



Website: www.jehp.net

DOI:

10.4103/jehp.jehp_1652_23

Assessing the relationship between dyslexia, psychological distress, and academic self-efficacy among Nigerian university undergraduates

Bede C. Akpunne, Oladoyin Idowu, Daniel O. Kumuyi¹, Elizabeth N. Akpunne

Abstract:

BACKGROUND: Academic self-efficacy refers to the student's beliefs and attitudes toward their capabilities to achieve academic success, as well as belief in their ability to fulfil academic tasks and the successful learning of the materials. The influence of dyslexia on academic self-efficacy and psychological distress among Nigerian students is underresearched in this study. This study investigated the relationship between dyslexia, psychological distress, and academic self-efficacy.

MATERIALS AND METHOD: A total of 460 undergraduates purposively drawn from the University of Lagos, Nigeria, of over 10,000 undergraduate population, with a mean age of 26 \pm 5 years, responded to the Academic Self-Efficacy Scale, the dyslexia adult checklist, the 12-item General Health Questionnaire, and Adult Reading History Questionnaire. Data were analyzed descriptively, and the regression analysis and *T*-tests were used for statistical analysis, with a significance threshold of P < 0.05.

RESULTS: The results showed that dyslexia is a significant predictor of academic self-efficacy ($\beta=0.34$, t = 7.31, P<0.01). Dyslexia strongly predicted performance in examination [$\beta=0.32$, F = 48.18, P=0.00], comprehension [$\beta=0.32$, F = 33.54, P=0.00], school adjustment [$\beta=0.32$, F = 35.86, P=0.00], reading skill [$\beta=0.21$, F = 18.65, P=0.00], working memory [$\beta=0.26$, F = 28.5, P=0.00], and time management [$\beta=0.21$, F = 19.8, P=0.00] among the undergraduates. In addition, dyslexia significantly predicted psychological distress [t 41) = 1.40, P=0.65]. Gender had no significant influence on academic self-efficacy and psychological distress among the participants [t 41) = 1.33, P=0.19].

CONCLUSION: Dyslexia is a strong predictor of academic self-efficacy and psychological distress. Male and female Nigerian undergraduates have similar academic self-efficacy and psychological distress.

Keywords:

Academic self-efficacy, dyslexia, psychological distress, university undergraduates

Redeemer's University, Ede Osun State, Nigeria, ¹Department of Behavioural Science

and Ethics. St Matthew's

University, West Bay,

Cayman Islands

Department of Psychology,

Address for correspondence:
Dr. Daniel O. Kumuyi, Department of Behaviour and Ethics, St Matthew's University, West Bay, Cayman Islands.
E-mail: kumuyi6212@run.

Received: 16-10-2023 Accepted: 02-05-2024 Published: 29-08-2024

edu.ng

Introduction

A lbert Bandura is credited with coining the term "self-efficacy," which refers to a person's subjective evaluation of their own ability to perform a certain task. [1] Self-efficacy and motivation are tightly associated. [2,3] Additionally, self-efficacy is a method for understanding and forecasting thoughts,

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: WKHLRPMedknow_reprints@wolterskluwer.com

feelings, and actions as well as organizing and carrying out action plans to accomplish particular goals. [1] It is less concerned with a person's talents and skills. It takes into account what people believe they can do with their skills and abilities, which is of greater importance. All things considered, self-efficacy plays a self-regulatory role by enabling individuals to exert control over

How to cite this article: Akpunne BC, Idowu O, Kumuyi DO, Akpunne EN. Assessing the relationship between dyslexia, psychological distress, and academic self-efficacy among Nigerian university undergraduates. J Edu Health Promot 2024;13:315.

their cognitive processes and behaviors, changing their environments. [4]

Self-efficacy beliefs affect how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and conduct themselves. ^[5] Self-efficacy beliefs are the cornerstone of human motivation, well-being, and personal achievement. ^[3] This is due to the fact that people lack the motivation to act or to persist in the face of challenges unless they have faith in their ability to bring about the results they deserve. A wealth of empirical data supports Bandura's assertion that self-efficacy beliefs affect almost every aspect of people's lives. ^[3,6] Examples include whether people think productively, self-debilitatingly, pessimistically, or optimistically and how well they motivate themselves, their susceptibility to stress and depression, and their life decisions.

According to the self-efficacy idea, an individual's importance and perception of his or her own abilities are key contributors to successful outcomes. According to self-efficacy theory, everyone has the ability to succeed given the chance and the confidence to do so.^[7,8] The self-efficacy hypothesis stresses how people can feel more in charge of their life and empowered, which would make it easier for them to achieve their goals.^[8] The self-efficacy theory refutes the idea that successful people are inherently better than unsuccessful people. According to the self-efficacy hypothesis, those who are now struggling might not have had access to the mastery experiences or role-modelling required to grow highly effective levels of self-efficacy.^[8]

Self-doubt and avoiding circumstances where one fears one would fail are symptoms of low self-efficacy. The amount of effort people put into tasks and the length of time they will persevere in the face of difficulties can both be influenced by self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a very effective predictor of students' motivation and learning. It forecasts academic progress and career choices across domains and age groups. [10] Negative correlations have been shown between self-efficacy and dyslexia. [11]

Dyslexic students are more likely than the general population to drop out of high school, and they are also less likely to graduate from a four-year college. [12] Most students with learning disabilities tend to acquire good behavioral or emotional coping mechanisms to make up for their disabilities in order to deal with difficulties or challenges in their schooling. Givon and Court, and also Heiman, and Kariv found that the majority of students with dyslexia utilize harmful coping mechanisms, such as not admitting they have a learning disability and not using accommodations, and they also refuse to receive any kind of exceptional aid from others. [13,14] Due to stigmatization, students with dyslexia are more prone

to feel emotional instability and inferiority, which leads to a considerably more negative academic self-concept and worse academic and overall self-esteem compared to their peers.^[15-18]

