms that are used in oral language are linked to biological survival. For example, the primary functions of the lungs are biological. Talking is most efficient only when the biological functions are satisfied or not severely interrupted. When breathing is interrupted, one does not think of speech. By instinct, one struggle to catch breath and keep the process. Afterwards, the person tries to relate the experience to a friend who in turn expresses his/her shock and surprise about the trying moments.

Communication has a long history dating as far back as the Garden of Eden and the story of the tower of Babel according to biblical account. However, reading and writing are human invention not natural as speaking and listening which can be predicted on biological basis as Lenneberg opined (1967:371 cf. Fernandez, and Cairns, 2011). Reading is a complex act of communication,

a skilled and strategic process, which learning to decode and read word accurately, and rapidly constructing meaning is central to the acquisition of other skills and school success. Hence, a child who is at risk of reading difficulty needs to be identified early in life and necessary intervention provided.

Language, especially the knowledge and use of mother-tongue, is an important out-of-school knowledge that children bring with them upon arrival at school, since they do not appear in school as a vacuum. However, there seem to be an inscription placed at the entrance of our schools that forbids the use of mother-tongue. The resultant effect is; children upon encountering a new language in school are engaged in a battle to keep their self-confidence and self-esteem when they should be engaged in extension of cognitive skills and abilities. The Global Education Monitoring Report in her Policy Paper, released for International Mother Language Day 2016, lending support to the above ‘argued that being taught in a language other than their own can negatively impact children’s learning.’ Language of testing as conceived in this paper is the language in which the evaluation of cognitive skills – vision, listening, arithmetic, reading, sensory motor functions and memory – are conducted. This is important as learning assessments have shown that when home and school languages differ there is an adverse impact on test scores.

Learning disability is a general term that describes specific kinds of learning problems that can cause a person to have trouble learning and using certain skills. The skills most often affected are reading, writing, listening, speaking, reasoning, and mathematical skills. Moments spent with the student in an interview sharing of experiences and difficulties experienced in learning coupled with information obtained from parents about the academic, developmental and medical history help in collecting information that relates to the observed or suspected disability (Ahmad, 2015). This along with communication patterns, linguistic usages and efficiency of the child properly set the stage for assessment. However, as laudable as that sounds, assessment attempt will hit the rock when language to facilitate evaluation of students becomes a barrier. The role of English and other international languages in Africa was x-rayed in McIlwraith (2013) and the importance of a multilingual approach to education which recognizes the need of a language of instruction that learners understand was therein pointed out.

The whole area of language in Africa, in particular the issue of which language of instruction should be used in African schools and universities, has been a controversial subject of debate for years. Despite consistent advice from education experts and international organizations such as UNESCO, many governments have continued to neglect the importance of introducing children to formal education in a language they understand, and have persisted in the use of European languages as the medium of instruction even where such use is not educationally appropriate (McIlwraith, 2013:3).

As a result of the various adaptations of the National Policy on Education currently in practice in the Nigerian educational sector, some children, in spite of having normal intellectual capacity and unimpaired visual, hearing or physical abilities are unable to acquire one or more language skills appropriate for their ages, even when adequate opportunities for learning are provided and available. The primary identification of students with learning disabilities is done at the school by the teachers, who through observation assess the need for diagnosis and assessment of these

students, who are then referred to the special educators (or counselors in absence of special educators in the school) who try to identify the traits of the disorder present in the child (Ahmad 2015).

Learning disability in reading is also known as dyslexia. Depending on choice with regards to definition, literature has it that 5% to 10% of the population is considered to have dyslexia. International Dyslexia Association (IDA, 2008) defines dyslexia as a specific learning disability that is neurobiological in origin. It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. Other problem areas include reading comprehension that can impede growth of vocabulary and background knowledge (Lyon, Shaywitz, & Shaywitz, 2003:2 cf. Thompson, 2013). It is a condition not a disease which may persist to adulthood and through life, if unchecked. However, proper and timely intervention can douse its effects on literacy skills and living.

