PhD Programme in Language Pedagogy
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Eötvös Loránd University
Head of the Doctoral School: Prof. Dr. Anikó Zsolnai DSc
Head of the Programme: Prof. Dr. Krisztina Károly DSc

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NATÁLIA NAGYNÉ NYIKES

DEALING WITH THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY OF DYSLEXIC LANGUAGE LEARNERS: A MIXED-METHODS STUDY OF TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES AND PRACTICES IN THE MAINSTREAM PRIMARY SCHOOL EFL CLASSROOM

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Supervisor: Katalin Brózik-Piniel PhD, habil.
Assistant Professor 2022-
Edit Hegybíró Kontra, PhD, habil.
Associate Professor 2015-2022

Members of the in-house defense committee:
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Abstract

This dissertation explores how English as a foreign language teachers deal with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners in mainstream Hungarian primary schools. While there has been some research in the field of foreign language education focusing on dyslexia and anxiety, studies that focus on how teachers manage to deal with the anxiety of dyslexic EFL learners are scarce (Kormos, 2020; Kormos, Sarkadi & Csizér, 2009). The present dissertation research aims to fill this gap by employing a mixed-method design using quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative strand's questionnaire survey, filled in by 245 participants, examined EFL teachers' attitudes to managing the anxiety of dyslexic students. It was found that EFL teachers recognize anxious dyslexic learners and agree on using anxiety-reducing strategies ($M = 4.19$). A strong correlation ($r = .653$; $p < .01$) was found between identifying dyslexic learners who experience anxiety and implementing anxiety-reducing strategies, which was supported by qualitative data. The qualitative strand's interviews and observations led to six emerging themes about teachers' perceptions related to the anxiety of dyslexic language learners: anxious dyslexic learners, teaching methods, assessment, motivation, classroom environment, teaching context, and collaboration with colleagues and parents. It was found that EFL teachers maintain classroom rules, show care, and provide plenty of practice opportunities. However, these professionals did not claim to teach their students how to deal with their own anxiety. EFL teachers faced challenges, including the lack of cooperation with parents, limited support from school management, and differing definitions of success among participants. In summary, EFL teachers need to receive training on both the cognitive and affective dimensions of language learning and teaching. Future research could concentrate on the perspective of learners, the professional development of EFL teachers, and longitudinal study designs.

AI Use Statement

Generative AI tools (Copilot, Grammarly's AI functions, or similar) were used for grammar, translation, punctuation, and formatting. The intellectual contributions are my own and AI assisted suggestions were reviewed for accuracy and appropriateness.

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Dedication

For Mum, to whom I owe so much. For my daughter and husband for bearing with me and supporting me throughout all of this time.

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List of Abbreviations

ADHD Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder

ANOVA Analysis of variance

CLT/CA Communicative Language Teaching/Approach

EFL English as a foreign language

F female; F-statistic in an ANOVA

FL Foreign language

FLA Foreign language anxiety

FLCA Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

GT Grounded Theory

ICT information and communications technology

LCDH Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis Model

L1 First language

L2 Second language

M Male

N Number (sample size)

PCA Principal components analysis

Quan Quantitative

QUAL Qualitative

SEN Special Education Needs

SpLD Specific Learning Disability

SPSS Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

1 Introduction

The question of how to teach special needs learners (Artzer et al, 1998; Schneider & Crombie, 2003; Sparks, 2009) or specifically dyslexic learners in the foreign language (FL) classroom has been in the foreground of research for decades (Kormos, 2020, 2017; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Košak-Babuder et al., 2019; Nijakowska, 2010; Schneider & Crombie, 2003; Tsakalidou, 2022). One of the key problem areas in the context of FL learning is high levels of anxiety among learners. Dealing with anxiety in the classroom has received growing attention in research worldwide (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele et al., 2018; Fenyvesi, 2021; Horwitz, 2001, 2010; Inada, 2021; Jin & Dewaele, 2018; MacIntyre, 1995, 1999; Teimouri et al., 2019). Despite the boom in research projects on the effects of anxiety or dyslexia, limited literature is available on dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic language learners. Although Sparks and Ganschow (1991) dealt with foreign language classroom anxiety in the context of challenges related to linguistic coding, encompassing issues in phonology, grammar, and semantics, no specialized model has been designed to address both dyslexia and anxiety in the context of foreign language learning. The present research intends to contribute to filling this gap.

Dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic students presents a major challenge for educators (Huntington & Bender, 1993; Paget & Reynolds, 1984). Anxious students with language-based learning difficulties are expected to be prepared by their FL teachers to meet the curricular requirements set for non-special needs learners. These professionals not only have to deal with language-related problems, but also with the symptoms of anxiety that dyslexic students are likely to exhibit (Kormos, 2017, 2020; Kormos et al., 2009a; MacNulty, 2003) to prevent learners with special educational needs from failing or dropping out of their language courses, which can be conceptualized as success.

This focus on retention in FL courses becomes increasingly important to students' future academic and career success. Due to the spread of English, proficiency in English is required for both work and study purposes. English as a foreign language (EFL) has gained increased importance in educational systems across the globe. There is growing pressure on language professionals to ensure their students' progress in language teaching. Anxious dyslexic students, however, face difficulties when they study English. Learning English as a foreign language is challenging for them, as it also depends on native language skills (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991), and dyslexic students experience semantic, grammatical, and phonological challenges in their first language (L1). These challenges that dyslexic students experience in their mother tongue transfer to the foreign language they are studying (Nijakowska, 2010).

Therefore, managing the foreign language anxiety (FLA) of dyslexic preteens or teens may present a complicated task for the teacher in the EFL classroom due to the first language context and issues specific to the students' age group. Research has shown that anxiety experienced by language learners is likely to be higher when the FL studied is part of a non-familiar language family (Dewaele, 2010). When learning a foreign language, those L1s that do not share their roots with Indo-European languages may lead to higher foreign language classroom anxiety in dyslexic learners. This anxiety may occur soon after the students start to learn a foreign language. Since most students must start learning a foreign language in primary school in European countries at the age of 10 (Eurydice, 2023), learning problems along with anxiety-related issues are likely to become evident by the time they reach the age range of 12–14. During these early years of language learning, dyslexic pupils are likely to face serious literacy and anxiety challenges.

The effects of anxiety can manifest in a variety of ways in the classroom. Foreign language learning is not only challenging, but it is likely to be stressful for dyslexic students (MacNulty,

2003; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008), and signs of anxiety including lack of concentration, interest, or attention, as well as distraction, emotional distress, tension, daydreaming, phobias, fear of rejection, insecurity, aggressiveness, and withdrawal (Tsovili, 2004) are likely to appear. In addition, physical manifestations of anxiety such as a fast heartbeat, blushes, sweaty palms, dizziness, headache, stomach-ache, high blood pressure, nausea, loss of voice, tight muscles, trembling or shaking, and stuttering can occur on a spectrum. The signs may be invisible or hardly visible on the one hand, but on the other hand, they can manifest themselves in skipping language classes. FL teachers without any special training or regular support may find themselves in classrooms with anxious students of very diverse needs and abilities, left alone to cope with the task.

Since several of the above manifestations of anxiety can be quite severe, the FL teacher should know how to handle anxious dyslexic students. The instructor's responsibility is crucial in managing the learner's anxiety by being friendly, caring, and patient (Piniel, 2006). It is vitally important to allow students to rehearse self-talk before performing in front of the FL class, to make students concentrate on the exercises and not on the evaluation of their performance, and to provide learners with practice tests before their exams. Finally, discussing the nature of language anxiety with students in order to alleviate it (Alrabai, 2014; Kormos, 2017) as well as accommodating the needs of dyslexic students in the classroom contribute to more effectively dealing with the stress of neurodivergent learners.

In mainstream education, inclusion of anxious students with dyslexia can range from having students physically present in the classroom, to their full inclusion according to their needs and abilities (Csányi, 2001). The two terms -- integration and inclusion -- can be used to refer to two types of educational settings along the same continuum. On the one hand, integration is about

placing special needs learners physically into the existing mainstream classroom settings. Inclusion, on the other hand, allows full and effective participation in mainstream primary school language classrooms, where the classroom is redesigned to meet the needs of all learners. Csányi (2007) highlights that there is no real inclusion in Hungarian schools, which are characterized by the integrative setting. The Hungarian literature often uses the terms integration and inclusion interchangeably, although these terms can be distinguished clearly. In line with Hungarian conventions, these terms will be used interchangeably in the rest of the dissertation.

There has been some research regarding the foreign language education of dyslexic learners in Hungarian schools (Kormos & Kontra, 2008; Sarkadi, 2009) and also projects dealing with anxiety (Piniel, 2009; Tóth, 2008, 2011, 2017). Studies that focus on how teachers manage to deal with the anxiety of dyslexic EFL learners are difficult to find. Kormos et al. (2009b) have pointed out that different methodological approaches to mistakes make a difference in the level of anxiety dyslexic students experience, and Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) found the effects of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) seem to worsen dyslexic learners' foreign language learning.

However, previous studies have not examined what language professionals, school management and parents can do to minimize the barriers that anxious dyslexic learners face in the primary school, where these learners first experience foreign language learning in a formal context. In order to fill this gap, I will conduct a mixed-methods investigation to gain a deep insight into primary school EFL teachers' experiences in the manifestations of language anxiety among dyslexic learners, the signs students produce during the lesson as reported by teachers and what instructional interventions EFL teachers use to aid dyslexic students so that they can cope with their anxiety and succeed in their language learning process in mainstream primary schools.

The investigation focuses on the Hungarian context, where pupils start to learn their first foreign language at the age of 10. Challenges become evident soon after foreign language instruction begins in the formal school environment. The findings of this study are expected to benefit various stakeholders. EFL teachers can gain insights into approaches for identifying and minimising the challenges of anxious dyslexic learners. School leadership, support staff, and policymakers can draw on the results to inform the development of training programs and resources. Dyslexic students themselves stand to benefit from a more accessible and inclusive learning experience that addresses both their language difficulties and the emotional barriers they experience. Finally, parents and caregivers may gain a clearer understanding of their children's challenges, the forms of available support, and ways to cooperate with schools. Overall, the study contributes to creating a more supportive learning environment.

2 Rationale

The niche identified above provided the rationale for exploring teachers' roles in managing the FLA of dyslexic teenage learners of English in the mainstream primary school context. After reviewing the relevant literature on dyslexia, anxiety, and the role of the teacher in dealing with dyslexic students' anxiety, I developed a two-stage mixed-methods study design to examine EFL teachers' perspectives and experiences in working with anxious students with dyslexia.

First of all, apart from filling the niche of dyslexia and anxiety research, my research interest was fuelled by personal experience. Breaking the vicious circle caused by repeated failures and refraining from participation in the language learning activities has been a considerable challenge for a family member. This challenge is worsened by the fact that the extent to which anxiety manifests itself in the presence of language barriers varies and changes dynamically as the foreign language learning situation changes. Literature confirms that the relationship between individual differences and foreign language learning has been examined by David and Gyarmathy (2023), Kontra (2019), and Piechurska-Kuciel (2008). Foreign language anxiety is one of the individual differences that may lead to differential success on the part of the language learner.

Thirdly, I was motivated to establish a model of teaching anxious dyslexic students through grounded theory, similar to the framework that Furcsa (2012) established on how to teach foreign languages to socially disadvantaged children. Several studies have explored specific learning differences and constructed models of dyslexia and foreign language classroom anxiety. One example is the Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis model (LCDH) by Sparks and Ganschow (1991). This model views foreign language classroom anxiety as the result of linguistic coding

issues involving phonology, grammar, and semantics. However, there has not been a model developed specifically for addressing dyslexia and foreign language classroom anxiety.

Similarly, several models exist for dealing with foreign language classroom anxiety. "The model of Lazarus (1993)", as referred to by Piniel (2009), is most relevant to show how the situation-specific, foreign language classroom anxiety can be managed through (1) problem-focused coping, or (2) emotion-focused coping. A teacher-focused model needs to be devised, which can be applied in primary school contexts. This model may be utilised in other learning contexts, for example, in secondary grammar schools or even in higher education contexts, both in Hungary and internationally. Moreover, the model may inform language pedagogy. After exploring the relationship of the students' needs and EFL teachers' approaches and strategies used within a specific context, and examining these elements through the concept of anxiety, such a model could be constructed using grounded theory.

There are four reasons why grounded theory is a suitable methodological choice in the present research. First, there are limited studies examining dyslexia and foreign language anxiety in the EFL teaching context. While there is a growing number of studies on dyslexia and anxiety, less is available on how teachers manage anxious dyslexic learners at the primary school level. The grounded theory approach is suited to bridge this gap, as it allows new models to emerge that are grounded in real data. Secondly, the aim of this research is to gain a deep understanding of how teachers recognize and address the anxiety of dyslexic students' and how their teaching practice is employed. Grounded theory is well-suited for investigating complex processes such as these. Thirdly, grounded theory can help deepen the understanding of both the quantitative and qualitative findings employed in the mixed-methods design. Lastly, the development of a new model for teaching dyslexic language learners through an iterative approach, contrasting and

comparing data, and the use of triangulation can strengthen the credibility of the research, as noted by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

Therefore, the aim of my investigation was twofold: in Strand 1 to present an overview of EFL teachers' attitudes about dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic students and then in Strand 2 to gain a deep understanding of participants' experience through the combination of both qualitative and quantitative research (Dörnyei, 2007) in Strand 1 and 2. "The combined use of qualitative and quantitative methods with the hope of offering the best of both worlds" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.11) can help to answer the research questions most effectively through quantitative data from questionnaires and qualitative data from interviews and observations.

2.1 Structural Overview

The dissertation is organized to facilitate a comprehensive understanding of how EFL teachers in Hungarian primary schools perceive and deal with anxiety in dyslexic learners. Following the introduction, Chapter 2 provides the rationale of the study, while Chapter 3 consists of a review of the theoretical background. The concepts of dyslexia and anxiety and their effects on language learning and teaching are discussed. Chapter 4 elaborates on the research design, justifying the use of a mixed-method study to answer the research questions. Moreover, it introduces the participants, the quantitative and qualitative data collection tools, as well as methods such as statistical analysis, the constant comparative method, and the grounded theory approach.

Chapter 5, Strand 1 of the study, presents the details of the quantitative inquiry based on the responses collected from 245 EFL teachers. This chapter gives a general overview of FLA among dyslexic learners and EFL teachers' attitudes to anxiety and language challenges. Chapter 6, Strand 2 of the study, is the qualitative inquiry of EFL teachers' experiences and perceptions on supporting anxious dyslexic learners, utilizing interviews and lesson observations. Chapter 7

presents the emerging grounded-theory model, illustrating how the elements of teaching and supporting anxious dyslexic learners are intertwined. Chapter 8 presents the conclusions, while Chapter 9 lists the limitations of the dissertation and future research suggestions. Finally, Chapter 10 concludes with the implications of the study, with a focus on training in cognitive and emotional aspects of language teaching and the importance of collaboration among stakeholders.

3 Background to the concepts of dyslexia and anxiety

3.1 Context

In the Hungarian context, dyslexia is estimated to occur in around 5-10% in the population. As explained in the introduction, FL instruction generally starts in Year 4 (at about the age of 10) according to the new National Core Curriculum (NAT), the basic curriculum guidelines for Hungarian schools. The most popular FL is English. Based on the data of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office on students learning FLs in primary schools in 2020/2021, 440,000 students studied English out of the total number of 726,000 students in primary school education in the academic year 2020/2021 (KSH, 2021a). Out of the registered number of 92,845 SEN children and students in nursery, primary, and secondary schools in Hungary, less than half of them (39,838) experienced barriers to dyslexia in 2020/2021 (KSH, 2021b). The ratio shows similarity to international figures. While the Hungarian language has a more or less transparent orthography, the agglutinative nature of the language may impact dyslexia. Consequently, there is a need for identification and action to support these learners effectively.

The Hungarian educational system recognizes that dyslexia requires strategies to build inclusive practices such as differentiated instruction. However, the implementation of these strategies can vary across schools and different parts of Hungary. University programs are

beginning to incorporate dyslexia support in classrooms. Research by Kormos, Orosz, and Szatzker (2009) highlight that teachers who are informed about dyslexia are more likely to adopt supportive teaching methods. Nonetheless, challenges remain, including the curricula, which, due to their rigidity, can exacerbate anxiety and hinder performance for these learners.

In the Hungarian primary school context, EFL teachers are mainly responsible for teaching a foreign language to all students, including those who face language and emotional barriers. EFL teachers may collaborate with school support staff such as speech therapists, school psychologists, and developmental teachers or specialists. Speech therapists identify specific language difficulties and support communication. School psychologists support students' mental health and may train both students and teachers about learning strategies. Finally, developmental teachers or specialists provide instruction tailored to the needs of the students and empower their students with skills that support their learning. This cooperation can contribute to building an inclusive environment.

3.2 Conceptual Framework

As my study focuses on the EFL teacher, those concepts, constructs, and key factors that may contribute to the successful instruction of anxious dyslexic students and minimise barriers in the classroom will be investigated. The relationship among students' needs, EFL teachers' approaches, and strategies used within a specific context are part of this conceptual framework. These elements are examined through the concept of anxiety. The literature on teaching dyslexic learners and dealing with their anxiety serves as a frame of reference against the findings of the planned study, which allows for theoretical connections to be established. This research project, from the literature review through data collection and analysis, is guided by the research questions.

In the following, first, the concept of dyslexia will be presented in a brief general summary. After this, the impact of dyslexia on foreign language learning will be discussed. The specific situation of dyslexic language learners is associated with other phenomena that make language learning difficult, such as anxiety. Therefore, the third part of the literature review will focus on anxiety. Next, the dissertation will provide an outline of previous research on teaching FLs to learners with special needs, with a focus on the concept of anxiety.

3.3 The concept of dyslexia

Dyslexia has been widely researched across multiple disciplines, including special education, psychology, and neuroscience, all of which have informed the contemporary understanding of the concept. There are different understandings of how the term *dyslexia* is defined. It incorporates the complex understandings of an evolving concept. The term dyslexia originates from the field of medicine, which was initially used to denote "word blindness," with its usage traceable to the 1870's (Whyte, 2020). Following the medical approach, the American Psychiatric Association (2013) defines dyslexia as a specific learning disorder with impaired reading in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5), which is the standard classification of mental disorders used by mental health professionals. Dyslexia research still relies on the medical framework, seeing dyslexia as a disorder or a deficit.

Handler (2016) notes that dyslexia not only refers to reading challenges, but it is also associated with challenges regarding spelling, word recognition, and processing. Dyslexics may experience frustration when trying to learn a language, with varying degrees of success. According to Stanovich (1988), this can be explained by limitations of receptive skills, such as listening,

expressive language skills, such as speaking, and phonological skills, such as phonemic awareness and rapid letter recognition. Research is often conducted focusing on the limitations and deficits.

The way dyslexia is conceptualized differs across regions. Regional variation in the way dyslexia is understood is also evident. In the US, dyslexia is typically considered a Learning Disorder (LD; Snowling et al., 2020), whereas in the UK, the terms *specific learning disability* (SpLD) or *specific learning difference/difficulty* are more commonly used (Daloiso, 2017; Kormos, 2017). Schneider and Crombie's (2003) definition captures most effectively the complexity of what dyslexia is:

> …a language processing difficulty to varying degrees that affects mainly reading and writing in letter, number, and/or musical symbols. These difficulties occur because of differing abilities of the brain to process auditory and/or visually presented information. While dyslexia cannot be cured, specific accommodations through professional teaching can provide the dyslexic individual with successful coping strategies. (p. 3)

Although dyslexia can affect the ability to both understand spoken language and comprehend written material, appropriate instructional approaches and sustained effort can make meaningful progress possible.

More recent developments can be observed in the use of terminology. Instead of learning disability/disorder, which have negative connotations, recent sources recommend the use of the terms *specific learning differences* (Kormos & Smith, 2012) or *specific learning difficulties* (Daloiso, 2017; Kormos, 2017) to highlight that these children can learn; they just learn differently and require different teaching and learning methods. While *disabilities* refer to some kind of deficiency from a medical point of view, the use of the term *difference* does not emphasize dysfunction but refers instead to distinct ways of processing information.

The most recent development in the terminology exceeds all previous definitions: *neurodiversity* seeks to involve learners with dyslexia, ADHD (attention deficit hyperactivity disorder) and other differences in neurological processing (Silberman, 2017). The emergence of the neurodiverse paradigm has emphasised underlying neurological variation in how learners' first language is produced and used, highlighting ways that learners with dyslexia process information differently. This assumption challenges the medical framing of dyslexia, viewing the concept as if the person had a deficit. Instead, the diversity aspect is highlighted with the neurodivergent framing, the brain of the person is wired differently. The term, *neurodiversity*, was coined in the 1990s. Neurodiversity recognizes and celebrates that dyslexia and other different neurological processing occur naturally. The challenges that neurodivergent people face are not due to how their brains work, but rather how these learners are being taught. Challenges that neurodivergent people face are due to the methods and strategies employed in the classroom. Using teaching methods that consider their needs can help to overcome these challenges.

In line with these recent developments, Silberman (2017) uses the term *neurodivergent*, while Kormos and Smith (2012) and Daloiso (2017, p. 14) use the expressions *specific learning difference* (SpLD) or *specific learning difficulty* for a wide range of students with special needs, such as dyslexia, dyscalculia, or ADHD. The authors underline that the conditions listed above often occur together. For instance, students with dyslexia may face barriers to sustaining their attention and may also be diagnosed with ADHD. Students, however, have both strengths and weaknesses. Even though dyslexic students face different kinds of language learning difficulties and anxiety, students with different needs respond differently to different instructional interventions. Nevertheless, some approaches and strategies may be helpful for all of them.

The American Psychiatric Association (2013) estimates that dyslexia affects millions of people around the world, and about 10-15% of the world's population faces barriers related to dyslexia. 85% of the students are not identified as having specific learning difficulties "until they reach secondary education" (Reid, as cited in Mortimore, 2008, p. 57). Once identified, the condition stays with the individual for life, regardless of intelligence, intellectual abilities, or age. Dyslexia has neurological origins. Studies, including the study by Wood (2006), highlight brain differences between individuals with dyslexia and those without: "studies show definite brain differences between dyslexics and non-dyslexics" (Wood, 2006, p. 18). The nature of the condition and its neurological origin underline that dyslexia is not a transient issue, but a lasting neurodevelopmental difference.

As for the signs of dyslexia, dyslexics find it difficult to identify words based on their sounds and experience barriers with rote memorization of words or practicing spelling words. (Daloiso, 2017; Schneider & Crombie, 2003). Dyslexic learners may also have difficulty recognizing letters due to a decreased ability in terms of spatial awareness, poor hand-eye coordination, and motor skill difficulties. Nijakowska (2016) noted that dyslexics may face barriers to maintaining their attention and to automatizing new knowledge. Challenges associated with dyslexia differ from individual to individual, may even change in severity on a spectrum and dynamically during the course of a lifetime. However, common characteristics include difficulty in learning how to read or understand what is being read and difficulty in decoding words without the use of context clues. Even dyslexic individuals themselves define the barriers that are associated with dyslexia differently: "a problem transferring my knowledge into written work", "frustration at not being able to complete tasks on time", "having a bad memory and being disorganized", and many others (Daloiso, 2017, p.14).

Dyslexia which is categorized under the broader term of Special Educational Needs (SEN) is defined as follows: "A child has special educational needs if s/he has learning difficulties that requires special educational provision" (European Commission, 2005, p. 7). For the purposes of this study, the terms *neurodivergent*, *students with dyslexia*, *dyslexic students, learners with special needs* and *students with specific learning differences or difficulties* are adopted and used interchangeably to refer to those students who experience multiple challenges in the Hungarian primary school context (i.e., Grades 1-8) in line with Nagyné Nyikes (2019b).

In conclusion, the barriers associated with dyslexia vary to a considerable extent, as well as the definitions of the concept of dyslexia. Most definitions have different layers of understanding. In order to have a full picture of dyslexia, all these layers need to be considered. Consequently, dyslexia is a multidimensional concept with biological factors that concern the brain, cognitive factors that relate to information processing, behavioural factors that are connected to reading and spelling barriers, and environmental factors that are linked to instructional aspects. These exist on a continuum varying from mild to severe.

3.4 The impact of dyslexia on FL learning and whether all dyslexics are anxious

Dyslexia can have a negative impact on a student's foreign language learning. Nijakowska (2010) explained how barriers language learners face in their L1 may be transferred to their FL learning, which could considerably impede their language development. As Furcsa (2012) also noted, there are several research projects that have reported on challenges such as weak verbal memory, the lack of age-appropriate literacy skills, and co-occurring challenges (Kontra et al., 2015; Kormos, 2017; Kormos & Csizér, 2009; Kormos & Kontra, 2008; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Schneider & Crombie, 2003) that dyslexic students experience when learning a FL.

The specific challenges dyslexic language learners face revolve around the difficult aspects of language learning. Language learning is challenging as it is a complex task that depends on, among other factors, processing skills. Phonological, syntactic, and semantic processing greatly influences language learning success. Dyslexia may, however, hinder these processing skills, with achievement varying according to individual characteristics (Skehan, 1991).

Dyslexia not only has a negative impact on academic achievement and processing (Schneider & Crombie, 2003), but the condition can also negatively influence the social and emotional processes of language learning, potentially causing social difficulties such as social isolation or peer-rejection and leading to negative self-evaluation, low self-esteem, and low self-confidence. Dyslexic students may also face other challenges associated with anxiety. As early as the 1990s, a study was published by Shaywitz et al. (1992) on the co-occurrence of dyslexia and anxiety. It is not uncommon for anxiety to occur alongside dyslexia, making it of primary importance to identify and address dyslexic students' emotional states to enhance their learning experience.

Signs of anxiety, for instance, distraction, day-dreaming, fear of rejection, insecurity, lack of concentration, phobias, and withdrawal have been widely reported in research (Willcutt & Pennington, 2000). In the case of dyslexic preteens and teenagers, Maughan and Carroll (2006) found that more 9–15-year-old children have generalized and separation anxiety. These challenges tended to impact the language learning process, as well. The foreign language anxiety students with dyslexia may face can manifest itself in distinct ways; as a feeling of unease, worry or fear. This is how neurodivergent students respond to language learning situations that they assess as threatening or stressful. However, excessive foreign language learning anxiety can become debilitating and may interfere with foreign language learning. Anxiety signs that occur in foreign

language learning situations may be physical such as a racing heart, sweating, trembling, and difficulty breathing, along with cognitive and emotional symptoms including avoidance of situations that trigger anxiety, excessive worry, and irritability (Spielberger,1966).

Dyslexic students are all anxious. This dissertation is not about a narrow group of dyslexic children who are anxious. All dyslexics experience anxiety. Specific learning difficulties have been associated with anxiety and behavioural problems (McNulty, 2003; Siegel, 2016). Anxiety, similarly to other emotional difficulties, arises because of reading, language, or other difficulties (Jordan & Dyer, 2017). In fact, Nelson and Harwood (2010) argue that dyslexic students tend to be more anxious than their non-dyslexic peers in educational and social settings. Livingston, Seigel, and Ribary (2018) found that emotions associated with dyslexia vary. Firstly, because dyslexia itself occurs on a continuum with varying intensity, and foreign language anxiety also occurs on a continuum and may change dynamically (Gregersen, 2020). Secondly, how students may respond to dyslexia differs (Riddick, 2010), so the anxiety reactions in a second language (L2) context (MacIntyre, 1999) that dyslexic language learners may give vary (Toth, 2011). Both externalizing (disruptive) behaviours and internalizing (depressive, withdrawn, and anxious) behaviours can occur as manifestations of anxiety. Having established that dyslexic learners face various anxiety reactions, next the focus of the dissertation is defined.

The focus of the dissertation is on teaching *anxious dyslexic students*, using the concept of anxiety defined by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with [foreign language] contexts” (p. 284), which occurs in the context of classroom-based foreign language learning (Jin et al., 2021). Research indicates that dyslexia is also often comorbid with " internalising problems such as anxiety and depression " (Francis et al., 2019, p.45). *Anxious dyslexic students* in the primary school context are defined for the purposes

of the dissertation as learners who experience language barriers related to dyslexia, may or may not have official proof of these barriers, and have heightened levels of anxiety. The difficulties these students experience are often associated with reading, writing, and processing information, as well as emotional barriers such as feelings of being nervous, fear of committing errors or making mistakes, and avoidance of speaking or participating in class.

Having discussed the concept of dyslexia and the impact of dyslexia on language learning, I will now deepen the investigation and will turn to discussing anxiety in language learning in depth, and then I will move on to talk about anxiety and dyslexic learners.

3.5 The concept of anxiety

Anxiety has been widely researched in both the fields of psychology and language pedagogy. From the perspective of psychology, Spielberger (1966) has created two main types of anxiety categories: "state anxiety" and "trait anxiety". The first of the two categories, trait anxiety, is understood as a personal disposition to become anxious in different circumstances, whereas state anxiety is understood as a temporarily experienced negative feeling (Eysenck, 1979). Building on this framework of two categories, MacIntyre (1999) argues that FLA experienced in the classroom falls into the third category, situation-specific anxiety, as it is specifically linked to L2 classroom learning contexts.

Anxiety can also be both debilitating and facilitating. If it is debilitating, the feelings of fear, worry, and doubt may prevent a person from achieving their goals. Debilitating anxiety, as Barlow (2002) notes, can influence cognitive processes and hinder performance. If, however, it is facilitating anxiety, it can motivate people to work harder in order to reach their goal. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) proposed that these moderate levels of anxiety can have motivational force. This type of anxiety is often referred to as "facilitative anxiety". It is worth highlighting that the focus

of the dissertation project concentrates on the first type, the debilitating anxiety, the feelings of fear, worry, and doubt and how they could be dealt with in the EFL context.

It has been documented that learners who experience foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) experience anxiety linked to an L2 environment, "have the *trait* of feeling *state* anxiety when participating in language learning and/or use" (Horwitz, 2017, p. 33). Some authors are concerned with FLA in more general terms; others write specifically about FLCA as it occurs in the language classroom; therefore, in this latter case, I am going to use the acronym FLCA, but otherwise just FLA.

It must be noted, however, that FLCA is not the mere transfer of the psychological phenomenon of anxiety - "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Spielberger, 1983, p. 1) to the language learning context (Horwitz et al., 1986). As stated by Horwitz et al. (1986), communication apprehension, which is the fear of interacting with people, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety, are the key elements of FLA. In addition to these elements, FLA contains an added unique element: the metacognitive awareness of having to use a language in which learners are not fully competent. Therefore, Horwitz et al. define FLCA as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (1986, p.128).

The concept of anxiety has been further refined in recent years. Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) shed new light on FLCA, highlighting not only the positive and negative emotions associated with it, but reconceptualize anxiety by presenting statistical evidence that these positive and negative emotions (i.e., enjoyment and anxiety) represent different dimensions. Therefore, FLCA and the joy of learning a foreign language represent different dimensions and not "two sides

of the same coin" according to Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014, p. 265). Anxiety is not simply the lack of enjoyment. FLCA is a complex phenomenon, and it is most accessible through its effects, such as the manifestation of FLCA on the language learning process, performance, and self, which will be examined further in the following sections.

3.5.1 The effects of anxiety

The effects of foreign language anxiety on language learning manifest themselves in four main areas: academic, cognitive, social, and personal. From an academic perspective, MacIntyre (1999) considers FLCA as one of the key factors in predicting whether students become successful language learners. Researchers have disagreed on what role anxiety plays in the foreign language learning of SEN students. On the one hand, Sparks and Ganschow (1993a, 1993b) claim that FLCA is the consequence of L1 language learning difficulties: "the primary causal factors in successful or unsuccessful FL learning are linguistic; that is, students who exhibit FL learning problems have overt or subtle native language learning differences that affect their learning of a foreign language" (Ganschow et al., 1998, p. 248). Indeed, Sparks and Ganschow (1991) argue that FLCA is the result of a lack of phonological, grammatical, and semantic knowledge, which is the result of poor native language learning skills as outlined in the Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis (LCDH).

On the other hand, MacIntyre (1995) argues that anxiety can be a cause of low language performance, not only the consequence of a deficiency in L1 skills. While the weaknesses, such as memory, attention, phonological, and/or visual processing difficulties that dyslexic students experience, can certainly be anxiety-provoking, MacIntyre (1995) highlights that learners without learning difficulties can also experience anxiety during their foreign language learning. Anxiety can interfere with language learning from a social communicative perspective; thus, anxiety can

be a cause of low language performance, not only the consequence of a deficiency in L1 skills. A vicious circle may develop: the dyslexic language learner avoids language practice opportunities in the FL classroom, and due to lack of practice in class, this learner does not become a successful language user, which, in the end, will lead to further learning failures (MacIntyre, 1999).

In line with MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), or in the Hungarian context, Piniel (2009), from a cognitive perspective, anxiety can interfere with the input, process and output stages of learning. According to Tobias and Everson (1997), worry lowers the working memory capacity of learners. Eysenck and Calvo (1992) argue that this cognitive component of anxiety, worry, may interfere with concentration and short-term memory. As a result, "the processing of input and the production of output"(Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008) may slow down, and the number of errors produced may also increase. Not surprisingly, Horwitz et al. (1986) and Young (1991) were led to the conclusion that FLCA and FL performance are negatively correlated.

According to Dewaele et al. (2018), FLCA is claimed to produce a debilitating effect on FL achievement, and these findings have been replicated internationally with different language learners. In their study, Dewaele et al. researched the effect that anxiety has on FL learning. The authors examined the impact of learner-centred and teacher-centred FLCA factors and foreign language enjoyment. 189 London secondary school students participated in the research project. Results showed that lower levels of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) were linked to more positive attitudes towards the FL learning. Foreign language enjoyment enabled learners to deal with their FL learning challenges in the UK context. FL performance moderately negatively correlated with FLCA.

Other researchers, however, argue that there are cases when the correlation is weak between FL performance and FLCA (Eysenck & Calvo, 1992). Anxiety may not always hinder

but can also facilitate language learning (Piniel & Csizér, 2013) and can result in successful language performance. Scovel (1978) notes that facilitating anxiety can encourage students to make extra efforts to succeed in their studies. This is because learners with high anxiety are prepared to put more effort into their EFL learning tasks. It is the effort and the time spent on completing an exercise that determines the processing efficiency source.