According to additional research, students with learning difficulties are more likely to struggle with relationships, social engagement, and general peer interaction, which lowers their social status. They have little to no social skills if their dyslexia is not well handled. [19-21] As opposed to receiving special assistance in self-contained special education classes or resource rooms, children with learning disabilities who receive in-class support or take part in inclusive programs are more socially accepted by their peers and feel less lonely. [22] The aforementioned issues may persist into adulthood, resulting in feelings of inadequacy, uncertainty, and anxiety as well as trouble making and maintaining social connections. [23] Adults with dyslexia are at risk for having low self-esteem, according to research.[17] However, an important and growing number of students with learning disabilities are able to continue their education and earn a degree from a university or college with effort and perseverance.^[12]

The signs of psychological distress are common in dyslexic children, adolescents, and adults who experienced difficulties in school. [24-26] They may be subjected to repeated humiliation by other kids and pressure from parents, teachers, or other caregivers who do not comprehend them, which may be the cause of their issues, frustration, and loneliness in life. These issues may eventually lead to a negative self-concept. [26] According to earlier research, students with dyslexia employ more defensive self-handicapping techniques. [27] Dyslexics are more likely to experience feelings of perplexity, anger, negativity, anxiety, hopelessness, and depression.

Reading, writing, math, memory, and organizational issues are just a few of the many difficulties that children with learning disabilities (LD) frequently face. [26] For many people, intense feelings of annoyance, anger, grief, or embarrassment can result in behavioral problems like substance abuse or juvenile delinquency as well as psychological disorders like anxiety, depression, and low self-esteem. The GreatSchools staff expressed their opinion that despite their efforts, dyslexic youngsters frequently receive little praise. Instead, parents, instructors, and other students regularly criticize and condemn them for their academic difficulties and failures. As a result, rather than feeling proud of their achievements, these kids frequently end up in a muck of frustration and embarrassment.^[26] Even when others offer assistance and motivation, ongoing struggle and failure can lead to the development of a poor self-image. A cycle of failure and negativity is reinforced by low self-esteem and uncertainty, which hinder learning and academic success.^[26] Over time, such children stop trying and enter a state of learned helplessness and see little or no connection between their efforts and ultimate outcomes.^[28]

Dyslexic students frequently experience stress and failure in school, [29] feel that academicians do not understand their condition,[30] and think that they are sluggish.[31] According to studies, dyslexic university students had more somatic complaints, social issues, worse self-esteem, and higher depression scores than their counterparts. [32,33] It might be assumed that dyslexic undergraduate students had overcome their negative self-perception. However, dyslexic students still struggle with a variety of academic skills even when they are admitted to universities. [30] The current study examines how dyslexia affects university undergraduates' academic self-efficacy and psychological distress. It is expected that among Nigerian undergraduates, dyslexia will strongly predict academic self-efficacy and psychological distress. Additionally, participants' reports of academic self-efficacy and psychological distress will differ between men and women.

Materials and Methods

Study design and setting

The design of the study is a cross-sectional survey method. The design enabled the researcher to collect information on the phenomenon of dyslexia on academic self-efficacy and psychological distress to examine them among undergraduate students in different departments. This survey was used to identify and examine the interplay and establish the possible hypothesis that dyslexia could affect academic self-efficacy and psychological distress due to attainment of academic achievement borne out of different students, dependent on the individual. The design also allowed the researcher to discuss the variables interested in the population. The dependent variables considered here are academic self-efficacy and psychological distress, while the independent variable considered is dyslexia with sociodemographic variables

This study focuses on the University of Lagos used only undergraduate students of the institution across the faculties. The faculties comprise Faculty of Sciences, Faculty of Social Sciences, Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Humanities/Arts, Faculty of Law, Faculty of Medicine, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Management Sciences, and various departments in these faculties.

Study participants and sampling

Only undergraduate students from the University of Lagos' various faculties were employed in this investigation. The faculties include sciences, social sciences, engineering, humanities/arts, law, medicine,

education, and management sciences, as well as many departments within each of these faculties. Purposive sampling was used to choose participants from the sampled faculties. A total of 460 respondents were included in the survey, including 165 from the faculty of social science, 85 from the faculty of sciences, 50 from the faculty of humanities and arts, 40 from the faculty of engineering, 40 from the faculty of law, 20 from the faculty of medicine, 20 from the faculty of education, and 40 from the faculty of management sciences.

Data collection tools and techniques

A battery of three instruments was further adapted and used as tools for data collection. Names and details of the scales are as follows:

Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (ASES)

Based on Bandura^[1] self-efficacy theory, the Academic Self-Efficacy Scale and School Image Scale is a prepared and standardized academic self-efficacy scales for high school students. It is based on the notion that high school students' performance in each area of their studies will contribute to their overall academic self-efficacy. The inclusion of representative items from each of the construct's dimensions (learning process, reading, comprehension, memory, learning activities, time management, teacher-student relationships, peer relationships, resource use, goal orientation, coordination, and testing) as well as expert assessments of the face validity allowed for the assurance of construct validity. Test-retest coefficient of correlation was 0.85, indicating stability of score over time. Split-half reliability is 0.90. Concurrent validity with the criterion 'General Self-Efficacy Scale' is 0.43.[34]

Dyslexia adult checklist

The dyslexia adult checklist^[29] and the British Dyslexia Association use it. It measures dyslexia among both adolescents and the adult population. The scale has 15 items, and it is scored on a 4-point Likert scale. The first ten items are scored on a scale of Rarely, Occasionally, Often, and Most of the Time.