This disorder is attested world-wide (Lallier, 2104; Thompson, 2013; Mortimore, Hansen, Hutchings, Northcote, Fernando, Horobin, Saunders & Everatt, 2012; Snowling, 2008; Langberg, 2007; Rose, 2009; Reid & Fawcett, 2005) and occurs in students irrespective of their mother-tongue. Currently, diagnostic tests administered in Nigeria are adopted from English standardized test which are in turn adapted from the western world. Some of these tests have been adapted for immediate uses in Nigerian Languages. While efforts at localizing them are acknowledged, it raises the questions regarding the applicability, reliability and validity of such tests. However, decisions regarding the presence or absence of learning disability in reading in students are currently based on predictors from assessment of this nature.

2.0 Learning Disability and Literacy

The term ‘literacy’ seems to be a term everyone understands particularly if a narrow view as expressed by Wilkins (1980:5) is considered – a literate person is someone who can understand written language. However, the concept has proved to be both complex and dynamic. It has continued to be interpreted and defined in a multiplicity of ways. Individual, group and people’s views of what constitute literacy and illiteracy are shaped by a number of factors; academic research, institutional agendas, national context, cultural values and personal experiences (Education for All report 2006:147). United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) lends support to the idea of a ‘fundamental education’, this occasioned her 1958 statement that ‘a literate person is one who can, with understanding, both read and write a short simple statement on his or her everyday life.’ They further recognize what is regarded as multiple literacies and a view of literacy as a continuum.

Learning disability in reading is manifested differently in terms of severity and varies with settings and environment. Hence, identification, comprehensive assessment and management of such cases need to be expanded to accommodate differential diagnosis to distinguish between and among other disorders, syndromes, and factors that can interfere with the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning, or mathematical abilities; one such important factor is ‘language of testing’.

More often than not, in developing nations like Nigeria, people with various visible disabilities or disorders suffer neglect and are considered outcasts in the society. It is therefore not surprising that people with dyslexia (being a non-visible disability) suffer in silence. Hence, instances of students with learning disabilities abound in our mainstream schools and they remain unattended. It is almost natural that students who fail to make educational progress will manifest other behavioural and social problems. They are thus often characterized by avoidance of tasks, disorganized study habits, overreaction, lack of attention and poor use of time (Olashinde, 1994). Failure and frustration in school often breed aggressive behavior which may spread to all facets of life.

Previously, the primary issues in the identification and assessment of learning disability in reading are summed up as follows:

the construction and validation problem of identification tools, identification criteria, identification of reasons for the occurrence of a particular learning disability, identification of co-occurrence (co-morbid) of other deficits along with Learning Disabilities in an individual, the implication of learning disability on the overall functioning of an individual and the probable causes of the deficit (Ahmad 2015).

The National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (NJCLD, 1994) views on issues important to an understanding of current concerns on learning disability can be summed up in the above as presented by Ahmad (2015). However, ‘lack of sufficient competent personnel and appropriate programs to support the efforts of the teachers to accommodate the needs of children who do not have learning disabilities but who require alternative instructional methods’ was not captured in Ahmad (2015). NJCLD (1994) addressed the concerns by emphasizing the importance of integrating assessment, diagnosis, and procedures that lead to a diagnosis of learning disability and eligibility for services.

- Learning disabilities are manifested differently over time, in severity and various settings.
- Differential diagnosis is necessary to distinguish between and among other disorders, syndromes, and factors that can interfere with the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning, or mathematical abilities.
- A comprehensive assessment is needed for diagnosis and for planning an appropriate intervention program
- A multidisciplinary team is necessary for assessing, diagnosing, and determining provision of services.
- A clear distinction must be made between ‘diagnosis of learning disability’ and ‘eligibility for specific services’

The NJCLD recommends that all agencies and individuals concerned with the assessment and diagnosis of learning disability carefully put into consideration the above recommendations. They did not make any statement about language used in testing and how this may and may not affect result of assessment.