In addition to academic performance and cognitive functioning, FLCA also impacts social engagement in the FL classroom (MacIntyre, 1999). The social aspects of foreign language learning may discourage the learner from communicating in the classroom. A learner with high FLCA might avoid communicative situations where social interactions take place in L2. A learner with low FLCA may find the communicative situations less anxiety-provoking. FLCA, thus, has an effect on learners' social skills: it negatively influences participation in group learning activities.

Language anxiety's effects also manifest themselves at a personal level. These personal impacts are revealed through physiological and psychological reactions. Physiological reactions do not only include high blood pressure, stomach disease, or tense muscles, but also symptoms such as playing nervously with one’s hair or other objects, fidgeting and stuttering (Oxford, 1999). As for the psychological reactions, researchers (MacIntyre, Noels & Clement, 1997) found that FLCA and students' self-rating of their proficiency negatively correlated; increased FLCA was linked to lower expectation for good grades and performance. Results also show that self-efficacy and anxiety are strongly related (Piniel, 2009): learners who feel that they are unable to complete their language learning tasks often experience anxiety in their learning process.

Personal effects of FLCA are observable in self-concept and identity, as well. Şimşek and Dörnyei (2017) claim that language learning is related to students’ self-concept, and the authors introduce the concept of *Anxious Self*, "identity dimension" (Kákonyi, 2019) within foreign

language anxiety research. Learners create narratives to process their experience and manage their anxiety, and they deal with anxiety at this narrative level; however, some learners find it challenging to construct a narrative of their experiences on their own. The authors maintain that it is vital for a narrative to be constructed to manage the learning experience; for instance, it helps the learners to understand their feelings. According to Tóth (2017), when the learners make efforts to express themselves in the foreign language, they experience an attack on their identities, which may result in anxiety. Due to the limitation that the learners feel because they are unable to express their true self in the foreign language, they are likely to experience stress and a negative L2-image.

Recent research by Hu et al. (2021) identified four elements of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and negative attitude towards the classroom. The last item of the list, negative attitude towards the classroom, was added to the three types of anxiety named by Horwitz et al. (1986), which indicated a deeper understanding of FLA. The concept of FLA is recognized as more complex with a more thorough comprehension of it. The participants were 631 primary school students in China, 324 male and 307 female EFL learners, aged between 9 and 11 years. This piece of research revealed that FL anxiety and FL achievement correlated negatively; it was more evident when high-stakes assessments were used as opposed to lower-stakes assessments.

Studies on strategies that minimize the level of anxiety are scarce. Kondo and Ying-Ling (2004) managed to identify 70 basic strategies for dealing with language anxiety. The 70 basic strategies could be grouped into five categories: Preparation, such as studying hard; Relaxation, such as taking a deep breath or calming down; Positive Thinking, like imagining oneself giving a great performance; Peer Seeking, like finding others with difficulty controlling their anxiety; and

Resignation, such as giving up in line with Liu and Wang (2023). The frequency of using these strategies and language anxiety did not show a significant correlation, though.

Alrabai (2022b) investigated learner anxiety and other interrelated affective variables and their influence on explaining proficiency in EFL. Eight EFL teachers conducted a 12-week-long intervention with 282 EFL learners in four groups: Group 1 received exposure to anxiety-regulating strategies, Group 2 to motivational strategies, Group 3 to both anxiety-controlling and motivational strategies, while Group 4 did not receive any specific anxiety or motivation strategies. According to Alrabai (2022a, p.5), the ten anxiety-controlling strategies were the following:

> 1. Create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom, 2. Build a friendly rapport with your students, 3. Deal properly with learners' errors, 4. Avoid comparing students' performance or involving them in highly competitive tasks, 5. Prepare students in advance for speaking English in class, 6. Increase learners' opportunities to interact in English in the class, 7. Prepare students well for language tests, 8. Show students that you care about their progress. 9. Select tasks that are relevant to students and are within their ability limits, 10. Address students' anxiety-provoking beliefs and misconceptions about learning English.

Compared to the control group, the use of anxiety-reducing and motivational strategies had strong effects on L2 proficiency. Meditation and yoga were mentioned as additional strategies to fight stress and apprehension. Meditation-like strategies help students manage their negative emotions related to language learning (Oxford, 2017).

This section reviewed FLCA effects on "academic, cognitive, social, and personal levels" (Tóth, 2022). Increased FLCA levels were found to have a negative correlation with language learning achievement: learners with high FLCA tend to have lower grades. Those learners who

avoid communicative interactions in L2, who experience excessive physiological and psychological reactions, and those who find it challenging to create a narrative of their anxiety experiences, need the support of the EFL teacher to manage their FLCA.

3.6 Dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic learners

In the following section, I will review research projects where there is relevant information about teaching anxious dyslexic learners in both international and Hungarian contexts. Most studies focus on the students; there are hardly any studies that focus on teachers and the way they could assist learners in coping with anxiety in the language classroom. The pedagogical value of dealing with anxiety and the importance of methods, strategies, and techniques used as pedagogical tools of dealing with FLCA are aimed at improving the quality of anxious dyslexic learners' foreign language learning experience.

Dealing with dyslexic learners' anxiety can be different from dealing with non-dyslexic learners' anxiety due to the specific barriers that dyslexic learners face. Dyslexic learners may experience anxiety when such tasks need to be solved that require reading, writing, or spelling. Decoding and comprehending written language may present extreme challenges in the foreign language learning situation, which may lead to more FLCA. An understanding of these specific challenges that dyslexic learners face, the associated FLCA challenges, and a willingness to provide support to learners may contribute to finding ways to minimize language and anxiety–related barriers that dyslexic learners face.

In terms of how to deal with the anxiety of dyslexic learners in the FL classroom, in the international context, there are a number of recommendations. In Poland, Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) proposes a complex dyslexia treatment. The author suggests that dyslexic students would be able to cope with their anxiety in learning a foreign language more effectively if they received

a complex dyslexia treatment, which consists of multi-sensory techniques of visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic-tactile activities. In a questionnaire study of secondary school pupils, Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) investigated the three language processing stages: the input, processing, and output stages and the anxiety levels of dyslexic students at these stages. The findings show that anxiety stays high in the processing stage, when new knowledge representations are being built and in the output stage, when students with dyslexia use the foreign language to communicate. She argues that compared to non-dyslexic learners, dyslexic students exhibit higher levels of anxiety in their language learning process. Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) suggests that the reason for exhibiting heightened levels of anxiety is that the effects of FLCA seem to worsen dyslexic learners' foreign language learning troubles, such as challenges in reading, in spelling, in recognizing words accurately or fluently, and in processing information (Handler, 2016). Therefore, dyslexic students may decide to withdraw from language learning because of foreign language classroom anxiety or stay in class if they receive a complex dyslexia treatment (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008). While Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) investigates both anxiety and dyslexia from the perspective of the students, she does not specifically address what teachers do in class to deal with the anxiety of dyslexic students in the classroom.

In the United States of America, the most often recommended method to minimize language barriers is the Multisensory Structured Language (MSL) approach, (Sparks, et al, 1998; Sparks, 2009), which can help anxious SEN students overcome FL learning difficulties. The MSL approach (Sparks & Miller, 2000), originally created for teaching Spanish, then for other languages, has its focus on the direct, explicit, and step-by-step teaching of phonology/orthography. This includes sound−symbol relationships, syntax, morphology and the multisensory practice of structures and vocabulary as Furcsa (2012) also notes. The multisensory

practice enhances the learning of anxious SEN learners by utilizing their strengths in the visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and tactile skills at the same time (Sparks et al., 1998, p. 242). The multisensory practice is introduced in detail; however, the study neglects to highlight the strategies that anxious dyslexic students may benefit from.

Similar to the application of multisensory practice, the use of differentiated instruction is essential in managing the anxiety of dyslexic learners. As it is also noted by Furcsa (2012), differentiated instruction means addressing students' individual needs in class (Tomlinson & Allan, 2000). Teachers can differentiate in three key areas: in *content*— what students learn; *process*— what activities they use to learn; and *products*— what they create and how they are assessed (Tomlinson & Allan, 2000). Teachers can differentiate in *content* by presenting ideas through both auditory and visual formats. EFL professionals can differentiate in *processes* by using worksheets on the same topic, at different levels. *Products* differentiation provides learners with options to choose from different tasks such as writing a letter or developing a mural with labels. Additionally, Tomlinson highlights that the learning *environment* is yet another key domain for differentiation. This includes classroom management strategies (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 37) like pacing and grouping of the participants (individual, pair, or group work). When planning time differentiation in class, pacing can be adjusted to meet individual needs; students who require more time to finish a task do not hold back those who finish early. As Tomlinson (2003) argues, individual, small group, and whole class settings make interaction possible among students in different roles. Creating a positive environment further contributes to learning.

In an interview study in the Hungarian context, Kormos et al. (2009b) suggested alterations in the instructional settings for decreasing FLCA. They found that written assessment tasks can provoke substantial anxiety, and that FLCA is most likely to develop when student assignments

are not only marked for content, but for correctness of spelling. The authors claim that students' anxiety was reduced when changes were introduced, which removed the assessment of spelling. When the stressor was removed, dyslexic students experienced success in their language learning process. The results also revealed that teacher attitudes to dyslexia and teaching methods were a source of language learning anxiety for the participants. FLCA could, however, be decreased by creating favourable conditions in the EFL classroom, which clearly indicates that the learning processes of dyslexic language students were affected by the instructional setting (Kormos et al., 2009b). The study provides insight into how learners' foreign language anxiety affects the FL learning processes of dyslexic learners in Hungary; however, the question of what characterizes teachers' reactions towards dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety still remains to be answered.

In Hungary, Sarkadi (2008) proposed recommendations for successful classroom instruction of anxious dyslexic learners. Vocabulary learning difficulties were identified as the most challenging area by Sarkadi (2008) in her exploratory case study. This study of a successful dyslexic language learner showed how effectively multisensory structured language approaches, explicit phonemic awareness instruction, and learning strategy training can be used in a one-to-one, low-anxiety teaching environment. As also highlighted by Furcsa (2012), Sarkadi (2008) claimed that these teaching methods could easily be integrated into mainstream FL instruction and that the research project provided rich data on one anxious dyslexic learner in a one-to-one context in Hungary.

In terms of the literature that focuses on teachers in managing dyslexic students with anxiety in Hungary, there is limited research available. In a focus group study (Kontráné Hegybíró & Kormos, 2008), teachers who are experienced in how to design courses for anxious SpLD

learners recommend several approaches: "explicit teaching and frequent revision of vocabulary and grammar items", "multisensory techniques", "step by step instruction" and "self-paced presentation of the material", which are also highlighted by Furcsa (2012). Additionally, based on the insights of interviewed teachers, the effectiveness of these approaches can be improved through collaborating with experts within the schools and offering a weekly remedial class for SpLD learners. During the remedial class, students can review and practice what they have already covered in the lessons in smaller groups "at their own pace" (Kormos & Kontra, 2008).

In two influential publications, the key principles related to instructing anxious dyslexic students in the EFL classroom are highlighted by Kormos and Smith (2012) and Kormos (2017). The authors suggest that teachers should model appropriate affective strategies and specifically promote pre-teaching vocabulary through, for instance, flashcards (Schneider & Crombie, 2003). Additionally, according to Kormos and Smith (2012, p. 134), technological tools such as the interactive whiteboard, a combination of online educational platforms such as "Virtual Learning Environments" (Magnuczné Godó, 2020), or other Information and Communications Technology (ICT) resources also provide stress-free ways to teach vocabulary and grammar.

Language teachers managing anxious dyslexic students in their EFL classes can employ these methods and techniques for teaching FL to anxious SpLD learners. Most resources focus on dyslexic students who are anxious and may be facing additional challenges related to dysgraphia or ADHD. The complex nature of the challenges not only requires teaching approaches and techniques to be in place, but also various strategies tailored to the individual learner’s needs.

3.7 Learner strategies that teachers teach to students to cope with their anxiety

Dyslexia related difficulties play a significant role in provoking the negative effects that FLCA has on dyslexic students' English language learning performance and requires teachers to

instruct learners, on various strategies to cope with their anxiety in the EFL classroom; these are coping strategies that language learners use (Piniel, 2009), metacognitive, and affective strategies within learning strategies (Oxford, 1990).

First of all, teachers need to instruct dyslexic learners in applying coping strategies. Piniel (2009), in her dissertation research project investigating secondary school students, proposed a model of FLCA, which can be adapted for the dyslexic learner. The dyslexic learner arrives in the classroom with initial motivation (Dörnyei, 2005) to learn the language. According to Piniel (2009), during the language learning process, stressful situations occur between learners, their instructor, and their peers. As Piniel (2009) explains the stressful situations are assessed how they relate the dyslexic learner's goals and motivations. In the case that the stressor is relevant to the goals of this learner, anxiety may emerge. In the same way that people cope with major life events or illnesses, learners cope with these stressful situations; they use coping strategies to deal with both anxiety and the source.

In line with Piniel (2009), coping is described as a dynamic interaction between the individual and the environment. There are several models (Oláh, 2005), out of which the framework of Lazarus (1993) seems most suited to model how FL learners can deal with FLCA. Coping strategies can be grouped into two types: (1) "problem-focused coping", which is about changing the environment or oneself, and (2) "emotion-focused coping", which is about reducing the negative feelings. The latter is in line with what Young (1991) recommends: dealing with the negative feelings and decreasing their effects.

Emotion-focused coping strategies were more likely to be used by learners with heightened levels of language anxiety. At the same time, however, lower anxiety learners opted for problem-focused strategies, as these students were confident that "they can be successful language learners"

(Piniel, 2009). The same author also found that learners are not able to utilize coping strategies to manage FLCA without the support of the EFL teacher. Thus, teachers training students in the use of coping strategies would especially benefit dyslexic learners.

Other than the use of coping strategies, learning strategies can also help minimize anxiety during foreign language learning. Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies has attracted research attention for some time (Griffiths, 2013; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Oxford's (2011) complex definition below best captures the essence of L2 learning strategies:

> L2 learning strategies are complex, dynamic thoughts and actions selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts in order to regulate multiple aspects of themselves (such as cognitive, emotional, and social) for the purpose of (a) accomplishing language tasks; (b) improving language performance or use; and/ or (c) enhancing long-term proficiency. Strategies are mentally guided but may also have physical and, therefore, observable manifestations. Learners often use strategies flexibly and creatively; combine them in various ways, such as strategy clusters and strategy chains; and orchestrate them to meet learning needs. Strategies are teachable. Learners in their context decide which strategies to use. Appropriateness of strategies depends on multiple personal and contextual factors. (p. 48)

In her taxonomy, Oxford (1990) classified six categories of learning strategies: *metacognitive*, *memory*, *cognitive*, *compensation*, *social*, and *affective* strategies. Metacognitive strategies help organise and evaluate the foreign language learning process. Memory strategies facilitate the retention and recall of new words, while cognitive strategies relate to the mental processes involved in language use. Compensation strategies accommodate gaps in linguistic

knowledge, social strategies promote the learning process through cooperation, and affective strategies assist learners in managing emotions.

Oxford (2011) specifically calls for such learning strategies to be used that are appropriate to the given task and address learners' needs. Kormos and Smith (2012) assert that dyslexic learners "need assistance in applying learning strategies, organizing their learning and controlling their feelings in the learning process" (2012, p.127). Therefore, anxious dyslexic learners need assistance in using memory strategies, that is, in creating associations for new phrases. Moreover, dyslexic learners should receive training on how to use cognitive strategies for practicing language items, for instance in creating language input and output. Furthermore, anxious SEN students are in dire need of help in utilizing compensation strategies for comprehension: that is if learners experience difficulties with new words, they can guess the meaning based on the context, and social strategies for cooperating with each other to clarify meaning of these words in case guessing did not work.

Dyslexic students find it challenging cope with anxiety related challenges associated with their own language learning and tend to possess weak metacognitive skills, which leaves them unable "to reflect on their language learning process", "collect and organize materials", "arrange a study space and a schedule", or to "make self-corrections without support" (Nijakowska, 2010; Schneider & Crombie, 2003). Dyslexic students cannot learn metacognitive skills themselves; instead, they have to be taught by their teachers. Schneider and Crombie (2003) emphasise the importance of metacognitive skills as these skills effectively address the needs of anxious SEN students. Thus, metacognitive strategies enable students to become more aware of their learning process, and regular consultations offer more practice and review opportunities.

In terms of dealing with anxiety, the most relevant strategy that teachers are expected to introduce students to is the use of affective strategies. Affective strategies are indirect language learning strategies. Oxford (1990) identified three kinds of affective strategies, which are the following: "lowering anxiety", "encouraging oneself", and "taking emotional temperature". For instance, deep breathing or music can be an effective way to lower the anxiety of students in the EFL classroom. Encouraging oneself through positive self-talk and rewarding oneself for good performance might be helpful in overcoming anxiety during the language learning process. Moreover, identifying one's mood and anxiety level and talking about these feelings can contribute to improved mental state. Having encouraged and rewarded themselves, understood the moods and anxiety levels, learners can proactively address the challenges of foreign language learning.

The use of affective strategies was found to be related to L2 performance by Oxford and Ehrman (1995). Similarly, using metacognitive strategies (Schneider & Crombie, 2003), combined with coping strategies (Piniel, 2009), the language learning process can be improved for dyslexic language learners. Most language learners employ some strategies; however, the more experienced students become, the more they use strategies for dyslexic learners, and the more successful language learners they may become. Thus, strategy training for dyslexic learners is key to improving their language learning experience.

3.8 The role of the teacher and the context

In the following section, I will focus on the instructional context and on the role of the teacher, EFL teachers' attitudes and experiences with regard to dealing with anxiety. The attitude of the EFL teacher or the school may discourage the dyslexic student from language learning. Understanding teachers' attitudes and experiences is vital in the EFL classroom: If the teacher is willing to help the learners with dyslexia instead of recommending that they be exempted from

language classes, the anxious dyslexic learner may stay in the language class and may become a successful language learner.

Alongside the strategies listed in the previous section (2.3), Piniel and Albert (2018) and Price (1991) highlighted the role classroom factors play in the development of FLCA. In an earlier interview study, Piniel (2006) examined the role of the teacher in managing anxiety in the Hungarian classrooms. The study explored the views of six 9th-year grammar school students, who exhibited low trait anxiety and heightened levels of FLCA in one of the two languages they were studying. Piniel's results revealed that FLCA may develop regardless of low trait anxiety. Consequently, FLCA may originate from classroom factors, and the results of this particular study appears to point to the instructor as the main cause of students' levels of FLCA.

Other authors also emphasize the teacher's responsibility in dealing with learners' anxiety and creating a relaxing environment through empathic teacher attitudes. Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that teachers should turn their attention to situations that create anxiety in learners and consider creating a friendly and relaxing environment in the EFL classroom. Kormos et al. (2009a) and MacIntyre (1995) agree that it is the duty of the teacher to regulate class atmosphere by managing anxiety in the EFL classroom. In an observation project which took place in three very distinctive schools in Hungary, Kormos et al. (2009a) found that a teacher's empathic attitude to dyslexic students, teacher support, and pleasant atmosphere in the FL classroom contribute to the foreign language learning success of learners with special educational needs.

The teacher's efforts to reduce anxiety by creating a pleasant atmosphere in the FL classroom were also highlighted in a research project conducted by Jin and Dewaele (2018). However, their findings show that optimal emotional state does not stem from perceived emotional teacher support, but through strong peer support. In their study involving 144 Chinese EFL

students, Jin and Dewaele (2018) discovered that strong emotional support from peers influenced adult Chinese EFL learners' FLCA. Heightened levels of peer support were found to correspond with lower anxiety levels in learners. Consequently, FL teachers can effectively help learners deal with FLCA by strengthening peer support within the classroom.

The EFL teacher can support learners to cope with the anxiety they experience when they learn English as a foreign language by creating a less anxiety-provoking environment through appropriate teacher behaviour. In the Saudi Arabian context, Alrabai (2014) found that passive learners are characterized by high levels of anxiety and low performance in the English language. In a quantitative study with 1389 Saudi EFL learners, a low level of proficiency in English was found to contribute to high FL anxiety levels. In this context, the author recommended demonstrating appropriate FL teaching behaviour to students; instead of criticizing and overcorrecting errors, the teacher should encourage students to work together. Finally, it has also been implied that schools should review strict institutional norms that provoke learners' anxiety in the classrooms and should aim to create a low anxiety environment (Alrabai, 2014).

The investigation of what impact dyslexia has on foreign language learning, whether all dyslexics experience anxiety, and what the role of the teacher and context are in dealing with FLCA learners has been reviewed. Dyslexia impacts foreign language learning to a great extent. All dyslexics face anxiety-related barriers, and there is a considerable amount of research about dyslexia and how to teach dyslexic students English. Additionally, abundant studies are available on how anxiety influences L2 learning. The review demonstrates that studies that focus on what teachers can do to manage anxiety and dyslexia at the same time, however, are scarce. In the Hungarian context, there is a lack of studies investigating dyslexic instruction addressing the phenomenon of anxiety. There is only limited availability of theoretical information and practical

advice for dealing with the anxiety of both dyslexic and non-dyslexic students in mainstream classrooms**.** The survey, interviews, and observations of the planned research project aim to answer whether teachers of dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools utilize the available information.

Therefore, a mixed-methods investigation is planned. One aim is to tap into teachers' perceptions in dealing with dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety in primary school EFL classes in Hungary. The other aim is to gain insights into teachers' reactions to dealing with their learners' foreign language anxiety and the way the learners' foreign language anxiety affects the learning processes of dyslexic learners in primary school EFL classes in Hungary. Furthermore, the quantitative part of my inquiry is expected to give an overview of the context and show how relevant my qualitative inquiry is.

The investigation of dyslexia research through the lenses of anxiety in the context of foreign language teaching has been neglected, with the exception of Piechurska-Kuciel (2008), who focused on the interaction between language learning and dyslexic learners' feelings of worry. The role of the teacher in managing the anxiety of dyslexic learners is even more neglected. The reason for this lack of research is likely attributable to the low number of dyslexic students in each foreign language learning group. The limited attention given by researchers up until now addressing the anxiety of dyslexic learners may be due to limited teaching experience in the classroom or a lack of awareness of the difference that such research could make in the language learning of neurodivergent students. Alternatively, the intertwining concept of anxiety and language barriers may not be so tangible in the primary school context of large language learning groups, where FL teachers focus on the progress of the majority, with less attention given to those who are at risk.

3.9 Summary of the literature on dyslexia, anxiety, and teachers

Based on the literature that was reviewed, an anxious dyslexic student's foreign language learning is influenced by a complex relationship among cognitive, emotional, and contextual factors. Dyslexia research has repeatedly confirmed several language barriers associated with reading, spelling, word recognition, and processing. Additionally, dyslexic learners face anxiety due to the fear of negative evaluation and testing. Separate research projects have been conducted on dyslexia and anxiety, with limited research on how English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers teach anxious dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools. The school context, including collaboration with colleagues, parents and support staff, has also been neglected**.** The main research gaps: (1) lack of models addressing both dyslexia and foreign language anxiety; (2) no studies on how teachers manage anxious dyslexic students; limited studies on collaboration with colleagues, parents and support staff. These gaps highlight the need for mixed-methods research on teachers' knowledge and practices in real-world EFL classrooms.

4 Research Design

4.1 The main research questions

Having reviewed the literature on teaching students with dyslexia, teaching students with anxiety, and what little is available on teaching anxious dyslexic students and identifying the niche that exists, the aims of the dissertation research were developed, culminating in the following main research questions:

RQ1a What manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety are language teachers aware of?

RQ1b What factors can be used to describe teachers' attitude to the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?

RQ1c What factors can be used to describe teachers' perceptions about the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?

RQ1d What is the relationship among these factors?

RQ2a How does anxiety affect the L2 learning process for students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems based on the experience of language teachers in mainstream primary schools?

RQ2b How do language teachers reflect on their experience dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners?

RQ2c How do participating language teachers in mainstream primary schools view the use of different methods in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners or students with dyslexia-like symptoms?

RQ3 What characterizes teachers' practices in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety?

RQ4 What are participating language teachers' perceptions on success in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic students

RQ5 What teaching practices are perceived to contribute to the success of dealing with dyslexic students' foreign language anxiety in EFL classes in Hungary?

Chapter 3, which provided background to the concepts of dyslexia, anxiety, and the theoretical framework, outlined the research approach and justified the research methods used in the dissertation project. These are followed by the ethical considerations of the project. The tables and figures of the present research design provide visual support. Figure 1 shows (1) how the two strands of the study are linked to one another, and (2) Table 1 illustrates the relationship between the research questions and the aims.

When designing the study, primary school teachers of English, support staff working in primary school contexts, and Deputy Headmasters were included in the sample population. Triangulation of data sources was ensured by including perspectives from the three key stakeholders. By combining data sources, a deeper understanding of the same phenomenon can be achieved (Kálmán, 2016). In addition to triangulating data sources, methodological triangulation was used, combining different research methods to increase credibility and the overall rigour (Denzin, 1978) of the dissertation research.

Therefore, mixed methods seemed to be the most suitable approach to answer my research questions. The research questions of my dissertation focus on gaining a deep understanding of the perceptions and actions of teachers dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety.

4.2 Mixed Methods Research

The study I designed is a two-phase, sequential, mixed-methods study. The two strands follow each other chronologically (quan→QUAL). The findings of the first strand helped to formulate the questions, influenced data collection and data analysis for the next strand, and also helped to identify participants for a qualitative follow-up study. The second strand of the study was conducted to provide a deeper understanding of teachers’ perspectives in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety. In this mixed-methods study, there is a heavier

emphasis on qualitative worldviews, where multiple realities depend on the perspectives of the participants, but questions are answered by "combining qualitative and quantitative methods" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 715). Hereby, I explain the reasons behind adopting a mixed-method research design and describe its features. Then, I present the applied research methods and justify their selection. Finally, I discuss some ethical issues underlying the research process and provide a summary of my steps taken toward ensuring the quality of the present dissertation project.

My investigation followed the principles of mixed-methods research. The reasons for opting for mixed-methods research were as follows: “a, increases the strengths while eliminates weaknesses; b, is ideal for the analysis of complex issues; c, improves the validity of the research; and d, has the benefit of reaching multiple audiences” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 36). The overview of EFL teachers’ attitudes about dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic students was complemented with making sense of the interview participants' experience through the combination of both qualitative and quantitative research (Dörnyei, 2007)."This combined use of qualitative and quantitative methods with the hope of offering the best of both worlds" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.11) allowed me to collect quantitative data using questionnaires and qualitative data from interviews and observations.

The dissertation research project consisted of two inter-related strands, which have been carried out in the following order: first of all, a large-scale questionnaire study was conducted online with about 245 participants to get an overall picture on how primary school EFL teachers deal with dyslexic learners’ anxiety, then a qualitative inquiry was conducted, the first part of which was an interview study conducted with 3 deputy headmasters, 4 support staff: 2 speech therapists, 1 school psychologist, 1 developmental specialist and 8 EFL teachers. Speech

therapists have expertise in assessment and treatments, school psychologists apply knowledge on mental health, behaviour, learning and teaching to support students and their teachers, and developmental specialists support developing skills to be successful in the learning context. The second part of the qualitative inquiry consisted of classroom observations with 27 EFL lessons of 9 EFL teachers. The research design is described in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Research Design

The mixed-method study can be broken down into two strands of the study:

Strand 1: quantitative inquiry (January–November 2020)

Description (piloting survey January 2020-September 2020)

(conducting a piloted survey, September–November 2020)

- 245 primary school language teachers (random sampling), with an average of 18 years of experience
- questionnaire survey (multi-item scales, 5-point Likert scales)
- descriptive statistical analysis and inferential statistical analyses

Strand 2: Qualitative Inquiry (January–December 2021)

Description (interview guide development, observation guide development; January–Feb 2021)

- Participant triangulation: 3 deputy headmasters + 4 support staff + 12 teachers from 10 different schools classified by type of school and settlement
- Interviews conducted (March 2021 – August 2021)

    - Participant triangulation: 3 deputy headmasters + 4 support staff: 2 speech therapists, 1 school psychologist, 1 developmental specialist + 8 EFL teachers (purposive sampling, snowball sampling, convenience sampling)
    - Instrument triangulation: Semi-structured interviews, examination of student work products, and classroom observations
- Classroom observations (September 2021 – December 2021)
    - Participant triangulation: 27 EFL lessons + 9 EFL teachers (purposive sampling, snowball sampling, convenience sampling)
    - Qualitative constant comparative analysis

The quantitative inquiry helped provide a general picture of how to deal with anxious dyslexic students. Strand 2 qualitative inquiry aimed to gain a deep insight into teaching dyslexic students who experience foreign language anxiety in a regular primary school from the teachers' perspective. The goal of the qualitative inquiry was to learn about the insider's perspective—the *emic* view (Creswell, 1998). Gaining a deep understanding of teachers' perspectives on the multifaceted phenomenon of foreign language anxiety among dyslexic learners and the different approaches and strategies teachers successfully employ in the Hungarian primary school EFL context could contribute to the construction of a framework of the elements on how the teacher can advance the development of these strategies. The understanding of this framework of elements would then be able to shape pedagogical practice and would have implications for teacher training.

The summary of research questions, aims, methods, and data analysis can be found in Table 1.

Table 1
Summary of research questions, aims, methods, and data analysis

Quantitative inquiry (January–November 2020)	*Qualitative inquiry (January–December 2021)*			
Teachers' awareness of foreign language anxiety among dyslexic language learners	Teachers' reported experience on dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners	Teachers' actual practice	Teachers' perceptions on dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners	Comparison of teachers' reported experience, perceptions, and actual practice
RQ1a What manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety are language teachers aware of? RQ1b What factors can be used to describe teachers' attitude to the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them? RQ1c What factors can be used to describe teachers' perceptions about the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them? RQ1d What is the relationship among these factors?	RQ2a How does anxiety affect the L2 learning process for students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like barriers based on the experience of language teachers in mainstream primary schools? RQ2b How do language teachers reflect on their experience dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners? RQ2c How do participating language teachers in mainstream primary schools view the use of different methods in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners or students	RQ3 What characterizes teachers' practices in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety?	RQ4 What are participating language teachers' perceptions on success in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic students?	RQ5 What teaching practices appear to /are perceived to contribute to the success of dealing with dyslexic students' foreign language anxiety in EFL classes in Hungary?

	with dyslexia-like symptoms?			
Aim: To get an overall picture of 1.) the participating primary school EFL teachers' awareness of their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety. 2.) the participating teachers' awareness about the ways dealing with their learners' foreign language anxiety.	Aim: To gain insights into 1.) teachers' reported experience on how the dyslexic learner's FLA affects the L2 learning processes. 2.) into participating teachers' reported experience in dealing with their learners' foreign language anxiety.	Aim: To explore how teachers' perceptions on dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety manifest themselves in actual EFL teaching practices	Aim: To gain insights into participating teachers' perceptions on success in dealing with their learners' foreign language anxiety.	Aim: 1.) to contrast and compare teachers' perceptions on dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety with teachers' actual practice 2.) to construct a 'theoretical framework' of the elements on how the teacher can advance the development of approaches and strategies to deal with dyslexic learners' anxiety
Method: Large-scale questionnaire study: Questionnaires (*N* = 245 (think aloud: 2, pilot: 52)	Method: Semi-structured interviews with teachers of English (*N* = 8), with 3 deputy headmasters + 4 support staff: 2 speech therapists, 1 school psychologist, 1 developmental specialist (N7) = (N15)	Method: Semi-structured non-participant observations: 27 EFL lessons with teachers of English (*N* = 9)	Method: Semi-structured interviews with teachers of English (*N* = 8), with 3 deputy headmasters + 4 support staff: 2 speech therapists, 1 school psychologist, 1 developmental specialist (N7) = (N15)	Method: observation notes are triangulated with interview data
Data analysis: statistical analysis using SPSS (e.g., descriptive statistics)	Data analysis: constant comparative method	Data analysis: constant comparative method	Data analysis: constant comparative method	Data analysis: grounded theory

My goal with the dissertation project was to investigate and gain a deeper understanding of teachers' perceptions about addressing their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety and construct a framework conceptualizing how teachers can develop approaches and strategies to deal with dyslexic learners' anxiety. The different angles considered in the framework are those of foreign language teachers, deputy headmasters, and support staff (i.e., speech therapists, school psychologists, and developmental specialists) representing the wider institutional context.

The mixed-methods design allowed for a more comprehensive understanding of this complex matter, taking into account the three angles considered (i.e., foreign language teachers, deputy headmasters, and support staff). This design also allowed for triangulation, helping to reduce the weaknesses inherent in qualitative and quantitative approaches (Dörnyei, 2007). More specifically, since the topic of foreign language anxiety in dyslexic learners has been underexplored, comparing and contrasting different types of data "highlights *reality* in a different, yet complementary, way" (Lazaroton, 2005, p. 219). As a result, this approach prepared a systematic inquiry from different perspectives for the two strands of the study.

4.3 Ethical Issues

Finally, the ethical issues of the present dissertation will be discussed in the Methods section. These ethical considerations were associated with several aspects of the research projects, such as collecting sensitive health data, analysing reported views of participating teachers, and working with observation data. The specific ethical challenges I faced were obtaining informed consent, motivating the participants, and maintaining anonymity throughout the project.

Informed consent is voluntarily agreeing to participate in a research project after having been informed of its implications (BERA, 2018). Dörnyei (2007) adds that informed consent needs

to be considered from two aspects. One of these two aspects is the format, whether it is active or passive, and the other is the degree to which the consent is informative.

For the format of quantitative inquiry, I adopted passive consent (Dörnyei, 2007). It seemed sufficient for the research project if the participants did not opt out or object to the conditions of participation. These conditions were included in a separate letter with an accessible link to a questionnaire where participants could still opt out. When comparing passive consent to active consent, passive consent seemed to suit the data collection method through the questionnaire.

For the degree of how informed the consent is, Dörnyei (2007) recommends communicating information to the participants on the aims of the investigation and the purpose for which the collected data will be used, the participants' duties to perform, and the consequences of participating in the research, confidentiality, and the rights of the participants. Each headmaster received a message, and interview participants received a letter which contained information along the lines of Dörnyei's (2007) recommendation, including data protection: By clicking on the link to the questionnaire, you acknowledge that you have read, understood, and accepted the following information about the questionnaire:

- I understand that this questionnaire is voluntary and anonymous, and that no personally identifiable information or data will be collected.

- I will participate in the completion of the questionnaire, and I agree to the use of the summarized results in a doctoral thesis.