The final five items on this scale are additionally graded as Easy, Challenging, Difficult, and Very Difficult. Less than a 45 implies that you are not dyslexic. People with dyslexia who have undergone a thorough evaluation were given the dyslexia adult checklist. It was discovered that no one who was given a comprehensive evaluation had a score below 45; it is improbable that someone with a score below 45 has dyslexia. Scores of 45 to 60 indicate symptoms of mild to moderate dyslexia. However, a few people who had never before received a dyslexia diagnosis fell into the mild-moderate category. A score of more than 60 suggests evidence of moderate to severe dyslexia.

General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12)

The General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) is a self-administered screening tool designed for use in consultation settings to identify people who have a diagnosable mental illness.^[35] In addition to being a more general measure of psychiatric well-being, the 12-Item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) is the most widely used screening instrument for common mental disorders. Its brevity makes it suitable for use in busy clinical settings, as well as in situations where patients require assistance in completing questionnaire [36]; its psychometric properties have been investigated in many countries. [37] The GHQ-12 has been used among the Nigerian population and has good psychometric properties. [38-40]

Adult Reading History Questionnaire (ARHQ)

A self-report screening tool called the Adult Reading History Questionnaire (ARHQ)^[41] assesses for dyslexia. The ARHQ quizzes adults to find out if they are likely to have a reading disability by asking them about their reading history and present reading habits^[41] established the ARHQ's validity and reliability, and normative scores are based on real testing. ARHQ has Cronbach's alphas of 0.94 and 0.92 from two samples which exhibited internal consistency. Significant correlations (0.87 and 0.84 in the two samples) between an earlier and improved questionnaire version across several years revealed test-retest reliability.^[41]

Ethical consideration

The research intention and procedure were examined and approved by the Internal Research Ethics Committee's (IREC) of Redeemer's University, Ede, Osun State Nigeria, and the Oyo State Ministry of Education, ethical research committee. The research was carried out following the ethical standards laid down in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki.

Results

The distribution of demographic variables by gender shows that 184 (44.6%) respondents are male, while 229 (55.4%) are female. The mean \pm standard deviation of the age of participants is 20.7 ± 2.6 . Distribution of respondents by faculty shows that 163 (39.5%) respondents are from faculty of social sciences, 81 (19.6%) respondents are from faculty of sciences, 46 (11.1%) respondents are from faculty of humanities/arts, 34 (8.2%) respondents are from faculty of engineering, 25 (6.1%) respondents are from faculty of law, 20 (4.8%) respondents are from faculty of medicine, 13 (3.1%) respondents are from faculty of education, and 31 (7.5%) respondents are from faculty of management sciences. Distribution of respondents by the level of study shows that 138 (33.4%) are from 100 level, 125 (30.3%) are from

200 level, 68 (16.5) are from 300 level, 53 (12.8) are from 400 level, and 29 (7.0%) are from 500 level.

Test of hypotheses

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the predictive influence of dyslexia on the academic self-efficacy of undergraduates at the University of Lagos (UNILAG), Nigeria. The result shown in Table 1 reveals that dyslexia significantly predicted academic self-efficacy among the participants (β = 0.34, t = 7.31, P < 0.01). The analysis in Table 1 further shows an R^2 of 0.12, which suggests that a 12.0% variance of academic self-efficacy is explained by dyslexia among the participants [F (1, 41) = 53.47, P = 0.00].

To further understand the predictive influence of dyslexia on the dimensions of academic self-efficacy, a regression analysis was conducted such that dimensions of performance in examination, comprehension, and adjustment were regressed on dyslexia; the results are presented in Table 1.

The result summarized in Table 2 reveals that dyslexia significantly predicted examination performance among the participants $[\beta = 0.32, F = 48.18, P = 0.00]$. This reported an R² of 0.11, which suggests that an 11.0% variance of examination performance among the participants is explained by dyslexia. The table further revealed that dyslexia significantly predicted the levels of comprehension [$\beta = 0.32$, F = 33.54, P = 0.00] and school adjustment [β = 0.32, F = 35.86, P = 0.00] among the participants. Further analysis of the interactions between dyslexia and comprehension showed an R² of 0.08. This suggests that 8.0% variance of comprehension among the participants is explained by dyslexia. In addition, an R² of 0.08, an indication that 8.0% variance of school adjustment among the participants is explained by dyslexia.

Table 2 further revealed that dyslexia significantly predicted the degrees of reading skill [β = 0.21, F = 18.65, P = 0.00], working memory [β = 0.26, F = 28.5, P = 0.00] and time management [β = 0.21, F = 19.8, P = 0.00] among the participants. In addition, the observed R² of 0.04, 0.07, and 0.05 was reported for reading skill, working memory, and time management, respectively. This suggests that 4% variance in reading skills, 7% variance in working memory, and 5% variance in time management are explained by dyslexia among undergraduates.

Table 1: Regression analysis of the influence of dyslexia on academic self-efficacy among UNILAG undergraduates

| | В | β | t | Sig | R | R ² | F | P |
|------------|-------|------|-------|------|------|------------|-------|------|
| (Constant) | 70.54 | | 19.33 | 0.00 | 0.34 | 0.12 | 53.47 | 0.00 |
| Dyslexia | 0.72 | 0.34 | 7.31 | 0.00 | | | | |

In conclusion, this result revealed that dyslexia is a significant predictor of studied dimensions of academic self-efficacy (performance in examination, comprehension, school adjustment, reading skills, working memory, and time management) among the participants.

