INTER-GRADE TEXT READABILITY VARIATION OF ENGLISH COURSE BOOKS IN GHANA: A REVIEW OF SELECTED PRE-TERTIARY ENGLISH COURSE BOOKS

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ABSTRACT This study investigates whether the content of textbooks for senior high school English students in Ghana are appropriate for the students that are supposed to read them. This will tell you how much readability differs between grades. Data was sourced from *Global Series* which is an English course book used in Ghana. According to the study's results, derived from a descriptive research protocol and the constructivist research paradigm, there is considerable random theft of words in Ghanaian English textbooks from the readers who are supposed to read them. That's because the readability scores of sampled texts were actually much higher than the grades the students were supposed to receive. The literature was focused on high-school students but despite that, the majority of texts proved to be readerable for undergraduate and postgraduate students. That was because the works had very high readability coefficients, and were therefore, as Flesch's translated index showed, illegible. The inter-grade readability gap was a bit too large as well which is far higher than the acceptable inter-grade rates recommended by Halliday and Gunning (33.3% vs 35% respectively) which were referenced in the methodology literature used in this study. Therefore, before assigning works to the levels of study, this article recommends a systematic check that they can be applied to all grades.

Keywords: Ghanaian textbooks, inter-grade readability variation, pre-tertiary English course books.

INTRODUCTION

As Hendrikse and Van Zweel (2010) put it, "Language tells us about complicated phenomena, but it is complicated". The linguistic complexity has not been adequately defined, say Kwapien et al (2010). What elements constitute linguistic complexity? What is it about human speech that is not intricate? Those are the issues Kwapien et al (2010) ask when they refer to "linguistic complexity". What they are saying, of course, is quite simply that language itself is sophisticated, and that to take particular parts of a language and conclude that they constitute the content of linguistic complexity is in fact very hard for any linguist to say what this linguistic complexity is. Eggins (2004) is entirely on board with Kwapien et al (2010)'s conclusion that the concept of 'linguistic complexity' constitutes the motivator for "…all general literacy and language instruction in all languages". Though both authors highlight that "…language as a whole is complex…", they do share with other linguists that there are certain colours of language that bring it down into the shade of difficult or difficult and, if we know what those colours of language are, then we know what colours of language are complicated as a human science.

For instance, lexical density is the term that Halliday (1985) uses to say in this respect: Lexical density is a major source of written language complexity. Grammar, says Eggins (2004), is one cause of text complexity. Readability, Gunning (1952) thinks, is another important determinant of text difficulty. As we have seen, Halliday (1985) identifies lexical density as a pillar of written language complexity.

When it comes to this particular facet of written communication, Wiredu (2012) notes that the language of newspaper editorials is very sophisticated, and the study he conducted using newspaper articles as examples revealed an abundance of phrases that were difficult to understand. Additionally, he said that the challenge arises from the dominance of nominal terms or processes, which is one of the contributing factors. When he continues, he says, "…Editorials are a follow-up to an argument and an attempt to convince readers to think in the

same way that the paper does." Wiredu (2016) continues to discuss written language, as shown by the fact that he states that pidgin language is considered to be unreadable and cryptic. According to his studies, this notion is nothing more than an impression. Frimpong (2017), who agrees with Wiredu (2012) about the 'aggressiveness' of writing, makes the observation that written varieties are often more difficult to understand linguistically. This is because writing requires a significant amount of planning and editing. This, in turn, is a complicated situation that has to be read with extreme caution, according to him. These writers provide support for the viewpoints expressed by Thorndike (1921), who was one of the pioneers in the field of readability research. In his seminal study, Thorndike came to the conclusion that textbooks are important educational resources that may be used in the classroom setting. When it comes to picking course books, one of the most important factors to consider is the complexity of the text, and one approach to evaluate the text's difficulty is to examine its readability. In this regard, he focused his attention on the fact that a readability research that is founded on LD is deemed more empirical.