- I am aware that I may change my mind at any time and withdraw from completing the questionnaire.

Please see the English translation of the complete email message and cover letter for teachers in Appendix F.

For obtaining participants' informed consent in the qualitative phase of my inquiry, I contacted the teacher participants, support staff, and headmasters/deputy headmasters of the selected primary schools. I provided them with a detailed account of the nature of my dissertation research project. The headmasters/ deputy headmasters permitted the research to be conducted with teacher participants in the schools.

The participants were also asked for their active consent at the beginning of each interview after they listened to the purpose and characteristics of the dissertation project. I did not only seek participant consent at the beginning of the interview but also at other stages of the research such as at the beginning of classroom observations. Furthermore, several informal talks were conducted with the participants. Every participant was invited to participate in the dissertation project, and participants consented to take part in the interviews with the option to withdraw. Participants gave their permission to record their interviews; they were all extremely helpful and willing to share their perspectives on the topic of dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners.

The next ethical issue is about motivating the participants so that they do not opt out. For the sake of achieving the research purpose, different ways can be employed to keep the participants' motivation to remain in the dissertation project (Dörnyei, 2007). One way to keep participants in the project is to make the procedures as user-friendly as possible. Another is to develop a good rapport, and the third is to use incentives. In the case of my project, I kept a diary of my notes and interview dates, which turned out to be quite user-friendly. Several telephone calls were made as part of rapport building in the recruitment phase with the potential interview and observation participants. The conversations I had with the participants created opportunities for me to establish my authenticity as a researcher (Cohen et al., 2018). Third, gift tokens were used as an incentive where I could meet the interview participant for observations, as well. Other

measures were also used to express my gratitude. These included thanking research participants both at the start and at the end of the data collection and offering to come back to the participating schools with a presentation on the research findings.

The last ethical issue, privacy, was the most challenging to observe. As the data was collected via the Internet and was electronically stored, complete anonymity and confidentiality could not be guaranteed to the participants (BERA, 2018; Cohen et al., 2018). However, several measures were taken to minimize potential privacy threats. These included obtaining informed consent from each respondent to use the data collected (Cohen et al., 2018), changing the interviewees' real names to pseudonyms (Creswell, 1998), and protecting the private information of the individuals (Cohen et al., 2018). During the dissertation project, privacy guidelines (BERA, 2018; Dörnyei, 2007) were followed as much as possible to preserve the anonymity and confidentiality of the collected data (BERA, 2018; Dörnyei, 2007). Headmasters, deputy headmasters, support staff, and teacher interviewees were assured that the recorded Zoom interviews and transcripts would be stored on a separate drive on the researcher's computer. All efforts were made to comply with data protection regulations, the requirements of Act CXII of 2011 on the Right of Informational Self-Determination and Freedom of Information amended as of 26 April 2019 from the start of the project to the end of the project, from data collection on through analysis and dissemination.

The research was designed in such a way that disruption of the school day would be kept to a minimum for participants. Special attention was given to avoid any discrimination during data collection, analysis, and dissemination.

5 Strand 1: Quantitative inquiry

The following chapter will provide a detailed overview of the results of the empirical study that was conducted to present an overview of EFL teachers' attitudes and experiences in dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic students. First, the pilot study will be introduced, followed by an outline of the systematic inquiry for Strand 1 of the study, including the quantitative study's research questions. The description of the participants will follow, after which the instruments and methods will be discussed, such as data collection and data analysis. The final parts will focus on the results of the statistical inquiry and interpreting these results.

5.1 The quantitative pilot study

The pilot study was conducted as the first part of the quantitative strand of the dissertation project. The first step was to review existing literature on dyslexia through the lens of anxiety via the concept of anxiety. From the review of the literature, the conceptual framework for the dissertation began to form. The pilot consisted of the process of validating the instrument used for investigating English language teachers' attitudes and behaviour in relation to dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners.

The questionnaire designed for this purpose was based on the literature (Kormos, 2017; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008; Piniel, 2009; Sarkadi, 2009; Schneider & Crombie, 2003; Sparks & Miller, 2000; Tomlinson, 2014; Tomlinson & Allan, 2000; Tóth, 2017). Having reviewed the literature, statements for the scales were collected and formulated with the help of an expert. The scales were developed for the purpose of the pilot study.

The questions were intended to cover the following latent dimensions with the help of a five-point scale: *Identification of dyslexic learners, Identification of anxious dyslexic learners,*

Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety, Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety, Differentiation, Teaching methods used, Learning environment, and *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies and participation in a dyslexia training.* The instrument was piloted with a small sample to identify the factors that best describe teachers' attitudes toward and perceptions of teaching students with SpLDs in integrated classes, and the relationships among these factors. The participants included 52 primary school teachers at regular, non-special needs primary schools. Data from the questionnaires were analysed via statistical measures. Of the eight scales used in the pilot study, only six reached an acceptable level of reliability after they were reconstructed, and amendments were proposed for their use on a later, larger sample.

The preliminary findings of the research project by Nagyné Nyikes (2019) suggest that this group of teachers' perceptions are informed by identifying anxious dyslexic learners, views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety and teaching anxiety-reducing *strategies*, as well as the relationship between these factors. *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies* has the strongest relationship with teaching behaviour (r = .632; p < 0.01). Teachers agree most with statements related to the learning environments (M = 4.20), meaning that teachers generally feel positive about aspects of classroom climate and student engagement. Participating teachers find it important to recognize symptoms and identify students with SpLDs. The *identification of learners* scale showed significant correlations with both views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety (r = .574, p < .01) and *teaching anxiety reducing strategies* behaviour (r = .488, p < .01). Results also showed that participating teachers who recognize and identify learners' strengths, weaknesses, and barriers are more likely to make efforts to minimize mental barriers students with dyslexia face and use dyslexia-friendly teaching methods to differentiate content and process.

Building on the findings of the quantitative pilot study, the research design needed further development. The general understanding gained from the pilot phase was used to refine the survey questions of the dissertation. The improved research tool was designed for the first strand of the study. In the next section, an overview of Strand 1 of the study: Teachers' awareness of foreign language anxiety, including the aim and research questions that guided the quantitative examination, is outlined.

5.2 The quantitative strand of the study: Teachers' awareness of foreign language anxiety in dyslexic language learners

After the pilot study, in the first strand of the research project a large-scale questionnaire study was conducted with 245 (not including the think-aloud sample of 2, or the pilot sample of 52) teachers of English with a view to getting an overall picture of the participating primary school EFL teachers' awareness of their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety and about the ways of dealing with the learners' foreign language anxiety. The study investigated some of the challenges educators face when teaching anxious students with dyslexia learning EFL in the Hungarian context. FL teachers with some or no special training may find themselves in classrooms with students with very diverse needs, abilities, and worries. These teachers are expected to instruct all students to meet general curricular requirements, which include students with learning differences such as dyslexia. Understanding and managing foreign language anxiety in dyslexic learners is key to an effective language learning experience. By investigating teachers' awareness of this issue, insights can be gained into the level of support these students are receiving.

The aim of the study was 1.) to obtain an overall picture of the participating primary school EFL teachers' awareness of their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety, 2.) to identify the

factors that best describe teachers' attitudes to and perceptions about dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic students in integrated classes of average primary schools and the relationships that exists between these factors. The main research questions of the study were as follows:

- RQ1a What manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety are language teachers primarily aware of?
- RQ1b What factors can be used to describe teachers' attitudes to the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?
- RQ1c What factors can be used to describe teachers' perceptions about the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?
- RQ1d What is the relationship among these factors?

In terms of hypotheses corresponding to the RQs listed above, it is assumed that educators are likely to be aware of psychological, physical, or behavioural manifestations of anxiety associated with learning difficulties, from nervousness to avoiding language classes. With respect to dealing with the barriers, it is expected that the extent of awareness is linked to the teaching of coping strategies.

5.3 Participants

Strand 1 participants included 245 primary school EFL teachers. 249 primary school teachers completed the online questionnaires or the Word-formatted questionnaires. However, due to missing data, four participants were excluded from the analysis, leaving 245 participants (232 females and 13 males). The participants were primary school language teachers (N = 245, with 5 missing values; age, M = 46.31, SD = 8.74) from across the country. The youngest teacher was 24, and the oldest was 64; the average age was 46.31, with an average of 18 years of teaching

experience. It can be claimed that the sample is an adequate representation of the target population of primary school teachers, given the random selection of schools. When selecting the sample, I aimed to collect data from three different types of schools from as many municipalities as possible in different parts of the country through Headmasters. These primary schools were randomly selected from the list *kir_mukodo_intezmenyek* downloaded from Oktatási Hivatal: by type of school (primary school only, primary school with specialization, primary and secondary school. By the type of municipality (Budapest, county town, other town, village). By the regions of the country (Budapest, Pest County, North Hungary, North Transdanubia, South Transdanubia, East Hungary, South Great Plain).

In selecting the respondent schools, it was ensured that teachers were evenly contacted from different parts of the country. A list provided by the Ministry of Education of schools in Hungary was used, which included state, religious, and private schools (the most recent list was used at the time of data collection: school year 2020-2021). In the first stage of sampling, 350 schools from the defined sample frame were randomly selected to take part in the survey. As only 80 completed surveys were returned from the 350 schools, data collection continued by contacting additional schools via email. This second stage of sampling included 1125 schools, which were selected on the basis of geographical characteristics and convenience sampling. Convenience sampling occurred as some schools were included in the survey that were easy to reach, and data could also be collected for the qualitative part of the inquiry. While convenience sampling may present a threat to the representativeness and generalizability of the results, it is the most commonly used sampling technique within educational research (Muijs, 2004). A large enough sample (i.e., minimum 200 participants) was less likely to feature extreme cases distorting the overall results

(Muijs, 2004) and could also satisfy the sample size condition for the application of various statistical analyses (Dörnyei, 2007).

The participants in Study 1 can be described based on their qualifications. I did not only check whether the teachers had a higher educational degree that enabled them to teach at a primary school, but I could not help noticing the difference that occurred between the number of participants and the number of degrees participants earned. The difference is 18%, which indicates that some teacher participants had more than one degree. Table 2 shows the demographic information about the participants of Study 1, including the qualifications of teachers. Based on the data, the vast majority of teachers have degrees or qualifications to teach English. The sample included only two teachers who did not possess any degrees, while most teachers had university degrees (e.g., an MA in English language and literature with teaching qualification; 35.2%). There were only two teachers in the sample who lacked the necessary qualifications. The demographic information about the participants of Study 1 is listed in Table 2.

Table 2
The Demographic Information about the Participants of Strand 1

Demographic Variable	*n*	% (*N* = 244)
Gender		
Male	12	5.0
Female	232	95.0
Type of Municipality		
Capital	30	12.3
County seat	49	20.1
Town	113	46.3
Village	52	21.3
Type of School		
Primary school only	167	68.4
Primary school with specialization	20	8.2

Primary and secondary	57	23.4
Qualification type		
College degree for lower primary school	49	20.1
3-year college degree	70	28.7
4-year double college degree	65	26.6
MA in English language and literature with teaching qualification	86	35.2
5-year MA teacher training programme	17	7.0
No college/university degree	2	0.8

Note. This table presents demographic information about the participants of Study 1

5.4 Data collection instrument

A questionnaire was designed to collect data for the purposes of Study 1. The most effective way to answer the research questions*: RQ1a What manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety are language teachers primarily aware of? RQ1b What factors can be used to describe teachers' attitudes to the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them? RQ1c What factors can be used to describe teachers' perceptions about the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them? RQ1d What is the relationship among these factors?* was through collecting a large chunk of data (Dörnyei, 2007; Muijs, 2004) as a result of a systematic inquiry. Anonymous survey methods were used to promote a higher level of voluntary participation and to ensure higher reliability (Muijs, 2004). Reliability is the consistency of a measure. Nunnally (1978) stated that "reliability" is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for validity, that is, to measure what I was trying to measure. While responses to the questionnaire are not meant to lead to deeper understanding (Dörnyei, 2007; Muijs, 2004), they did not lack generalizable results and could be used as a complementary tool alongside the collection of qualitative data through semi-structured

interviews and classroom observations. Validity and reliability information will be included in the results section.

5.5 Data collection procedure

Data were collected through a piloted survey, including scales developed for the purpose of the study. First, the items were pooled. The questionnaire was then piloted using two think-aloud protocols. Some of the items were reworded as a result. The pilot version of the questionnaire was delivered in person to the primary schools participating in the pilot. The contact teacher in charge of the administration of the questionnaires in each participating school distributed the hard copies among the participants. Both the pilot and the final surveys were administered in the native language.

The final questionnaires were delivered to the schools in the period between 8 June, 2020 and 18 October, 2020 via emails addressed to the headmaster of the school. The headmaster was asked to forward the cover letter, the link to the questionnaire, and the enclosed Word document to the English teachers at the school. The completion of the questionnaires took no longer than 15-20 minutes. Once the data had been obtained, the participants' answers to each item were recorded with the help of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 22.0 for Windows. The questionnaire items used a Likert scale with 5 options ("Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree"), and a number value from 1 to 5 was assigned to each option.

The reversed items were recoded into separate corresponding variables with reassigned numerical values. Strongly disagree was allocated the numerical value of 5 instead of 1, disagree was allocated the numerical value of 4 instead of 2, partially disagree and partially agree was allocated the numerical value of 3, agree was allocated the numerical value of 2 instead of 4, and the data obtained was analysed via statistical measures.

In order to confirm the dimensions, I submitted the items belonging to the specific scales to principal component analysis (PCA). After conducting the PCA, the internal reliability of the scales was assessed. The data were then analysed using a one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test to find out whether there were significant differences between the groups of teachers who completed Dyslexia training and those who did not.

5.6 The main dimensions of analysis –results and discussion

To measure the dimensions of the theoretical constructs underlying teachers' awareness of their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients were calculated for the multi-item scales (Table 3). The internal consistencies were at the acceptable level or almost acceptable, with α values between 0.66 and 0.87. (Cronbach`s alpha: *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners: 0.*81*, Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety:* 0.87, *Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety: 0.*73, *Teaching methods used: 0.6*8, *Learning environment:* 0.66, *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies:* 0.74). The Cronbach alpha values for the constructs in the study are listed in Table 6, as *Teaching methods used*: 0.68, *Learning environment*: 0.66. The constructs did not reach the required 0.7 Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient, and the constructs fell into more dimensions after the Principal Component Analysis. I removed them from the analysis. The PCA table was not included in the dissertation project, as PCA did not contribute to addressing the aims of the study. Including a PCA table—without using PCA in the interpretation—would have disrupted the flow of the analysis.:

Table 3
Cronbach's Alpha Values for the Constructs in the Study

Constructs	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Identification of anxious dyslexic learners	5	0.75
Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety	6	0.87
Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety	4	0.73
Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies	5	0.74

5.7 The analysis of the scales

The presentation of results is divided into three sections. First, the results of the statistical characteristics will be presented. Then, this is followed by the findings on the relationship between the scales. Thirdly, the relationship between teachers' perceptions of dealing with FLCA and Teachers' Biographical Data will be outlined.

Regarding the statistical characteristics, Table 4 presents descriptive statistics for the scales. The findings indicate that teachers agree with *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies* (M = 4.19, SD=0.61), meaning that part of their teaching role includes empowering students to use strategies during their learning and testing. This finding is similar to those of studies investigating foreign language classroom anxiety from a classroom perspective (e.g., Nagyné Nyikes, 2019; Piniel, 2006), yet their general level of awareness of *Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety is* not particularly high (M = 3.60).

Dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic learners requires teaching various strategies. Teachers have an important role to play in teaching coping strategies (Piniel, 2009), metacognitive, and affective strategies within learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). As dyslexic learners cannot use coping strategies to manage FLCA without the teacher's support (Piniel, 2009), the training in the use of coping strategies can be highly beneficial to them. In addition to coping strategies, metacognitive strategies can be useful to teach. Metacognitive strategies can contribute to students becoming more conscious learners. Dyslexic students cannot learn metacognitive skills themselves; instead, they have to be taught by their teachers. The three kinds of affective strategies that Oxford (1990) identified are lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking emotional temperature. Teaching deep breathing, rewarding oneself for good performance, and positive self-talk to dyslexic learners can be effective ways to lower the anxiety of students in the EFL classroom.

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics of the Investigated Scales

Scales	Mean value	Standard deviation
Identification of anxious dyslexic learners	4.09	0.66
Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety	3.60	0.86
Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety	3.69	0.76
Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies	4.19	0.61

In terms of the investigated scales, the *Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety,* the mean values are the lowest (M = 3.60, SD=0.86), which indicates that despite their confidence towards the identification of anxious dyslexic students, the teachers in the current study either seem to recognize the specific signs and symptoms of their dyslexic students' anxiety the least or dyslexic learners do not exhibit these signs to the extent that they can be noticed. Participating teachers are aware that dyslexic students' anxiety affects the language learning stages of input, processing, and output. Most areas of foreign language learning are also hindered by these negative feelings, the skills of writing, reading, or listening or vocabulary building and grammar, just as it is indicated in previous research findings (Dimilier & Istek, 2018; Rontou, 2012). Provided the teacher can recognise the manifestations of anxiety and dyslexia in symptoms and barriers, they can address these using anxiety-reducing strategies.

5.8 The relationship between the scales

The findings on the relationship between the scales will be presented here. The examination of the relationship between the scales was conducted using Pearson's correlation analysis. The significant correlations among the scales (only correlations where p<.01 are reported) are listed in Table 5.

Table 5
*Significant Correlations (p <. 01) of the Scales**

Scales	**1**	**2**	**3**	**6**
1. Identification of anxious dyslexic learners	--	0.22	.578*	.462*
2. Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety	.220	--	.188	.219
3. Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety	.578*	.188	--	.653*

6. Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies	.462*	.219	.653*	--

According to Table 5, the strongest relationship is between *Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety* and *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies* ($r = .653$, $p < .001$). *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies* correlates significantly with the construct of *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners.* Presumably, teachers who recognise anxious dyslexic students and feel it is their job to reduce their anxiety are also better prepared to address the FLCA of dyslexic learners. They may also consider the individual needs of students in the teaching methods they use, though not necessarily for decreasing their FLCA. They may also be more inclined to encourage students with difficulties and seek to reduce their language anxiety by teaching effective strategies to help them learn language as effectively as possible.

As can also be seen in Table 5, the correlation between the scales indicates that *Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety* has a strong positive relationship with *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies* behaviour, while teachers' attitudes towards *Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety* lacked a strong correlation. The fact that the scales *Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety,* and *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies*, were found to be closely related means that those teachers who gained an understanding of how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety are more likely to engage in teaching methods that are less anxiety-provoking and create a low anxiety learning environment.

Although there were some significant correlations, the construct *Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety* was not found to be strongly related to any constructs at the $p < .01$ level. The absence of correlations suggests that some anxiety signs may not depend on teachers' perceptions. It can be argued that the low correlations are evidence for the fact that *Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety* are not

linked to *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners, Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety*, and decisions made regarding *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies*. It could be understood that even if teachers recognize anxiety signs or they feel that they know how to address them, this may not translate into best practice. To illustrate it with an example, dyslexic students panic when they have to speak unexpectedly in the lesson, and participating teachers could lower their anxiety that interferes with language learning from a social communicative perspective (MacIntyre, 1995). The missing link between, for instance, the *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners* and *Effective coping with FLCA for dyslexic students* (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008) among participating primary school language teachers may imply that it is not sufficient for these teachers to only recognize that certain teaching strategies are useful. In order to establish the connection between *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners* and *Effective coping with anxiety for dyslexic students*, teachers need to be explicitly trained. Training may help teachers recognize the connection between teaching strategies, techniques, and activities, as well as their contribution in decreasing the anxiety of dyslexic students in the EFL classroom.

A qualitative investigation of the perceptions and experience of teachers can contribute to a better understanding of why teaching anxiety-reducing strategies to EFL students does not appear in teachers' mental representations. The extent to which individual teachers' training, experiences, and awareness of the importance of addressing anxiety contribute to the language learning process is explored in the second strand of the dissertation research.

Language anxiety, as Young (1991) argues, is a complex phenomenon that "manifests itself in students quite differently depending on ethnic background, prior language experience, learner personality, and classroom circumstances" (p. 434). EFL teachers may not have recognized the different manifestations of foreign language anxiety in their dyslexic students, may not have found

these relevant for identifying anxious dyslexic students. Nevertheless, EFL teachers should receive training to be able to recognize the manifestations of foreign language anxiety in their classroom to be able to identify the causes, so that they could become informed EFL teachers who make changes to help their anxious dyslexic students reach their full potential.

5.9 Managing FLCA and teachers' biographical data

The findings on the relationship between teachers' perceptions on dealing with FLCA and Teachers' Biographical Data will be presented here. Teachers' perceptions on dealing with FLCA is examined in connection with biographical data such as classes/years they teach, participants' age, years of teaching experience, by type of school (primary school only, primary school with language or other specialization, primary and secondary school, by type of settlement (Capital, county seat, city, municipality), and by *participation in dyslexia training*. Statistical analysis of the data will be used to investigate the relationship of the items.

5.9.1 The assumptions that underlie the use of Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Before the discussion, the assumptions that underlie the use of Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the method employed are listed. ANOVA is used to compare means among different groups. For ANOVA to produce interpretable results, four statistical assumptions need to be met: independence of observations, random sampling, normality of residuals, and homogeneity of variances. While ANOVA shows resilience to specific violations, especially in the case of balanced designs and large sample sizes, these assumptions should be explained. The key assumptions underlying ANOVA are listed as follows.

Regarding independence of observations, the first assumption is that observations must be independent. The observations within each group must be independent of one another. This means that the values in one group cannot be related to or dependent on the values in another group

(Ketskeméty & Izsó, 2005, p.120). It is not something that can be tested; instead, independence of observations can be ensured by the design of the study and can be assumed.

As for random sampling, the groups must be formed from participants who are randomly sampled from the population. (Emerson, 2022) This ensures that the results can be generalized to the larger population. This assumption also depends on the study design.

Normality is about distribution. The assumption is that the residuals (errors) should be normally distributed within each group. This is important because the F statistic assumes that these residuals follow a normal distribution. Deviations from normality can affect the validity of ANOVA results. (Ketskeméty & Izsó, 2005, p.120).

Finally, as far as homogeneity of variance is concerned, the variances among the different groups should be approximately equal. This can be tested using statistical tests, such as Levene's test or Bartlett's test. If homogeneity of variance is violated, Welch's ANOVA can be used because it does not assume equal variances. (Emerson, 2022)

Having listed the assumptions that underlie the use of ANOVA, it was chosen to test group differences because it can handle minor deviations from normality, especially with larger sample sizes, and the total sample size of 245 provided sufficient power for parametric analysis.

5.9.2 Discussion of Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and results in managing FLCA and teachers' biographical data

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to explore whether teachers' biographical characteristics were associated with their perceptions of managing foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) among dyslexic learners. The vast majority, 82 %, of participating teachers were teaching in class/year 6, 76.7 % in class/year 7, 76.7 % in class/year 8. (N = 245). These figures reflected that the respondents did indeed teach anxious dyslexic students in the target

age group from 12-year-olds to 14-year-olds. The percentages do not sum to 100% because many teachers may be instructing multiple classes simultaneously.

5.9.2.1 Identification of dyslexic and anxious students by school type

When examining the descriptive statistics on the identification of dyslexic and anxious students by school type, no significant between-group differences were found on any of the dependent variables, except for type of school: primary school only, primary school with language or other specialisation, and primary and secondary school. Table 6 shows descriptive statistics information.

Table 6

Descriptive statistics of the identification of dyslexic and anxious students by school type.

Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
primary school	167	4.18	.56	.04
primary and secondary school	57	3.85	.72	.09
primary school with a language or other specialization	20	4.30	.50	.11
Total	244	4.11	.61	.03

Note.

The descriptive statistics for the identification of dyslexic and anxious students by school type showed that the means were highest ($M = 4.30$, $SD = .50$) for identifying anxious students with dyslexia in primary schools with language or other specialisation. Teachers from primary schools

with language or other specialization demonstrated significantly higher scores in identifying anxious dyslexic learners.

Levene's test was conducted to check the homogeneity of variance. As $p = .058 > .05$, Levene's test is not significant; therefore, the assumption of equal variances was not violated, $F(2, 241) = 2.88$, $p = .058$.

Table 7
Test of Homogeneity of Identification of dyslexic and anxious students

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.88	2	241	.058

Note. *Asymptotically F distributed*

Since the subsegments of the independent variable, the identification of dyslexic and anxious students by school type, are not nearly of equal number, the Welch test is used to test the (null) hypothesis that two populations have equal means.

Table 8
Welch Robust Tests of Equality of Means for Identification of dyslexic and anxious students by school type

Welch Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5.82	2	48.56	.005

Note: *Asymptotically F distributed*

The p-value of the Welch test is .005, indicating that the difference in means between the groups is significant at a 95% confidence level since the p-value is less than 0.05.

When performing a one-way ANOVA, we have a summary table:

Table 9
ANOVA of the identification of dyslexic and anxious students

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.37	2	2.68	7.41	.001
Within Groups	87,32	241	.36		
Total	92,69	243			

ANOVA was used to differentiate participants' age and years of teaching experience by type of school (primary school only, primary school with language or other specialisation, primary and secondary school), and by type of settlement (Budapest, county seat, city, municipality). A one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between the primary school and the language or other specialisation groups. The two sources of ANOVA measures are Between-Group Variation, which is the total variation between each group's mean and the overall mean, and Within-Group Variation. The total variation in the individual values in each group and their group mean. If the between-group variation is high relative to the within-group variation, then the F-statistic of the ANOVA will be higher, and the corresponding p-value will be lower, which makes it more likely that we will reject the null hypothesis that the group means are equal. The overall F-statistic in the table quantifies the ratio of Between-Group Variation to Within-Group Variation. Thus, the larger the F-statistic, the stronger the evidence that the group means differ. The p-value that corresponds to an F-statistic of 7,41 is .001. Based on the ANOVA table (see Table 9), the p-

value is less than our significance level, so we can reject the null hypothesis that the two populations have equal means and conclude that not all population means are equal.

Finally, the post hoc tests for multiple comparisons were conducted.

Table 10
Identification of dyslexic and anxious students by School Type

Post Hoc Tests (Games-Howell) - Multiple Comparisons				
Dependent Variable: Identification of dyslexic and anxious students		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Primary school	Primary and secondary school	.33*	.10	.007
	Primary school with a language or other specialization	-.11	.12	.609
Primary and secondary school	Primary school	-.33*	.10	.007
	Primary school with language or other specialization	-.44*	.14	.011
Primary school with language or other specialization	Primary school	.11	.12	.609
	Primary and secondary school	.44*	.14836	.011

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As group variances were statistically different, a post-hoc analysis, for instance, Games-Howell had to be chosen accordingly. The post-hoc analysis confirmed that there is a significant difference between schools with language or other specialization and primary and secondary schools, as well as primary and secondary schools and primary schools.

5.9.2.2 Anxiety-reducing strategy according to school types

For descriptive statistics of *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies,* descriptives showed the highest means for Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies (*M* = 4.46, *SD*=.46521) for the primary school with language or other specialization. Teachers working in primary schools with language or other specialization demonstrated significantly higher scores in identifying anxious dyslexic learners in teaching anxiety-reducing strategies compared to other school types.

Table

Table 11
Descriptive statistics for anxiety-reducing strategy teaching according to school types

Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Primary school	167	4.24	.56	.04
primary and secondary school	57	3.94	.67	.08
primary school with language or other specialization	20	4.46	.64	.14
Total	244	4.19	.61	.03

Note.

This was significantly higher than the total number of teachers for all primary school types. By type of school, these were primary school only, primary school with (language and other) specialization, and primary and secondary school.

Levene's test was conducted and indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for anxiety-reducing strategy teaching, F (2, 241) = 1.996, p = .138**.**

Table 12
Test of Homogeneity of Anxiety-Reducing Strategy Teaching

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.996	2	241	.138

Note. *Asymptotically F distributed*

Since the subsegments of the independent variable are not nearly of equal number, we apply the Welch test, which is used to test the (null) hypothesis that two populations have equal means.

Table 13
Welch Robust Tests of Equality of Means for anxiety-reducing strategy teaching according to school types

Welch Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
6,24	2	45.90	.004

Note. *Asymptotically F distributed*

The p-value of the Welch test is 0.004, indicating that the difference in means between the groups is statistically significant at a 95% confidence level since the p-value is less than 0.05. When performing a one-way ANOVA, we have a summary table.

Table 14
ANOVA of Anxiety-reducing strategy teaching according to school types

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

Between Groups	5.51	2	2.75	7.73	.001
Within Groups	*85.91*	*241*	*.35*		
Total	91.43	243			

Note.

Again, Table 14, entitled ANOVA of Anxiety-reducing strategy teaching according to school types, shows the two diverse sources that ANOVA measures were Between-Group Variation, which is the total variation between each group mean and the overall mean, and Within-Group Variation: The total variation in the individual values in each group and their group mean. The overall F-statistic in the table is a way to quantify the ratio of the between-group variation compared to the within-group variation. Thus, the larger the F-statistic, the greater the evidence that there is a difference between the group means. The p-value that corresponds to an F-statistic of 7,733 is .001. Based on the ANOVA table, the p-value is less than our significance level, so we can reject the null hypothesis that the two populations have equal means and conclude that not all population means are equal. Based on the ANOVA table, the p-value is less than our significance level, so we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that not all population means are equal. The one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference for the primary school with language or other specialization for Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies.

Finally, the Post-Hoc Tests of multiple comparisons were run, which confirmed that there is a significant difference between schools with language or other specialization and primary and secondary schools, as well as primary and secondary schools and primary schools.

Table 15
Anxiety-reducing strategy teaching and anxious students by school type

Post Hoc Tests (Games-Howell) - Multiple Comparisons				
Dependent Variable: Anxiety strategy		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Primary school	Primary and secondary school	.30*	.09	.008
	Primary school with language or other specialization	-.21	.15	.342
Primary and secondary school	Primary school	-.30*	.09	.008
	Primary school with language or other specialization	-.51*	.16	.011
Primary school with language or other specialization	Primary school	.21	.15	.342
	Primary and secondary school	.51*	.16	.011

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The primary school with language or other specialization with focus on a foreign language or, for instance, on performing arts music, may incorporate more drama and dance lessons into the curriculum. The primary school with language or other specialization stands out from the other schools in identifying anxious dyslexic students and effectively dealing with the FL anxiety of these students.

5.9.2.3 Identification of anxious dyslexic students based on their participation in dyslexia training

The one-way analysis of variance ANOVA was also used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of the four scales: *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners*, *Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety*, *Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety*, *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies,* and *participation in a dyslexia training*. The last item of this list is the independent or grouping variable. The participants were asked whether they had participated in dyslexia training. What I was trying to see was if the independent variable, the participation in dyslexia training, can be associated with certain characteristics more than others. For examining the descriptive statistics of Identification of anxious dyslexic students based on their participation in dyslexia training, please see Table 16: Descriptive statistics of Identification of anxious dyslexic students based on their participation in dyslexia training.

Table 16
Descriptive statistics of Identification of anxious dyslexic students based on their participation in dyslexia training

Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
yes	66	4.36	.50	.06
no	179	4.02	.63	.04
Total	245	4.11	.61	.03

Note.

Levene's test was run, and it showed that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was satisfied for the identification of anxious dyslexic students, F (1, 243) = 2.85, p = .093.

Table 17
Test of Homogeneity of Variances: Identification of anxious dyslexic students

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.852	1	243	.093

Note. *Asymptotically F distributed*

Due to the fact that the subsegments of the independent variable are not nearly of equal number, the Welch test is used to test the (null) hypothesis that two populations have equal means.

Table 18
Welch Robust Tests of Equality of Means for the Identification of anxious dyslexic students

Welch Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
18.85	1	144.71	.004

Note. *Asymptotically F distributed*

The p-value of the Welch test is 0.004, indicating that the difference in means between the groups is statistically significant at a 95% confidence level since the p-value is less than 0.05.

Table 19
ANOVA identification of anxious dyslexic students

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.49	1	5.49	15.30	.000

Within Groups	87.22	243	.35
Total	92.71	244	

Note.

Based on the ANOVA table, the p-value is less than our significance level, so we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that not all population means are equal. No Post hoc test can be concluded for ANOVA with only two groups.

The ANOVA analysis revealed that these were significant in the cases of Identification of anxious dyslexic learners [F (15.30) = 5.49, p < .000]. Please see Table 19 for ANOVA identification of anxious dyslexic students. From this, it can be inferred that those participants who participated in dyslexia training are more likely to be able to *identify anxious dyslexic learners*.

5.9.2.4 Views on dyslexic students based on possible participation in dyslexia training

When examining the descriptive statistics of identification of dyslexic and anxious students for *Views on dyslexic students based on possible participation in dyslexia training,* Participants whose answer was *yes* reported more positive attitudes toward dyslexic students (M = 3.91, SD = 0.61) than those participants who selected *no* (M = 3.61, SD = 0.79).

Levene's test was run to assess homogeneity of variances, and it indicated that the assumption was only marginally met, $F(1, 243) = 3.70$, $p = .056$.

Table 20

Test of Homogeneity of Variances of Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety based on possible participation in dyslexia training

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.702	1	243	. 056

Note. *Asymptotically F distributed*

Since the subsegments of the independent variable are not nearly of equal number, and the requirement of homogeneity of variances is not necessarily met, the Welch test is used to test the (null) hypothesis that two populations have equal means.

Table 21
Welch Robust Tests of Equality of Means for Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety based on possible participation in dyslexia training

Welch Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
9.792	1	150.75	.002

Note. *Asymptotically F distributed*

The p-value of the Welch test is 0.002, indicating that the difference in means between the groups is statistically significant at a 95% confidence level since the p-value is less than 0.05.

Table 22
ANOVA Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.36	1	4.36	7.68	.006
Within Groups	137.94	243	.56		
Total	142.30	244			

Note.

Based on Table 22, the ANOVA shows that the p-value is less than our significance level; we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that not all population means are equal. The ANOVA analysis revealed that these were significant for Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety [$F(7.68) = 4.36$, $p < .006$]. From this, it can be inferred that those participants

who participated in dyslexia training are more likely to be able to support anxious dyslexic learners because of their views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety. Participants who participated in dyslexia training were also more likely to consider it their task to deal with dyslexic students' foreign language anxiety than those without training.