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the predictive influence of dyslexia on psychological distress among undergraduate students at the University of Lagos, Nigeria. The result shown in Table 3 reveals that dyslexia significantly predicted psychological distress among the participants (β = 0.15, t = 3.03, P < 0.01). The analysis summarized in Table 3 further shows an R² of 0.02, which suggests that 2.0% variance of psychological distress among the participants is explained by dyslexia [F(1,41)=9.17,P=0.00]. Based on this result, it is concluded that dyslexia is a significant predictor of psychological distress among the university of Lagos undergraduates.

An independent sample *t*-test was carried out to determine the influence of gender on academic self-efficacy scores among university of Lagos undergraduates. As summarized in Table 4, the *t*-test scores showed that there were 184 male and 229 female participants surveyed, while the mean (± SD) of academic self-efficacy scores was 97.89 ± 19.12 and 95.21 ± 19.45 , respectively. The significant 2-tailed *P* value associated with this test was 0. The t-test reveals no statistically significantly reliable difference between the mean of academic self-efficacy scores of the male students and that of their female counterparts [t 41) = 1.40, P = 0.65]. Therefore, it can be concluded that the academic self-efficacy of the male participants is similar to that of their female students. This result shows no statistically significant gender difference in academic self-efficacy among the Nigerian Undergraduates.

An independent sample *t*-test was carried out to determine the influence of gender on psychological distress scores among university of Lagos undergraduates.

As summarized in Table 5, the *t*-test scores showed that there were 184 male and 229 female participants

surveyed, while the mean (\pm SD) of psychological distress scores was 28.64 ± 6.47 and 27.78 ± 6.53 , respectively. The significant 2-tailed P value associated with this test was 0. The t-test reveals no statistically significant difference between the mean of psychological distress scores of the male students and that of their female counterparts [t 41) = 1.33, P = 0.19]. Therefore, it can be concluded that the severity of psychological distress of the male participants is similar to that of their female students. Based on this result, there is no statistically significant gender difference in psychological distress among the participants.

Discussion

The main focus of this study was to determine how dyslexia predicts academic self-efficacy and psychological distress in Nigerian students. First, this study discovered that dyslexia is a strong predictor of college students' academic self-efficacy. The findings of a study, which revealed that college students with learning disabilities reported lower levels of academic self-efficacy, are consistent with this conclusion. [41] Students with dyslexia continued to face persistent difficulties with early learning problems throughout their undergraduate studies. This is in keeping with explanations that a clear difference has been discovered in nearly all instances when comparing the academic self-concepts of dyslexic and learning-challenged children with those of their usually achieving peers.[17] In addition, meta-analysis found that 89% of studies revealed significantly lower academic self-concept in the learning disability and dyslexic groups.[42]

As children progress through the educational system, this result frequently appears to remain steady over time or even get worse. [43,44] There are a few things to note here. First, it is anticipated that children who are exhibiting major learning difficulties will have poorer academic self-concepts than those who do not. These children would have an incorrect impression of how well they were doing if this were not the case. Their academic self-concept should advance in line with how they learn to deal with and eventually overcome their challenges.

Table 2: Summary of regression analysis showing the predictive influence of dyslexia on dimensions of academic self-efficacy (performance in examination, comprehension, school adjustment, reading skills, working memory, and time management) among the undergraduates in UNILAG, Lagos state

| Predictor | Performance in Examination | | Comprehension | | School Adjustment | | Reading Skills | | Working Memory | | Time Management | | | | | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-------|---------------|------|-------------------|------|----------------|-------|----------------|------|-----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| | β | t | Sig. | β | t | Sig. | β | t | Sig. | β | t | Sig. | β | t | Sig. | β | t | Sig. |
| Dyslexia | 0.32 | 6.94 | 0.00 | 0.28 | 5.79 | 0.00 | 0.14 | 0.28 | 0.00 | 0.21 | 4.32 | 0.00 | 5.34 | 0.26 | 0.00 | 0.21 | 4.45 | 0.00 |
| R | | 0.32 | | | 0.28 | | | 0.28 | | | 0.21 | | | 0.26 | | | 0.21 | |
| R^2 | | 0.11 | | | 0.08 | | | 0.08 | | | 0.04 | | | 0.07 | | | 0.05 | |
| F-ratio | | 48.18 | | | 33.54 | | | 35.86 | | | 18.65 | | | 28.5 | | | 19.8 | |
| Р | | 0.00 | | | 0.00 | | | 0.00 | | | 0.00 | | | 0.00 | | | 0.00 | |

Table 3: Regression analysis of the predictive influence of dyslexia on psychological distress among UNILAG undergraduates

| | В | β | t | Sig | R | R^2 | F | P |
|------------|-------|------|-------|------|------|-------|------|------|
| (Constant) | 24.37 | | 18.86 | 0.00 | 0.15 | 0.02 | 9.17 | 0.00 |
| Dyslexia | 0.11 | 0.15 | 3.03 | 0.00 | | | | |

Table 4: Independent samples *t*-test of gender difference on academic self-efficacy among university undergraduates in UNILAG

| Variables | Sex | n | \overline{X} | SD | t | P |
|------------------------|--------|-----|----------------|-------|------|------|
| Academic self-efficacy | Male | 184 | 97.89 | 19.12 | 1.40 | 0.65 |
| | Female | 229 | 95.21 | 19.45 | | |

Table 5: Independent samples *t*-test of gender difference on psychological distress among the participants

| Variables | Sex | n | \overline{X} | SD | t | P |
|------------------------|--------|-----|----------------|------|------|------|
| Psychological distress | Male | 184 | 28.64 | 6.47 | 1.33 | 0.19 |
| | Female | 229 | 27.78 | 6.53 | | |

It was also observed that dyslexia predicted performance in examination (dimension of academic self-efficacy) among undergraduates. This finding is coherent with studies. [45,46] The study found that the dyslexic students, even well-compensated, achieved lower results than their nondyslexic peers for all examinations and a lower overall points score. In a UK study, the performance of clinical skill assessment (CSA) among doctors found that candidates who declared dyslexia had a lower chance of passing the exam compared to those who did not declare dyslexia and those who declared it late. In addition, the study reported that candidates with dyslexia required 25 per cent extra time in an exam to perform as well as those that did not declare dyslexia. [47-49] This result is also in keeping with those who reported that a higher percentage of students living with dyslexia failed an examination compared to their counterparts who were none dyslexic.