Halliday (1985) and Flesch (1948) state that it is not a simple task to evaluate the suitability of texts for graded material, and that the challenges that occur across grades should be kept within safe boundaries. Based on the findings of Halliday (1985) and Flesch (1948), the inter-grade variance index was found to be the highest at 33.3% and 35% respectively. Flesch's theory is the direct readability of a text, as determined by employing the formula, while Halliday's (1985) hypothesis is the inter-grade variation refraction index of 1:11% (as he refers to it). If a text's readability or LD value does not match these, then the text is disqualified for the following grade it was meant to attain. That text's inter-grade variation index is within a reasonable range is the key to ensuring that students are treated fairly. If they do not, a lower text can appropriated to an upper grade and a higher one to a lower grade (ie difficulty adapting). This paper is therefore interested in probing if the extent of inter-grade difficulty are comparable. This paper compares sampled texts using readability and LD measures to establish readability. That is then taken to determine intergrade variability in text difficulty to determine whether texts are within the permissible range for which they are graded.

The literature was focused on high-school students but despite that, the majority of texts proved to be readerable for undergraduate and postgraduate students. By directing the research questions on what the readability/LD level of assigned SHS English texts in Ghana is, and how commensurate the inter-grade readability variation of texts is, the research objectives aim to assess the readability/LD level of senior high school assigned English texts, as well as examine the inter-grade readability variation of assigned texts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Two (2) fundamental theories apply in this study: cognitive load theory and reader-response theory.

Cognitive Load Theory

This hypothesis is based on the human model of information processing, which describes memory as composed of 3 main categories: sensory, working and long-term. Sensory memory weeds through the inward information, and transfers picked-out data to working memory. There are 5-9 items or chunks of information in working memory at the same time. The information worked out in working memory is either forgotten or separated out for long-term storage.

The storage in long-term memory is grouped into "schemas" – ways we routinely use the information. Schemas are strengthened by use and the easier the memory is. Cognitive load, in educational terms, refers to how much data is able to flow through working memory. In schools, cognitive load theory provides a guide, so that students don't overload themselves

with more information than they can effectively transform into schemas and store in long-term memory for long-term retrieval and future recall.

Schemas, even very complex ones, are one "chunk" of data in our working memory. When we call on prior knowledge or schemas, we can modify the teaching to the required grade and bridge the void between graders' previous knowledge and what we want them to know. Teaching methodology should be focused on reducing the "problem space," the gap between where we are now and where we want to be. If the problem space is too large, students get overwhelmed and can't work out how to learn the content they're being taught. A problem in smaller pieces, for example, is easier to approach for students than an enigma-inducing large problem in one go.

The development process starts with strong learning goals that set the learners' endpoint at the end of a segment of instruction. Then an evaluation of students' acquired skills or knowledge takes place to decide where to begin and stop. Such a test can be in the form of a survey, test, or a review of previous curricula.

Materials need to be created so that they do not overwhelm the student with too much visual content. For example, when drawing diagrams, if labels are used instead of hidden to the side, they are more visually coherent. The same goes for aural information, and an effort is made to minimise background noise in informational speech. When a class has students using multiple external tools, break the cycle with simple steps and direct links. Hearing and seeing have different working circuits and are not antagonistic.It is very important that you get the information to include visual and auditory elements.

Cognitive load takes 3 forms: germane, extraneous, intrinsic. The problem of internal load is the natural inability to handle the data, irrespective of the manner in which it's displayed. It's this load that is never altered by extraneous and relevant factors. Extraneous load is about the way a student gets information, and how easy or difficult it is for her to process it — in different individuals. Germane load is the labour of marshalling memory and enlightenment to translate data into schemas, and in doing so encode new information into permanent memory. Overloaded people will have trouble absorbing new information or deciding the right thing and will fail at tasks that even they know how to do.