Admittedly, there are not enough special education teachers to go round our mainstream elementary and secondary schools. Yet, text has become an integral part of basic social, political and economic institutions – in offices, law courts, libraries, banks and training centers – and the notion of ‘literate

societies' has become pertinent (EFA, 2006). The fate of students with dyslexia in such schools is to suffer in silence. However, literate societies are far more than locales offering access to printed matter, written records, visual materials and advanced technologies. They also enable the free exchange of text-based information and provide an array of opportunities for lifelong learning. Moreover, the aim of teaching is not to produce learning but to create an environment conducive for learning to take place. Literacy in mother tongue in Nigeria would grant access to unlimited human resource and development like never before. Putting in view that students do not arrive school as a vacuum but with latent knowledge seeking expression.

Thus, this paper suggests an alternate system of education which embraces the use of Nigerian languages (mother-tongue literacy) as espoused by the National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013) and the use of indigenous languages for screening for learning disability. When this is put into consideration and implemented, students will test differently and better therapeutic approaches would be born in the management of learning disability. This will result in the reduction of the incidence of school failure in Nigeria occasioned by her linguistic heterogeneity. Given that learning disabilities may show in a second language when they are not present in one's first. Conversely, a learning disability may be so subtle in a first language that it is masked by an individual's compensatory strategies.

3.0 Purpose of the study

The central purpose of this study is to stress the need and importance of the implementation of the Language policy of the National Policy on Education. The study therefore tends to:

- Examine the effect of language of testing in the assessment of learning disability in reading
- Raise awareness for a mother-tongue based evaluation for learning disability
- Identify that students in certain school setting stand a higher-risk of learning disability

4.0 Research questions

The following questions have been raised;

- Is reading outcome different in line with language used in screening for learning disability in reading?
- What is the effect of language of testing on assessment of learning disability in reading?
- What role does learning environment (school setting) play in literacy development?

5.0 Methodology

The method employed in this research is tease out under the following headings; research design, participants, instrument, procedure of data collection and data analysis.

5.1 Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey strategy with research questions generated. It examined how language of assessment influences identification of dyslexia. Subjects were selected from private and government primary schools in Ibadan.

5.2 Participants

The sampled pupils and schools were selected purposively using multi-staged random sampling method. 86 pupils from private and public schools in Ibadan participated in this survey. These

pupils in Upper Basic Classes 4 and 5 filled out Bilingual Reading Achievement Test (BRAT) made up of questions presented in Yorùbá and English. The selected schools are settings where English language is the medium of instruction for all subjects except for language courses such as Yorùbá. English language also enjoys the benefit of been recognized as the language of communication within the school premises with indigenous languages been pejoratively regarded as vernacular.

Table 1 shows in percentages the demographic information about the respondents. Thirty three point seven percent (33.7%) of the pupils are 10 years old while 1.2% is 15 years old. Thus majority of the sampled pupils are under 15. Also, 59.3% of the sampled population was drawn from private schools while the remaining 40.7% is from government owned schools. 54.7% of the pupils are in basic 4 while 45.3% are pupils of basic 5. A total of 51.2% of the respondents are females while that of male stands at 48.8%.

Table 1: Demographic Variables

Demographic characteristics		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	42	48.8
	Female	44	51.2
	Total	86	100
Age	8 years	4	4.7
	9 years	27	31.4
	10 years	29	33.7
	11 years	12	14.0
	12 years	9	10.5
	13 years	2	2.3
	14 years	2	2.3
	15 years	1	1.2
	Total	86	100
	Class	Basic 4	47
Basic 5		39	45.3
Total		86	100
School	Private	51	59.3
	Public	35	40.7
	Total	86	100

5.3 Instrument

Bilingual Reading Achievement Test (BRAT) is the instrument deployed to elicit the data. It is a researcher-developed scale that adapted comprehension passages from English textbook for public schools – Modular English Course for Primary Schools, Evans Brothers (Nigeria Publishers) limited, and Eko Ede Yorùbá Ode Oni, Macmillan Publishers Limited and popular texts used in private schools e.g. Mastering English by M.O. Odiaka. The reliability and content validity of the instrument was established using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability coefficient indices of the instrument are; 0.637 and 0.548 for BRAT in English and BRAT in Yorùbá respectively. All items with less than 0.1 and negative values for 'corrected item-total correlation' were removed to yield the reliability coefficient.