A one-way ANOVA test was also used to identify significant differences between the *Participation in dyslexia training* and *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies* scales. The mean of the *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies* scale, however, did not differ significantly from *Participation in dyslexia training.* Interestingly, the findings suggest that participants who participated in dyslexia training are not more likely to teach anxiety-reducing strategies to anxious dyslexic students. This may be due to the fact that dyslexia training tends to concentrate on teaching methods used for dyslexic students and does not necessarily address the foreign language anxiety that dyslexic students experience. The second, qualitative strand of the research sheds light on this finding.

It can be inferred that trainers do not sufficiently elaborate on affective factors associated with neurodiversity during their dyslexia training, nor on how anxiety impacts FL learning and the useful strategies that can be employed to control learners' anxiety. Trainers might not link affective differences in foreign language learning to the cognitive aspects of the barriers dyslexic students experience. Trainings may focus on issues such as the lack of age-appropriate literacy skills, weak verbal memory, processing impairment, and speed, while less information is shared on anxiety, the role of the teacher in controlling the FL anxiety of dyslexic students in the classroom, or the strategies that can be taught to students to alleviate their anxiety.

Such findings are in line with the literature: Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014), examining schools with specialized programs, found that using structured language teaching methods can be

effective in managing anxiety. This corresponds with the ANOVA results showing that teachers who have received dyslexia training are better at identifying anxious dyslexic students and feel more responsible for managing their anxiety, but they do not teach specific strategies to reduce anxiety. This aligns with research that highlights that teacher training usually focuses more on the cognitive aspects of dyslexia rather than affective ones (Nijakowska, 2010). Research indicates that while teachers receive guidance on how to support students with phonological problems and processing speed, they often do not receive guidance on how anxiety affects these cognitive challenges or what classroom strategies can help reduce it.

5.10 The summary of findings from Strand 1

It can be stated that language teachers who recognise and identify learners' worries, needs, and abilities are more likely to make efforts to deal with their learners' anxiety by teaching anxiety-reducing strategies and using dyslexia-friendly approaches for more effective language learning. The findings suggest that the participating teachers' perceptions are informed by *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners, Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety*, and *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies,* and the relationship between these factors. Teachers agree most with statements related to *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies*. This behaviour has the strongest relationship with *Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety*. Participating teachers found it important to identify anxious students with dyslexia. Once these students are identified, participants are informed on how EFL teachers should deal with their students' FL anxiety; thus, these participants can teach strategies to anxious dyslexic students that can help to reduce their FL anxiety.

Results also show that respondents have varied perceptions about how EFL should be taught to anxious learners with dyslexia. A correlation can also be found between views on how

to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety and the factors that can complement and reinforce each other to make education more effective.

The major finding of the quantitative strand indicates that the teachers' *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies'* influence on the efficiency of language teaching seems outstanding. The results have led to the assumption that collecting qualitative data would provide a better insight into the primary school context from the perspective of dealing with negative emotions. The purposive sampling would further contribute to the deeper understanding of anxious dyslexic learners' EFL education in the primary school, the environment, and teaching methods from the teachers' perspective.

Since the results of Stand 1 highlighted the central role of language teachers in dealing with foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners in a mainstream primary school environment, in Strand 2, I embarked on a qualitative inquiry to learn what the participating EFL teachers 'view was on the use of different methods in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners or students with dyslexia-like symptoms based on the reported experience of the support staff. From the point of view of research methodology, I was also driven to triangulate my research by including a third perspective – that of the deputy headmasters – apart from interviewing language teachers and their support staff in the primary school environment. The qualitative strand that follows the quantitative strand was designed to expand upon the statistical findings.

6 Strand 2: Qualitative inquiry

The following chapter will provide an overview of the empirical study that was conducted to present an overview of EFL teachers' perspectives and experiences about dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic students. First, the qualitative pilot study will be introduced. This is followed by an examination of whether the constructs that performed well in the quantitative research were supported by the qualitative data. The overview of the qualitative strand of the study, Quality control: Principles of qualitative research and Grounded Theory (GT), follows. Then the research questions are subsequently introduced. After the research questions, the description of the participants will follow. Lastly, after a discussion of the instruments and methods, data analysis will be reviewed in the final section.

6.1 Qualitative pilot study

(This section introduces the edited version of the article published in *Working Papers in Language Pedagogy* in December 2019, referenced as Nagyné Nyikes (2019). For more details, please see the original publication.)

The question of how equal access can be ensured to learners with special needs has been at the forefront of my attention from the start of my studies, rooted in a desire to gain a deeper understanding of how learners can be included in language classroom activities. Teachers' understanding of inclusive methods is key to successfully teaching students with specific learning differences (SpLD).

While there have been several studies examining the challenges that special needs learners face in EFL learning, there is a lack of research regarding mainstream language teachers' awareness of and use of methods that are recommended for teaching SpLD learners. The aim of the pilot study was to begin filling this gap by exploring teachers' awareness of the possible

approaches to teaching special needs students in mainstream primary schools and the application of special needs techniques and principles in their daily language teaching practice. A small-scale qualitative study was conducted using lesson observations and interviews as instruments for data collection. An inductive approach was utilised for data analysis.

The research question was stated as follows: How do participating Hungarian primary school EFL teachers cope with the task of integrating SEN students in the EFL classroom? Convenience sampling was chosen due to the project's small size and short duration. Data were collected from 3 EFL teacher participants through classroom observations with follow-up interviews. Two semi-structured instruments, an observation sheet and an interview guide, were used to gather rich qualitative data. The interview guide comprised 12 questions focusing on two key domains: (1) students' difficulties and the challenges of teaching integrated learning groups, and (2) specific teaching methods and materials. To enhance the trustworthiness of the findings, data from the interviews and observations were triangulated with field notes about the school context, observed student groups, and electronic correspondence with participating teachers. An inductive approach, based on Maykut and Morehouse (1994), was used for data analysis. The emerging topics and categories were revised continuously until the most salient themes were identified as a result of a cyclical process of analysis.

Three teachers reported using differentiated teaching methods in their lessons and demonstrated awareness that differentiation is essential to integrate SEN students in the EFL classroom; however, the use of differentiated classroom instruction was not standard practice during the lessons, and most accommodations were only offering extra time to those who were behind due to their SpLDs.

The results of the pilot study indicate that the participating teachers generally do not use differentiated classroom instruction as a standard practice when integrating students with special needs into their regular EFL class. This finding provided deeper insights into the practices and challenges teachers face when including students with special needs in mainstream classrooms. By highlighting the limited use of differentiated instruction in the EFL classroom, the study calls for further research.

There is a gap between the theory of how to promote inclusive education and its implementation in EFL classrooms. In the observed lessons, the teachers created supportive classroom environments and utilised multisensory language approaches, but rarely employed any differentiated classroom instruction. This finding informed the dissertation research, which aimed at improving the integration and inclusion of anxious students with dyslexia in EFL classrooms, prompting further exploration and a deeper understanding of the perspectives of EFL teachers regarding the use of inclusive education practices in EFL settings, including differentiated instruction, and on the use of relevant strategies in the context of Hungarian primary schools. Having introduced the qualitative pilot study, the discussion moves on to study whether the constructs that performed well in the quantitative research were supported by the qualitative data.

6.2 Quantitative Constructs Supported by the Qualitative Data

The quantitative inquiry suggested that the participating teachers' perceptions were informed by *Identification of anxious dyslexic learners*, *Views on how to deal with dyslexic students' anxiety* and *Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies*, and the relationship between these factors, but not by the *Manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety*. The strength of the manifestations of anxiety did not appear to depend on the other factors listed above. Once anxiety was identified in dyslexic learners, participating teachers supported

their needs. The perspectives gained from the interviews and observations confirmed that students with language barriers were mostly identified by EFL teachers themselves, or more often by their colleagues.

At the same time, however, dealing with the FL anxiety of the students did not mean that participating teachers taught anxious neurodivergent students the strategies, which were rated important in the quantitative inquiry. Strategies such as teaching students to break down longer texts into smaller sections, teaching them how to plan what and how to practice for the next class, or how to deal with stress when they have to say something very important in English, were not mentioned in the interviews. Teaching anxiety-reducing strategies to students did not seem to appear in the language around dealing with the anxiety of neurodivergent learners.

In order to get the complete picture, I used qualitative methods to reveal the entire context in which EFL teachers work with anxious dyslexic students. These exploratory methods helped me to understand more deeply the teaching experience of participating teachers.

6.3 Qualitative strand of the study: Teachers' reported experience and perceptions of managing dyslexic language learners' FLA.

The second strand of my research project, a qualitative investigation, was designed to gain a deeper understanding of teachers' reported experience and perceptions of managing dyslexic language learners' foreign language anxiety, as well as their actual practice. The study investigated some of the challenges educators face when teaching anxious students with dyslexia. By comparing perceptions and practices, the study seeks to understand what contributes to success in the primary school context.

6.3.1 Research Questions: Teachers' reported experience

An interview study was conducted with teachers of English (*N* = 8), with 3 deputy headmasters and 4 support staff: 2 speech therapists, 1 school psychologist, 1 developmental specialist (*N* = 7). Semi-structured interviews = (*N*15). The study attempted to explore the following questions:

- RQ2a How does anxiety affect the L2 learning process for students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems based on the experience of language teachers in mainstream primary schools?
- RQ2b How do language teachers reflect on their experience dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners?
- RQ2c How do participating language teachers in mainstream primary schools view the use of different methods in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners or students with dyslexia-like symptoms?
- RQ4 What are participating language teachers' perceptions on success in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic students?

6.3.2 Research Questions: Teachers' actual practice

Altogether 27 EFL lesson observations with teachers of English (*N* = 9) were conducted to explore how teachers' perceptions of dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety manifest themselves in actual EFL teaching practices, to be able to answer the following research question:

- RQ3 What characterizes teachers' practices in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety

6.3.3 Research Questions: Teachers' reported experience, perceptions, and actual practice to be compared for understanding success

The observation notes were triangulated with interview data and multiple data sources were used: the semi-structured interviews with 15 EFL teachers and 4 support staff: 2 speech therapists, 1 school psychologist, 1 developmental specialist (N7), language course material, student test, notes, student exercise books, as well as the planning boards of the schools to answer the following research question:

- RQ5 What teaching practices contribute to the success of dealing with dyslexic students' foreign language anxiety in EFL classes in Hungary?

6.4. Quality control: Principles of qualitative research and Grounded Theory (GT)

It is well known that the role of qualitative investigations is never to produce generalizable results (Creswell, 1998). The goal instead is transferability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008); the findings of a systematic inquiry should be transferable to similar situations in similar contexts. The criteria I used in the qualitative part of the inquiry to assure trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba,1985) were dependability, confirmability, and credibility in addition to transferability. As far as dependability was concerned, this was established by documenting the socially constructed and constantly changing reality of the setting and the study design accurately and consistently, ensuring that the steps of the project can be replicated. Confirmability's contribution to trustworthiness was that this could ensure that the findings were based on the participants' narratives, and the procedures of the study were a detailed account of research procedures and conclusions. Holliday (2004) emphasizes

the role of procedure in conducting research: "As in all research, a major area of accountability must be procedure, and when the choices are more open, the procedure must be more" (p. 732).

Credibility was ensured mainly via data triangulation, member checking, prolonged engagement, and persistent observations. Cohen et al. (2000, p. 254) define triangulation as an "attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint." Data triangulation ensured that teachers' views were explored from multiple perspectives, and the process of member checking allows the researchers' interpretations of the data to be shared with the participants. As for prolonged engagement, this meant the researcher spent sufficient time interviewing participants and observing classes to understand the perspectives of the participants. As Lincoln and Guba (1985) note, "prolonged engagement provides scope, persistent observation provides depth" (p. 304), thus allowing the researcher to gain a deep understanding of the perspectives of teacher participants.

Grounded theory (GT) was chosen as the qualitative research method to help create a theoretical model from the qualitative and quantitative data collected. GT was developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) to generate theory through an inductive approach from the data collected. Themes emerge from the data through the constant comparative method until reaching theoretical saturation. During the process of collecting data, the data analysis happens simultaneously using the principles of Qualitative Inquiry. GT represents an interpretivist–constructivist perspective that aligns well with the mixed-methods design of combining quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative quality control measures, such as checking the Internal reliability by calculating Cronbach's α, which exceeded 0.70, or addressing validity via correlations above 0.60 to show strong alignment, or assumption checks ensured transparency and added to the quality control from the quantitative aspects. The qualitative trustworthiness principles were observed through the rich

insights of the participants. By applying the GT with the principles of the mixed methods design, rich insights can be gained for teaching anxious dyslexic learners in the EFL primary school context.

6.5 Participants

In the case of Strand 2, 15 interview participants, deputy headmasters, support staff, and EFL teachers, consisted of a diverse group of teachers from different age groups, higher educational backgrounds, and geographical locations. The participants in the qualitative study were 12 teachers: 8 Hungarian EFL primary school teachers in the interviews and an additional 4 EFL teachers who participated in the observations. The four support staff participants and three deputy headmasters came from the schools where the Hungarian EFL primary school teachers were teaching. The population consisted of women aged 28 to 61 years, with teaching experience ranging from 3 to 33 years. Their school was located in one of the municipalities: The Capital, a town in mid-Hungary; a town in Western Hungary; a town in Eastern Hungary; and a village in Northern Hungary. Maximum variation sampling (Dörnyei, 2007) was employed to account for variations in gender, age, experience, location, and training received on accommodating dyslexic students or on anxious dyslexic students. Following this approach, other interview participants with diverse characteristics were selected; as Patton (1990, p. 172) formulates this precisely, the purpose is "selecting a small sample of great diversity" in line with the principles of qualitative inquiries. The technique of purposive sampling was utilized in the interview study to select individuals who were experienced in dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic learners in mainstream EFL classrooms from the mailing list of the preceding project. Participants whose perspectives contributed most to answering the research questions were selected. A convenience sampling

strategy was also employed (Dörnyei, 2007), which meant that EFL teachers were interviewed, who had considerable experience related to the teaching of anxious dyslexic students and also those whose participation depended on their availability (Dörnyei, 2007). The participants were selected via convenience and snowball sampling (Dörnyei, 2007) from a pool of 30 teachers who participated in the quantitative part of the project. Information about the EFL teacher participants interviewed and/or observed is summarized in Table 23.

Table 23

Biographical Profiles of the EFL teachers interviewed and/or observed for Strand 2

Note. The participants were given pseudonyms. M = male; F = female; I=Interviewed; and/or O=Observed

Name	Gender	Age	Years of experience	Training received	Interviewed and/or observed
Anett	F	61	28	N	I
Erna	F	54	4	N	I/O
Katrin	F	48	29	N	IO
Olga	F	50	14	N	I
Vilma	F	28	3	N	I/O
Berta	F	51	30	Y	I/O
Magda	F	47	8	N	I
Matild	F	58	33	N	I/O
Elza	F	28	9	N	O
Andrea	F	36	21	N	O
Niki	F	50	13	N	O
Zita	F	47	26	N	O

Table 24 contains biographical profiles of the additional four support staff and three deputy heads who participated in the Strand 2 interviews. It is essential to obtain insight into the views of these groups of other professionals for two reasons. First, for data triangulation, the goal was to ensure that the effect of anxiety on dyslexic students' foreign language learning is explored from multiple perspectives. The other reason was to learn about anxiety and dyslexia from the school management's perspective and from the perspective of the support staff. The deputy headmasters were a knowledgeable source of information in terms of educating dyslexic students in the primary school, and the support staff were well-informed about the type of accommodations and instruction students receive and the approaches and strategies that work in reducing anxiety for dyslexic learners in the mainstream first language environment. The views of the different participants were evaluated carefully to understand their experience more deeply and help in answering the research question about what characterises teachers' practices in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety.

Table 24
Biographical Profiles of the Support Staff and Deputy Head Participants of Strand 2

Name	Gender	Age	Years of experience	Profession
Emma	F	54	4	Deputy Head/Speech Therapist/Educator
Gerda	F	51	8	Deputy Head
Mona	F	52	13	Deputy Head
Klaudia	F	30	2	Developmental teacher

Bogi	F	48	6	Speech therapist
Dorina	F	32	5	School psychologist

Note. The participants were given pseudonyms. M = male; F = female

The participants of tables 23 and 24 provided biographical information and professional experience data. All participants are female, reflecting on the gender distribution within teachers' roles at schools studied in Hungary. The age of participants varied from 28 to 61 years. Specifically, the teaching participants have a teaching experience ranging from 3 to 33 years. Only one participant (Berta) has received training; the others have not. This could indicate some gaps in training opportunities for teachers. The Deputy Heads, Speech Therapists, a Developmental Teacher, and School Psychologist perspectives contribute to a deeper understanding of the primary school context.

6.5 Data collection

6.5.1 Data collection instrument

To answer the research questions, semi-structured interview and observation instruments were developed. The interview guide was a revised version of the interview protocol I had already used in my pilot qualitative study (Nagyné Nyikes, 2019). The interview guide for teachers, support staff, and deputy headmasters was reviewed by an instructor in the author's PhD program and piloted with a PhD student from the same program, who also had some experience teaching neurodivergent students. As a result of the pilot interviews (Nagyné Nyikes, 2019), some questions were rephrased. The pilot interview showed that some questions needed clarification; therefore, prompt questions were added to the interview guide to help the interviewee answer the question and ensure that important pieces of information are not missed. In the case of the main question, the probes are as follows. *How can you help your pupils with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems*

overcome anxiety? The prompts were as follows: *Have you read about methods that might be useful? Can you give examples?*

The interview guide for teachers consisted of five biographical questions and 19 content questions focusing on two key domains: (1) the perceptions of students' difficulties and the challenges they experience due to their anxiety, and (2) specific teaching methods and materials used to manage language difficulties and anxiety challenges of dyslexic learners. The content interview questions followed (5) relevant background questions. The interviews aimed to explore the teachers' awareness of their methods and their practices in dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic learners. Commencing with the background questions and questions on 1. Language teaching history: Teachers' reported experience of English language teaching, and the various challenges teachers encountered when teaching dyslexic learners in the EFL classroom were covered first. Questions addressed the extent to which teachers perceive the presence of anxiety in dyslexic learners based on the experience teachers have with dyslexia in the EFL classroom, and the extent to which teachers perceive the presence of anxiety in dyslexic learners. The next set of questions focused on students. 2. The sources and causes of anxiety in dyslexic learners: Teachers' perspective on barriers their anxious dyslexic learners face, feelings of success/failure, and ways to address these challenges are explored. After the questions on students, the focus was shifted to teaching and the third main area 3. Classroom management: The next set of questions addressed effective classroom management, creating a positive atmosphere that fosters student engagement and participation, and providing necessary accommodations to meet the diverse needs of students. The fourth main area was the 4. Specific strategies: Finally, the last set of questions is on specific teaching strategies that may meet individual student needs, provide easy-to-follow instructions and scaffolding to support students in achieving their learning goals.

The interview guide for support staff consisted of three biographical questions and 17 content questions focusing on the barriers dyslexic students are facing with regard to their anxiety. The interview guide for deputy headmasters had four biographical questions and 16 content questions focusing on managing resources related to anxious dyslexic students. Interviews were also conducted with other school professionals. The views of school managers: deputy headmasters and school support staff: school psychologists, speech therapists, and developmental consultants were explored. Having investigated the views of these professionals on dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic students, formed the basis of the interview guides. Questions on coping strategies and methods to help students learn, including metacognition, methods to help them express what they know, and options to keep dyslexic students engaged and free from anxiety, were part of the inquiry for both the school management and support staff participants.

For the school management participants, the topic of institutional support and exemption practices was examined, and questions such as how support services were organized in the school, how cooperation was managed with parents, how individual needs influenced what books the school ordered and what the experience was like from the deputy headmaster's perspective was investigated.

As for school support staff, the interview guide addressed the following issues: challenges related to anxiety and FL learning, native language techniques that have been found applicable to developing the FL skills, the occurrence of late diagnosis, publications the participants recommended, FL learning issues that students reported to support staff, and what the experience was like from the school psychologists', speech therapists', and developmental consultants' perspectives. The data elicited with the help of the interview guide for teachers contributed to a depth of understanding with regard to educating dyslexic students in a mainstream context.

The semi-structured interview guides, as well as the observation schedule, were constructed in Hungarian.

The semi-structured interview guide was developed (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Dörnyei, 2007, p. 138) in a way that the interviewer and the participants can have a conversation which flows naturally and is rich in detail. At the same time, the guide provided a clear structure to the conversation. The development of the observation instrument was informed by Wajnryb's (2012) guidelines for constructing observation protocols and by the observation checklist options provided by McDonough and McDonough (1997). The instrument used categories employed by the teacher, such as teaching material and technical equipment, pace, and the grouping format of the participants (individual, pair, or group work). Additionally, it included information about the teacher's motivational strategies, anxiety-reducing strategies, applied multisensory techniques, methods of differentiation, and any further practice that seemed relevant from the point of view of the inclusion of anxious dyslexic students. The pilot instrument was refined and finalized.

6.5.2 Data collection procedure

Qualitative data were collected through interviews and observations from March 2021 to December 2021. Data from interviews and lesson observations were collected in accordance with the semi-structured interview guide and observation protocol, which included basic categories such as teaching materials and technical equipment, pace, and the grouping format the teacher was using (individual, pair, or group work). These were complemented with questions for *the teacher's motivational strategies*, *anxiety-reducing strategies*, *the applied multisensory techniques,* methods of differentiation, and any further practice that seemed relevant from the point of view of students who experience anxiety, challenges, and difficulties in their foreign language learning process. The English translation of the interview guides and the observation protocol are available in the

Appendices. These instruments of data collection were supplemented with field notes on schools and classrooms for triangulation in order to present data obtained from different sources.

6.6 Data Analysis: Constant Comparative Method and Grounded Theory

As part of the data analysis, the interviews were then transcribed for data analysis, which altogether comprised 447,299 characters (without spaces). Each participant was given a pseudonym, and the lines within the interview data were numbered. In the next section, the pseudonym and the lines are included after the translated versions of the quotations cited from the interviews.

The verbal data were analysed with the help of the constant comparative method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Dörnyei, 2007). As a result of the first detailed reading of the transcriptions, the texts had 63 coding categories, which could be grouped into 15 larger categories. After going through the data several times and reaching a point of saturation, 33 categories remained. The 33 categories make up the categories of the emerging model of teaching anxious dyslexic learners in the language classroom.

The grounded theory approach strengthened the qualitative analysis by employing the constant comparative method and theoretical saturation. Participants' experiences were constantly compared and contrasted with new data from interviews, classroom observation notes, learner material, and triangulation among teachers, deputy heads, support staff, and member checking or peer debriefing. These helped to make the model for teaching anxious dyslexic learners credible, trustworthy, and grounded in data.

During the process of analysing the data, the number of emerging themes was reduced to six main areas on how dyslexic language learners' FLA could be minimised. These are as follows:

anxious dyslexic learners, the EFL teachers' methodological choices, assessment practices, motivating anxious dyslexic learners for success, the classroom environment, and the language teaching context and cooperation with colleagues and parents. To ensure the quality of data analysis and interpretation, member-checks and peer-debriefing were used involving the participants, their teachers, and another researcher.

Table 25
Emerging Themes: Perspectives on Teacher Support for Anxiety in Dyslexic Learners

Example	Subcategories	Larger Category	Major Category
"There are a lot of people in the profession that attack segregation" (Bogi,65—66)	dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools, anxious dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools, inclusion, integration, segregation, identifying dyslexic students, language barriers, reading challenges,	dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools, anxious dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools, the barriers/challenges students experience	dyslexic learners/anxious dyslexic learners in mainstream primary schools
"I use the Quizlet, which helps … as everything is spelt out exactly there." (Erna, 216—217)	giving more time, dealing with mistakes, using meaningful tasks, using humour, music, games, strategies (coping, memory, communication), teacher experience, teacher qualifications and training, Internet Computer Technology/ICT, caring attitudes, opportunities to	strategies, multisensory approaches, teacher experience, teacher qualifications and training	methodological choices

	practice, mind maps, movement		
Assessment should be treated in a completely different way. New dimensions of grading need to be explored. We must forget about giving the same long exam or essay for assessment (Anett, 935—937)	differentiation, opportunity for verbal test outside class, assessing progress, exemption, strengths, creativity	differentiation techniques, exemption	assessment practices and exemption
"When I thought about my own teaching, I realized that there is no trick here. You have to lay down the ground rules at the beginning so that there is no stress in the class. And for me, the way it usually works is that when I get a class, the most important thing is to make it clear (Berta,110—112)	motivating them, encouraging them, setting goals, failure, weaknesses, language learning success, understanding success, speaking skills, establishing classroom rules, use of mother tongue, ridicule,	setting goals, use of mother tongue,	success, ways of motivation, and anxiety
You can't learn a foreign language in the state of anxiety. It is very important that they feel comfortable there and learn." (Katrin,275—276)	the culture of punishment, build friendly classrooms, flexibility of curriculum, happiness program, classroom, school, pair work, group work,	pair work, group work,	providing a supportive environment
We now have a school psychologist, thank God, for the last three years, which can be	creating good relationships with anxious dyslexic students, supporting	relationship with the teacher, relationships with peers,	language teaching context and cooperation with colleagues, parents

helpful. ...We've had developmental teachers...and then, if somebody feels that this is something that they really want to deal with, they can ask for help. But, as I said; here, when teachers feel the need that they face this problem, they can ask about what it is that can do about it. (Matild, 94—95)	them, assistant, tutoring, cooperation with support staff cooperation with parents, trust

As Table 25 shows, emerging themes came from participants' statements like integration, segregation, identifying dyslexic students, and using humour and music in teaching. These categories were then grouped into larger categories based on similarities, such as dyslexic students/anxious dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools or EFL teachers' methodological choices. For instance, items related to student placement and learning barriers were combined under barriers while instructional techniques were categorized as strategies. Finally, these categories were grouped into the major themes, which reflected the complexity of teaching dyslexic students/anxious dyslexic students in mainstream primary school.

6.7 Presenting the findings of the qualitative study

In the next section, I will be presenting the findings of the qualitative data analysis. Several themes emerged from the conducted interviews and the classroom observations regarding dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners. These themes were grouped into six categories. Sections 7.7-7.12 present the themes that emerged in the analysis from the participants' perspectives: the perspective of the deputy headmaster(s), the language teacher(s),

the speech therapist(s), the school psychologist, and the developmental teacher. The categories of the findings are the following:

6.8) Teachers' perceptions of anxious dyslexic learners

6.9) The EFL teachers' methodological choices

6.10) Assessment practices

6.11) Motivating anxious dyslexic learners to become successful language learners

6.12) The classroom environment

6.13) The language teaching context and cooperation with colleagues and parents.

This section discusses participants' views on the integration or inclusion of anxious neurodivergent students in the mainstream primary school. Section 6.8 focuses on anxious dyslexic students in the EFL lessons. The ratio of anxious dyslexic students in foreign language classes, their identification, and their characteristics are discussed. In Section 6.9, language teachers' experience and professional development are detailed. Teaching methods, differentiation, multisensory methods, and strategies are studied. Section 6.10 is about assessment and exemption from the assessment. These categories are explored through the lens of inclusion. The category of assessment is followed by success and motivation. Section 6.11, The effects of the environment on the teaching and learning process, is pursued in section 6.12 of the chapter. The final section, section 6.13, summarises all the elements of teaching anxious dyslexic students in the primary school context. It is essential to highlight that throughout the qualitative inquiry, the discussions and analyses are all addressed from the participants' perspectives and not in general.

In the methodology section, it is explicitly explained that qualitative studies help to gain a deeper understanding of the issue in question. The participant's perspective on the particular

issue is illustrated with the direct quotations from the interviews. The quotes from the participants are translated from Hungarian. Instead of the real names of the second strand participants, pseudonyms are used. These pseudonyms are to retain the participants' anonymity.

6.8 Teachers' perceptions of anxious dyslexic learners in mainstream primary schools

The aim of this section is to present the findings of the category of dyslexic students/anxious dyslexic students integrated or included in English language classes of primary schools. Teachers' perceptions of dyslexic students/anxious dyslexic students are introduced. The terms have been defined in the literature review chapter, and the context has been situated in the Methods chapter. The ratio of dyslexic students, issues with language learning, and the difficulties of dyslexic students are evaluated.

6.8.1 Integration and inclusion

From the interviews, it seems that schools openly promote integration and inclusion, and most interview participants accept integration as a norm since students with dyslexia are instructed together with their non-dyslexic peers in the context of the mainstream primary school. All participants acknowledge that students with dyslexia and their non-dyslexic peers are similar in that they are sitting in the EFL classrooms to benefit from a meaningful foreign language learning experience together with their peers. Observation data also show that language groups have learners with dyslexia, some with visible signs of anxiety, others with less obvious signs.

While integration is widely supported in school communications, segregation may happen due to ability grouping practices, as was apparent from the interview data. Segregating higher and lower-achieving pupils into different groups may pedagogically seem reasonable. There may

seem to be advantages to the ability grouping of students, such as a group of students with similar abilities seems easier to manage and teach. In a similar vein, the speech therapist interviewee highlights that "there are a lot of people in the profession that attack segregation" (Bogi, 102—103). Still, integration works only if the management is committed to inclusion, and a supporting structure of speech therapists, school psychologists, and developmental specialists is in place. Otherwise, the teachers tire themselves out. "Obviously, I have my bad days too, when I forget my sense of humour at home or when I'm really tired "(Erna, 277—278). "I tell students when I'm tired" (Berta, 150—151). EFL teachers may become exhausted by trying to fulfil their responsibilities of including students with dyslexia within an inadequate framework.

Indeed, the advantages of integration are not apparent if resources are limited, as was noted by Dorina, a school psychologist interviewee.

> There are many children who need developmental support, and many schools give up, and then try to make an elite school where there are fewer problems… and then become more of a performance-oriented school. Because it's obviously easier. Mind you, there's a lot of anxiety there too. Anyway, you need schools that are good at integrating everybody, so that's what the kids really come there for. (Dorina, 677—683)

The advantages of creating an inclusive classroom where students work in a mainstream environment are that these students become used to and learn to appreciate differences and benefit from accessible instruction based on the inclusion agenda (UNESCO, 2017).

A speech therapist, Bogi, underlined that integration of anxious dyslexic students may happen successfully:

> Obviously, there are several factors that their future depends on, where they go to school, what kind of care they receive, how supportive their parents are, how motivated they are.

It depends on many things, but in most cases, our experience is that integration is successful (Bogi, 122—125).

The participating teachers felt that it was their duty to integrate these learners in the EFL classroom as "Every student is different and can be included in learning activities in different ways. It requires a lot of patience and tolerance from both teachers and classmates" (Olga, 37—39). All in all, inclusive education is a complex phenomenon and depends on several factors such as stakeholders, school management, support staff, and even parents. Most importantly, however, the responsibility falls on the shoulders of the teachers teaching English as a foreign language to students with dyslexia.

6.8.2 Teaching English as a foreign language to a growing number of dyslexic students

Teaching English as a foreign language to dyslexic students is impacted by when the instruction of the foreign language starts and the number of anxious dyslexic students in the classroom. As explained in the Introduction, FL instruction generally starts in year 4 (at about the age of ten) according to the new National Core Curriculum (Emberi Erőforrások Minisztériuma, 2020), which serves as the basic curriculum guidelines for Hungarian schools. The ratio of students with dyslexia in the participating schools either corresponds with the data recorded by the Hungarian Central Statistical Office or seems higher. For instance, a deputy headmaster noted that "with focus on dyslexia, the proportion of these pupils is, I would say, almost half of the total number of SEN students" (Gerda, 73—74). When talking about the ratio of students with dyslexia, the deputy headmaster of a school in a northern Hungarian village reported that" Around 25% of children are diagnosed with the condition."(Mona).

Furthermore, the EFL teacher in the school from a western Hungarian small town recorded an even higher number of students experiencing writing issues: "I have 10-15 kids in a group, and I think 8-9 of them have illegible handwriting" (Magda,112—113). Similarly, the teacher of English from the capital characterised her language group, consisting of almost half the group, as dyslexic: "I had a group... where 9 out of 20 children were dyslexic" (Katrin,80—81). On one particular occasion, when the observation was taking place in the EFL group of 8th grade in a primary school in an eastern Hungarian town, seven out of 14 pupils were special needs students, and two had dyslexia. On a different occasion, during observation, out of the 13 students present and one student online, three students identified as neurodivergent students. The notion of the growing number of dyslexic students seemed to be confirmed. There is a high number of students with dyslexia based on the records, and in reality, there are even more students without evidence experiencing dyslexia like barriers. Dorina, a school psychologist, also agreed that there was a growing number of dyslexic students in the schools of the Hungarian capital, as well, based on the accounts of colleagues: "Teaching colleagues say that the number of these children is rising"(Dorina, 57—58). Indeed, "there is an increase in the number of children who are not performing as well in mainstream schools for some reason" (Bogi, 58—60).

While the interview participants agreed that the number of learners with dyslexia has grown visibly, they debated the extent to which the growth can be registered and the reasons for not recognising students with dyslexia in the past. A deputy headmaster evaluated the situation as follows: "In fact, there is not such a high rate of growth. There may be better diagnostics" (Emma, 85—86). A teacher shared her view: “By the way, I don't know if this existed when we were children or if it was just labelled *bad student.* Because they didn't recognise these things” (Berta, 646—648).

The reported experience of teachers is in line with the growing number of dyslexic students. According to educational statistical data, 440,000 students studied English out of the total number of 726,000 students in primary school education in the academic year 2020/2021. (Központi Statisztikai Hivatal [KSH], 2021a). Out of the registered number of 92,845 SEN children and students in nursery, primary, and secondary schools in Hungary, less than half of them (39,838) experienced barriers to dyslexia in 2020/2021 (Központi Statisztikai Hivatal [KSH], 2021b).

To summarize, participant interviews reported that the occurrence of dyslexic students is on the rise. More specifically, a higher ratio of children with dyslexia can be observed in some language groups. The class observation experience supported what was reported in the interviews by the deputy headmasters, school support professionals, and teachers. Most observed groups of 10 or 12 students had a student or two who either had a dyslexia diagnosis or reportedly experienced reading and writing issues.