The study also observed that dyslexia also significantly predicted comprehension (dimension of self-efficacy) among undergraduates. This aligns with the findings which did a comprehension study on a group of Danish university students with dyslexia and a comparison group of students with no history of reading problems. [49] The author expressed the difficulty in understudying students with dyslexia in higher education because they have developed compensatory mechanisms to overcome their functional difficulties during their extended interactions with the educational system.^[49] The comprehension study discovered that students with dyslexia as a group had considerably lower comprehension of the text, and they were to read than the control group; they made more mistakes in their retellings. [49] Furthermore, the dyslexic group had more

trouble generating inferences, rephrasing the text, and providing additional information about the topic based on the quality of the retellings. Instead, their retellings were frequently based on facts from the text, corroborating.^[50]

Everatt used dyslexic and control participants in higher education to administer an untimed reading comprehension task (the participants read four passages and answered 32 multiple-choice questions) and a timed cloze reading comprehension task.^[51] The two groups were comparable on the untimed multiple-choice test, but the dyslexic participants did worse on the timed cloze assignment. Some of the differences could also be explained by the content of the questions. Using both literal and inferential multiple-choice test questions, the study found that university students with dyslexia performed better on definitive statements than on inferential questions, indicating a specific deficit in text interpretation formation rather than reading accuracy.^[51]

Simmons and Singleton also found that while dyslexic people did not take considerably longer to read the passages than control participants, they did take significantly longer to answer the questions. [50] The study also observed that dyslexia significantly predicts the adjustment dimension of self-efficacy. This is consistent with the findings of Pedersen. [49] Despite the achievements of successfully gaining admission to higher education, many dyslexic students still have difficulties as they attempt to adjust to the academic reading and writing demands of higher school. [25,30,52] Some may have passed the reading and writing requirements in elementary and secondary school, but they cannot keep up at the university level.^[53] Academic readings in university courses feature abstract technical vocabulary, new terminology, and long, syntactically complicated sentences, making them difficult to read for individuals with dyslexia.

This study also showed that dyslexia significantly predicts reading skills. This finding supports previous literature^[16,25,51] and opined that dyslexia involves difficulties in reading printed words which could subsequently lead to difficulties in reading comprehension. Theoretically, dyslexia is differentiated from poor reading occasioned by inadequate opportunities to learn or even poor quality of instruction given. In addition, dyslexia is not due to a problem in visual processing that results in letter or word reversals but combinations of certain factors such as visual temporal processing, phonology, and sequencing.[16] The study on elementary school students^[51] affirmed that children who are not dyslexic at all are likely to respond to interventions and achieve word reading skills and fluency appropriate to their age. In addition, those diagnosed with mild dyslexia, though have a good prognosis, would require more practice, with their reading growth path slower than children who are not dyslexic. Finally, children with severe dyslexia may not achieve reading proficiency despite intense interventions spanning a lengthy duration.^[54,55]

Furthermore, dyslexia was observed to significantly predict working memory and time management among university undergraduates. This finding supports previous research findings. For instance, according to the study,[19] students with learning disorders such as dyslexia have a range of 20 to 50 per cent weak working memory (the ability to hold and manipulate information mentally over short periods of time). [56] A related study affirmed that children with dyslexia often demonstrate working memory deficits.[20] Related earlier studies concluded that verbal working memory was strongly associated with reading fluency. [57-59] In a meta-analysis, [60] the study reported strong evidence of a significant relationship between working memory and reading decoding/reading fluency among children. In summary, studies reveal that deficits in working memory do not always occur in every child with dyslexia or developmental language disorder (DLD); however, when they occur, there may be an underlying cause of language impairment. [56,61,62] In addition, there is a significant deficiency in phonological working memory in children with dyslexia. Studies showed that children with dyslexia scored lower than their typically developing peers in tasks such as forward digit recall, [63] verbal span, word recall, and nonword repetitive tasks^[64]

In addition, dyslexia was also found to predict time management among the participants. This finding supports previous research studies. [65,66] Time management had been reported as being demanding for adults with dyslexia. For instance, adults with dyslexia reported that as children they had difficulties with months, seasons, days of the month, elapsed time, and time tables as well as issues with telling time. [66] This research study supported that of Freidman^[67] who observed that understanding time and time management was weaker in individuals with dyslexia. This condition was seen as being more pronounced in children than on adults with dyslexia. In addition, [68] the study found that people with dyslexia frequently reported having trouble keeping appointments on time^[66] and came to the conclusion that time management and timetables are difficult for adults with dyslexia. The difficulties people with dyslexia have with time estimation, remembering what they need to do, and, in some cases, their resistance to using time management techniques like keeping a diary or writing in a notebook are also mentioned. [65,66] On the other hand, Kirby^[69] found that students with dyslexia made good use of time management techniques.