Cognitive overload is something that can be treated in different ways. For one thing, questions give students a way of measuring their understanding so they're taught accordingly. Second, try to limit any unwanted distractions – cellphones or other stimulants – that might lead to mental overactivity. 3) it can help if the learner concentrates their attention on one information/work at a time. What's more, estimating task times can manage cognitive load and provide a method for minimising overload, particularly for assignments that require one to read.

Reader-Response Theory

Reader-Response theory is basically about the reader's action towards a text. The theory is based on the following premise: 1) *The Reader's Role*: Reader-response theory privileges the creative agency of the reader to conceive meaning; 2) *Transactional*: The experience of reading is as a trade between the text and the reader, depending on the grader's history, assumptions or preconceptions, 3) *Consensus:* Graders are in control of literary texts and if they do, they write the meaning, as co-authors, of their own literary experience; 4) *Meaning Construction*: That, meaning construction in reading experiences at the individual level is one of the major features of the reader's relationship with the book. Neglect of author intention, an over-emphasis on reader judgments, and subjectivity in the interpretation of text are among the critiques levelled against the reader-response model.

Research on English Textbook

An examination of the English textbook *English on Sky* for elementary school students was conducted by Sholichatun (2011). As a source of information, we utilized a total of ten

(10) texts (passages), three of which had a lower lexical density than the others, and seven of which had a high lexical density. To add insult to injury, the textbook did not just relate to one grade of elementary School. The words in *English on Sky* did not have a low-desirability (LD) rating that would have made them difficult to read or understand as a whole. In spite of the fact that this was not a study on genre dynamics, it does provide the empirical research literature that is necessary for this work. This is because both of these studies entail reading particular texts.

Similarly, Nesia and Ginting (2014) on LD, used 4 text samples from English course readers. Out of 8 texts examined, 4 were lower in LD. The genres of writing they were looking for in terms of lexical density. Narrative and discussion texts were the 4 texts with lower LDs. Ginting and Nesia (2014) also noticed that each text carries varied lexemes in whatever the writing type. Different texts have different lexical objects and no type of writing has a specific relation to any one set of lexical objects. They calculated the LD values of sampled texts with Ure and Halliday's LD formulae. The lexical density values were then rated on Flesch (1948)'s Reading Ease Scale. The text of narrative, explanation and description consist mainly of nouns and verbs, whereas review texts consist mainly of three lexical elements: noun, adjective and verb, the study reported. It was explanatory/expository genres that were the most illegible. Nesia and Ginting (2014) overlaps with this research insofar as it has a stake in the texts used to engage with LD.

Andri et al (2021) measured lexical variability and lexical density in the Indonesian stories in English Grade X textbooks by the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia. Being a qualitative study, it was done with the SFL theory of Halliday (1985) and Ure (1971)'s LD formular. For Gunning Fog Index, we used Eggins (2004)'s lexical variation formular and Zamanian and Heydari (2012)'s Estimated Reading Grades Scale. The works were read to recommended levels based on these models. These were from 3 stories on Indonesian folklore in Bahasa Ingris: 3rd Edition and textbooks in Inter-language. The results showed the texts to differ wildly with respect to lexical density and lexical variation which caused trouble with understanding. It also came out that the books are also varies by Gunning Fog Index and all of the books should be played on lower levels. The procedure for LD analysis is well established in Andri et al (2021), and thus, pertinent to this study.

As source material, Fadhillah (2018) used English textbook chapter *Pathway to English*. She attempted to relate genre to lexical density. Of 15 texts read, 9 (9) had high LDs: 6 descriptive, 2 recount and 1 narrative. The other 6 were of average LD levels. Of the other 6 texts,2 were recount and 4 were narrative. Accordingly, it is fair to say that narrative genre was in that research relatively low LD by rating whereas descriptive works were generally high LD rating with the recount genre being essentially split into half high and half average LD rankings.