6.8.3 Identifying anxious dyslexic students

Based on the interview data collected, English language teachers are among the first professionals to identify dyslexic students; thus, they may need to inform other members of their school community about these barriers. Participating teachers of the present study talked about the difficulties of identifying dyslexic learners, "the real fact that someone is dyslexic is very, very difficult to recognize" (Anett, 973—974). If, however, EFL teachers could identify the barriers, they relied on their own observations and experience recognising literacy barriers "Those who have these weaknesses are already showing …at the age of 6–7. I think right when they start going to school and start learning to read" (Vilma, 177—178), or "Learning words is a bit harder for them, too" (Magda, 343—344). Alternatively, identification of these learners was based on written work and spelling mistakes:

" I usually find out when I see their written work, like looking at a workbook or something" (Berta, 82—83) or "You can spot that the student often makes spelling mistakes, especially in writing, or the student reads more slowly with many mistakes" (Katrin,256—257). While the weaknesses were listed mostly, dyslexic students also possess strengths; "The student has strengths elsewhere, in another area – whether in speech or in any kind of game" (137— 138), which is highlighted by Erna, or in "creative activities such as drawing and painting" (660—661) underlined by Vilma. Finally, identification of dyslexic learners may happen due to apparent signs of anxiety, "someone is reading very quietly…and then you can see that something is wrong" (Dorina, 521—522).

Based on the interview data, participating teachers also claimed that they had received information about each of their students from the parents, deputy headmasters or colleagues. "We receive a notification from the parents or the class teacher" (Katrin, 242—243). Therefore, there was no need for teachers to have the ability to recognize or identify students with learning differences or any other special needs signs.

> We start teaching a foreign language in the fourth year. By that time, the teacher and the teacher of Hungarian language and literature in the lower school already know the children very well, because they are with them several hours a day. So, in the majority of cases, she can definitely see that a child has learning difficulties or problems (Anett, 107—110).

Nevertheless, the participating teachers felt that it was their duty to identify these learners in the EFL classroom as they say "it is the teacher's responsibility to identify [the dyslexic child] and consult a professional, for instance, a school psychologist" (Anett, 250—252), and Berta also shared the view about the EFL teacher’s duty to identify learners with dyslexia barriers. Anett started pointing out that "the development specialist takes the students and develops them in the Hungarian language. In the foreign language, as I said, I have to do everything myself"

(Anett, 605—607). Anett highlights the difference between the role of the development specialist and her role and emphasizes that the foreign language development is the sole responsibility of the EFL teacher. Berta expressed agreement that identification of dyslexic learners was the teacher's duty:

> Yes. [the teacher's task is to identify them]...Usually, if students have such a problem, it's the English teacher who notices it and sends them for evaluation. When I receive a student in upper primary, we already know about it. We actually have a duty to know about it, because they deserve individual treatment and differentiation. So, when we get a new group coming in, we usually check.... I usually ask the teacher after a month, the fourth-year teacher, how she and he doing? Well, yeah... er... So, I notice it too, but it's not my job to send him for evaluation, as this problem comes up in the mother tongue as well, of course, and then the lower primary teachers send him. Suppose you are wondering whether it is necessary for me, as a teacher, to be told from the outside which student... - no. I don't need to, because I can see it. But I do know, because at the beginning of each year, we get a notification (a table) with students who need differentiated attention, and then I can see it. Otherwise, I can see it without the diagnosis, which students are experiencing more difficulty in learning, and we will find out in two weeks (Berta, 664—672).

Interestingly, a pattern emerged when teachers learned about anxious students with dyslexia from their colleagues. There appeared to be a common timeframe. Information transfer is most likely to happen at the beginning of the school year or as early as the end of summer.

> Class teachers usually remember to talk about these students at the beginning of the year, especially when a new teacher or colleague starts teaching in the class. Not always, though, not everyone, but I do ask if there is anyone. Most of the time, within two weeks, it's clear.

> If someone is a bit suspicious, a pupil, I ask them, and they say, Well, of course, of course, there's an assessment paper about this particular student. Sooner or later, it reaches me. If there is such a document, I usually get it (Erna, 83—90).

In some schools, the teachers reported sharing information on a one-to-one basis, while others share information about SEN students in the teachers' room, which may give rise to data protection concerns:

> I am informed about those …who have papers, yes, I am informed, usually there is a list on the big common wall in the teachers' room, and we are told to note that these students have assessment documents, what their record is about, what they have been exempted from, what accommodation they have to be given…. I see that they have an exemption in English or a foreign language or spelling or some other exemption; they need more time, and then I know that and then I make a note of it. That's it. Apart from this, the class teacher just says, look at the list (Magda,91—98)!

The comments by Magda shed more light on how the school shares knowledge and how teachers learn about dyslexic learners. The "big common wall" suggests that the system for sharing is centralized. Central communication about the specific needs of the students contributes to providing the appropriate support.

Other than making information available centrally, information can be passed down from one teacher to another. Anett emphasized the information transfer between the lower primary school teacher and the EFL teacher from the upper primary in the procedure:

> In June, I will have a conversation with the class teacher, when I will get a list of at least an indication of whom I will have a hard time with, why; whom I will have an easier time

> with, why; who is the child who needs special, individual treatment … I will definitely get information from the lower primary school teacher. I get it from the class teacher, right, when he comes up to the upper fifth - but often I'm teaching the student in fifth grade more than the class teacher himself. If he is a geography teacher, he meets the student one hour a week, and I meet the student three hours a week (Anett, 117—122).

It is especially helpful to receive information from class teachers about students needing support. EFL teachers can plan action and provide resources to support teachers and students. Triangulating information from school management and support staff in identifying anxious dyslexic students helps to gain a deeper understanding of the practices. School management plays a part in catering for the needs of anxious dyslexic students. Deputy headmaster Mona underlined the role of lower primary school teachers, saying that "if a pupil has reading difficulties, the teacher will notice it in the first year, and they will obviously be the ones who will have more problems with language learning than others. I think that in the first and second year, we already notice it."(Mona,) Mona then continues to describe the procedures as follows:

> The way we do it is that we send children to the educational counsellor for an initial assessment using a questionnaire, and if we want to, we can send them in with a pedagogical profile. Then the children are examined. If the educational counsellor confirms that it is indeed a SEN pupil, they send the student on to the expert committee, and the experts then determine whether it is a SEN student (Mona)

The systematic approach to identifying students with SEN starts with sending students to an educational counsellor. The professional uses a questionnaire to evaluate students. After this

evaluation, the counsellor can send the student to an expert committee. The process shows collaboration among educators and support staff. Formal assessments are used to identify SEN students and place them within the educational system. Gerda, another Deputy headmaster, describes the procedure from the moment the teacher notices the student needs:

> So, the way it works is that when the teacher notices that the student needs help, or feels it is justified - and this also suggests that the teacher usually notices sooner that the student needs help- they ask for an assessment from the Pedagogical Specialist Service. After the assessment is made, the student receives an expert opinion. In the first round, it is usually a Social, Emotional, and Behavioural Difficulties (SEBD) assessment…. if this can be confirmed, then the child's development starts. After a year, so when the student has been in the developmental sessions for a year, a review takes place, the student may remain in SEBD status, but often the case is referred to a higher committee - a county expert committee - and it is there that it is determined, or it may be there that it is found, that the pupil is moved to SEN status specifically, whether there is dyslexia, dysgraphia, a mixed specific disorder, or another problem (Gerda, 57—67).

The teacher notices that a student requires support. They ask for an assessment from the Pedagogical Specialist Service. The teachers have a proactive approach, which can lead to an expert opinion, such as an SEBD evaluation. After a year, the evaluation is reviewed.

At the same time, however, experts may recognise learning barriers earlier than the teacher. "When there's a suspicion that a child is learning differently that they're not progressing, or not getting the results they want, support staff colleagues are called to assess what's wrong " (Klaudia, 52—53). Another support staff colleague confirms this view:

> children who come from nursery school having been to a specialised educational service and have, say, a dyslexia risk. ... Often, it's only at school that the pieces come together - that's when we send them back, and they're diagnosed with a learning disability. Some children are given SEN status in kindergarten. This is perhaps more fortunate because they can obviously get development support straight away, and teachers can differentiate in the lessons. So, they know straight away what they are dealing with. Thus, they can receive development support and differentiation in class (Dorina, 102—106)

Dorina underlines the importance of registering barriers associated with neurodiversity, such as dyslexia. Nursery school children may already experience challenges. There is a risk of dyslexia in early education; formal recognition occurs in a school setting. Once there is official evidence for dyslexia, students receive immediate access to developmental support and instruction.

To conclude this section, most interviewed EFL teachers received information from their fellow colleagues, class teachers, and sometimes they noticed spelling mistakes or writing difficulties themselves. Teachers were not expected to diagnose students, as they are not qualified to do so. However, understanding the experience of students with dyslexia and anxiety can help refer the dyslexic students to the relevant professional.

6.8.4 Perception of Barriers

The perception of the barriers that anxious students with dyslexia experience in the EFL classroom is changing. According to the deputy headmaster, participants of the study, students with barriers related to dyslexia are starting to be referred to differently: "Nowadays, it is not very common for diagnoses to say dyslexia, but usually mixed early skills disorder. They experience a range of issues related to poor sub-skills, which affect either reading comprehension, spelling, writing or mathematics" (Emma, 63—67).

Participating teachers gave accounts in the interviews about the nature of challenges dyslexic students are facing. First, these teachers emphasized individual differences in cognitive performance. Anett described differences of cognitive nature through “a learner who can barely learn something, barely memorise something" (Anett,197—199). It was only later that teachers started to talk about the affective factors, “it is more difficult to memorise a text of that length, say several sentences - by then he has this inhibition" as Berta (217—218) puts it. Anxiety appeared in relation to failure or shame due to difficulties experienced when working memory was limited, when phonological processing was hindered, or due to awareness or processing speed challenges; for instance, when the students had to read in front of the whole group.

During the investigation of teachers’ reported experiences related to students with dyslexia in EFL classes, themes of different barriers to language teaching and learning emerged. L1 problems were referred to by the speech therapist, Emma:

> If there is a language problem, it is usually detected early. Very often, there are already speech delays and serious grammatical problems. There may be problems with pronunciation and articulation. Or very often, there are problems with speech perception and comprehension. (Emma, 98—102)

Participants also noted that literacy issues in the L1 transfer into the L2, in line with the literature (e.g., Kormos, 2017; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Nijakowska, 2010; Schneider & Crombie, 2003). As one teacher participant reported, "I recognize that they have challenges in Hungarian, reading difficulties... Not only in English" (Vilma, 117—119). Vilma is aware of the barriers students face in Hungarian and the impact this has on their English language learning. Participants’ comments emphasized that EFL teachers understand the role the L1 plays in L2 learning, which

can be understood in the framework of the Linguistic Coding Differences Hypotheses by Sparks et al. (1992), which postulates that native language skills impact foreign language learning.

During their interviews, teachers described students' reading barriers. As Olga(27—28) commented, "they read more slowly, often make mistakes and have more difficulty in understanding and learning texts". Classroom observations also revealed reading issues such as misspellings, omissions, letter substitution, letter insertion, syllable mispronunciation, or reversing the order of words and syllables. In Erna's classroom, for instance, the slow reading speed coupled with incorrect reading technique led to articulation barriers that occurred when it was the dyslexic student's turn to read out their homework. This was also the case with Zita's class when the instructions of the listening tasks had to be read aloud. Such tasks did not appear suddenly as a surprise: students either had time to prepare at home or were called on after other students had modelled what needed to be done. Even with the preparation provided, during the observations, it was easy to recognise misspellings or syllable mispronunciations among the students.

Participating speech therapists and teachers identified other possible areas of difficulty besides reading barriers, such as grammatical rules and spelling. These students have difficulty applying grammatical structures and struggle to deal with unusual letter combinations, as Emma illustrated below:

> Very different for learners... Some have difficulties with grammar. In English, the word order changes in the interrogative sentence; in Hungarian, the word order is much looser. For example, when you've got an indicative word order going, and then you get the interrogative word order, it's very difficult for people who are a bit more rigid in their thinking to switch. There are about 3-4 students in each group for whom spelling is a very

> big problem. It's important that they get used to the fact that there are certain combinations of letters, eg, *ght* in English, that differ from Hungarian. (Emma,419—431)

Emma focuses on the challenges that learners face when studying English, such as barriers regarding grammar, word order, and spelling. She illustrated one such challenge, highlighting how English uses a stricter word order than Hungarian, which is more flexible in this regard. She also reported that dyslexic students experience challenges with copying information:

> Once I see the written work, I have an idea. I mean, if the student has to write down five words from a printed text, which is written under the picture, and he copies them from a printed text (we are talking about English, the alphabet is practically the same as in Hungarian, so it's not like writing Cyrillic letters or Greek letters), you can see that the learner is making a mistake, that he can't write down three-letter words that we have been playing with for an hour. Or the same later... He works much more slowly… He can't write down words from the blackboard at all, for example (Anett, 165—170).

Anett described the difficulties that dyslexic students experience when they copy words from a printed text. As both English and Hungarian use the Latin alphabet, the difficulty does not arise due to differences between the two alphabetical systems. In the observed classrooms, it was visible that some students took longer to copy words from the blackboard than others. These students experienced word-recognition difficulties, issues with recalling words, processing delays, or attention-related challenges.

During the course of observation, exercise books were also studied. When handwritten work in exercise books or tests was inspected, the lines were hardly legible, and the disorganisation of the writing became visible. Olga noted spelling issues: "It also shows in spelling. It can become apparent as early as lower primary years, year 3-4" (Olga, 28—30). Vilma confirmed that "They

mix up the letters... several times omitted letters, very often did not know how to spell the word. The writing was also very ugly (Vilma, 140—142). This is worsened by the outcome that "unfortunately, even after the check, there are still a lot of writing errors left " (Klaudia, 351—352).

> Apart from the misspelling (especially in English, which is not a phonetic language; obviously, it's not easy to write, so it's a separate area that everyone needs to practise, and learners can have problems with it without any disorders). Misspelling is very common; that's what tends to stand out - or the ugly writing, anyway. The ugly handwriting and the fact that it is very difficult for children to start any writing tasks (Erna, 107—111).

Erna explained that misspelling is common due to the English language's non-phonetic nature, which means the relationship between letters and sounds is not straightforward. Poor handwriting and writing tasks present barriers to learners, even without any language learning difficulties. Handwriting and poor spelling seem like weaknesses. These views are in line with the literature. As indicated in previous studies (Kormos, 2017; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Nijakowska, 2010; Schneider & Crombie, 2003), dyslexia is considered a cognitive, developmental difference with lifelong effects on phonological processing, awareness, speed of processing and working memory. Phonological processing is one of the most often cited cognitive impairments in dyslexia (Kormos, 2017; Nijakowska et al., 2018). Phonological processing requires awareness that phonological segments and sounds are combined into words. Words are broken down into their fundamental units. Without the phonological processing skill, it is hard to link an arbitrary character to the phonological segment it represents. That is why Emma, the speech therapist, calls for practice." It is essential to develop… letter differentiation" (Emma, 583— 584).

Furthermore, Emma pointed out that it is not only the phonological processing skill that needs to be highlighted, but also the processing speed. Indeed, "all levels of language: phonetic,

phonological, grammatical, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic" (Emma, 410—412) must be considered in the process of instruction "if there is a problem with serial processing, then I know it needs to be practiced. If I know it's an auditory discrimination problem, then it must be addressed accordingly" (Emma, 529—532). Kormos (2017, p. 33) describes processing speed as "a reflection of individuals' ability to access, activate, and phonologically encode appropriate lexical representations under time pressure". The processing speed is similar to working memory in that it can hinder comprehension.

Working memory impacts the ability to decode words and the comprehension of what an anxious dyslexic learner (Kormos, 2017) is reading. It was reported by teacher participants that anxious dyslexic students tend to show difficulties storing information. Storing information issues are emphasized by Erna as follows: "So the word we learned yesterday, the student doesn't remember it today" (382—383). Similarly, to the findings of Fischbach et al. (2014), limitations with working memory can lead to information being lost, which is supported by Emma's statement: Students experience 'more difficulty learning words because their language memory is not as strong" (Emma, 438—439). When working memory is limited, students with dyslexia may experience anxiety.

Anxiety does not only appear when working memory is limited, or when phonological processing, or processing speed are hindered, but anxiety may become a constant feeling for these students:

> Anxiety can be caused by a learner constantly feeling a sense of failure and that they are not as good as others. What makes them feel this way? They allow themselves to be laughed at. The teacher constantly stomps them into the concrete by reminding them. Well, you didn't get this right, you didn't get that right, you made another mistake. It's also a

> question of attitude; some students say they don't care! Others make a mistake…. they start to wring their hands (Berta, 726—731).

Berta discusses the relationship between anxiety and feelings learners may experience due to failure. Based on the reported experience, some students feel anxious because they compare themselves to their peers and do not feel as good as others. This feeling is impacted by several factors. Potential sources of anxiety may occur when presenting to a group, in teacher-student interactions, due to fear of taking tests, mismatched level of the course, or due to previous negative experiences (Piniel & Csizer, 2013; Young, 1991). A participant teacher's comments referred to previous negative experiences of failure:

> They experience a lot of failure from a very young age. Where there are no qualified teachers or speech therapists, these children are labelled as "slow or stupid".... they have had many, many experiences of failure (and in all subjects, because you have to read chemistry, you have to read biology, you have to read maths - and they stop right there). So, they can't trust that they have the skills to do these tasks. Reading is where the whole thing fails. And so, a lot of cramps appear (Katrin,130—135).

Katrin elaborated on anxious dyslexic students. Those students who experience repeated failures at a young age, when they lack access to qualified teachers or speech therapists, may become anxious. Without the right support, these learners may be labelled simply as slow or stupid. This early experience of failure negatively influences their perception of their abilities, leading to a lack of confidence in themselves that hinders their learning. The difficulties these students face may lead to higher levels of language anxiety than their peers without dyslexia experience (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008; Sparks & Ganschow, 1991), which in turn will lead to lower foreign language learning motivation (Kormos & Csizér, 2010) among dyslexic students. This can be seen in

Vilma's student, who "had no motivation to improve a little, to get a better grade" (329—331). Klaudia, the professional developmental specialist who participated in the project, was aware that students are anxious in the EFL classroom: "I regularly receive news that these children are anxious in English lessons and classes" (Klaudia, 85—86). This is not at all surprising, as the likelihood of dyslexic students experiencing foreign language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Resnik et al., 2023) and shame (Galmiche, 2017) is expected to be higher than that of their non-dyslexic peers.

Foreign language anxiety manifested in fear to talk in front of peers in the classroom, as underscored by Vilma: "They don't want to speak. And that doesn't mean I have to challenge them to the blackboard to stand up in front of all his classmates, but they don't want to speak from their chairs" (113—115). Vilma highlighted additional issues: "They are timid. They are very reclusive with less self-confidence" (623—634). Such factors, including lack of self-confidence, low self-esteem, learned helplessness, inhibited peer communication, and inhibiting time pressure have been reported in the literature (Reid, 2013, pp. 39–40) as affective factors associated with the challenges faced by individuals with dyslexia.

This also supports the vicious circle theory from the literature. As it was stated in the literature review in section 2, anxiety can interfere with language learning from a social communicative perspective; thus, anxiety can explain low language performance. A vicious circle may form:

> After a while, the learner starts to get disorderly in class, occupies himself with other things, and channels out his anxiety and frustration in some way - and this may not be the form that is then beneficial for the others and for the effectiveness of instruction (Mona, 391—395).

The dyslexic language learner avoids language practice opportunities in the EFL classroom, and due to a lack of practice in class, this learner does not become a successful language user, which, in the end, will lead to further failures in the language learning process (MacIntyre, 1999).

The argument whether anxiety is the cause or effect of language learning difficulties cannot be easily decided. Sparks and Ganschow (1991) argue that FLCA is the effect of linguistic coding problems of phonological, grammatical, and semantic nature, which are due to poor native language learning skills. At the same time, MacIntyre (1995) argues that anxiety can be a cause of low language performance, not only the consequence of a deficiency in the mother tongue. The argument is still valid, according to a participating teacher. "I can't say that all dyslexic children are visibly anxious when they are tested, and I can't say that only dyslexic children are anxious when they are asked to give an account of their progress" (Erna, 160—162).

One teacher participant noted that she was aware of the presence of anxiety in all dyslexic students when being tested or expressing themselves in front of others in the EFL classroom. Dyslexic students find EFL tasks and social interaction challenging, whether it becomes apparent or not:

> There is obviously anxiety. So, in any student who is marginalised in relation to others - whether it's apparent or not - there is bound to be anxiety when they have to express themselves in front of others. Or when there's a test, and then they feel that they are not going to do so well (Matild, 205—208).

Indeed, dyslexic students face foreign language anxiety whether it becomes apparent or not: "Students show this in different ways; some don't show it at all. What we tend to perceive as

a language teacher in terms of anxiety is that they can't speak up in front of others" (Matild, 207—208).

The presence of anxiety in students with dyslexia is confirmed by the support staff: the speech therapists and the school psychologist: "There are anxious dyslexic students everywhere. .... What we see is that these are the students who are a little more withdrawn, harder to connect with, harder to integrate into the community (Bogi, 276—279), and "These learners are more anxious and quieter. They find it harder to speak or read. Or they read so quietly that we can hardly hear them - or they dare not speak." (Dorina, 178—180). Signs of anxiety manifest in being quiet during the lesson and even withdrawing from the activities. Klaudia also mentions reading aloud as a stress factor for students with dyslexia:

> The most classic thing in both foreign language and mother tongue learning is that when you have to read something aloud to your peers, it's a terrible shock for these students. When they don't know it beforehand that it's going to be a problem for them, and they're confronted with it there, that's why. And when they know in advance that it's not going to be right and that they can't perform at a level that they think is appropriate for their own ability, they get frustrated and anxious in advance. It's quite common for a student to start reading a text at their own level, then be startled, scared, and have a significant drop in performance (and possibly, in drastic cases, not be able to finish the reading). In such cases, colleagues usually try to help by not calling on the learner in class, or by sitting these students aside during the break.... (Klaudia, 145—152).

Klaudia notes that reading aloud in front of their peers, regardless of whether it is in a foreign language or in their mother tongue, often leads to anxiety. The task of reading in front of others can be overwhelming. The situation can become more challenging if the dyslexic students are

unprepared for it. In some cases, these learners experience a significant drop in their performance, or they are simply unable to finish reading. Apart from the language challenge, the emotional challenge is visible through the signs of anxiety.

Emma interprets students' reactions also as signs of anxiety: "Some students show signs of anxiety. So, they look at you and say, ' Oh my God, what did they just say?!" (Emma, 444—445). Klaudia further elaborates on how signs of anxiety can be perceived:

> Their anxiety turns inwards. So, they are rarely disruptive, but rather they have a sense themselves that this was a bad time, they are anxious, they feel sick, or experience sweating. It is more common that they keep tearing up a piece of paper – still, they interfere less with the lesson or act like a jerk, at least here, as far as I can see (Klaudia,179—183).

Klaudia gives some insights as to how some dyslexic students experience anxiety in the classroom during lessons. In Klaudia's reported experience, anxiety manifests itself internally rather than in the form of an outward disruptive behaviour. Instead of disturbing their classmates, these students are distressed and self-directed. For example, they may feel physically unwell, sweat, or tear up paper. Overall, Klaudia underlines the silent struggles of anxious dyslexic students. They may feel unwell from inside while they are doing their best to participate in the classroom activities and environment without causing disruptions.

Deputy headmasters also reported the presence of anxiety in dyslexic students. A deputy headmaster emphasized the frustration dyslexic students experience due to the requirements set for students without dyslexia. The frustration that these students cannot meet the requirements causes them anxiety. Without a diagnosis, students may even experience more severe anxiety:

> [They] feel that they cannot meet the same requirements as the others, and that is basically a frustrating situation for them. The anxiety is definitely there. For those students who don't

> have a diagnosis but have to live with the barrier, they have a particularly severe anxiety…. the next step is the emergence of behavioural problems and disorders (Mona, 385—388).

The teachers under investigation expressed confusion about the emergence of behavioural problems. For most teacher participants, it was an unusual phenomenon that dyslexic students would become disorderly in the EFL classroom, as students with dyslexia were described by these participants as more anxious and quieter. Only the deputy headmaster and one teacher recalled experiences with a dyslexic learner acting as the class clown, which was supported by the evidence gained via class observations. The student made a clear effort to attract the attention of peers and the teacher during the learning activities. Other than the "disorderly," "class clown", and "quiet" dyslexics, "hand-wringing" and "pen-clicking" characterisations were also mentioned by Emma, the speech therapist:

> Some people seem to want to speak but don't dare yet. So, there are certain movements, shall I say? Should I not say? Or should I listen to the others? There are the hand-wringing and the pen-clicking types. You can see it. And some people have a much weaker level of language, but are completely uninhibited in the level they use. There are some. They say something, and then something happens. Either they understand, or they don't. Thus, the level of anxiety is not in proportion to the level of their command of the language. (Emma, 467—474)

To conclude this section, it could be stated that the reported views of the participants on the perceptions of barriers vary widely. The perceptions of anxiety among dyslexic children may manifest in various ways, including disorderly behaviours, withdrawal from class, or physical expressions like hand-wringing and pen-clicking. The understanding of these varied perceptions

is essential for teachers, support staff, and school management, so that effective support can be provided to each dyslexic student, regardless of whether their anxiety is visible or not.

6.9 EFL teachers' methodological choices

6.9.1. Considering students' needs

This section evaluates EFL teachers' methodological choices in the process of teaching a foreign language to anxious dyslexic students. More specifically, teachers make efforts to decrease their dyslexic students' levels of anxiety by designing a course that considers their needs. The qualitative data showed that considering students' needs can be achieved via using technological solutions and IT equipment, other available technical means, considering mistakes as part of the learning process, the right attitude to correcting mistakes, a caring attitude, and providing practice opportunities.

6.9.1.1Technological solutions

One way to consider student needs is via the use of information and communication devices and technologies. EFL teachers report the use of technology. Anett, for instance, claims that.

> [] They do everything on the computer. Why shouldn't the student write on the computer if there are writing difficulties? Well, here you are, we have several such rooms, and I can teach in a computer room. All the students are at their computers, so they can work independently. Anxious students with dyslexia can sit at a computer and do what others do on paper, and so on; they can do it on the technical equipment (Anett, 373—378).

Anett continued to illustrate how work on a computer is done:

> I leave the student with the individual teaching schedule sitting in front of a computer, choosing an exercise. In fact, they know which page. Do you remember which one we did

> last time? I remember. Good, now we'll look at the next one. ……And individual treatment is inevitable, of course (Anett, 468—470).

Computers have become devices that students with dyslexia use on a daily basis, and phones can also be helpful for recording blackboard or interactive whiteboard content. Berta usually lets "These kids who have difficulty reading and writing - take a picture of the board with their phone. Or, if it was digital, I would take a screenshot and send it to the group" (Berta, 258—261). Other than the computer and telephone, the use of audiobooks emerges from the data, not as a pastime activity, though, but as a teaching resource. Katrin mentioned the opportunity of "listening to an audiobook"(402—403) as an alternative to reading. Technological devices or other Information and Communications Technology (ICT) to teach vocabulary and grammar items in effective and stress-free ways (2012, p. 134) is in line with the literature, Kormos and Smith promoted the use of IT. Reid et al. (2013) suggested the use of smartphones, iPods and other technical or multimedia solutions (p.175).

Not only were access to technological solutions and IT equipment mentioned by EFL teachers, but also how the presence of available technical means influences student behaviour. Magda argues that" walking into a beautiful language lab makes all the difference when listening to texts . I think their behaviour is influenced by it" (Magda, 481—483). Magda describes that using ICT equipment not only contributes to creating an environment where learning is fostered but also helps minimize the degree of disorderly behaviour. The disorderly behaviour in students with dyslexia may be visible through anger or opposition due to “anxiety and feelings of inferiority” (Katrin, 582—583) that they develop. Indeed, based on the interview data, anxious dyslexic students want to escape uncomfortable situations, and they may react with anger and defiance. The extent of these emotions may be minimized with the use of IT equipment.

6.9.1.2 Mistakes are allowed

Another way to consider student needs is that the teacher communicates that mistakes are allowed.

> So, the most important thing is to be allowed to make mistakes, it is not a sin to be wrong, and we do not laugh at each other for any mistakes. Neither dyslexic students, nor others! No one is laughed at for their mistakes. This is the most important thing, so I am very strict about this (Berta, 164—168).

Or as Matild puts it, mistakes are part of the process:

> Now boom, you've got it wrong. Obviously, you can miscommunicate, so at a higher level, this can be a serious problem, but I think the aim in primary school and high school is not to be afraid to use the language (Matild, 392-394).

Erna also emphasizes that mistakes can be corrected, and it is OK to make mistakes: "You can correct a mistake by saying that: oh, sure, that's how it should be written, no problem" (Erna,184—185). Erna highlights a positive approach to correcting mistakes. When students make mistakes, the teacher's response is one of understanding. By reacting to the mistake gently, the teacher creates a supportive environment. This approach not only corrects the mistake but also sends the message to the students that making mistakes is acceptable and part of the learning process. The fact that that mistakes are part of the second language learning process is also stipulated in the literature (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

Berta, however, does not only consider that mistakes are part of the foreign learning process, but claims that not all mistakes should be corrected:

> The other is to correct mistakes. If I call out to a student and ask the to do something - we usually do the learning by me saying the panel sentence and then they repeat the same thing

> first, just exchanging one word. And then they can say their sentences independently, i.e., productively (not just reproductively), and so we take it step by step. With reproductive, I always correct the mistake, but not with productive. Thus, when the student produces a sentence on their own, and there is a mistake in the sentence, if it doesn't affect the understanding, I don't correct the mistake (Berta, 170—176).

Letting a conversation flow is preferred to halting it due to the fear of making mistakes (Harumi, 2011). Observations showed evidence of teachers' avoiding the correction of all of the mistakes. More specifically, Berta created a routine of practicing reproductive and productive panels, which Berta called *chatty practice*. Step by step, students progressed from changing one word in a sentence to producing their own sentences and practicing these language items in pairs and in groups. It was not only Berta who consciously avoided correcting mistakes when students produced their own sentences. It was also found that Anett welcomed mistakes, "the students make it until they learn it" (979—980), and according to Erna "It's okay to be wrong" (775—776). Participating teachers let students express themselves freely without interrupting them to correct their mistakes. When students communicated their own sentences during classroom observations, they were listened to attentively.

6.9.1.3 Caring attitude

In addition to considering mistakes as part of the learning process, teachers also reported adopting a caring attitude. Participating teachers reflected on caring attitudes and a sense of closeness towards anxious dyslexic students:

> I think it can also help if the teacher gets a little closer to these students. Suppose you talk to them more. But not only about school, not only about learning, but the teacher can get

> closer to them from another side. I think that because the student opens up more to the teacher, it could be an improvement that the students can talk more easily, and that they can be more courageous (Vilma, 502—506).

EFL teachers expressed the view that caring attitudes minimized levels of anxiety. Katrin stated that she aims to make sure that "learners do not feel under pressure or stress while they are in the language class. It is challenging to learn a foreign language with anxiety" (263—264). She also reported showing patience, listening to her students, and expressing interest in their feedback. Her caring attitude was also noticeable during the observed lesson. Anett also described doing everything she can "to ensure that the student does not experience language lessons as stressful" (211—212). This caring attitude is reflected in her understanding of students' individual cognitive profiles, affective mechanisms, and her ongoing efforts to improve her teaching practice (Gkonou & Miller, 2019). According to Gkonou and Miller, teachers' attitudes depend on their past experiences and how their system of norms is constructed. Kumaravadivelu (2012) considers caring as a vital component of teaching students with individual learner differences. *Teaching-as-caring* refers to the consideration not only of students' academic needs but also their social needs in order to promote their inclusion in the EFL classroom. Anxious students with dyslexia especially need care in regard to such needs.

6.9.1.4 Practice opportunities

Another way of tackling anxiety and language barriers is through providing practice opportunities. The negative emotions students experience can be decreased by convincing them that it is possible to practise and correct their skills: "You have to convince these students that if you don't say it right, what happens? Well, nothing happens! We say it again, we practise it, we correct it. So, there is no "retribution" for them to worry about" (Emma, 452—455).

Katrin also emphasized that "it was very important to practise these patterns and types of tasks to have a routine. Because the students are not confident when they improvise" (120—122). Berta continued, stating that students become more confident if they can overlearn: "when seeing a task, they will suddenly know how to solve it…provided they practised enough …will even practise it in class, before writing a quiz" (Berta, 377—379). The importance of practice, specifically practicing tasks and overlearning, is emphasized by several participating teachers and support staff: "Actually, with a lot of practice, with pictures, with panel phrases that they learned - they were able to apply them quite well" (Katrin, 86—87). Katrin went on to underline the importance of practice: "The dyslexic learner just needed more practice" (451—452). Building on this point, Matild added that learners should practise these situations after the classroom observation. Emma highlighted the importance of "a sufficient amount of practice and a fairly good balance between the different language skills" (Emma, 251—253). In this way, teachers can ensure that the student does not experience extensive stress during language lessons: "Repeat it, and I'll show you 132 times, so you can look at it, check it, we're practising this spelling" (Anett, 218—219). Lesson observations confirmed that a substantial amount of time is spent on in-class practice. Especially in the lessons of Berta and Erna, the use of reproductive and productive panels in class, as well as spelling practice, was noted. Such approaches are in line with the literature. With frequent repetitions and overlearning (Nijakowska, 2010), students can repeatedly practice language items and grammar.

To summarise, teachers using Information and Communications Technology, allowing mistakes, adopting a caring attitude towards anxious students with dyslexia and providing them with plenty of opportunities for practice may minimise the levels of foreign language anxiety they experience. Reid et al. (2013) suggest that providing easier tasks to students, a form of

differentiation, and multi-sensory learning approaches can also greatly contribute to breaking down barriers. Anxiety can be reduced by flexibility in the organisation of courses, pair work, group work and peer cooperation. The barriers caused by time pressure can be minimized by differentiation. Separate chapters will be devoted to differentiation and multi-sensory learning approaches.