5.3.1 Composition of the Bilingual Reading Achievement Test (BRAT)

BRAT is made of comprehension passages adapted from textbooks and other exercises that test word recognition, phonological awareness and reading fluency. It was completed by the pupils and presented in 2 languages; English and Yorùbá.

The English part of the BRAT consists of 32 questions divided into 5 sections.

Section A this section has its focus on fluency test. Pupils were presented a comprehension passage which they are expected to read aloud and this was recorded for further analysis. This is aimed at testing the pupils' skill on sight words, reading speed, and verbal processing speed.

Section B presents a comprehension passage this is aimed at assessing the pupils' ability in reading comprehension and they are expected to answer questions in the spaces provided below the passage. This section has 6 questions.

Test on vocabulary form and tense is brought to bear in **Section C**. pupils are to answer 6 questions. They are expected to fill the blank spaces provided with the appropriate form of words in the bracket.

Section D consists of 10 questions. Pupils are expected to make up words by using any of the letters provided to complete word formation process. Adjoined to this section are images which pupils are expected to identify and write their names in the spaces provided? There are 5 images in all.

The last section focuses on phonological awareness i.e. the ability of pupils to match grapheme to phonemes. In this section, pupils were expected to select from the options lettered A to D the letter that has the sound that is the same as the underlined sound in the key word. In judging this, pupils are to answer 5 questions.

The Yorùbá part of the BRAT consists of 17 questions divided into 4 sections.

Section A presents a comprehension passage this is aimed at assessing the pupils' ability in reading comprehension and they are expected to answer questions in the spaces provided below the passage. This section has 6 questions.

Section B borders on word recognition therefore pupils were presented with images of objects localized to their cultural setting. They were to identify and write their names in the spaces provided. Five images are in this section.

Section C tests pupils' numeration skills in Yorùbá. Pupils were asked to name 6 numerals in Yorùbá.

Section D is the last section has its focus on fluency test. Pupils were presented a comprehension passage which they are expected to read aloud and this was recorded for further analysis. This is aimed at testing the pupils' skill on sight words, reading speed, and verbal processing speed.

5.5 Data Analysis

Data were analysed using Statistical Package of the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18 and results presented in percentages, graphs, and frequency table. Also, miscue analysis was employed to examine oral reading. Miscue analysis focus on reading comprehension rather than decoding of

individual words and letters. Miscue is any departure from the text by the reader (this provides picture of the underlying cognitive processes).

6.0 Findings and Discussion

The performances of pupils differ from one another on the basis of school setting (i.e. private versus public) and in line with their level of comprehension of the read passages. This is expressed below in percentages. The performances of the pupils in different sections of the BRAT they were presented in their L₁ and L₂, Yorùbá and English respectively.

Result of performance in L₁ (Yorùbá)

8.2% of participants in private school had a raw score of zero, while 26.2% scored between one and two and 65.6% had a raw score of three and above. On the contrary, 42.9% of the participants in public school scored zero, while 54.3% scored between one and two and 2.9% scored three in reading comprehension.

13.1% of the participants in private school had a raw score of zero, while 67.2% scored between one and two and 19.7% had a raw score of three and above. On the contrary, 31.4% of the participants from public school scored zero, while 51.5% scored between one and two and 17.1% scored three and above in the test on object identification.

49.2% of the participants in private school had a raw score of zero, while 37.7% scored between one and two and 13.1% had a raw score of three and above. On the contrary, 91.4% of the participants from public school scored zero, while 8.6% scored one and non above that in numeration.

Results of performance in L₂ (English)

3.6% of the participants in private school had a raw score of zero, while 26.8% scored one and two and 32.2% had a raw score of three and above. On the contrary, 76.7% of the participants from public school had a raw score of zero and the remaining 23.3% scored between one and two thus indicating a low or poor level of comprehension.

1.8% of the participants in private school had a raw score of zero, while 98.2% had three and above. On the contrary, 3.3% of the participants from public school had a raw score of zero, while 20% score between one and two and 76.7% scored three and above in the word recognition exercise.

5.4% of the participants in private school had a raw score of zero, while 3.6% scored between one and two and 91% had a raw score of three and above. On the contrary, 30% of the participants from public school had a raw score of zero, while 26.7% scored between one and two and 43.3% had a raw score of three and above in test on phonological awareness.