Our research revealed that dyslexia strongly predicted psychological distress among undergraduates, which is consistent with earlier findings. [24,25,70] The results of the study showed that children and young people with dyslexia and other reading difficulties have a greater prevalence of mental health disorders because of shared risk factors that also predict mental health issues and reading difficulties. Risk factors for mental health problems include low self-esteem, stigma, and bullying brought on by reading difficulties.^[71] Children's mental health has been a concern for caregivers of dyslexic children. [25,70] Strong evidence exists to substantiate the idea that dyslexia is associated with a number of psychosocial difficulties that kids encounter, such as low academic self-concept, [72] low reading self-efficacy, and a higher prevalence of internalizing and externalizing symptoms suggestive of poor mental health.^[71,73]

Furthermore, among university undergraduates, our data showed no statistically significant gender influence on academic self-efficacy. This research supported findings that there was no appreciable difference between male and female students' levels of academic self-efficacy. [64] In addition, this is in line with the study, which found no appreciable differences between male and female students in terms of their perceived self-efficacy in terms of problem-solving abilities. [74] However, it was evident from the focus group talks in the same study that female students perceived male students as being more involved in the class and so feared that their confidence would not last.

In addition, our research found no discernible gender differences in psychological distress. Various research papers on the relationship between gender and psychological distress attribute the findings to social and cultural contexts. For example, the results of our study do not support a few published findings, [75,76] suggesting females had greater psychological distress than males. However, a study from Nigeria^[77] found that men are more likely than women to experience psychological distress. According to research, [78-79] social, biological, behavioral, and environmental factors interact in a complicated way to cause psychological distress. There have been conflicting results on the relationship between gender and mental anguish. This is because certain childhood experiences and genetic and psychosocial factors have also been described as predisposing factors influencing psychological distress. [79]

Limitations and recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusion discussed, the following recommendations are made. The educational institutions, primarily through their policies, should consider individuals living with dyslexia and other forms of learning disabilities; research supports that with the

proper assistance, people living with dyslexia can live wholesome lives and attain academic height.

The findings of the study imply that there is room for more research. The study was conducted in one state in Nigeria and focused on one institution and students at the tertiary level of education. There are several institutions in the six geopolitical regions of the country, and this study is focused on one state. The findings of this study can therefore not be taken as conclusive. To further validate the findings of the study, there is a need to carry out this study on other parts of the country and other levels of educations and institutions.

Based on the findings of this research, it is implied that institutions could adapt teaching strategies to ensure that students with dyslexia get the support they very well need.

Conclusion

From the study's findings, the following conclusions have been made based on the study's objectives. Dyslexia significantly predicts and influences academic self-efficacy and dimensions such as performance in the examination, comprehension, school adjustment, reading skills, working memory, and time management. Dyslexia also significantly predicts psychological distress. Gender has no significant influence on the manifestation of academic self-efficacy and psychological distress among undergraduates.

Informed consent

With regards to international standards participants, written informed consent was obtained for this study.

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to express their gratitude to the research committees and to all participants involved in this survey.

Financial support and sponsorship

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

References

- Bandura A. Self-efficacy: Towards a unifying theory of behavioural change. Psychol Rev 1977;84:191-215.
- Kozlowski RO, Salas OR. Self-efficacy: A key to improving the motivation of struggling learners. Prev Sch Fail 2010;47:162-9.
- Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2021). Self-efficacy and human motivation. United States, In Advances in motivation science (Vol. 8, pp. 153-179). Elsevier.

- 4. Bandura A. Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. Ann Rev Psychol 2021;52:1-26.
- Bandura A, editor. Exercise of Personal and Collective Efficacy in Changing Societies. Cambridge University Press; 1995.
- Betz NE, Hackett G. The relationship of career-related self-efficacy expectations to perceived career options in college women and men. J Couns Psychol 1981;28:399.
- Bandura A. Fearful expectations and avoidant actions as coeffects of perceived self-inefficacy. Am Psychol 1986;41:1389-91.
- Gallagher MW. Self-efficacy. In: Ramachandran VS, editor. Encyclopedia of Human Behaviour. 2nd ed. International Journal of Experimental, Clinical, Behavioral and Technological Gerontology, Switzerland 2012. p. 314-20.
- 9. Zimmerman BJ. Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. Contemp Educ Psychol 2000;25:82-91.
- Britner SL, Pajares F. Sources of science self-efficacy beliefs of middle school students. J Res Sci Teach 2006;43:485-99.
- Nalavany, B. A., Carawan, L. W., & Brown, L. J. (2011). Considering the role of traditional and specialist schools: do school experiences impact the emotional well-being and self-esteem of adults with dyslexia?. British Journal of Special Education, 38(4), 191-200.
- Skinner ME. Faculty willingness to provide accommodations and course alternatives to postsecondary students with learning disabilities. Int J Spec Educ 2007;22:32-45.
- Givon S, Court D. Coping strategies of high school students with learning disabilities: A longitudinal qualitative study and grounded theory. Int J Qual Stud Educ 2010;23:283-303.
- 14. Heiman T, Kariv D. Manifestations of learning disabilities in university students: Implications for coping and adjustment. Education 2004;125:313-24.
- Carrion-Castillo A, Franke B, Fisher SE. Molecular genetics of dyslexia: An overview. Dyslexia 2013;19:214-40.
- Stein J. What is developmental dyslexia? Brain Sci 2018;8:26. doi: 10.3390/brainsci8020026.
- Burden R. Is dyslexia necessarily associated with negative feelings of self-worth? A review and implications for future research. Dyslexia 2008;14:188-96.
- 18. Terras MM, Thompson LC, Minnis H. Dyslexia and psycho-social functioning: An exploratory study of the role of self-esteem and understanding. Dyslexia 2009;15:304-27.
- International Dyslexia Association. Structured Literacy: An Introductory Guide. Baltimore, MD: International Dyslexia Association; 2019.
- Gray S, Fox AB, Green S, Alt M, Hogan TP, Petscher Y, et al. Working memory profiles of children with dyslexia, developmental language disorder, or both. J Speech Lange Hear Res 2019;62:1839-58.
- Kavale KA, Mostert MP. Social skills interventions for individuals with learning disabilities. Learn Disabil Q 2004;27:31-43.
- Wiener J, Tardif C. Social and emotional functioning of children with learning disabilities: Does special education placement make a difference? Learn Disabil Res Pract 2004;19:20-32.
- Hellendoorn, J., & Ruijssenaars, W. (2000). Personal experiences and adjustment of Dutch adults with dyslexia. Remedial and special education, 21(4), 227-239.
- Deighton, J., Lereya, S. T., Casey, P., Patalay, P., Humphrey, N., & Wolpert, M. (2019). Prevalence of mental health problems in schools: poverty and other risk factors among 28 000 adolescents in England. The British Journal of Psychiatry, 215(3), 565-567.
- Collinsona C Penketh C. 'Sit in the corner and don't eat the crayons': Postgraduates with dyslexia and the dominant 'lexic' discourse. Disabil Soc 2010;25:7-19.
- Great Schools Staff. Learning disabilities and psychological problems: An overview. Great Schools. Available from: https:// www.greatschools.org/gk/articles/learning-disabilities-andpsychological-problems/. [Last accessed on 2016 Mar 18].