6.9.2 Differentiation

Teachers participating in the investigation revealed that they experienced several challenges in teaching anxious dyslexic students; differentiation, however, seemed to decrease both the language-related difficulties and the anxiety of their students. Indeed, participating teachers reported modifying teaching materials, ways of learning, and assessment approaches. Considering students' individual needs, participating teachers reduce the amount of writing or reading and give easier tasks to students who experience barriers. The most often cited example was reducing the amount of reading and giving fewer tasks by both support staff and teacher participants: Participating teacher Vilma confirms that

> Anxious dyslexic students have to work in the same way; they should not be passive but should be given easier tasks. And when they are assessed, they obviously don't get the same assignments as the others, but instead receive fewer, easier tasks. This is how I differentiate. (Vilma, 386—389)

School psychologist Dorina agrees with Vilma that anxious dyslexic "students do less or are given more time"(Dorina, 483—484), and developmental teacher Klaudia agrees that anxious dyslexic students can do "proportionally less work in more time" (Klaudia,75—76). Deputy headmaster, Mona, also listed the practice of reducing the difficulty and amount of the tasks, "in addition to

giving students more time to do the tasks - obviously the amount and type of tasks will have to change, so students who face this barrier will have a different set of tasks" (Mona, 361—364).

Two teachers also modified the assessment of tests of the observed classes. When students took their tests, Andrea gave them easier tasks. Similar test items featured on the test papers, yet there was a considerable difference in terms of length: half of the quantity of the items for dyslexic students, and the test was also easier; these students had to provide an explanation of expressions from English to Hungarian instead of Hungarian to English. Berta went even further; the teacher refused to test students in writing. She only tested her students orally: "If you have an 8-question chat, you only have to answer four, or you only have to answer three, but you can do that" (Berta, 538—539). This is where the expression of an 8-question chat needs to be explained. As a matter of fact, Berta has a unique system of chats and explained how this *chatty* system works:

> You must go to at least three other learners in the group, for one task only. And these are short... what's the weather like - and then on your little card it says: "It's windy". They always swap cards, and then the next one doesn't ask the same question as the first one - but the point is, they are chatting to several people (several people within a task)! Now, this prevents someone who is, say, shy from always chatting to their friends. And if I see someone is stuck, for example, they can come to me, I'm used to joining in…. So usually, those learners... The chatting is not always - I used this word before, I hope I'm clear - so it's not always productive, it's usually reproductive. So, I have a panel, and then I practise it with them. And then when they're a little bit older (say sixth, seventh grade), then there's a series of 10 questions (Berta,242—251).

The students practice a set of 10 questions by changing their partners. At the beginning, they use ready-made answers. The older and more independent language learners become more

productive in their language use. Berta refers to the set of questions and answers as panels of questions and answers. The anxious dyslexic learners complete 50% of the panels; thus, reduced amounts and easier tasks are assigned to students who experience barriers.

Giving students more preparation time emerged as another way to tackle language difficulties and anxiety issues. Providing preparation time was suggested by Berta, who noted that she does not "call students who have difficulty reading aloud first. And then by the time it's their turn, they have heard it enough times that they won't read badly" (Berta, 213—215). Vilma also explained that teachers are able to influence students' behaviours and emotional reactions by providing sufficient time to prepare:

> Give them time. I think time - if the student doesn't feel like *I have to answer right now because I don't know what's going to happen if I don't answer now,* then maybe that can calm the student down. If you tell them nicely to wait a bit, we'll come back to this in 5-10 minutes, think about it until then and see if something comes to mind. Giving them time might be a good way (Vilma, 695—699).

During the lesson observation, Vilma physically moved closer to the student who was experiencing barriers related to anxiety and allowed the student time. It was ok not to reply straightaway. Vilma encouraged the student to build the student's confidence. Vilma's views became tangible through her actions. "The student's response is valuable, just as valuable as the other students' and should be shared with others" (Vilma, 547—548). Vilma signalled that the student could get ready for the next question: *Take your time, I will come to you in a moment.* Thus, the student became emotionally more prepared to be able to answer the question of whether they can swim or dance.

Berta employed a similar method and provided plenty of time for the answers. There were, however, some occasions in Berta's class when the dyslexic learner could not answer Berta's question even after hearing some sample answers. In these cases, Berta said that she would come back again after a few minutes to allow the student even more time to get ready with the formulation of the words. When Vilma and Berta were working with groups, a schedule was created indicating which group would come first. The anxiety and fear of being selected without warning were effectively reduced.

Not only preparation time emerged as an accommodation from the data collected, but also extension to complete an assignment or extra time for a test: "If the students can have a longer time to complete the test…. then they're doing quite well" (Katrin,271—272). "The point is that if they get the extra time - they know they're entitled to it and thank God it's not a problem in the classroom community, so the others accept it - then they're doing quite well " (Matild, 115—116). During the observation of Erna's class, I could see the implementation of how 25% extra time was granted for the student with dyslexia to finish the test assignment. The other students were reading silently in the meantime. When the test was finished, the vocabulary items of the reading were explained.

In describing teacher efforts to decrease anxiety and language difficulties at the same time, flexible group organisations emerged in the case of EFL teachers and among support staff, which can be implemented to consider student needs more effectively. Teachers reported the use of different grouping techniques, pair-work, and group-work: "there simply has to be pair work" (Matild, 409—410). Another teacher highlighted the value of pair work: "pair work … is very important" (Katrin, 589—590). Again, another participant explained how they can use pair work effectively: "I make pairs, one student can help the other one. Indeed, I believe in students

explaining things to each other and guiding each other... I think that peer learning works really well" (Erna, 603—604). To practice the tasks, "group work, pair work are essential in language teaching" (Anett, 723—724). In order to consider the needs of individuals with dyslexic barriers. In terms of classroom management, Vilma also expresses a preference for group or pair work, noting that the majority of learners enjoy working in groups or pairs more than individually.

> I think that it is very good not only for students with anxiety, but for everyone, to work in groups or pairs. I like to have them work in groups or pairs, and I find that most of the students like it too. They like this way of working; they like it better than working individually. And for these students who are struggling with anxiety, it's really good, because if you put them in a group with a student who is more outspoken, more talkative, more courageous, I think you can push them forward (Vilma, 611—616).

Vilma emphasizes the advantage of working in groups or pairs for dyslexic students dealing with anxiety. Placing them in a group alongside a peer who is more outspoken, talkative, and courageous can be a form of support.

During the observations, reported teaching practices were compared with observed teaching practices. The answers to the questions were supplemented by notes to allow for detailed analysis of interactions and instructional styles. Data interpretation included evaluating the observed organizational structures (i.e., frontal teaching, pair work, and group activities) and interpreting the context, such as the school culture and classroom environment. By comparing reported teaching practices and observed teaching practices with what was already identified in the literature, it was possible to reflect on effective methods.

While frontal teaching dominated the lessons, a significant portion of the observed classrooms involved collaborative pair-work and group activities, representing a change compared

to previous classroom observation experience and reported teacher experience (Nagyne Nyikes, 2019). This is reflected in Vilma's interview data: "For these students who are struggling with anxiety, it's really good to be in a group with or be paired with a student who is more outspoken, more talkative, more courageous. I think you can push them forward in this". The successful and well-organised use of pair-work and group-work was especially observable during Andrea's classes.

The observation scheme helped to collect rich data, and the analysis examined teacher behaviour involving anxious dyslexic students in the lesson. Grouping strategies were found to be instrumental in including these students in the language learning activities, enhancing the overall learning experience in their classrooms. Two of the language teachers, Anett and Berta, were especially skilled regarding the effective use of grouping techniques, as evidenced by their seamless transitions observed between individual and group tasks. High levels of student engagement, collaboration, and participation could also be observed during group activities.

During her interview, Berta mentioned that she learnt classroom organization techniques during her college training. The headmaster of the school where Berta comes from also confirmed that it had all started with the arrival of one teacher who started to cooperate and share classroom organizational practice with the other EFL teachers, which contributed to higher acceptance of pair-work and group-work in EFL lessons.

Other colleagues in the school also frequently use pair work and group work, which indicates that flexible group organisations are widely accepted in the school's EFL culture. When, for instance, Erna's students work in pairs or groups, she gives clear instructions on how they should work together and take legible notes. The students report to Erna twice: first when she checks on each group, then when the groups report to the whole class about the task. Compared to

this group, other observed groups and pairs in the dissertation project were not required to report on their work in front of the whole class.

In their EFL classes, students may form pairs or groups based on a project they are working on. Alternatively, they may choose their pair or group members based on shared interests, or student skills needed for the pair or group work, or the teachers themselves can create the pairs or groups. Matild shed some light on how she varies pair work in her practice:

> I like to vary the pairs, so it's not always a weaker one with a stronger one, because then the one who is doing well, after a while, gets tired of it and gets bored... But there are times when this is how it works out. Other times, when, say, two weaker ones are facing challenges together, then they put their hands up, or I go over and give them a little instruction or listen to what they are doing. I know the other two are super good at talking to each other. Pair-work, sometimes group-work, is definitely needed (Matild, 415—420).

When Matild's lesson was observed, it was visible that the students were engaged in group work about the concept of gratitude and what they can be grateful for. The positive psychology concept, the feeling of thankfulness, can result in better health. Matild effectively facilitated an interactive learning experience. A deeper understanding of teacher perspectives and observation practice on classroom organisation shows that the participating teachers understand that their classroom organisational approach addresses the needs of anxious dyslexic students.

In addition to differentiating through classroom organisation, teachers can use differentiated processes. Differentiating the process, product, or content (Tomlinson, 2014) were mentioned by the interviewed teachers. Process refers to the ways in which students learn. To decrease the stress the student with dyslexia faces, you "have to ask oral questions instead" (Magda, 184—185). Another teacher adds that she would "always ask students verbally" "If I see

that the student cannot write well, I try to test the student verbally, even if there is no diagnosis "(Erna, 132—133). The teacher continues offering other options such as a separate assignment: "Or I give a separate assignment. Either from their own book, because they have those extra readings, or I bring other books for them to work from" (Erna, 607—608) During the observed lesson, both Erna and Elza successfully demonstrated how a dyslexic student could give an account of what they have learnt orally during the break. While the break is meant for rest, students who identified as neurodivergent welcomed the opportunity to be tested in speech during the break. The developmental specialist supports what the EFL teachers report and do for most effective anxiety reduction, that is, asking dyslexic students to give an account of what they have learnt "orally rather than in written form" (Klaudia,188—189). Oral testing, instead of taking a written test, may be a useful way to decrease the apprehension of dyslexic learners.

Other than differentiating through process, teachers reported using differentiated content. Differentiated content is about what teachers teach. Differentiating content is much easier when the teacher uses a book with several graded options to choose from. The teacher has "a choice when it comes to the material used, it offers these 'starred tests, and then the very good students get the tasks with three stars, the average ones receive the two starred assignments and the weakest ones go with the one star " (Erna, 363—364). However, one language therapist thinks that it does not matter to a great extent what book the EFL teacher selects, “it is possible to differentiate not so much by choosing a different book…. but by how much supplementary material they take from it." (Emma, 254—256) Before conducting the classroom observations, it became evident that the content of teaching was planned with the needs of the learners in mind; however, the use of differentiated classroom instruction was not always carried through during the lessons. A lot of classroom activities focused on reading skills and writing skills. Grammar exercises were

conducted in a frontal teaching classroom organization. Even teachers, such as Erna, who used group activities for vocabulary building exercises, resorted to reading activities and grammar teaching in front of the whole class. Differentiating instruction means accommodating students' individual needs in class (Tomlinson & Allan, 2000). The activities were planned in line with the literature, yet their implementation occasionally failed to deliver true differentiated instruction.

At the same time, however, it is extremely challenging to keep differentiating all the time. Olga stresses that

> Differentiated tasks can sometimes be used in class, but you can't do them for everything. It is possible to practise in one lesson, working with slower learners. However, in the longer term, catching up can be achieved through regular extra lessons outside of lessons. (Olga,76—78).

Katrin recognizes the importance of individual lessons "there is individual tutoring, that it is up to colleagues. If they see a student who needs it, they will offer the opportunity" (Katrin, 415—416). These lessons may be an alternative way to decrease the anxiety of dyslexics. Compensatory FL classes are recommended by experts (Kormos & Kontra, 2008; Schneider & Crombie,2003), and individual tutoring may successfully supplement regular classes and help anxious dyslexic learners practice and become more confident in language learning.

To sum up, compensatory individual classes, differentiating in classroom organisation, form, and content, through a variety of tasks, and allowing students to give an account of their studies orally instead of writing- these are methods which help decrease the levels of anxiety students with dyslexia experience, such as multisensory activities. The following section deals with the multisensory techniques that EFL teachers used during the observed classes.

6.9.3 The use of Multisensory methods

Movement and visual elements of the multisensory approach emerged from the interview data to deal with the anxiety of dyslexic language learners. Annett invites fellow EFL teachers to encourage student movements in class. "Let us make them move…getting up and sitting down, touching each other" (Anett, 636—637). Olga also agrees with Anett that "The movement tasks work best" (72—73). It's the word cards and the playful movement, using word cards, moving around in the classroom with a purpose, that Olga refers to. Students run to the location and "when learning words, they should not only have the written note in front of their eyes; either drawing or tactile writing on the back can help "(Olga, 103—104).

Highlighting the role of the visuals, Katrin marks "with such a pen that attracts the eye" (485—486). Then she underlines the new words "with a thin felt-tip...in seventh, eighth, ninth grade: it draws their eye when they repeat… Anything that helps with visuality" (Katrin, 487—489). So, if, for example, the words for a particular topic are put there in relation to a picture, it's easier to learn. Visualisation is emphasised by Erna, as well: "We use colours, underline things. I try to do that when I think of it - not percentage consciously, but I'm trying more and more now" (Erna, 556—557). Data triangulates as far as visualisation is concerned. Support staff echo the use of visual aids.

> In a text, we can show mind maps. Visualisation is always very important, for example. So, I use word cards a lot, or flash cards like this a lot. There are pages where they are funnier, so it might be easier to remember. Or I try to tell them, while they're little, that you can draw a picture next to it in the dictionary, and then it's easier to remember. Or I always say, where you go, put your little word cards. (Emma, 610—617)

Emma emphasises the role of visualisation in learning for vocabulary building. The use of mind maps and flashcards are useful in supporting students to learn words. By incorporating humour into the learning, students can remember the words more effectively. Drawing pictures next to vocabulary items in the exercise book can help students recall vocabulary items. Visual aids and strategies can improve the learning of anxious dyslexic students.

In the interviews, however, only a few teachers emphasised that multisensory methods could contribute to more effective language learning for anxious dyslexic students, despite the fact that multisensory activities are highly recommended to dyslexic students by researchers and were successfully implemented during the observed classes. Kormos et al. (2009b) recommend using multisensory techniques as a way to effectively decrease the apprehension of dyslexic language learners, as it accommodates several language learning styles. The multi-sensory approach requires that various senses are involved in student learning: the teaching of grammar and vocabulary through visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and tactile skills (Nijakowska, 2008, 2010; Schneider & Crombie, 2003; Sparks et al., 1998).

Such approaches can be seen in the way that Erna draws on the blackboard, colour-codes grammar items, demonstrates word order in questions she is teaching, and moves students around physically in the classroom. Vilma is aware of the challenge of engaging anxious dyslexic students in the classroom: "Students with dyslexia, such students, are difficult to engage in the classroom. …. I'm not forcing them" (496—497). Vilma did not force participation but nonetheless effectively highlighted word order by using colours on the blackboard to scaffold conversations. Niki also used classroom activities which embodied a multisensory approach during the classroom observations, such as using memory cards to help build word associations. Anett used activities with a visual focus: students had to describe people's appearances using magnified electronic word

cards on the whiteboard and activities featuring a tactile matching or pairing of pictures using electronic devices. Anett's observed class activities engaged the learners to such an extent that they found it challenging to finish these activities and start their break.

Furthermore, other teachers prefer activities with a kinaesthetic focus, such as finger-pointing while reading, or showing students what to look at in the book when lost in the text. Elza performed activities with a ball and activities with movements, and also utilised songs or rhymes, such as "Who stole the cookie from the cookie jar"? Katrin also underlined the role of visuals and games in her reported practice:

> [] so that the dyslexic learner can memorize, with cards, with associations, with pictures, linking to what comes to mind. And repeating and recalling them. And then there are these little dumb games that they all love, even though they're really simple. Blackboard bingo, for example, is where you write ten words on the blackboard - pick five and write them down in your notebook. They have to write it down and practise the spelling a bit. Then I'll say that they need to tick the words they hear - and say Bingo when they get their five words right (Katrin, 456—461).

Katrin discussed effective strategies to help dyslexic learners memorize words and practice spelling. She emphasizes the use of multisensory techniques, such as flashcards and visual associations, to establish word connections. By linking new information, students can better recall words and concepts, especially when they find the learning activities fun. For example, the game "Blackboard Bingo" was shown to motivate students to practice spelling. In this game, students wrote down words from the board, listened for them during the activity, and marked them off as they heard them. The observations from Katrin's lesson made it clear that fun visual activities not

only enhanced participating students' spelling skills but also contributed to effective learning among dyslexic students, who seemed to enjoy the activity and had lower levels of anxiety.

Using the MSL approach, including activities of visual elements and movements, in teaching could indeed lessen the anxiety students might feel, making it easier for them to learn. Katrin's, Anett's and Erna's practice and reported practices are in line with the recommendations on the use of MSL approaches and kinaesthetic/ tactile movement for vocabulary building by Tánczos et al. (2011).

6.9.4 Strategies and skills EFL teachers use and teach

Decreasing anxiety of dyslexic students is also possible through strategies and skills EFL teachers use and teach to dyslexic learners. The data collected emphasizes the importance of approaching these strategies and skills systematically, with a focus on the teacher's perspective. As one educator aptly put it, "I don't just develop the learner in a haphazard way, but in a targeted way" (Emma, 536—537). In the following section, the different systematic approaches to employing these strategies will be explored, shedding light on their efficacy in reducing anxiety in dyslexic learners. In the following sections, I will be discussing what teachers do, that is, what strategies they use; how teachers teach explicitly; what skills they address; and what strategies learners develop. I will clearly separate teacher-used strategies, classroom actions teachers take, from student learning strategies, strategies that students learn to use.

6.9.4.1 Strategies EFL teachers use and teach

One strategy that EFL teachers reportedly use is giving instructions or explanations of grammar items in the mother tongue. On the one hand, Anett's example is about giving instructions in Hungarian:

> For teaching English…, I use the Project family of textbooks, 5 to 8. There are pages where 12 exercises can be found in two columns on a page. Now, the student may have a problem with the fact that I say 3/b in the top left corner of page 72. I will say it in Hungarian (Anett, 509—511).

On the other hand, Katrin illustrates how the mother tongue can be instrumental in explaining grammar items: "Obviously, I don't like to explain grammar by throwing English terms for 40 minutes... No, well, then it's easy to explain in three Hungarian sentences what the Passive structure is" (Katrin, 407—409). Giving instructions or explanations of grammar items in the mother tongue can be listed as a way to minimise the anxiety of dyslexic learners, which is standard practice in the case of most observed teachers.

Based on the observed classes, especially grammar items were explained in the mother tongue, or when students did not understand what the EFL teacher was asking them in the foreign language, Katrin was explaining the comparative and superlative adjectives in English, but for the most effective explanation, she used Hungarian: "Találtok erre példát? Hogy lesz kevésbé, legkevésbé "[Have you found examples for these? How do they become less, the least]. Examples for instructions in the observed classes include asking the student to turn on/off the light. When a student seemed unsure of what had been asked of them, Berta resorted to explaining the instruction in Hungarian. Based on my observations, the L1 has shown to be beneficial for dyslexic learners in that students understood concepts more clearly in their mother tongue than in the foreign language, they could connect their existing knowledge in L1 with their foreign language knowledge, and the use of L1 reduced anxiety in the classroom. The students felt more comfortable and less stressed.

Other than the use of mother tongue, the use of situational language and meaningful interaction emerged from the observation data as strategies for communicative language learning that worked well, including anxious dyslexic students. It was found that in the EFL classes, teachers used some communicative language teaching strategies and activities. Katrin used situational language: “Imagine that you are looking for a place in Budapest,” which allowed the pairs in class to meaningfully interact with each other. Annett reported finding ways to involve students who had neurodiverse barriers in class. They were given dedicated jobs, such as retrieving items such as chalk or a red book:

> If I see a student who can barely learn something, barely memorise something, barely repeat something after repeating it to me, I will not push that student any further. I will do everything I can to give them the advantage of *please, the chalk has fallen off, pick it up*, or the advantage of *Zsókica, you run and find me a red book,* when we are learning the colours, and someone else will find me a green one. He will look for it, and the other learner will say, It's a red book. So, it's a very difficult part. It's managing the student so that he doesn't experience it tragically, and I can't even, at this age, talk to them about it. Because in seventh or eighth grade, I can talk to them, if I see you're having problems; I see you're doing it! I know you're trying! Then I can talk to them - even at the class level. But with a fourth-grade student, there's nothing to talk about. I have to do everything I can to make sure that the student doesn't experience language lessons as stressful (Anett, 198—208).

Anett employs strategies—such as finding objects related to the lesson (e.g., colours)—to keep anxious students with dyslexia involved without overwhelming them. Additionally, Anett notes that for students in Grades 5 to 8, there is more opportunity for open discussion about the learning challenges. These can be seen as meaningful interaction when participants feel comfortable sharing

their thoughts and feelings. However, for grades under 5, the focus is on managing their experience to minimize anxiety. Overall, empathy, patience, and needs-based teaching approaches contribute to the inclusion of the students.

During the lesson observation, Erna demonstrated how meaningful interaction was made part of the lesson for students with dyslexic barriers. Erna's *TikTok Challenges* topic generated a fruitful discussion. The students found it easy to connect with the topic and were able to actively participate and share their opinions within their groups and with the entire class. Berta employed real-life scenarios to create meaningful discussions. She introduced topics related to pets and encouraged her students, including her dyslexic students, to share their own experiences, asking questions such as *Have you ever had a pet? What kind of pet do you have?,* and *What was your most exciting experience with the pet?* Berta created a language learning activity that provided students with communication skills beyond the classroom. This not only made the lesson more engaging but was also linked to students' personal interests. The students' apprehension appeared to be reduced while communicating. It was, however, still a challenge for anxious dyslexic students to express their opinions in English and in front of other students. Indeed, when communicating in a FL, communication apprehension is one of the three sources of language anxiety frequently referred to in the literature (e.g. Horwitz et al., 1986; Resnik et al., 2023), in addition to test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

Observational evidence showed that a lot of time was spent on grammar instruction. Grammatical rules were explained extensively, for example, Erna explained the *use of the past tense* and *used to* for almost a whole lesson. In Katherine's class, for instance, they practised the exercises on pages 133-134 in Solutions Intermediate. The exercises involved filling in the gaps and answering questions about a variety of cultures, and they listened to the right answers. Overall,

the classes were dominated by grammar, reading, and writing activities and were not characterised by communicative language tasks. Although Bogi, one of the speech therapists interviewed, was convinced that "in a communication-oriented, small-group English class everyone could participate" (Bogi, 461—465), full and effective participation of anxious dyslexic students was hindered during the FL lessons, where grammar and writing-oriented exercises dominated.

6.9.4.2 Explicit instruction and strategy training provided by schools and teachers

Additionally, larger classes with lots of reading in front of the whole class dominated the observations of different classrooms. Even though there are examples for practising listening and speaking skills in the classroom in groups and pairs, as Berta notes: "I think listening and speaking are the skills - and even reading - that I prioritise over writing" (Berta, 59—61), whole class reading activities and lessons focusing on only grammar still prevail. Strategies used in Communicative Language Teaching/Approach (CLT/CA), especially using language meaningfully and language learning tasks that equip learners with communication skills in situations beyond the classroom, may contribute to more effective ways of dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic language learners.

When Brown (2007) discusses the principles of the Communicative Approach (CA), he emphasises the value of using language meaningfully and language learning tasks that equip learners with communication skills beyond the classroom and encourages the development of language learners in a teacher-centred classroom through collaboration. Brown also highlights the elements of communicative skills, which are functional, sociolinguistic, grammatical, discourse, and strategic aspects. All these characteristics contribute to the core principles of language teaching and learning by encouraging meaningful language use, which is linked to real-world experience. Thornbury (2013, p. 188) summarised the CLT/CA framework for the strategies used:

> The 'big idea' that fuelled the communicative approach (…) was Hymes' (1972) notion of communicative competence – the knowledge 'when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where in what manner' (…) encouraging course designers to specify learning objectives – and to assess their achievement – in terms of language use.

Within the Communicative framework, greater contextualization of the subject may decrease anxiety and increase autonomy support. Autonomy supportive practices include helping students make meaningful connections to the material, just as the connection was created by Berta with pets. Helping students to create the connections between the material and the real world can increase their sense of agency in the class. This is in line with the literature. Connecting material to students' own interests decreases anxiety because it increases autonomy, competency, and interest (Pekrun & Perry, 2014).

Other strategies that EFL teachers effectively used emerged from the data, such as explicit instruction**.** Anett's reported practice showed examples of explicit instruction through words that can be broken into smaller phonetic units: "that this is the s- verb, which is the verb because the sentence is about a third person. So, so much to break it down and not expect the student to discover this rule" and emphasizes an explicit, more direct way of teaching.

The data from the interviews were triangulated with the data collected from the observations. During the lesson observations, Erna explicitly explained the third-person singular "s" rule to students and moved around with a snake puppet to make sure the students paid attention to the third-person singular. The explicit explanations of new vocabulary items delivered by Niki, Erna, Zita, and Berta and the pre-teaching of vocabulary items and grammar before a reading activity, were a starting point for anxious dyslexic students to join in the reading assignment. The

literature (Nijakowska, 2008, 2010; Schneider & Crombie, 2003; Sparks et al., 1998) confirms that explicit teaching is useful in the case of teaching dyslexic learners and that explicit teaching can be used effectively when managing the anxiety of dyslexic learners.

In addition to explicit forms of teaching, explicit training on learning strategies emerged from the data. Only two of the schools offer training "to learn a few learning strategies… methods." One example is the "learning to learn" program introduced by deputy headmaster Emma:

> We have a so-called "learning to learn" programme. It's very good for dyslexics. Right from the lower classes of primary school, it includes the development of 'learning habits' and sub-skills development, and in the upper school, there is a learning strategy questionnaire, so basically, the students can see what their learning strategy is. And then two projects are built on what they had learnt already and organised for the seventh graders. …based on their learning strategies, they will learn about the external and internal circumstances that can help them learn. (Emma, 598—607)

Emma described the "learning to learn" program, which is designed to support students, including dyslexic learners. It is about teaching effective learning strategies, considering the students' needs. The training starts in the lower primary school. When students reach upper school, they complete a learning strategy questionnaire to identify their personal learning styles and preferences. The results of the questionnaire inform two projects for seventh graders. These projects focus on understanding both external factors—these being the learning environment and available resources—and internal factors—like motivation and self-regulation—that can impact the learning process. By equipping students with information and strategies, the program may empower them to become more effective and independent learners. This learning program that Emma introduces is similar to Field's Strategy Approach (2001). Field suggests that using strategies—such as

drawing meaning from context or predicting meaning—teachers can empower learners to listen more effectively.

6.9.4.3 Skills EFL teachers use and teach

Other than equipping students with information and strategies, equipping students with skills and sub-skills is useful in empowering anxious dyslexic students. Oxford (1990, p.8) defines skills as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more effective, and more transferable to new situations." Munby (1978) refers to nineteen detailed skills that should be developed. The set of nineteen detailed skills or sub-skills is for reading comprehension. Some of them are deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items, understanding the communicative value of sentences, skimming, or scanning to locate specifically required information. The other learning support program is introduced by Katrin, one of the EFL Teachers:

> We have the librarian... So, she is dealing with learning support methodology, …there is a program in the school, and this is not only for dyslexic learners, but for any learners, that we help them with learning support methods so that they can do their work, study effectively and do it well (Katrin,417—418).

In Katrin's school, there is a librarian who provides training to students on learning support methodology. This librarian oversees a program for all learners—not just students with dyslexia—in developing structural learning support. The goal is to equip students with the tools and strategies so that they can finish coursework successfully. When students get such a complex training, anxious students with dyslexia will understand external and internal support structures, so that the students can study more effectively: "Because if the students learn these [strategies] and manage to get into the first grade of high school, then no one can stop these students from using the

language at a high level" (Anett, 408—409). If such a complex strategy is taught in primary schools, students will be better skilled to deal with the affective factors of their studies, including their foreign language learning. Should strategy training not be available at the institutional level, the EFL teachers would need to teach effective learning strategies in their foreign language lessons.

6.9.4.4 Effective Learning Strategies

The teaching of learning should be the primary focus of educating learners. Effective learning strategies, such as the six categories of learning strategies by Oxford (1990): metacognitive, memory, cognitive, compensation, social, and affective strategies, provide a foundation for successful learning, including foreign language learning. If students can master these learning strategies during their primary schooling, they will have developed the ability to use the foreign language; thus, they will be well-prepared to participate in high school EFL classes. Effective learning strategies are a key component of educational success and language learning careers.

Metacognitive strategies teaching to help students organise their EFL studies emerge from the data. Erna teaches students to better plan and organize their language learning activities. Indeed, Erna guides EFL learners in maintaining a dedicated folder for their English vocabulary, textbooks, exercise books, and projects. Furthermore, Erna instructs students on how to navigate a text with clarity and introduces colour coding to highlight key information. Viola emphasizes the importance of the process of encoding, storing, and retrieving: "It's very important to highlight [the process] for students that everything is clear. Thus, it's not just a quick throwaway, but the expressions are carefully reviewed" Explaining words can help encoding. Repeating information multiple times contributes to storing. These metacognitive strategies promote better organization and a more systematic approach to learning decreasing stress.

Compensation strategy teaching emerges from the interview data. In Oxford's (1990) framework, compensation strategies are defined as "making up for missing knowledge" by using techniques such as gestures or paraphrasing to convey the message. For example, if a learner cannot recall a word, they might describe the object. Klaudia notes that "we tend to focus on teaching compensatory strategies, which is as much about helping the learner as it is about developing skills" (Klaudia, 284—286). Compensation strategies not only provide tools to overcome challenges but also help improve skills development. For instance, Erna encourages students to use online language tools and dictionaries to look up unfamiliar words or phrases. In class, Erna appoints a designated translator who is available for immediate assistance in finding the meaning of unknown words during the lesson. Alternatively, students are encouraged to ask the speaker to slow down or clarify the unknown expressions, instead of remaining silent.

Another compensation strategy that the data revealed is the chunking strategy. The chunking strategy is the cognitive process of grouping information into manageable units or *chunks*. It is closely linked to Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies and is grouped into the type of direct strategies, which help the learner remember units of language and process them more effectively. Anett elaborates on the importance of chunking by stating

> Prepare smaller tasks. Let's not prepare huge tasks. Don't prepare with an exercise that takes 45 minutes to complete, because if you have one or two dyslexic children among them, they will lose the thread at the beginning and won't find it until the end of the lesson. (Anett, 502—505).

Therefore, it's necessary that "longer tasks should be broken into smaller tasks

Anett's reported practice involves "lots of tiny tasks", which not only accommodates the needs of anxious dyslexic learners but also makes them experience a sense of accomplishment. During the

observations, a number of teachers used chunking strategies. Berta's practice is the best example for students being provided with Modelling Sentences and later sentence frames that include vocabulary chunks. This was implemented in a group setting and followed by reflection. At the end of the lesson, the teacher reviewed the vocabulary on the board or asked comprehension questions using the vocabulary items.

Social strategy teaching also emerged from the lesson observations in Erna's class. One of the SEN students felt upset about the test they had written and tore up the test during the observed lesson. In response, Erna effectively employed "I statements", saying, "I understand how you feel, but it feels bad to see you tear up the test." This approach not only demonstrated understanding but also modelled assertive communication to express these feelings. Erna's actions addressed the needs and rights of the learner, demonstrating and teaching a useful strategy to the students.

Memory strategies teaching also emerged from the data. Magda reported teaching specific memorisation strategies:

> When you go to the toilet, stick [word cards] there - when you sit there, you'll remember those few words, those three words that you put on the door of the toilet, or wherever you go. And then sometimes you just walk past it, you'll notice …so it's easier to learn (Magda, 253—255).

Magda also acknowledged the importance of creating mental images or visualizing information: "visualisation, playful learning, so that you don't feel this anxiety I think". Erna encouraged the use of Quizlet, an online learning platform that provides resources for students and educators. The platform offers tools that assist users in learning a foreign language, such as digital flashcards, quizzes, games, and other interactive learning activities. "I use the Quizlet, which helps … as everything is spelled out exactly there " (Erna, 216—217).

The development of mind maps also emerged as a memory strategy. Mind maps can be understood as visual diagrams that can help learners to organize and understand relationships between different concepts. Training is available on how to make a proper mind map, how to process a text." Mind maps are a regular practice in Bogi's school: "I go into the classroom during the break and see that the mind map is drawn on the board" (526—527). Mind maps can be a useful means to equip dyslexic students with the knowledge of appropriate ways of approaching tasks. In this way, memorisation strategies can enhance students' ability to retain and recall information more effectively, resulting in less stress-provoking learning for students.

Based on the perspectives of participating teachers and the observations of their lessons, a set of self-management, anxiety-reducing strategies was implemented in the language learning lessons. For instance, Niki encourages learners to establish clear and attainable goals at the start of their lessons. Additionally, several EFL teachers, including Berta, Erna, Andrea, and Magda, opted to establish ground rules at the beginning of their lessons. Establishing clear and achievable goals and ground rules at the beginning of the EFL lessons lays the foundation for a sense of direction and provides a framework in which the group operates.

Guided practice, or as Berta calls it, *panel practice*, also emerged as a way that is linked to self-management and refers to a phase in the teaching and learning process where students apply new knowledge or skills under the guidance of the teacher. During guided practice, the teacher provides support, feedback, and scaffolding to help students gain proficiency in a concept or skill. Panel practice can be utilized for the different age groups of learners. The panel practice of language items where students are presented first with the language item, then they repeat the same thing, just exchanging one word. As a next step, they can say their sentences independently, i.e. productively (not just reproductively) "via a process of modelling and guided practice" (Davis et

al., 2004, p,18), through panel practice for instance, where modelling: stands for demonstrating a new item of knowledge and guided practice is about providing opportunities for practicing a new item with guidance until learners reach the stage of independent practice. Once learners are able to self-monitor and set goals, they can become the agents of their own educational development. They can control their study choices, including what strategies to choose for managing anxiety.

Another self-management strategy for decreasing anxiety in dyslexic students is by enhancing time management and patience. As a participant teacher, Magda notes that EFL teaching is about "how we can more effectively manage it, because that's where we're going, in that direction... effective time management may work", and patience also has an influence on students.