The summary of the above statistics is presented in figures²³ 1 and 2, showing the level of pupils' performance as judged by their level of understanding of the read comprehension passages in Yorùbá and English in both private and pupil schools.

²³ Refer to appendix for descriptive tables for the figures.

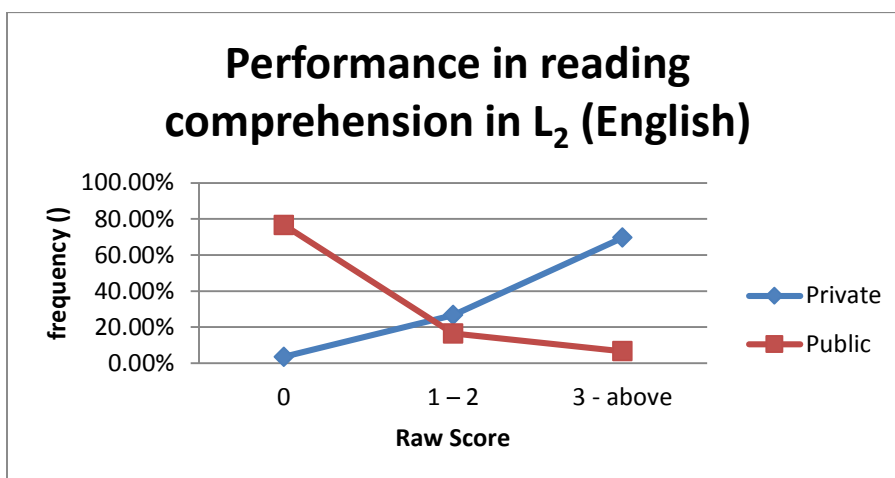


Fig. 1 performance in reading comprehension in L₂ (English)

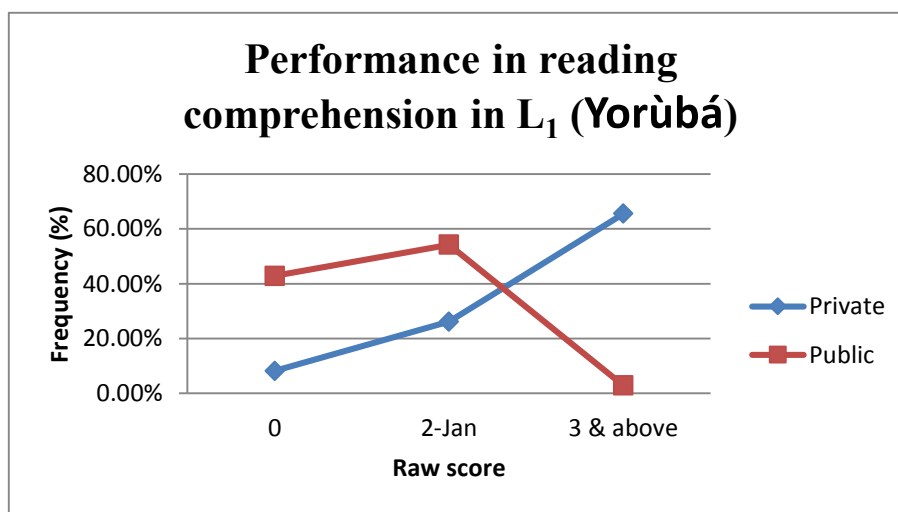


Fig. 2 performance in reading comprehension in L₁ (Yorùbá)

6.1 Discussion

From the foregoing, performance of the pupils on the BRAT differs on the basis of the setting in which they are acquiring reading skills. Exposure to written Yorùbá is limited in the public schools despite its wide use in verbal communication. Also, transparency of the Yorùbá orthography resulted in the low percentage of those who could not understand and make sense of the comprehension passage compared with English since 42.9% had zero as raw score in L₁ BRAT (Yorùbá) while 76.7% had zero as raw score in L₂ BRAT (English). While for their counterparts in private school, the relation is different 8.2% had a raw score of zero in L₁ BRAT (Yorùbá) and 3.6% had zero in L₂ BRAT (English). Thus only a few of the pupils could not make sense of the read passage in English fewer than those who could not in Yorùbá. This is expressed in the fig. 1 and 2.