Ridwan and Yusuf (2016) measured how much language they learned in undergraduate theses abstracts to see whether they were informative or loaded (meaning-making) in speech or text. This was done following Eggins (2004)'s (2004) original GI ratio theory, where the larger the GI ratio, Egggins (2004) thinks, the more likely a text is spoken language. The smaller the GI ratio, on the other hand, the higher the likelihood that the text is oral. Also, the lesser the Grammatical Intricacy ratio, the higher the likelihood that the text is written. The average level of LD in texts (sample: seven thesis abstracts) was 0.57, which indicates high level of LD (57 per cent). There is also an average GI ratio of 1:8, so it is high GI ratio (1:8). I.A. Remember that a low GI ratio is text-related, and a value of 40 per cent or more is high LD (writing related). In this experiment, the quantity of text and the styles of writing weren't factored in. Ridwan and Yusuf (2016) give a better overview of the propositions of the GI theory (one of the hypotheses on which this phenomenon is based). The GI theory is thus simple to apply to the data analysis of this study.

In Kondal (2015),written scripts from 10th graders' handwritten documents were collected to study the influence of LD and LV on language skill and ability. They wanted to know if LD and LV skills would necessarily lead to language skills or to language acquisition. The researchers found that LD and LV had a dramatic effect on language skills and lexicological performance. Genre and academic level dynamics of LD are never mentioned in the research. It revealed that the more lexis and diversity of use of lexis a student has, the higher performance and proficiency that student achieves because LD is associated with learning quality and LV with language quality. It means that vocabularies need to be taught in English more.

Carmen and Begona (2015) compared same grade students' lexical riches with Eggins (2004) LR formular. It turned out that you get the same degree of lexical richness when the same students write two separate texts about two different topics. This means that lexical/vocabular abundance comes in many forms and across many fields.

To et al (2013) wanted to measure the LD and understanding of 4 texts from English course readers. The books covered 4 years — primary, middle, intermediate and upper-intermediate. They found the data in these books from which to investigate them. Three of those four books, they discovered, were of high LD. Flesch's Reading Ease Scale (1948) was applied for illegibility. Upper-intermediate texts scored lower in LD (45.5%), on Flesch's Reading Ease Scale (1948). But surprise, on Flesch's (1948) Reading Ease Scale, texts 2 and 3 with very high LD scores scored as very easy to read while text 1 was very easy and text 2 difficult. Lexical density is thus not always translated into text complexity, as claimed and supposed. Fast addition though it's the exception not the rule.

Istiqomah (2015) also studied the edification of second-year SHS students' English textbooks in Indonesia. Four texts were fed into Halliday's LD formular and then Flesch's Readability Ease Scale was fitted to the outputs to ascertain whether they were suitable or not. Two had 30.92% and 35.55% and were rated average on Flesch's index of readability. They therefore were inappropriate for SHS students, but Junior High School (JHS) students. The other texts were 46.58% and 47.93% which was high LD. These were, on Flesch's scale, pretty difficult trails. And they got a second grade SHS acceptance. The paper did not mention genre of writing but it was noted that the lexical density of English textbook text should be assessed by LD/Readability practitioners prior to use to ensure that it was appropriate for the intended learning.

Prawinanto and Bram (2020) analysed adjective and noun clause lexical densities in an English textbook of senior high-school students in 10th Grade, Indonesia. This study had one objective: was the textbook appropriate for the students (literally speaking, lexically heavy) or not? A sentence-size of 116 was the data sample and clauses of nouns and adjectives were investigated in the sentence. The study text averaged LD score of 47, which was just right for the group of students they were trying to target (10th Graders).

RESEARCH METHODS

Technology and Devices

Textalyser, Microsoft Word, Microsoft Excel and lexicool were the programs to convert the data into numbers. They counted words, syllables, sentences, clauses, phrases and letters with these devices. The author double-checked the text extracts by hand for consistency, validity and validity of findings.

Ethical considerations

The author downloaded an official department letter of introduction and emailed Global Series author requesting use of the book. Author's kind permission before the author analyzed texts. It's without research subjects, and it is based on secondary data.