> It's about the teacher being patient and the teacher being calm. Because if the teacher is not calm, tense, and nervous, and wants the answer immediately, the student will feel that I think. Students can sense if the teacher is also very tense, nervous, irritable, and impulsive. I think this is also reflected on the student. I think it depends a lot on the teacher's mood, how patient she is, how much she can wait (Vilma, 711—716).

Vilma illustrates the impact of a teacher's patience and calmness in dealing with anxious dyslexic students. When a teacher is tense, nervous, or impatient, it can make learners feel anxious, too. This anxiety can prevent students from engaging in language learning tasks. Therefore, a teacher's mood and behaviour influence students' learning experience to a great extent. School psychologists also emphasized the role of patience towards students to cope with their dyslexic students' anxiety behaviours as illustrated by Dorina: "teachers try to be considerate when someone has dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems, so they are patient with them... teachers try to manage it" (Dorina,115—117). Dorina underlines the importance of an approach characterized by understanding and empathy when working with students who have dyslexia or related challenges.

Participating teachers recognize that students with dyslexia experience barriers to reading and processing information and may be frustrated and anxious. If they are patient and considerate and actively seek strategies to address the needs, student anxiety may be managed more effectively, and apprehension may not rule the language learning experience.

Time management and showing patience can indeed be considered strategies that can be used to manage stress. Time management is about organising and prioritising tasks to stop the cause of stress. Patience involves the ability to keep calm, though there is a challenging situation. There are two main types of coping strategies: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping, in line with the literature. Problem-focused coping addresses the source of stress or the problem itself, while emotion-focused coping involves managing the emotional response to a stressor. (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Time management is an example of problem-focused coping.

Emotion-focused coping, such as breathing/mindfulness exercises, games, music, meditation, and gymnastic movement, emerged as ways to reduce stress via improving moods. Anett emphasizes the value of incorporating breathing exercises and gymnastic movements into the EFL lesson:

> there are techniques like that, so from taking a breath, to breathing into your stomach, to how I blow out, to even gymnastic movements, body movements, standing up, sitting down, touching each other, obviously we're refraining from that now, but anyway. These are all very useful (Anett, 635—637).

Anett lists a number of techniques that characterize mindful practices. Simple actions such as taking deep breaths or using breathing exercises—like abdominal breathing—can be used to reduce the dynamically changing stress level of dyslexic students. Body movements, such as

standing up, sitting down, or even performing gymnastic movements, may release tension. Physical touch, although it is not encouraged in pandemic times, can also be beneficial in dealing with apprehension by fostering human connection. The techniques Anett mentioned are tools that may be suitable for managing stress by improving the mood of students.

Magda also notes that breathing techniques and engaging games can be useful in dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic learners:

> Breathing techniques …Or games. They also like to make you suck in air... and how many words you can say (on a topic) while you blow it out... e.g., a family topic. Suddenly, in a short time, you have to... his head is already red... We play that game sometimes. So, how many words can he say in one blow (Magda, 586—588)?

Other research participants also reported ways of being able to control students' anxiety levels and students' emotional reactions by doing exercise or using breathing techniques. EFL participating teachers of the study found that there are several ways to minimize student anxiety and create a stress-free EFL classroom environment. Anett explains that exercises can help. A class with exercise and meditation can influence the students' emotional reactions and may decrease the levels of student anxiety:

> If students have anxiety, then doing the exercise is still what helps the most. A one-minute physical education class …. We stand on tiptoe, trying to reach the ceiling because our backs are stiff. Yours not so much, but mine is. So, help me! Whatever, whatever we can do, a one-minute exercise will make up for the whole 45 minutes. I can only advise everyone. If you look at your group and feel like you can't do it, just set them up. Just get them up! It's going to fix everything. Everything (Anett, 905—908).

Anett emphasizes the impact of physical exercise in alleviating the anxiety of dyslexic students. When students are experiencing anxiety, small exercises such as standing on tiptoe to reach the ceiling can be highly effective. Anett is convinced that a brief, one-minute exercise can improve the 45-minute lesson. The role of physical movement is highlighted in addressing anxiety in Anett's reported practice. Physical activity may alleviate anxiety and could become the best practice in creating a less stressful learning experience.

Magda continues to utilise music in dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic learners:

> I think that at the beginning of the lesson we start the lesson with something that we've agreed that students bring music for example, then we start the lesson with what they bring - but English and then there's some kind of little playful exercise, and then we start with what they like to sing, so what's cool with the students now (Magda, 575—577).

Magda's approach to starting lessons with an activity that centres around student interest and incorporates playful activities or games allows students to interact in a fun way. Songs that students like to sing connect language learning with students' voices. Students may feel valued and heard, which contributes to a dynamic learning environment where students can express themselves. The confirmation of Magda's reported practice of starting the lessons with music was supported by observational data, as Zita indeed initiated the observed lesson by playing music as learners entered the classroom.

Music, as well as humour, emerges from the interview data to influence the students' emotional reactions, which may decrease the levels of student anxiety:

> Music is a miracle maker, I can see that. Sometimes I try meditative methods. But very rarely…Games, Humour. Joke. Video. Low-risk performance. Clowning around. Role-

> playing……. Using humour, joke video in class bring about many advantages. For instance, students are not afraid to speak even if they panic (Erna,738—741).

Music, meditation, humour, games, and gymnastic movement have often been noted by participating EFL teachers in the interviews as a mood regulator. These also assist mood improvement and are linked to emotion-focused coping. They are associated with direct coping efforts, which are in line with the literature (van Goethem & Sloboda, 2011). Music meditation, humour, games, and gymnastic movement can influence or modify EFL learners' emotional state, regulate the emotional response to a stressor rather than addressing the source of the stressor itself. Coping strategies emerge in reaction to stressors to cope with anxiety, either through problem-solving or emotion-focused coping (Lazarus, 1993). Breathing techniques can also reduce anxiety and can be an emotion-focused coping. The focus of breathing on feelings and thoughts in the present moment (Dunning et al., 2019) may help reduce the dynamically changing anxiety in students by reducing their physiological reactions and persuading them to recognize success. Both the focus of breathing on feelings and thoughts in the present help increase self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). As it was already referred to in the literature, self-efficacy and anxiety are strongly related (Piniel, 2009). Provided learners can feel more capable of completing language learning tasks, they may experience less anxiety that influences their language learning process. Only a few researchers (Alrabai, 2014; Kralova et al., 2017) attempted to verify empirically the effectiveness of the strategies to decrease FLA, however, these studies seem to focus more attention to students' learning strategies and ignore the important role of teachers in reducing fluctuating FLA.

The strategies or techniques EFL teachers utilized (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011; Lamb, 2017) aimed to decrease the anxiety and enhance the motivation of all the students taking part in the

lessons, including the anxious dyslexic learners. These can be compared to the specific macro- and micro-level strategies, techniques, and sub-techniques as outlined in the example from the implementation guide by Alrabai (2022b, p. 7):

Target Strategy: Reduce learner anxiety.

Macro-level Strategy: Reduce learner fear of negative evaluation.

Micro-level Strategy: Properly address learners' errors.

Techniques:

1. Help students accept certain realities about mistakes, such as the following:

a. Making mistakes and errors is an unavoidable and natural part of the language learning process.

b. Mistakes are made by everyone when learning an FL.

c. Without making mistakes, language learning cannot occur.

d. A lot can be learned from mistakes.

Section 6.9.1.2 has already dealt with addressing learners' mistakes and errors in detail.

Teachers' reported strategies to deal with their students' anxiety in the EFL classroom show accumulated knowledge and experience on the part of the instructors. Use of strategies emerged from the data, while fewer data point to strategy instruction. Indeed, EFL teachers' ability to effectively manage and decrease student anxiety is supported by both the interview and observation data. While the use of these strategies becomes evident from the data, there is less emphasis on the explicit instruction of such strategies.

6.9.5 Conclusion of Section 6.9

In conclusion, the participating teachers emphasized that anxiety can present a barrier to language learning and that it is the job of the EFL teacher to deal with foreign language anxiety. On the whole, the findings of the classroom observations and the interviews with teachers and support staff indicated that a significant part of classroom activities is organised frontally, but a considerable amount of pair work and group work was reported. Multi-sensory methods, music, breathing exercises, and language game activities were found to be appropriate to decrease stress in students. The use of learning strategies and techniques of differentiation was also found to be important in the case of an anxious dyslexic student. The FLA-reducing teaching strategies reported in the study mainly aimed at influencing factors that can be improved through training. Classroom observations provided evidence to triangulate the findings of the interviews.

6.10 Assessment practices and exemption

The participating EFL teachers identified assessment as a challenge in teaching anxious dyslexic learners: "it certainly reduces anxiety if the learner is not assessed in the subject they are very weak in" (Emma, 335—336). According to Rapp (2014), assessment is part of the learning process and should include formative and summative assessments. Summative assessment is used to evaluate a student's learning at the end of a unit, course, or program. Formative assessment, on the other hand, provides ongoing feedback on the development of the individual. Other than summative and formative assessments used in class, there are also *comprehensive* types of assessments. In the Hungarian context, "Országos Kompetenciamérés" or "National Competency Assessment" (Centre for School Development and Integration of the National Institute for Public Education, 2009) is used to measure competency. The competency of students in Grades 6, 8, and 10 is evaluated in all primary and secondary schools in Hungary via standardized tests with the

goal of assessing students' skills in mathematical literacy and reading comprehension (Hungary Ministry of Culture and Education, 1993). The test informs policymakers and educational specialists on how effectively the school system equips students with the necessary skills for learning.

In the EFL classroom, formative assessment does not result in a grade but instead helps to obtain useful feedback as to what, how much, and how well students are progressing. Klaudia, the developmental specialist suggests that EFL teachers should consider the challenges that anxious dyslexic students face when assessing their written work.

> Colleagues should be willing to take the difficulty into account when marking papers, and they should be more lenient in their assessment. This is also being implemented. ..... The fact that, unfortunately, there are still a lot of errors that remain in the writing after checking is clearly due to the difficulty. So, [EFL teacher colleagues] are very, very attentive, very individualised in their assessment. (Klaudia, 351—354)

Klaudia promotes a more understanding approach in grading, as the mistakes in students' work are due to language difficulties. The individualised assessment method is being implemented among colleagues. By recognizing and accommodating the unique needs that learners have, teachers can really support students with dyslexia with useful feedback on their progress.

Based on the observations, data assessment practices were mostly characterised by summative types of tests, mainly by grammar and vocabulary tests, not by formative assessment, which would have suited anxious dyslexic learners more. The few examples of formative assessment manifested through students getting + marks instead of grades on a scale from 1 to 5, and students receiving shorter or modified tests. The use of + marks instead of a strict grading

system emphasized ongoing feedback on language improvement. Dyslexic students received shorter tests, or word tests with reversed language tasks, instead of requiring the English equivalent of expressions, dyslexic students had to provide vocabulary items in their mother tongue. Unfortunately, however, these examples have not provided enough insight into the personal student progress.

Based on the feedback of the EFL teachers, assessment activities and grading can be designed more efficiently and effectively. Anett advocates for differentiated grading and assessment practices:

> I don't grade them for the same thing as the other learners. That's not something to be afraid of. You shouldn't be afraid of that. You have to have the courage to take it on. It's a question of courage, by the way, but you have the courage to do it. Otherwise, a significant proportion of students - and one student is too many not to be significant - will be held back. And that will not be good for the student. And it won't be good for anyone. So: freedom in grading, assessment, and acceptance (Anett, 940—945).

Anett utilizes new practices as opposed to traditional grading methods and adopts a more accepting approach. It takes courage for EFL teachers to use a grading criterion that takes different needs into consideration. By embracing the differences among students—even in one student —who could be discriminated against due to strict grading practices, EFL teachers can level the playing field for students with dyslexia.

Anett, for instance, would like to see a rethinking of assessment practices for students with dyslexia:

> Assessment should be treated in a completely different way. New dimensions of grading need to be explored. We must forget about giving the same long essay for assessment. This

> must be forgotten. They have to be graded differently. And that if the grades do not frustrate [anxious dyslexic learners], they will feel good about themselves and will certainly be more successful (Anett, 937—940).

Anett proposes moving away from traditional forms of assessment, such as long essay assignments. Instead, new grading approaches can be explored that accommodate student needs and avoid frustrating students. By focusing on assessments that cater to individual needs and aim at reducing stress, students are more likely to feel positive about themselves and experience success. Berta also emphasized new ways of teaching over traditional teaching methods:

> There is no written test on words at all. There are no random oral questions either! I used to tell the students that this book contains the grammar we really need, so you are going to be asked about it … next Monday, and we will practise it here in class. There's a lesson where everybody will be asked. Everybody! So, you can't get away with that. It's just that you don't prepare, and you're worried that maybe he won't. No. No such thing! Well, then, everyone. And if someone doesn't come that day, he'll be asked on Wednesday. I'll keep that in mind. You haven't had your *meerkat chatty*. And the learners, because they expect it and they get used to this, this kind of system, they learn it. They learn it because they know I'm going to ask them twice a month, …. And from everybody. It helps me a lot that they come to class feeling liberated, like, oh my goodness, English - there's no fuss, there's no humiliation, there's no ridicule, there's no test. This is the disease of the Hungarian education system, that we are constantly measuring and testing - I cannot accept it. I cannot accept it! I am alone or represent the minority on this because further training and mentoring and I don't know what is based on measurement/testing, but I don't see the point.

> I'm sure it helps a lot with the learning patterns I see in myself and my students - that you don't have to. No! I don't understand. I don't think that's what teaches someone, a student, …to be constantly tested and constantly stressed that you'll be punished if you don't know. Well, I don't think you can teach by punishment. I didn't always think that, either, at the beginning, at the beginning of my life, but I think that now (Berta, 371—389).

Instead of written tests or random oral questions, students give an account orally or are informed ahead of time about their turn and what to prepare based on Berta's reported practice. Berta's approach aims to minimize anxiety for students including those students that face barriers associated with dyslexia. The Hungarian education system is criticized for summative measurement which may lead to fear and humiliation. Berta, however, has a teaching philosophy according to which foreign language learning should be based on encouragement and not on punishment.

New assessment ways work effectively not only in Berta's reported practice, but in Berta's observed practice, too. Berta does not only reject written tests and random oral questions in theory, but also in her observed practice. The chatty practice is real and happening in class. Students are using the time to prepare for their oral test. At the end of the class practice, Berta evaluates the work of the whole group. The practice of evaluating the whole group, including pairs and groups, is consistent in all of Berta's lessons. Berta creates a system of assessment in the classroom with no random tests, but allowing for previous preparation for a planned oral exam for everyone, and evaluating the work of the students, with a groundbreaking new approach in testing progress in foreign language learning.

The groundbreaking new testing approach that Berta uses is more interactive than the written exams that are used to test progress. The traditional written exams do not give enough

information on where the students are in their foreign language learning journey. The "chatty practice and assessment" is based on group discussions. There is a thorough preparation before the assessed discussion. The group's performance is being evaluated, and not the individuals. Overall, this approach involves a more targeted preparation, collaboration, and less stress than traditional exams and tests.

Until such new grading approaches are widely introduced, EFL teachers can use flexibility in choosing assessment methods that are in line with the learning goals and needs of their students. Teachers can employ formative assessment and provide regular feedback to help students focus on tasks, as this can increase their self-efficacy. When it comes to identifying areas for improvement regarding formative assessment, the importance of EFL teachers' communication with students emerged from the data, as Vilma notes,

> Getting through to these students is important, so that there is trust to communicate with the teacher, to dare to tell them things - it takes time, obviously, it doesn't happen from one week to the next. But the conversation, the communication, to get as close as possible, to dare to tell the teacher, is a confidential thing (Vilma, 508—510).

Vilma points out the importance of communication between students and teachers. It is essential for teachers to get through to students and also for students to feel comfortable sharing their thoughts and concerns; however, it takes time and effort. Well-communicated feedback about students' progress can facilitate learning outcomes.

As far as keeping to the Learning Objectives is concerned, data evidenced based on hard copy lesson plans, such as Niki's lesson plan on file, that EFL teachers have a real learning objective for every lesson with ongoing feedback on the work, so students understand which areas they have mastered, and which areas need further work. The dyslexic student "will be able to

perform well provided they receive enough positive feedback" (Anett, 419—420). During the observed classes, lesson objectives were worded. In Niki's class, the objective was not only verbally communicated, but it was also explicitly written in the lesson plan I received before the observation.

In the context of assessment, Berta acknowledges that "the project-based education is popular" (Berta), and she actively uses projects of artwork included in the English language instruction:

> I use projects to create some artwork, for example, we're doing a project (I've been doing this for, say, 10 years) on "80 Days Around the World", the Oxford University Press Graded Reader, in fourth grade, and then we'll do a reader's diary, we're planning to bring in a new cover. When there's no pandemic, we have a dedicated day, when we make a boat out of paper, a balloon. So, something referring to that. And then the kids, who have a lot of experience with failure, are given a new space to show themselves. So, when he can draw a new cover, for example, and if they write "Arond the World in eighteen days" with the letter u missing, I don't think of saying to the student, "Look, your cover is nice, but the letter u is missing from the title". No problem. It's fine! (Berta, 492—504).

Berta celebrates the achievement and creativity of the students during their project work and does not mind spelling mistakes. This activity is usually rewarded with a grade of five on a scale from one to five. During the visit to schools for classroom observation, these project products were available in the form of classroom decoration. It was possible to take a closer look at the project work and spot the spelling mistake on the cover.

Promoting deeper understanding is not only achieved by using formative assessment techniques with projects, but also via problem-solving tasks. In her interview, Berta described how she implements problem-solving tasks during her EFL lessons:

> The task is that the learners have to buy a burger, but the waiter brings a cheese sandwich; and then they have to complain that that's not what they asked for. Now, for example, if they ask for something else, if they do not want a hamburger, I'll let them have whatever they want. And if, for example, they happen to get the singular - plural question wrong, for example, if we don't buy food, but jeans; and they ask for jeans as if they were asking for a T-shirt, so they do not put it in the plural, but they can buy it - they can say it's too big for them and that it's expensive and they do not ask for it - but they don't put it in the plural, for example, I don't deduct a grade for that. Then I tell the student: Listen, we use the plural for jeans, because we have two legs, ...- but you could buy them, you could change them, you could pay for them - you could solve the problem: you get grade five. (Berta, 292—302).

In her activity, learners order a burger but receive a cheese sandwich instead. The learners need to communicate that the order went wrong. Berta reports that incorrect singular or plural forms are not penalized, as she views communication as more important than grammatical rules and mistakes. Berta encourages students to use their knowledge to better understand what matters in the context of frequent formative assessment. Frequent formative assessment is helpful (Bandura, 1997) in identifying areas of improvement, keeping to learning objectives, and promoting a deeper understanding of the material, with the same students not always assigned the same grade for identical performance.

When dyslexic students cannot cope with the barriers they experience in foreign language learning, they can receive a full or partial exemption from assessment. This is determined based on the expert opinion provided by the committee of experts.

> It's only appropriate to say "full exemption" if the language level in other subjects is so poor that you are unable to put together a coherent sentence in Hungarian; then you might say that you should let go of this foreign language as it is. …So, in this case, it doesn't make sense. But in all other cases (no matter what level of language they learn), if they can do that, they should not be completely exempted. You never know when in your life you will need the language. What if you want a degree? When you want to go abroad? Fill in a form? So, I don't think you can cut the learner off from that. (Emma, 305—315)

In practical terms, this exemption can encompass total exemption from assessment, partial exemption specifically from the evaluation of written performance, or partial exemption from the assessment of spelling based on Emma's reported practice. During my dissertation project, there were two full exemption cases about which I learnt; Vilma reported about a case of a boy who got a full exemption, and it did not work:

> One was a boy, this boy who was exempted, he got a full exemption because he didn't even get a mark on his report card, I think that's an exaggeration, I think. I also noticed that the boy - he didn't like English before, but now that he was exempt - he completely withdrew from the subject, he wasn't interested in it, he didn't want to do anything about it - he didn't get a mark, there was no reason to study. He had no motivation to improve a little, to get a better grade. I think partial exemption is better (Vilma, 268—272).

This was also confirmed by the headmaster of the school: "Currently, there is only one such student who has been exempted from a foreign language. He is now in eighth grade. So, this is still happening on the basis of an older expert opinion." The headmaster also notes that

> exemptions from assessment are becoming rarer… going back ten years, I very often encountered such situations, cases, when a pupil was exempted from assessment in a foreign language … a welcome development that the situation has changed, that the law has changed, and that pupils are less likely to be exempted from subject-related exemptions; rather, they receive preferential treatment (Mona, 128—135).

Erna mentioned a specific student: "I had a girl who is now in eighth grade... She's had this exemption for a long time…she wouldn't get a mid-term or end-of-year grade" (344—355).

Gerda summarized what accommodations students can receive instead of exemptions:

> It may be that the learner gets a foreign language exemption or a waiver from assessment, this is less common; in truth, it is more likely to be an exemption, and the language teacher introduces this in the lessons. Giving the student fewer tasks, allowing extra time for a written test, for example. So, these are the main things that the language teacher can do (Gerda, 133—139).

Based on Gerda's data, in language learning, it is possible for learners to receive exemptions or waivers from language assessments, but exemptions are more frequent. The term "exemption" here is understood as a permanent accommodation given based on submitted evidence in the framework of disability accommodations, whereas waivers are temporarily given based on individual circumstances or at the discretion of the EFL teacher or primary school, based on the reported perspectives of the teachers interviewed. The language teacher can accommodate the learner's needs by reducing the number of tasks for the students or providing extra time for

completing written exercises. These accommodations allow for the meaningful participation of dyslexic students, even if some students are not assessed in the same way as their peers.

In general, the participating EFL teachers expressed a shared stance against granting full exemption from language learning. Magda, for instance, stated that she "wouldn't advocate for a full exemption"; however, she continued, stating that she "would not, say, grade the spelling of someone whose writing you can't even read" (Magda,182—183). Anett had a student who was exempt from written tests, with Katrin also stating that "the partial exemption applies to the written test" (375—376). The speech therapist interviewed explained why she was against full exemption:

> English in today's world has infiltrated, especially in the lives of youngsters. They play games on the computer in English. … Maybe they can get a partial exemption from assessment, that's good, but they shouldn't be exempted from learning the language in the first place; it should be individualised (Bogi, 458—464).

The interviewed EFL teachers' perspectives on exemption can be conceptualized along a spectrum. On one end, teachers reject withdrawal but must address the substantial levels of anxiety and language barriers among dyslexic students. At the opposite end is complete withdrawal from language learning activities.

Exemption from assessment can give rise to additional challenges. While teachers aim, in theory, to consider the needs of learners with dyslexia during assessment, classroom observations revealed limited differentiation in practice. Exceptions can be found in Berta's innovative approach to collaborative grading, *chatty pair and groupwork*, administering shorter tests, and employing reversed language tasks as described above in this section. Further insights into addressing the needs of special education students in language classes can be gained from the differentiation techniques outlined in Section 6.9.2.

In summary, after analysing the assessment practices in the observed EFL classrooms, it was visible that summative assessment, mostly grammar and vocabulary tests, shaped assessment practices with some formative assessment examples. Despite the fact that formative assessment, such as the *chatty pair and group exercises* practice, would have been more suitable for anxious dyslexic learners, most classroom activities prioritized grammar-based testing. While the use of formative assessment was traceable through differentiation (e.g., administering shorter tests or employing reversed language tasks in word tests), there were hardly any examples found in the observed classes. Therefore, classroom observations offered only limited insights into dyslexic student progress. At the same time, however, rich interview data collected from participating EFL teachers pointed towards EFL teachers refusing full exemption from language learning.

6.11 Success, Motivational Approaches, and Anxiety

In light of the deeper understanding gained regarding assessment practices, success, and ways of motivation emerged from the collected data. Teachers can successfully teach learners with dyslexia when the appropriate teaching approaches are adopted (Kormos & Kontra, 2008). Success and ways of motivation, however, need to be understood in the context of foreign language teaching. There is wide variation in the way participating teachers defined success; one that stands out is a speech therapist's perspective, where the attitude to language learning and motivation is highlighted with regard to defining success. Emma highlights the importance of student attitudes to learning:

> …how the student's attitude to learning is developing. It's very important that the learner stays motivated and likes the language. Once you lose that, it's a lost cause. Then you will not make any progress. You need to make the student want to learn (Emma, 290—294)

Emma's understanding is that the learner needs to stay motivated and enjoy the language. Motivation and interest will support the learning progress. Emma underlines the role of the teacher in creating and maintaining the learner's motivation.

6.11.1 Success

Defining success in the case of anxious dyslexic students is a more complex task than limiting success to possessing a state-accredited intermediate-level language exam. Participants have defined success based on varied criteria: For instance, Erna measured success against one's own self, "It's completely individual. I can tell you what success is for XY, what success is for Z. …I can only tell you what success is compared to one's own self…. The minimum success for them is not to be anxious" (Erna, 524—526). Erna also sheds some light on the challenges of teaching dyslexic learners and the nature of successes:

> I find that for most dyslexic learners, any success is short-lived. …. fragments are hanging in the air and it doesn't add up, it doesn't synthesize …. you are trying to help someone who is having a lot of difficulty learning a language to have some success. Or at least not to experience failure at all costs (Erna,427—429).

Erna articulates the goal of helping these students experience some level of success or preventing them from experiencing failure, noting that any success achieved tends to be temporary.

Success is defined differently for the dyslexic and non-dyslexic peers in terms of scores by another EFL teacher:

> The national competency test will take place in two months' time. The primary goal would be to be successful there, to achieve good results. I would like to get them to a level where all children can achieve a (50-)60-70% and to be able to stand in English in secondary schools. Not failing, obviously - but there are more able students in eighth grade - and I

> want them to be able to get a 4 or 5 in high school. If they could succeed there (in this subject too), that would be enough for me if they can do well. And the competency test. Those two things. As for the dyslexic students, for them, the aim would be to reach a passing grade, grade 2. (Vilma, 214–220)

The national competency test is a critical milestone for students. The goal is to reach scores between 50% and 70%, ensuring that they have a sufficient level of English and can transition to secondary school from Grades 6 or 8. While the focus is on preventing failure, there are some students in the eighth grade who can hope for higher grades in high school, aiming for success on both the competency test and in high school. Additionally, for students with dyslexia, the objective is to help them reach at least a passing grade (a score of 2 on a scale of 5), so that they can progress and succeed in their language learning journey.

Success is measured by objective and subjective criteria. Many participants in the study considered students with or without dyslexia as successful learners in the framework of official language exams. Based on Matild's interpretation, the main criterion for success emerged as a standard framework of language requirements and passing a state-accredited A2-level language exam within the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001):

> In Hungary today, if we do not take the totally marginalised classes, but an average family, I would say that for the eighth grade (at the age of 14), A2 level is easily achievable. ..... they would all pass the basic, elementary level exam easily, easily. Well, it would be a success if... .... there are a few learners who I can't get to speak in front of others, because it's still a problem that when I ask them a basic question in English, they understand it or give me a basic answer.... communication would be the key, so that they understand what

> we want from them and respond adequately. Well, I don't know. An A1 level, I think, could be achieved (Matild, 355—360).

When considering an average family in Hungary, an eighth-grade student, around the age of 14, can easily achieve an A2 level in English. However, for some learners who experience challenges when speaking in front of their peers and face language barriers, achieving an A1 level of proficiency can be viewed as a success.

Alternatively, a successful entrance exam can be considered success by Berta: "I usually consider it a success when children get a 45-50 per cent at the English verbal entrance exam (eighth grade). But there are students whom I praise even for 37 points [out of a maximum 50], because I know it's a very big achievement for them (Berta, 742—744) regarding the definition of success, Katrin adds

> An average 14-year-old coming from a primary school... Obviously, depending on how many lessons they have a week, e.g. my kids had three English lessons a week ... they should definitely get to a pre-intermediate level... In the case of a dyslexic learner... pre-intermediate level... the most they will get is if you are so severely dyslexic that you can only do the oral exam (Katrin, 351—354).

While Katrin's definition of success highlights pre-intermediate level of a foreign language level Magda argues that passing basic or intermediate language exams could be considered success:

> By seventh or eighth grade, most learners would want to pass a basic or intermediate language exam for admission…. Students with dyslexia should not write, but verbally: what I said to be good in these real-life situations… they should be able to ask for a glass of water… They don't have the vocabulary that another student might have, but they should

> have a certain amount of vocabulary, so that they can say a simple sentence. They should be able to engage in a little dialogue in a real-life situation (Magda,209—212).

At the same time, however, the main criterion for success was not only limited to reaching a prescribed level of the foreign language as illustrated above, but also included the interpretation of the language professional of what success meant in the context of the EFL classroom and primary school.

Anett did not only refer to the Common European Framework, but also to real-life work references: She stated, "What I would say is that I would not only provide a Common European Framework classification, but I would define success in terms of the emotional state that the student would need" (432—434). Anett deviates from defining success in terms of proficiency levels and exams, and instead defines success in language learning for students of different abilities. "For the average or high ability student, to enjoy using the language, and for the dyslexic learner, to love the class itself, and that will give them enough motivation to improve their skills. That's what I hope, I hope" (Anett, 435—437). Anett emphasizes that the dyslexic learners should reach a point where they enjoy the learning process.

> Dyslexic learners should reach a point where they enjoy doing it! So, for [the dyslexic learners] it's enough that they're not angry with me, they're happy to come to class, they don't look for excuses such as *My tummy hurts and I've just hurt my leg*... [the dyslexic learner] doesn't look for excuses, they come to my class, keep coming to class, and if they like me - sorry - they accept me, they are close to me, they accept what I do with them, then they are actually ready to improve. The dyslexic learners will develop slowly; slowly, there will be small results. However, the part they need, I say, for example, to be a doorman

> in a garage, they will be able to perform well, provided they receive enough positive feedback (Anett, 411—419).

Anett suggests that success can mean for the dyslexic learner to have a positive attitude towards the class, the teacher, and the learning activities. When dyslexic learners feel accepted, they are more likely to engage in the learning tasks and do not skip classes with reasons such as their tummy hurts. Progress may be slow, and there may only be some results, but enough to do their job. Anett's example is of a doorman in a garage. While the dyslexic learners may face many difficulties, they can manage if they receive positive feedback. With the right support, dyslexic learners can show some progress, slow development, which can be considered success in learning a foreign language, even if it is slower than that of their peers. In the context of EFL classrooms, success is defined by what students should know and be able to do. Communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and affective and cognitive factors (Vance, 2021) all contribute to the elements of what students should know and be able to do. We tend to measure how successful a language learner is by assessing their performance in the classroom and by standardised tests.

6.11.2 Ways of motivation

Not only did the concept of success emerge from the data, but also how ways of motivation through encouragement help learners cope with anxiety. For instance, Katrin used encouragement to decrease anxiety.

> These students with dyslexia were terribly insecure. They didn't believe they could do it. In fact, that was 40% of the job, to reinforce in them that they could do it, that they could

> do it, that they would be clever, that it would help, that they would remember it from the picture (Katrin, 94—97).

Vilma also commented on the degree of control she felt she had on her students' anxiety levels by providing encouragement. The role of the encouragement approach by Vilma was emphasized as follows:

> So, you definitely have to encourage that student, because it is more difficult for them to … express their opinions, they may be afraid of saying something wrong. Thus, you have to reassure them and encourage them…. If they don't answer well, no harm done.... And the encouragement, giving confidence to such students, giving them a little push (Vilma, 700—703).

It is crucial to encourage dyslexic students, especially those who find it challenging to express their opinions in the EFL lesson. Providing encouragement to these students is essential. A gentle push may give them confidence to participate.

Erna and Vilma also share their perspective on motivating students with encouragement; that is, they elaborate on how they find praising anxious dyslexic students relevant to motivating them to be successful learners. Erna plainly states: "Praise, in fact" (Erna, 305—306). Vilma has a longer version:

> They don't just sit and sleep/sleep for 45 minutes; they get their assignment, they are just as busy as the others, so they get a sense of achievement. Because I think it's very important that they also get a sense of achievement and are praised, just like the others. Because for them it is even more necessary to be praised and to have success (Vilma, 415—418).

Vilma explains that some students may not seem to actively participate, yet they are completing assignments and showing achievement. Indeed, it is also important to praise them for their sense of achievement, which is in line with the literature that praise reduces anxiety (Zarrinabadi et al., 2021).

In addition to the concepts of sense of achievement, self-efficacy emerges from the data. Klaudia, a developmental specialist, reflects on what learners with a higher level of self-efficacy can do: "the learners should be able … to say what is going on with them and what they expect; and what they will do" (Klaudia, 242—244). Klaudia confirms that the learners with higher self-efficacy can identify their barriers and communicate their plans in their language learning. Erna continues the line of thought: "The most important factor here is the learner's own will, effort, motivation and personality" (Erna, 361—362). Erna was linking the dyslexic learners' anxiety to the learners' will, effort, motivation, and personality. According to Erna, "it's a multi-factorial game that we have going on here"(152—153); the success in language learning is to do with the learner's motivation and all the other factors, including anxiety and self-efficacy, that interplay in the process. While external factors such as teaching methods, support, and resources are important, the learner's internal individual factors cannot be neglected either. This is in line with the literature that Positive psychology group interventions can support self-efficacy and achievement among dyslexic learners (Abu Omar et al., 2024). The findings of Gosiewska-Turek, B. M. (2022) highlight that non-dyslexic students have higher self-efficacy, whereas dyslexic students tend to have lower self-efficacy. The different elements interact dynamically, including the learner, the teacher, the teaching methods, the context, and the support they receive. The outcome of language teaching is not dependent on one factor but on the interplay of multiple factors.

6.11.3 Anxiety and alleviating anxiety

Another concept that emerged in relation to teaching anxious dyslexic students successfully is the negative aspects of anxiety, which were commented on by most of the participating EFL teachers. Erna claimed that "anxiety is a big barrier. It's a wall that prevents me from doing my work" (246—247), while Katrin noted that one cannot learn a foreign language when anxious, Anett expressed concern regarding the negative impact of anxiety on the language learning process: "I don't want the student to be anxious! Because if the student is anxious, there is even less chance of learning a single word. So definitely not! I have to do everything I can to avoid that".

A strong intention to alleviate anxiety was conveyed by Katrin, Erna, Matild, and Anett, who highlighted approaches such as motivating their students to put effort into their learning, giving them support, and engaging them during tasks as much as possible. This is underlined by Katrin:

> we always have to see what it looks like in relation to their abilities and how much work they have put in ... the most important thing is to give them the kind of support where he can see that his work is getting results (Katrin, 632—634).