- 27. Alesi M, Rappo G, Pepi A. Self-esteem at school and self-handicapping in childhood: Comparison of groups with learning disabilities. Psychol Rep 2012;111:952-62.
- Raskind MH, Goldberg RJ, Higgins EL, Herman KL. Patterns of change and predictors of success in individuals with learning disabilities: Results from a twenty-year longitudinal study. Learn Disabil Res Pract 1999;14:35-49.
- Ingesson SG. Growing up with dyslexia interviews with teenagers and young adults. Sch Psychol Int 2007;28:574-91.
- 30. Mortimore T, Crozier WR. Dyslexia and difficulties with study skills in higher education. Stud High Educ 2006;31:235-51.
- 31. Humphrey N. Teacher and pupil ratings of self-esteem in developmental dyslexia. Br J Spec Educ 2002;29:29-36.
- Ghisi M, Bottesi G, Re AM, Cerea S, Mammarella IC. Socioemotional features and resilience in Italian university students with and without dyslexia. Front Psychol 2016;7:478. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg. 2016.00478.
- Carroll JM, Iles JE. An assessment of anxiety levels in dyslexic students in higher education. Br J Educ Psychol 2006;76:651-662.
- Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized self-efficacy scale. J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs, 35(37), 82-003.
- Goldberg D, Williams PA User's Guide to the General Health Questionnaire. Windsor, UK: NFER-Nelson; 1988.
- Goldberg RJ, Higgins EL, Raskind MH, Herman KL. Predictors of success in individuals with learning disabilities: A qualitative analysis of a 20-year longitudinal study. Learn Disabil Res Pract 1997;18:222-36.
- 37. Werneke U, Goldberg DP, Yalcin I, Üstün BT. The stability of the factor structure of the general health questionnaire. Psychol Med 2000;30:823-9.
- Akpunne BC, Akinnawo EO, Olusa AO, Kumuyi DO. Development and validation of the Redeemer's University suicidality scale. S Afr J Psychiatry 2023;29:1799.
- Akpunne BC Akinnawo EO. Internet addiction, problematic smart phone use and psychological health of Nigerian university undergraduates. Int Neuropsychiatr Dis J 2019;12:1-3.
- 40. Lefly DL, Pennington BF. Reliability and validity of the adult reading history questionnaire. J Learn Disabil 2000;33:286-96.
- 41. Ben-Naim S, Laslo-Roth R, Einav M, Biran H, Margalit M. Academic self-efficacy, sense of coherence, hope and tiredness among college students with learning disabilities. Eur J Spec Needs Educ 2016;32:18-34.
- 42. Zeleke S. Differences in self-concept among children with mathematics disabilities and their average and high achieving peers. Int J Disabil Dev Educ 2004;51:253-69.
- Vaughn S, Elbaum BE, Schumm JS, Hughes MT. Social outcomes for students with and without learning disabilities in inclusive classrooms. J Learn Disabil 1998;31:428-36.
- Renick MJ Harter S. Impact of social comparisons on the developing self-perceptions of learning disabled students. J Educ Psychol 1989;81:631-8.
- Sheppard, A.). "The Effects of Dyslexia on Student Achievement in Secondary Education." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Warwick, Institute of Education; 2009. p. 108-15.
- Shaw SC, Malik M, Anderson JL. The exam performance of medical students with dyslexia: A review of the literature. MedEdPublish 2017;6:116. doi: 10.15694/mep. 2017.000116.
- Asghar Z, Williams N, Denney M, Siriwardena AN. Performance in candidates declaring versus those not declaring dyslexia in a licensing clinical examination. Med Educ 2019;53:1243-52.
- Gibson S, Leinster S. How do students with dyslexia perform in extended matching questions, short answer questions and observed structured clinical examination. Adv Health Sci Educ 2011;16:395-404.