There is an inverse relation between pupils performance in reading comprehension in Yorùbá and English within the sampled population. Since, larger percentage of the pupils from public school did not comprehend or could not read the passage in English language compared with the few with similar problem in private school (76.7% and 3.6% respectively). In Yorùbá, similar thing apply with 42.9% and 8.2% in public and private school pupils respectively showing no understanding of or could not read the passage judging from their performance. The implication is that mother-tongue literacy (or literary awareness in mother-tongue) has not been effective in the government owned schools despite the prevalent use of indigenous languages in oral communication in such settings. However, this is not to say private school owners particularly revere the National Policy on Education but they have ensured the continued teaching of Nigerian languages. Yet, others treat indigenous languages with disdain tagging them vernacular.

The implication of the above on assessment of learning disability in reading is that one cannot say with assertion that the entire 76.7% and 42.9% of the sampled pupils from public school are sufferers of the form of learning disability known as dyslexia, in English and Yorùbá respectively. Some might have been misclassified on the basis of improper exposure to enabling environment for literacy development. Also, the language of testing has proven to be significant and a determinant of test result going by the percentage difference in the population with reading comprehension difficulty. Seventy-six point seven percent (76.7%) and 42.9% of respondents from public school and 3.6% and 8.2% of respondents from private school in English and Yorùbá respectively have shown strong indications of learning disability. Given the statistics, less percentage of respondents from private school has reading difficulty in English language compared to Yorùbá language. Conversely, less percentage of the respondents in public school has reading difficulty in Yorùbá compared to that of English language.

7.0 Conclusion

Expanding the scope of language of testing to accommodate mother tongue would give room to determine whether mother tongue development goes beyond the learner's conversational skills. Thus, whether a learner can use his/her mother tongue for cognitive development as an academic language i.e. for teaching and learning purposes can be determined. It would also ensure proper identification and evaluation of disability in children. Moreover, there is the need to develop assessment test in Nigerian languages that would entail a battery of assessment tools administered in mother tongue including among others an intelligence test, an aptitude test, a visual perceptual test, a reading, spelling and writing test as well as mathematics proficiency test.

8.0 Recommendations

The present study has proved that pupils ability to read in Yorùbá and English vary and would change more depending on the kind of exposure they have to develop the requisite skills needed for reading acquisition. There is therefore the need to raise the standard and quality of education in government owned school. Given the wide spread use of Yorùbá within the school system in the public school, majority within the sampled population cannot read at age-matched level neither in Yorùbá or English language. Furthermore, it is important that governments, at all levels, make available materials that would aid the teaching of indigenous languages across board; as well make funds available to support research towards advancing and promoting the reach of indigenous languages in Nigeria.