Trustworthiness of Data

The work is purely textual and is conducted on predefined theoretical and conceptual frameworks. With the exception of human error in computation (of which the researcher is wide aware), the human element in this research does not come into it at all. Its analysis methods are tried and tested and common in the domain of research. As for the sampled texts that comprise this research data, they are from a common English textbook series in Ghana recommended by the Ghana Education Service for Senior High Schools. This verifies the analysis data.

Data reliability was tested at inter-rator. It's one of the verification devices (Creswell, 2014) to verify and assess the veracity of studies. In that vein, the author recruited two (2) university research assistants to help with testing data validity. These research assistants and the researcher, in particular, independently verified genre classification of texts, word class classification of words in texts, number of syllables in words in texts, number of words in each text, number of ranking phrases per clause, number of ranking clauses per sentence, number of sentences per text. The research assistants were also blinded to the textual analysis approach of the study. Comparisons of results by all 3 verificators (2 research assistants and researcher) was done before researcher used the data. In this regard, Lincoln and Guba (1985)'s proposed theory of trustworthiness – which included not just the quantitative standards of validity and reliability but also credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability as well as the more obvious quantified standards of quality and reliability – has been effectively deployed here.

Data Analysis

The study researchers interpreted qualitative data with the quantitative tools. That way the scientist could get ahold of information and combine the corpus information. The logical map of textual analysis (reference above) informs this enquiry. This essay is adapted as data from the *Global Series* English course book. It is approved by the Ghana Education Service, and has been implemented for years in the Queen's Language Program of most Ghanaian schools. All the words were re-typed using Microsoft Word. These re-typed entries had been proofread in good order, so they were identical to the textbooks. They were then cut through the four (4) LD and readability score.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Inter-Grade Variation Refraction Index (IVRI)

The IVRI measurement is accurately determined in this paper, taking into account the 1:11% (1 corresponds to 11%) inter-grade variation refraction index that Halliday (1985) proposed as the text-exit-grade variation formula. The highest value of the formula is 33.3%. The inter-grade variance index is allowed to be no more than 35 percent, according to Flesch (1948), who also states this.

As far as the variation in readability is concerned, Flesch (1948) asserts that it is acceptable to have a readability variation index of at least 35 percent across texts that are of different classes. When the text-grade analysis is carried out with the help of readability equations, the percentile differential should not exceed 35 percent. This is the case regardless of the circumstances. The original Flesch Reading Ease Scale has been modified to fit the educational systems of other countries, including Ghana. It is called the *Logical Conversion Module* (LCM).

The Logical Conversion Module (LCM)

From Table 1, a translation of Flesch's original readability scale has been done by To et al (2013). The authors logically modelled and created an *Application Formula* to transfer Flesch's formular to other pedagogies. From a range of 0 to 100, readability is measured by LCM. In the LCM, hidden numerals between grades are enlarge to cover grades fairly in

relation to other systems of education beyond the American system. The note that the translation of Flesch's scale of reading ease makes is that, on the readability side, the more readable a text, the more grade it has, and the harder it is. This was different to the original Flesch reading ease scale where lower readability scores were assigned to higher grades. The Flesch readability formula therefore got adapted to this translation.

*Table 1: Flesch's Reading Ease Scale (Original)**

Flesch Reading Ease	Description of Style	Educational Attainment Level (USA)
0 – 30	Very Difficult	Postgraduate
30 – 50	Difficult	Undergraduate
50 – 60	Fairly Difficult	Grade10 – 12
60 – 70	Standard	Grade 8 – 9
70 – 80	Fairly Easy	Grade 7
80 – 90	Easy	Grade 6
90 – 100	Very Easy	Grade 5

*Adapted from Kim et al (2018), widely acclaimed as a reliable means of determining how readable or complex a text is (Kim et al 2018).

Flesch Reading Ease Scale (Adaptable Translation)

Flesch then translated the original Scale into a generalised formular to fit other schools outside the US system. This formular-generalized is listed in table 2. The Flesch text-grade formula was therefore adapted to this new translation. In the translated translation, then, the higher the grade, the more readability, and vice versa.