- Pedersen HF, Fusaroli R, Lauridsen LL, Parrila R. Reading processes of university students with dyslexia-An examination of the relationship between oral reading and reading comprehension. Dyslexia 2016;22:305-21.
- Simmons F, Singleton C. The reading comprehension abilities of dyslexic students in higher education. Dyslexia 2000;6:178-92.
- 51. Everatt J. The abilities and disabilities associated with adult developmental dyslexia. J Res Read 1997;20:13-21.
- Hatcher J, Snowling MJ, Griffiths YM. Cognitive assessment of dyslexic students in higher education. Br J Educ Psychol 2002;72:119-33.
- Mapou RL. Comprehensive evaluation of adults with learning disabilities. In Wolf LE, Schreiber HE, Wasserstein J, editors, Adult Learning Disorders: Contemporary Issues. New York: Psychology Press; 2008. p. 248-73.
- 54. Kunert R, Scheepers C. Speed and accuracy of dyslexic versus typical word recognition: An eye-movement investigation. Front Psychol 2014;5:1129. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg. 2014.01129.
- 55. Sabatini, J. (2022). Dyslexia and Other Reading Difficulties in Adults: Where Are We Now and Where Are We Headed?. Adult Literacy Education, 4(2), 70-75.
- Maehler C, Schuchardt K. Working memory deficits in children with specific learning disorders and/or attention deficits. Learn Individ Differ 2016;49:341-7.
- Booth JN, Boyle JME, Kelly SW. The relationship between inhibition and working memory in predicting children's reading difficulties. J Res Read 2014;37:84-101.
- Pham AV, Hasson RM. Verbal and visuospatial working memory as predictors of children's reading ability. Arch Clin Neuropsychol 2014;29:467-77.
- 59. Nevo E., Bar-Kochva I. The relations between early working memory abilities and later developing reading skills: A longitudinal study from kindergarten to fifth grade. Mind Brain Educ 2015;9:154-63.
- Peng P, Barnes M, Wang C, Wang W, Li S, Swanson HL, et al. A meta-analysis on the relation between reading and working memory. Psychol Bull 2018;144:48-76.
- 61. Freed J, Lockton E, Adams C. Short-term and working memory skills in primary school-aged children with specific language impairment and children with pragmatic language impairment: Phonological, linguistic and visuo-spatial aspects. Int J Lang Commun Disord 2012;47:457-66.
- 62. Archibald LM. Working memory and language learning: A review. Child Language Teach Ther 2017;33:5-17.
- 63. Menghini D, Finzi A, Carlesimo GA, Vicari S. Working memory impairment in children with developmental dyslexia: Is it just a phonological deficity. Dev Neuropsychol 2011;36:199-213.
- Schuchardt, K., Bockmann, A. K., Bornemann, G., & Maehler, C. (2013). Working memory functioning in children with learning disorders and specific language impairment. Topics in Language Disorders, 33(4), 298-312.
- 65. British Dyslexia Association. Living with a dyslexia partner. Available from: https://www.bdadyslexia.org.uk/advice/adults/living-with-a-dyslexic-partner. [Last accessed on 2023 Nov 17].
- 66. Ellis, A. R. (2013). Dyslexia and time: A comparison of speed and accuracy of young dyslexics and non-dyslexics on time recognition and time management by adult dyslexics.
- 67. Friedman WJ. Time in autobiographical memory. Soc Cogn 2007;22:591-605.
- Cousins M. The persistence of development co-ordination disorder into adulthood. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. United Kingdom: Lancaster University; 2003.
- 69. Kirby JR, Silvestri R, Allingham BH, Parrila R, La Fave CB. Learning strategies and study approaches of postsecondary students with dyslexia. J Learn Disabil 2008;41:85-96.

- Leitão S, Dzidic P, Claessen M, Gordon J, Howard K, Nayton M, et al. Exploring the impact of living with dyslexia: The perspectives of children and their parents. Int J Speech Lang Pathol 2017;19:322-34.
- 71. Boyes ME, Leitão S, Claessen M, Badcock NA, Nayton M. Correlates of externalising and internalising problems in children with dyslexia: An analysis of data from clinical casefiles. Aust Psychol 2020;55:62-72.
- McArthur GM, Filardi N, Francis DA, Boyes ME, Badcock NA. Self-concept in poor readers: A systematic review and metaanalysis. Peer J 2020;8:e8772.
- Francis DA, Caruana N, Hudson JL, McArthur GM. The association between poor reading and internalising problems: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Clin Psychol Rev 2019;67:45-60.
- 74. Tenaw YA. Relationship between self-efficacy, academic achievement and gender in analytical chemistry at Debre Markos College of Teacher Education. Afr J Chem Educ 2013;3:22-3.

- 75. Viertiö S, Kiviruusu O, Piirtola M, Kaprio J, Korhonen T, Marttunen M, *et al.* Factors contributing to psychological distress in the working population, with a special reference to gender difference. BMC Public Health 2021;21:1-17.
- Idowu OM, Adaramola OG, Aderounmu BS, Olugbamigbe ID, Dada OE, Osifeso AC, et al. A gender comparison of psychological distress among medical students in Nigeria during the Coronavirus pandemic: A cross-sectional survey. Afr Health Sci 2022;22:541-50.
- 77. Idowu, O. M., Adaramola, O. G., Aderounmu, B. S., Olugbamigbe, I. D., Dada, O. E., Osifeso, A. C., ... & Odukoya, O. O. (2022). A gender comparison of psychological distress among medical students in Nigeria during the Coronavirus pandemic: A cross-sectional survey. African Health Sciences, 22(1), 541-50.
- Osayomi T, Adegboye OA. Gender and psychological distress: A geographical perspective. Papers in Applied Geography 2017;3:30-43.
- Kendler KS, Gardner CO, Prescott CA. Toward a comprehensive developmental model for major depression in women. Am J Psychiatry 2002;159:1133-45.