References

- Ahmad, F.K. (2015). Exploring the invisible: Issues in identification and assessment of students with learning disabilities in India *Transcience* Vol. 6, Issue 1
- American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, (1994). *Issue in learning disabilities: assessment and diagnosis [Technical Report]*. www.asha.org/policy/TR1994-00140.htm
- Education for All (EFA) Mentoring report (2006). *Literacy for life*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Publishing 2006:147
<http://www.uis.unesco.org/Library/Documents/gmr06-en.pdf>
- Education for All (EFA) Mentoring report (2015). *Education for All 2000 – 2015: Achievements and Challenges*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Publishing <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002322/23220e.pdf>
- Federal Republic of Nigeria (2013). *National policy on education*. Lagos: NERDC Press
- Fernandez, E. M., & Cairns H. S. (2010). *Fundamentals of Psycholinguistics*. Wiley & Sons Ltd, The Atrium, Southern Gate, Chichester
- International Dyslexia Association. (2008). Dyslexia basics. [fact sheet]. Retrieved from <http://www.interdys.org/FactSheets.htm>
- International Dyslexia Association. (2009). Dyslexia treatment programs. [Position Statement]. Retrieved from [http://www.interdys.org/ewebeditpro5/upload/IDA_Position_Statement_Dyslexia_Treatment_Programs_template\(1\).pdf](http://www.interdys.org/ewebeditpro5/upload/IDA_Position_Statement_Dyslexia_Treatment_Programs_template(1).pdf)
- Lallier, M., Valdois, S., Lassus-Sangosse, D., Prado, C., & Kandel, S. (2014). Impact of Orthographic Transparency on typical and atypical reading development: Evidence in French-Spanish bilingual children *Research in Developmental Disabilities* 35 (2014) pp 1177 – 1190 retrieved from http://webcom.upmf-grenoble.fr/LPNC/IMG/pdf/Lallier_Valdois_Lassus_Prado_Kandel_2014_French-Spanish_dyslexics.pdf
- Langberg, M. (2007). Assessment of Dyslexia in Bilinguals Master Thesis retrieved from <http://dspace.library.uu.nl/bitstream/handle/1874/24922/MA%20Thesis%20Linguistics-Assessment%20of%20Dyslexia%20in%20Bilinguals.doc?sequence=1> on 30/12/2014 pp1-50
- Lyon, G. R., Shaywitz, S., & Shaywitz, B. A. (2003). A definition of dyslexia. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 53, 1-14. Retrieved from <http://0-web.ebscohost.com.oasis.unisa.ac.za/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=03a0a479-5f66-4041-bddb-906e5d6f29ba%40sessionmgr14&vid=4&hid=12>
- MacBeath, J. (2012). *Future of Teaching Profession*. Education International Research institute University of Cambridge
- Matthews, P.H., (2007). *Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics*, Oxford University press

- Mellwraith, H. (2013). Multilingual Education in Africa: Lessons from the Juba Language-in-Education Conference British Council Brand and Design
https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/C413%20Juba%20Publication_FINAL_WEB%20ONLY%20v3.pdf
- Mortimore, T., Hansen, L., Hutchings, M., Northcote, A., Fernando, J., Horobin, L., Saunders, K., & Everatt, J. (2012). Dyslexia and Multilingualism: Identifying and supporting bilingual learners who might be at risk of developing SpLD/dyslexia. *Research Report* pp1-174 retrieved from <http://www.bdadyslexia.org.uk/files/Big-Lottery-Research-Report.pdf> on 20/2/14
- Olashinde, O. (1994). Learning Disabilities in Secondary Schools: Challenge to Educational Psychologists and Counsellors *Ife Psychologia An International Journal*. Vol. 2 No.2 p.173-185
- Rose, J. (2009). *Identifying and Teaching Children and Young People with Dyslexia and Literacy Difficulties* downloaded from www.teachernet.gov.uk/publications
- Snowling, J.M., & Stackhouse, J. (2006). *Dyslexia, Speech and Language: A Practitioner's Handbook*. 2nd edition
- The Dyslexia Handbook (2014). Procedures Concerning Dyslexia and related disorders Texas Education Agency Retrieved from http://www.ut-ucs.org/apps/download/L8JM02WqSlthTDpxJpDac5JKWA43YTYOo2RPsOr9JAQgLSVM.pdf/Texas%20Dyslexia%20Handbook_%20Revised%202014.pdf on 18/12/2014
- The National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (NJCLD) American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, 1994. *Issue in learning disabilities: assessment and diagnosis [Technical Report]*. www.asha.org/policy/TR1994-00140.htm
- Thompson, L. S. (2013). Dyslexia: An Investigation of Teacher Awareness in Mainstream High Schools, M.A dissertation submitted to the Department of Psychology University of South Africa pp.i-141 Retrieved from http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/13373/Thompson_LS.pdf?sequence=1 on 30/11/2014
- Wilkins, D.A. (1980). *Linguistics in Language Teaching* Edward Arnold London

Appendix

Table 1 showing summary of performance of pupils in reading comprehension in L₂ (English)

	0	1 – 2	3 & above
Private	3.60%	26.80%	69.70%
Public	76.70%	16.60%	6.70%

Table 2 showing summary of performance of pupils in reading comprehension in L₁ (Yorùbá)

	0	1 – 2	3 & above
Private	8.20%	26.20%	65.60%
Public	42.90%	54.30%	2.90%