Table 2: Flesch's Reading Ease Scale (1948) (Adaptable Translation)

Flesch Reading Ease	Description of Style	Educational Attainment Level (USA)
0 – 10	Very Easy	Grade 5
10 – 20	Easy	Grade 6
20 – 30	Fairly Easy	Grade 7
30 – 40	Standard	Grade 8 – 9
40 – 50	Fairly Difficult	Grade 10 – 12
50 – 70	Difficult	Undergraduate
70 – 100	Very Difficult	Postgraduate

Text-Grade Variation Trend

As in the second research question, this part is the data analysis. This is consistent with the literature research: there is a way to determine which texts are graded at what difficulty. On the basis of Halliday (1985) and Flesch (1948), inter-grade variance index was highest at 33.3% and 35% respectively. Halliday's theory (1985) uses what he calls the inter-grade variation refraction index (1:11%). Flesch's theory is instantaneous textual comprehension according to the formula. The text cannot be readability or LD score in accordance with the above-mentioned requirements, and will not qualify for the next grade which will be awarded.

Table 3: Text-Grade Variation Trend

	G'ng	Flesch	Ure	H'day
Narrative-SHS1&2	1	4	0	-5
Narrative-SHS2&3	0	-1	2	4
Descriptive-SHS1&2	1	8	1	9
Descriptive-SHS2&3	-2	-4	1	-3
Expository-SHS1&2	-3	-4	0	2
Expository-SHS2&3	-2	-3	-1	0

Table 3 Genre/grade variation inter-grade variation indexes are built. Figure 3 based on the genre averages by grade at table 3, which is the average of a lower grade deducted from the

next grade's aggregated average. The IVRI is 1:11, which gives maximum text-exit-grade variation of 33.3%, per Halliday (1985).

And Flesch (1948) accepts an inter-grade variation index up to 35%. To that extent, Gunning's narrative texts (SHS 1&2) has 11%; Ure's narrative texts (SHS 2&3) has 22%; Gunning's descriptive texts (SHS 1&2) has 11%; Ure's descriptive texts (SHS 1&2) has 11%; Ure's descriptive texts (SHS2&3) has 11%; and Halliday's expository texts (SHS1&2) has 22%.

This leaves only 6 of 24 difference in text-exit-grade between the acceptable levels of 33.3% (Halliday,1985) and 35% (Flesch,1948). That's just 25% of inter-grade variation tolerance. See figure 1.

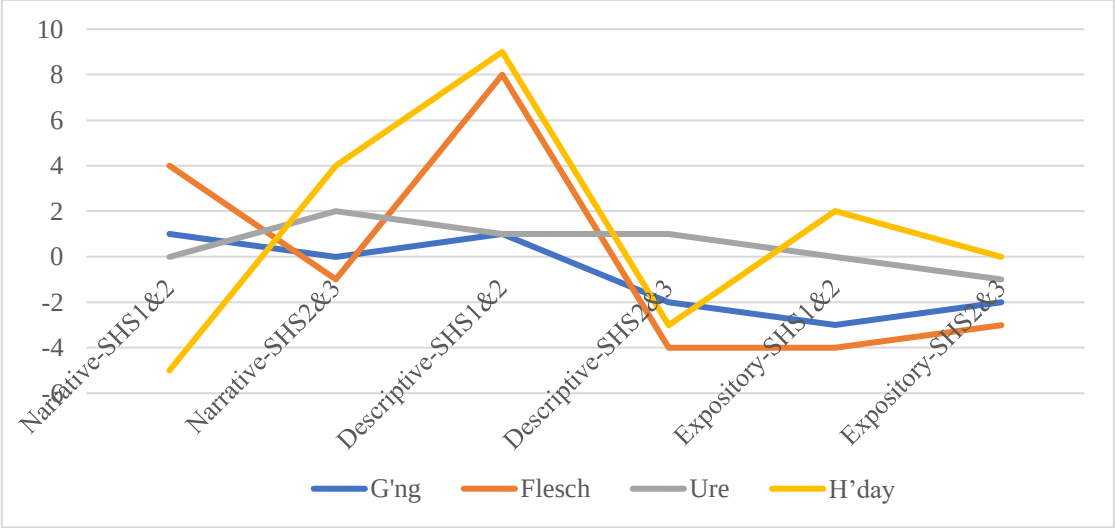

Figure 1: Text-Grade Variation Trend

Discussion

Text readability variation is analyzed by four indices and authorities we are interested in. This is all about trend and coefficient of variation between genre and level. Gyasi (2017) showed a significant correlation between text understanding and text readability, the difference in difficulty of texts between any two grades at any time is important to text allocation to levels. If we give the learner a text with poor readability, the learning outcome is impaired.

Figure 3 LD change by genre and text-level comparison with Ure (1971)'s results. The 50% ratio is the average text-exit-grades of 3 normal and 3 abnormal texts. In comparison to 2 of them having 0 exit grade variation, in one they had -1 exit grade variation. This corresponds to Halliday (1985)'s LD that requires a range of text difficulty and academic grade of not more than 33.3% (text-exit-grade variation formular). That conclusion is also incongruent with Flesch (1948)'s readability-grade index scores that recommend that the text difficulty rating for all levels must not be higher than 35% incremental and 100% cumulative difficulty over 3 grades. For Ghana Education system, this model is just the right thing because we have 3 years SHS. It is also contrary to To (2018)'s finding that texts in the textbook series mentioned in the study became harder and harder with each level up. Text-readiness fell with academic standards that climbed. This is because the texts used are just as lexically dense, Halliday (1985).

This article reports LD variation trend measurement in Halliday (1985)'s formular similarly gives high variation indexes up to 9 and 4. On the other hand, Halliday's index equally has low variation index of up to -5 and -3. Only one text-exit grade scored within the range of the standard (with a variation percentage of 22%). That is just as opposed to Halliday (1985)'s theoretical estimates of LD range according to grade, and Flesch (1948)'s readability-grade index scores as we have discussed above. These 33.3% (Halliday 1985) and 35% (Flesch 1948)

bounds are blown far out of proportion. It implies that students (eg, SHS 1 students) would receive texts that were inappropriate for their own linguistic abilities to read and interpret at the time they advanced to the next level (SHS 2).However well-advanced they might be in the direction of the next level. The text difficulty gap between SHS 1 and SHS 2 is too big, and they cannot read the texts that are given at SHS 2.

The readability variation trend calculation with Gunning (1952)'s readability formular shows an almost unfavorable variation index. From 6 exit grade variation indeces, only 2 are of standard and the other 4 are 0% and lower. This is in line with To (2018) who found that the literature in the textbook series that they studied progressively increased their complexity in line and correspondingly with level.

Flesch's (1948) readability formular readingability variation analysis: 8 and 4 equals high readability variation index. The other 4 exit-grades are to the extreme of -4 and -3 as well. These scores reveal that reading material given to Ghanaian learners in their English course books is very inconsistent. That shouldn't be so because 88% and 44% text-exit grade differences are vastly higher than the 33.3% and 35% assumptions in Halliday (1985) ad Flesch (1948)'s theories. Conversely, -44% and -33% are very much outside the limit. This result, in turn, goes against both Halliday's and Flesch's two hypotheses about LD and readability respectively.

CONCLUSION

The average readability variation index of texts from English course books in Ghana suggests such a broad lacuna of variance, so that SHS students would struggle with the texts introduced to them at the level of study, no matter their level of preparedness for the next (new) level. This does not serve the SHS student because more hardwork or hereditary endowment is needed by him/her to satisfy new academic standards because the discrepancy between the text's readability at old and new academic levels is ad-hocly large. This in turn means that there is something unethical and in many cases excessively high a variation in the level of reading texts given to Ghanaian SHS students from English textbooks. These results quite rightly support To (2018)'s results.

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