Katrin notes that success depends on the amount of work students put into their language learning and whether they receive the right support. Erna "will help with what students need" (Erna, 624—625). Matild also talks about constant support:

> We are happy if the learner has improved a little bit. We ask questions and don't hit the learner on the head, but just tell the student: come on, I'll help you, tell me, and then if you tell me out loud five times, maybe you will dare to tell me in class (Matild, 457—459).

Katrin, Erna, and Matild emphasizes providing the right support, so that the learning tasks can be completed by these students and offers time for practice. Finally, Anett wants to engage the learners in the classroom:

> I want the dyslexic learner to be there with me in my class - to like being there, appreciate what we are doing. Learn as many little techniques as they can; how to play with words, how to put them in order, how to look for spelling mistakes in them, how to turn letters into words, how to turn words into sentences - that's it (Anett, 452—454).

Anett lists students' active participation in the classroom and techniques such as wordplay, word order, spelling, and building a sentence as what can be done to minimize anxiety. Anett makes the experience of learning fun and accessible.

Both Erna and Katrin give gifts and awards through well-designed systems. Erna awards stickers, and Katrin rewards good answers with sweets:

> One of those boxes that has sweets in it...like M&M candy…. Like the sugar cubes for the horses. Whoever knows the right answer… can get some jelly. There are serious fights for it. And there's plenty of repetition… The point is that when they learn a language, they have the motivation…. ...For them, the goal was really to get their A-levels, to finish their secondary school education, and they worked very hard to achieve it.…. [my job was]to reinforce in them that they could do it (Katrin, 463—468).

Katrin illustrates how motivation is implemented in language classrooms. The sweets, like M&M's, are compared to sugar cubes for horses, and are rewards for students to keep them engaged. The elements are motivation, rewards, and encouragement in the learning process, demonstrating how these elements can empower students to reach their goals. This is in line with

the literature emphasizing the importance of motivation (Dörnyei,2019) and reported rewards for good performance to reach more progress (Hennebry-Leung, 2024)

Observation data triangulated with reported EFL classroom practices regarding the motivational system: Fights would take place for these sweets in the observed classroom. Katrin makes students believe that they succeed in learning. Even dyslexic students were eager to receive stickers in Erna's lessons. At the same time, however, when anxious dyslexic students were participating in the observed language learning lessons, more often than not, these learners were horrified by being called out to participate in reading activities or being called to the blackboard. This was in line with what was reiterated by a developmental specialist: "When the learner has to read something aloud to the peers, it's a terrible shock for these learners." (Klaudia, 147—148). Reading aloud did, in fact, seem distressing for the learners. Both the language challenges and the emotional barriers were present in the classrooms. Katrin resorted to calling the students out who could model the exercise first. After giving ample time to prepare for all students, Katrin decided that it was the dyslexic students' turn. Erna also did her best to give enough preparation time, though sometimes the time allocated seemed insufficient. When less preparation time was available in the first try, Erna gave more time for the student and offered a second option for participation. Overall, EFL teachers managed to overcome language challenges in many of the observed classrooms. It was harder for them to deal with emotions such as frustration, or students feeling stressed because they did not get their answers right or got them right for the first time.

Successful teaching and learner motivation may be influenced by the support students receive from home**.** Some anxious dyslexic students drew encouragement from their families. Matild acknowledged the importance of the family background: "You also need to know who comes from what background - that the kids travel, that the parents speak languages, that they can

practice at home with brothers and sisters or a parent" (Matild,315—318). As it was also highlighted students receive support at home: "I have students who are getting a lot of support and help at home" (Erna177—178), suggesting that a supportive family could contribute to successful integration or inclusion, even in the absence of support from teachers or peers.

The successful teaching of dyslexic students and the maintenance of their motivation can also be affected by peer ridicule**.** According to the accounts provided by EFL teachers and support staff, some dyslexic students experience mockery from their peers. Dorina, for example, reports that peers and classmates may laugh at students who read more slowly:

> With peers and with classmates, we have seen that they are more impatient if someone is reading slowly. If one student is faster, this student may laugh at the other person in the classroom. Unfortunately, there are examples of this. It can also be a subject of ridicule. Usually, these learners react to [being ridiculed] by becoming more anxious and slower. They prefer not to speak then. They read very, very quietly, or they don't even dare to start. If this happens repeatedly, teachers try to manage it, but it is difficult. (Dorina, 117—122)

Being ridiculed leads to more anxiety in learners; these students may refuse to speak or read. Negative peer reactions may discourage anxious dyslexic learners' participation in class. Erna admits there are

> One or two groups where learners who make mistakes are made fun of very badly. That's when the "education" part of education comes in: sometimes I preach... I don't like it; I don't tolerate it when people hurt each other and make fun of each other like that. But there is such a thing" (Erna307—308).

Despite the best teaching efforts, ridicule may happen, but Erna takes action. Erna makes students understand that it is not right to make fun of anyone and lays down rules. No ridiculing instances were witnessed during the observed lessons; however, based on the data collected, motivating anxious dyslexic students to become successful foreign language learners requires classroom rules that secure a ridicule-free environment.

Language learning success is claimed to depend on individual difference (ID) variables (Dörnyei, 2019), motivation and anxiety (e.g., Horwitz, 2001). This is in line with EFL teachers' views, where motivation via encouragement, positive statements, praise, and self-efficacy emerged as variables that can shape language learning progress and success. By motivating students to put work into their learning, giving them support, and engaging them in the language learning tasks, EFL teachers work toward success in language teaching and learning. It could be concluded that providing continuous positive feedback is inevitable for the slow but steady development of anxious dyslexic learners. Engagement, enjoyment can influence the dyslexic learner to succeed in learning a foreign language and maintain the motivation to stay on the learning path in line with the findings of Alrabai and Algazzaz (2024) where evidence was provided for the impact of perceived teacher emotional support satisfaction, emotions of anxiety and enjoyment, and emotional engagement of learners of English as a foreign language).

As far as language learning success of dyslexic learners in the literature is concerned, it was found that the core ID variable: motivation, and the ID variable: anxiety interact. More specifically, Piniel and Csizér (2013, 2015) found that stronger anxiety is linked to weaker motivation in the context of the instructional setting. Based on the literature, self-efficacy and anxiety are also strongly related (Piniel, 2009). With higher levels of self-efficacy, learners are less likely to experience high levels of anxiety, where self-efficacy (Bandura,1997) refers to the

belief in one's own ability to successfully perform a task or reach a goal. This is in line with the findings coming from the data that dyslexic learners are able to say what is going on with them and what they expect; and what they will do means that they can better identify and communicate their challenges and plans in their language learning.

Therefore, success can be defined objectively and subjectively. Objectively in the achievement registered at the different standardized tests nationally: National Competency Assessment and internationally: European Framework of Reference. Subjectively, it could be described through a positive attitude toward the class and teacher, individual progress, motivation, active engagement, and teacher support; however, success may be temporary for anxious dyslexic students. Teachers' support can contribute to the success of foreign language learning by praising, providing continuous positive feedback, and ensuring that slower readers are not subject to ridicule by their peers. As demonstrated by Forlin et al. (2014), positive teacher attitudes and increased self-efficacy beliefs can significantly impact the success of language learning efforts of anxious dyslexic students. When it comes to success in language learning in the case of students with dyslexia, Szatzker (2017) identified several potential variables, including teacher support, a safe environment without labelling and bullying, together with motivation and learning strategies, metacognitive skills and learner autonomy, which may contribute to the overall success of language learning (Szatzker, 2017, p.36). Most of these variables that emerge are detailed in this section, such as support from home, peers' support without ridiculing, and the rest from other sections, as connected to dealing with the anxiety of dyslexic learners.

6.12 Classroom environment

This section focuses on the role that the classroom environment plays in minimising anxiety for dyslexic language learning. When defining the classroom environment, we mean the following components: the physical environment where learning happens, flexibility of curricula, the peer relationships, and teacher-learner relationships that foster connections among students themselves and between students and teachers; and the communication and maintenance of classroom rules to foster an environment that is conducive to learning.

The interviews and lesson observations underline the importance of creating a supportive and welcoming environment. Katrin started with the statement " a supportive environment is very important". "There should be a good atmosphere, a good relationship between teacher and students." (Vilma). Erna tries to keep a good atmosphere in class: "When I'm working, it's important for me to have fun and be in a good mood" (Erna, 273—274). Erna establishes a connection between a good atmosphere and a positive emotional state, which may provide the basis for effective learning. Teachers share the understanding of a supportive environment without stress. "The aim is that learners do not feel under pressure or stress while they are in the language class. You can't learn a foreign language in the state of anxiety. It is very important that they feel comfortable there and learn" (Katrin, 275—276). Katrin suggests that a stress-free atmosphere is essential for effective language learning. Stress and pressure can create barriers to the learning experience. By promoting a relaxed environment, both in school and within the class, EFL teachers can do a lot to create a comfortable space for their students, including the most vulnerable dyslexic learners with anxiety.

6.12.1 Physical environment

Classroom layout of the physical environment can also contribute to creating a supportive classroom environment that minimises anxiety for students with dyslexia. Classroom activities are

impacted by the layout as they impact student participation. (Fernandes, Huang, & Rinaldo, 2011) The teacher can organize the layout of the classroom by for instance arranging chairs differently. Magda is describing a creative and flexible approach to arranging classroom seating in the interview conducted with her. Data collected from the interviews is triangulated with the data collected from the lesson observations, and it reveals consensus on how vital it is to have a conducive physical environment. Magda elaborates on the physical arrangement that promotes interaction:

> When we play games, and if we don't use the benches lined up in rows, we sit around a bit, or if we are in a room where it is possible, we arrange the benches differently. They enjoy that - because usually we always have this familiar row of three benches, the students just face the front, so they can't see the others behind them. If they turn around, we're telling them to do something else anyway. When there is a possibility, the arrangement should be a U shape (Magda, 528—529).

When observing the lessons, it was obvious that Matild thoughtfully organized the physical space to enhance collaboration among the learners. Tables were arranged in a U shape, and students were able to easily engage in the activities, with every student able to participate meaningfully in the poetry-related tasks. Instead of the frontal arrangement of the benches, the U-shaped arrangement can contribute to a more enjoyable classroom experience where student participation is enhanced. Berta also prefers a non-frontal classroom arrangement; her preference is the circular seating: “The students will be in a circle.” Berta continued: “Behind me, if you can see it, the students' stuff is packed around. Their drawings are displayed, the bunny, the teddy bear, or what-have-you" (Berta, 572—574). The displaying of student work makes the classroom even

more welcoming. Berta not only noted her preference for circular seating but also used it in many of her observed classes. It was also observed that her classroom was decorated with an umbrella hanging from the ceiling; Berta, when exploring the topic of rainy weather, walked over to the umbrella and used it to provide a visual explanation of the word.

In addition, Olga (21 — 22) also emphasized the impact of a “decorated classroom" on creating an inclusive environment. Matild, Berta, Erna, and Andrea also used welcoming decorations in their observed lessons and managed to create interactive opportunities through thoughtful classroom arrangements, pair and groupwork detailed in 6.9.2, and attention to comfortable lighting and temperature during the observed lessons. The students with dyslexia were given dedicated tasks to change the lighting by turning lights on and off, opening and closing windows, and doors to create the most suitable environment for learning for all. The teachers interviewed all emphasised the importance of a low-stress, friendly, and comfortable physical classroom environment to minimise the anxiety of dyslexic learners and paid special attention to implementing such practices during the observed lessons. Works of art produced by the students themselves in the English classroom and the well-planned classroom arrangement with appropriate lighting and temperature conditions allowed for better engagement among students compared to a traditional frontal seating arrangement.

Magda pointed out the importance of a favourable learning environment for reading comprehension tasks, where distractions are minimized. She cited examples of disruptive external noise, such as a nearby physical education class:

> 10-12 people should be able to focus on reading comprehension tasks normally and learn in a pleasant environment, and not in one where, say, there's a PE class next door, and

> there's shouting, and you can't hear anything... or a draft because there's a big door. So, it's not ideal a lot of times (Magda, 500—504).

Magda notes that anxious dyslexic learners can work more effectively in a distraction-free environment, away from loud noise or from unfavourable circumstances.

6.12.2 Flexibility of curricula

Not only is creating a conducive environment beneficial for dyslexic students with apprehension, but also the flexibility of curricula, allowing educators to adapt content to meet the diverse needs of learners. Erna and deputy headmaster Mona underline meeting the diverse needs of learners "very consciously, very much tailoring the methods to their brain and their abilities" (Mona 258—259), and providing individualised support. Erna, the EFL teacher, expresses limitless potential in teaching:

> So, I see the teaching of English as something that can be used to do absolutely anything. So, we can do tumbling if we want, we can do dancing if we want, we can do arts and crafts if we want. I'm not really limited by anything other than the curriculum, the textbook, and the syllabus, which does have a pace (Erna, 281—283).

This flexibility benefits anxious dyslexic learners, as it allows teachers to create an environment where students can thrive without feeling overwhelmed. Erna's views are further echoed by the deputy headmaster, Mona. The "curricula are flexible enough - I mean, not just ours, but everywhere - flexible enough for colleagues …to adapt the content to the level of the learners" (Mona, 367—369). Mona emphasises that curricula are flexible and EFL teachers are free to adjust the content based on the needs of the learners. Katrin and Berta, share the view that that EFL teachers have freedom in their course design. The EFL teachers can make alterations to the curriculum to meet the needs of their students, including the dyslexic learners with anxiety.

Adjusting the content, pace, and quality of the class to the level of the students (Bai et al., 2019) – that aligns with the literature – may minimise the anxiety of anxious dyslexic students, who become anxious when the challenge is too great.

6.12.3 Peer relationships and teacher-learner relationships

Additionally, trusting relationships among teachers and students and peers can create a positive classroom atmosphere. Vilma introduced the concept of relationship building between students and teachers and noted that "students should not be afraid of the teacher but trust the teacher." Matild added that a good relationship should be developed. "There should be…. a good relationship between teacher and students."(Vilma). Matild's statement underlined that establishing a trusting connection between the teacher and students is crucial: "a personal teacher-student relationship is very important...These students should not be afraid of the teacher but trust the teacher (Matild, 375—376). The teacher, too, "must turn with a positive expectation toward the learners and suggest that they can do it" (Matild, 377—378). Strong belief is expressed in student capabilities, and this is conveyed to the students, which provides a basis for cooperation. Matild also emphasizes that developing trust and connection, although taking longer, builds confidential relationships. The goal is to create an environment where students feel comfortable enough to share personal thoughts and concerns with their teacher, which is in line with the literature that a relaxed and comfortable classroom environment for students is extremely important (Price, 1991). Students who dare not utter a word in class may still need to work on a good rapport with their peers and their teachers, so that they do not fear being evaluated negatively.

> Building relationships is important with these learners. To trust the teacher, to dare to tell them things - it takes time, obviously, it doesn't happen from one week to the next. But the conversation, the communication, to get as close as possible, to dare to tell the teacher

> confidential things. There should be a good atmosphere and a good relationship between them. I think about communication and keeping in touch. To foster a good relationship and to talk a lot. (Vilma)

Vilma suggests that trust-building relationships take an interactive and dynamic process, which involves regular and meaningful dialogues between the teacher and students. The relationships with the teacher and classmates are vital, and students dare to speak when they are in a supportive classroom environment. The literature says that trusting relationships are built most effectively by communicating regularly and using inclusive practices. Timing is key; these practices need to be introduced early, along with meaningful conversations to engage students and allow them to fully participate (Brake, 2020).

As for a trusting relationship among peers, Olga (91—92) summarises the essence of it as having a "cheerful, friendly" classroom with "tolerant classmates". Vilma is convinced that peers need to actively engage in the activities to feel a sense of belonging." So that they feel that they are in the group, they have to work, too" (610—612). Trusting relationships among peers in a classroom were observed through various behaviours and interactions. In Vilma's class, the environment was conducive to learning, and students were working in pairs. After Vilma demonstrated what is expected from the pairs, the members of pairs started to engage in the activity; They needed to choose a name from the list of names in front of each student and what they could do listed next to the names. If, for instance, the name Noemi is chosen from the list, one student asked whether Noemi could play the violin. The other student replied if indeed this was the case. Vilma went to each pair and encouraged conversations between the students. In Vilma's class and in several classes, observed students engaged in conversations with each other

openly, both in their verbal communication and non-verbal cues, such as nodding or maintaining eye contact.

Collaborative work characterised the observed lessons: students worked together, listened to each other's opinions, and respected what they had to say to each other. Their body language: non-verbal cues such as smiling, and their open postures indicated trust. The different viewpoints were managed constructively without hostility or avoidance. There was a lot of engagement present in the classroom. This is in line with the literature. Holzer and Daumiller (2025) highlight that trust is built on openness, engagement, and meaningful interactions among peers in the classroom. According to Pan and Zhang (2021), teachers can create trusting relationships with their students, and peers can build trust among themselves, which will contribute to a positive classroom environment

6.12.4 Communicating and maintaining classroom rules

In a positive classroom environment, the teacher can lay the ground for collaborative learning. A recurring theme in the interviews that kept emerging is communicating and maintaining classroom rules in creating a supportive classroom environment. Emma finds it important to inform students about the expectations from the start, so that an environment can be created where students feel valued and free from ridicule.

> It is very important to clarify the rules of interaction at the very beginning of the lesson. I'll be honest, I'm sick to death of the idea of mocking and laughing at the other person. We make it clear at the beginning, and then no one is afraid that they will be ridiculed or laughed at. (Emma, 456—460)

Berta also evaluates her own teaching methods and agrees that the ground rules should be laid down from the beginning:

> When I thought about my own teaching, I realized that there is no trick here. You have to lay down the ground rules at the beginning so that there is no stress in the class. And for me, the way it usually works is that when I get a class, the most important thing is to make it clear (Berta, 144—146).

Annett makes a rule, setting a collaborative process:

> We created something like classroom rules, in English, obviously, of course, I can't do this with the little ones, I have to do this with the big ones - we put that up, and then they took pictures. They looked for examples on the internet and added them. We print it out, laminate it and put it on the front door so that they can see that the rules are very important (Anett, 803—805).

The placement of the rules on the door suggests making them visible. Students' shared responsibility in creating and maintaining the rules for learning in the classroom teaches students to strike a balance. Communicating clear rules and being empathetic when implementing the classroom rules leads to consistent classroom management.

Upon conducting classroom observations, examples of rules were most effectively articulated by Berta, Vilma, and Erna. When difficulties arose in completing tasks in their lessons, such as distractions, off-task behaviour, disruption, or frustration, they responded effectively. Berta noticed a student becoming distracted, walked up to the student and helped to redirect the learner's attention by asking the student, Szilvia, to listen up! "What do the others say!" Vilma also showed by pointing a finger where Ricardo should continue the reading from.

The music was already on when the observation started in Zita's classroom. Zita was sitting among the students, which sent a message that there was a partnership between Zita and the students, not a hierarchical relationship. Zita played a language activity with the members. From

their books, words were collected by the learners, while Zita prepared the unknown words for the listening exercise. More precisely, Zita was pre-teaching vocabulary for the listening exercise. Listening for the second time, students took note of shopping and making decisions on what item to buy. Then matched 1-3 statements to a-c points. Pali was only called out after Mark presented the task, and everyone understood what to do. Edit was also called out; however, she did not answer for the first time. Zita made sure that Edit understood what the task was before calling Edit out again. While learners played a word-collecting exercise, Zita was giving guidance to Nora, an overwhelmed student, so that Nora could also participate. Zita would like to create a classroom space where students experience success, and her approach to students with dyslexia is characterised by providing support, the right support that is non-judgmental. In case students misbehave, Zita sends the students to the Arizona room. The "Arizona Room" is a designated classroom within the school where misbehaving students are sent when they disrupt the lesson, so that they can calm down and reflect on their behaviour. The guidelines for these misbehaving students to follow are remaining quiet, completing assignments, or writing reflections about their behaviour. The goal of utilising the Arizona Room is to maintain a positive learning environment while addressing behavioural barriers in a constructive manner. Sending misbehaving students to the Arizona Room can be useful for dyslexic students. It is a lower distraction location, where they can go to when they get sensory overwhelmed and later focus better. Kormos et al. (2009b, p.128) illustrate a scenario where misbehaviour in a dyslexic student was attributed to a continual lack of success and the teacher's approach toward dyslexia.

Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) emphasize teamwork and interaction among peers. The authors highlight that rules help regulate group behaviour and promote inclusivity. These rules are claimed to be most effective when co-constructed with students, as in the example from Anett,

where classroom rules are created together with the language learning students. This allows for students' sense of ownership and responsibility to grow. Establishing the classroom rules at the beginning of the course encourages cooperation between non-dyslexic learners and dyslexic students from the start.

To conclude this section, the willingness to use Hungarian when needed, along with exercises and breathing techniques to alleviate the anxiety of dyslexic learners, detailed in Section 6.9.4, reflects a strategic approach on the part of EFL teachers. The participating EFL teachers appear to recognize the students' first language as a tool to clarify concepts or rules, resolve misunderstandings, and facilitate a deeper understanding of the English language. The use of the mother tongue is in line with the principles of communicative and student-centred language teaching, the goal of which is effective communication. By incorporating the mother tongue, teachers foster effective communication and create a supportive learning environment that takes the needs of the students into consideration.

In one of the primary schools, the management demonstrated commitment to creating a supportive environment by furnishing a classroom with new furniture annually or providing a new floor cover, representing examples of ways to improve the classroom environment. New furniture can contribute to building improved and more engaging spaces. Similarly, a new floor can be more inviting for students as a place to sit, move, and study. Most participating institutions did not report on such school-level support. Participating schools from central Hungary seemed reasonably well-equipped compared to other institutions in Hungary. Based on the reported accounts of EFL teachers, the availability of resources across different teaching environments significantly varies.

The section investigated the various methods EFL teachers use to deal with the anxiety of their dyslexic students in the classroom. These approaches include thoughtful classroom

arrangement, welcoming decoration, and flexibility of curricula. Based on teachers' reported experiences and observed practices, articulating the rules, maintaining these rules in the classroom, and building trusting relationships among teachers, students, and peers have all been identified as practices that contribute to a more supportive classroom environment characterised by appropriate lighting, temperature, and the presence of minimised distractions. Finally, the willingness to use the mother tongue when necessary was recognized as contributing to a supportive learning environment.

6.13 Language teaching context, school climate, and support from school management

The wider language teaching context influences the language learning of anxious dyslexic learners. The atmosphere of the school and the institutional context in which the EFL lessons take place can frame the learning experience. Students may be "frustrated by the way they are treated in their social environment; by their own classmates, schoolmates" (Emma,483—486). Emma's words highlight the affective challenges that students may face within their environment, particularly among peers such as classmates and schoolmates. When students experience negative emotions, these emotions can negatively impact their engagement. A negative school climate can negatively influence language learning experiences for students, while a positive climate may produce a more favourable experience. A positive school climate can minimize barriers associated with anxiety that dyslexic students may experience and ensure better educational outcomes. Higher levels of anxiety were reported by students with dyslexia when they felt disconnected from their schools (Wilcott et al., 2024).

Erna provided an overall description of the school culture in Hungary, the context of the present dissertation research:

> There is already a kind of culture, *a school culture* in Hungary, which means that the teacher is to be feared, and the teacher will punish learners. Obviously, they also need to know in advance that I will not punish them (Erna, 778—779).

In Erna's view, the teacher is traditionally viewed as an authority figure to be feared, and the expectation is that the teacher will impose punishment on learners for mistakes. Erna, however, does not punish these students, attempting to break this established cultural norm.

The school context can best be seen on a spectrum. On the one end, we have a school with hardly any resources, as captured by Bogi:

> I taught by going to a school, and there was no classroom available. I was in the lobby. I hung the mirror from the toilet, propped it up against the desk and gave speech therapy sessions in the mass hall because that was what was available. Tools on my back, my own, so I travelled by train/bus. The differences are vast (Bogi, 416—419).

On the other end, we have schools with rich resources to even implement a training program: "The school uses this *happiness* programme. It has a lot of playful activities to help children to be more accepting of each other, to highlight the positive aspects of their learning experience" (Emma, 496—498). This happiness programme is a training program for teaching students useful skills and strategies. Indeed, as the developmental specialist also confirms, there are training programmes available: "I do class-level sensitisation programmes. I hope to make progress" (Klaudia, 118—120). The training programs contribute to including neurodivergent students, so these students are made to feel more welcome in the classroom.

Additionally, the language learning context can be enhanced through the use of teaching assistants or aids. Assistants can contribute to creating an environment that encourages the involvement of all learners by recognizing and catering to individual needs. As Vilma explained,

"it would also be an improvement if these learners would receive help that is catered to their needs. An assistant could come for, say, 5-10 minutes and then go to another learner" (Vilma, 485—486). Vilma's view of assistants is in line with Rutherford's (2012) argument that teaching assistants are a vital element in an inclusive environment: "the position has evolved to become more specialised where Teaching Assistants are often considered to be the 'solution to inclusion'" (p. 760).

The role of the class teacher is also influential in establishing a supportive learning environment. Emma highlighted the role of the class teacher: "The role of the class teacher is very important. To create a class community where learners accept each other" (Emma, 495—496). The class teacher can foster a positive and inclusive classroom atmosphere where respectful interactions between learners are encouraged.

> Peers, ... who do not perceive it as a nuisance to be 'pulled back' or 'pulled down' or 'held back' by someone, but they experience it as a supportive environment where they are supported in need of help… [support should] not just come from the teachers, because I think it's very important that the students are supportive too (Katrin, 564—566).

Class teachers can facilitate learning experiences that promote peer support, helping students learn from one another. This aligns with existing literature emphasizing the importance of teaching social, emotional, and ethical competencies to ensure meaningful and effective classroom participation (Cohen, 2006).

The school context is strongly influenced by the support EFL teachers and support staff receive from school management. Support can be in the form of a meeting or by creating a supportive environment. Emma, in her capacity as deputy headmaster, coordinates "the school and … developmental activities of the school, so it happens often. There are regular meetings" (506—508). Emma also evaluates their school from the perspective of managing anxious dyslexic

learners: "I would say that school provides a supportive environment for this" (397—398). Emma's quotes express a positive view of a supportive school. Creating a positive school atmosphere to reduce anxiety is assigned as a priority by the headmaster to EFL teachers and support staff. Another headmaster, Gerda, also acknowledged the changing culture:

> Looking back over the past ten years, I have often encountered situations where students were exempted from assessment in foreign languages or other subjects... But I welcome the fact that the situation has changed, the legal requirements have changed, and students are less likely to be exempted from subjects; instead, they receive flexibility and accommodations (Gerda, 234—238).

There is a cultural and legal shift from exemption in foreign languages to using flexibility and accommodations, a registered change in creating a community where learners accept each other and cooperate as team members during practice and assessment.

The section is about how the wider language teaching context, school climate and support from school management may impact foreign language learning of anxious dyslexic learners. The positive school environment can minimize anxiety, while a negative climate can lead to negative emotions such as frustration among students. The traditional view of teachers as authority figures in Hungary is mentioned in parallel to the efforts to create an inclusive classroom. Resources such as training programs at the institution and the availability of teaching assistants to address individual needs matter. Class teachers can promote a positive classroom with peer support. This is in line with the literature where the school climate has been found to be an important factor in engaging students regardless of learning abilities and personality traits (Lombardi et al., 2019), and the importance of inclusive practices is highlighted for anxious students with dyslexia

(Daloiso,2017). Effective schools support students and level them upwards (Tóth, Csapó & Székely, 2010).

6.13.1 Cooperation with support staff, class teachers

The sharing of ideas and materials among EFL teachers contributes to building an inclusive educational environment and a supportive EFL teachers' community. Teacher participants voiced their opinions on the importance of working together. Berta does not hesitate to share best practices with other fellow teacher colleagues and the management in their school. Cooperation among teacher colleagues, supporting staff, and parents is key to teaching dyslexic students and dealing with their anxiety in the case of successful examples. Katrin describes the collaborative and resource-sharing practices in a working group setting regarding books and methods to support students with learning difficulties among EFL teachers:

> We have a working group meeting once a month. We discuss these things there and with each other. There are ideas, either when choosing a textbook or when discussing additional books. Or, for example, we have a table set aside so that if someone goes to a bookshop and finds a good book and buys it, they can put it there. The language teachers kind of sit in a pile. Then we discuss it. Now, for example, a colleague of mine found a textbook in the Mosaic textbooks that was a maturity exam preparation textbook, and we examined it. There's an online version of that, so if you buy it and you have access to it, there's a video, all sorts of fun stuff. We also discussed these, and if there are students with learning difficulties, how we can help, what we can do - we share all these things. It makes a big, big difference; it helps a lot (Katrin, 513—522).

Katrin emphasizes the importance of teamwork. Teachers share resources, such as textbooks and supplementary materials, and they evaluate them together. The discussion and evaluation of

resources for learners with dyslexia shows how collaboration can make a big difference and impact the way anxious dyslexic students can be supported. Erna also underlines the importance of collaboration among teachers and declares that she is "quite active in this field" (652—653). Erna continues, "I ask questions, and I share. If I find something, I share it with others" (653—654). The quote ends with the statement that they have a good English working group or EFL panel of teachers. Erna emphasizes the role of engagement among EFL teachers to share knowledge. The intra-professional cooperation is "where work takes place with colleagues within the same profession"(Parding et al., 2024), ensuring continuous opportunities for professional growth.

In addition to cooperation among EFL teachers**,** the cooperation between EFL teachers and support staff contributes to building interprofessional relationships that are useful when EFL colleagues need support staff guidance. Katrin, when faced with challenges, also consulted colleagues: “I asked several people there; the speech therapist colleague, the psychologist, and my colleagues, what the things are that help; what tasks I can give the students that really help in a practical way. And then I learned from them" (522—525). Katrin has a proactive attitude and consults and collaborates with experts in different roles within the institution. Collaboration is seen as an important element in providing support to students in need. Including students with different needs may lay the foundation for interprofessional cooperation. Dorina explains that EFL teachers can "ask for help from the developmental teacher, special education teacher (if there is one) in the schools" (Dorina, 61—62), and continues to explain the importance of EFL teachers informing themselves about the needs of their students, how they should accommodate their students, and minimize their anxiety: "Language teachers should read the evaluation reports……if we remind them, they know how they should accommodate the students in need, why there is this anxiety...

and then they have a different attitude to these students (Dorina, 223—226). Klaudia, developmental specialist, notes

> Once there is an expert opinion in the hand, it is much, much easier: they can read what to do, maybe even ask me well, but it's so general —what does a *longer time* mean, how many minutes? What does it mean to have *proportionally less work in more time*? Then they are consistently supported (Klaudia, 71—75).

The developmental specialist continues with how the expert opinions and guidance can assist EFL teachers. When teachers can turn to support staff for more information, they can gain a better understanding of what is the most effective support for the students. It is appreciated by support staff that teachers ask for their help when they face challenges. This fosters a process where students with a diagnosis can receive the right support from the EFL teachers. These teachers are also advised to collaborate with their colleagues or refer students to specialist services. Ultimately, the goal is for teachers to educate themselves:

> I think it's very good that when it comes up, [EFL teachers] come to me immediately - either me or someone else whom they think is competent. So, a process is set in motion in which there is a need to have a diagnosis if necessary. In such cases, I obviously try to steer them in the same direction as their colleagues: going to a specialist service where they can really examine the child from a multidisciplinary perspective. From there, it's much easier because the teachers (obviously within their own possibilities and limits) are trying to educate themselves and to get information in general on how to recognise the phenomenon. (Klaudia, 60—68).

Klaudia adds, "I think that this is the basis for interprofessional cooperation" (Klaudia, 454—455). Klaudia refers to the possibility of collaboration among teachers, psychologists, and speech therapists working together to support a student with diverse needs.

Erna also notes that the developmental teacher or the EFL teacher can work effectively with anxious dyslexic students; the cooperation is not structured or done through a system-level extra class, but it is offered on an individual basis:

> I think you need a developmental teacher or a language teacher who can work with these methods. I offer tutoring to people who I think would benefit from it or need it. Or, well, most often, before the exam, when we review the material, I offer it to anyone who feels like it, and we go over it again. In the online lessons, I also give the opportunity for 2-3 students on the link to meet, and then I help them with what they need... But there are no system-level extra classes offered. It is offered individually. It's up to the teacher how they manage it or what they can offer (Erna, 622—625).

Extra lessons may contribute to higher inclusion levels. Olga highlights how regular extra lessons can be useful for anxious dyslexic learners: "In the longer term, catching up can be achieved through regular extra lessons outside lessons" (Olga,78—79). Rather than trying to work with these students only in the classroom, extra support is made available to them in the form of after-school lessons. Either the developmental teacher or the language teacher provides after-school support classes. Consultations between support staff and teachers can guide the support. This is in line with the literature. For instance, Pettersson and Ström (2017) describe consultations between teachers and special educators. The consultations were all about professional dialogue and

collaborative problem-solving. Teachers received guidance from the special educators. However, the cooperation between professionals is not always visible or systematic at schools of study.

The deputy headmaster of a small northeastern Hungarian village school questions the efficiency of cooperation: "Colleagues with normal language teaching qualifications, even with the support of a developmental teacher, cannot provide these students with the professional help they need for effective language learning. Anett, an EFL teacher, is also frustrated when asked about the school psychologist and speech therapist:

> I rarely have contact with the school psychologist…. Our speech therapist...? My impression is that they have taken the speech therapist out of the primary school. They practically take care of the children until the end of kindergarten, and from then on, we hardly see them (Anett, 130—133).

In Anett's view, the speech therapist works with children in kindergarten and is not available for primary school students afterwards. There is limited access to these support services in the school where Anett works. The headmaster of the same school confirms that there are limited resources:

> If you can do half, half the hours that the law requires, that's very good. Then we've already met the mandatory minimum. That would be 3 hours a week for upper school students, because it's 3 hours a week for the first 6 grades, and 4 hours a week for 7th-8th grades would be mandatory. And in this case, we are in a very good position because the travelling special needs teacher can usually do 2 hours a week. So now we have the opportunity (or the number of hours that the travelling teacher can be in our institution) to meet with these students in a small group, but twice a week (Gerda, 103—109).

Gerda notes that it is a positive achievement if half of the required hours—3 hours per week for upper school students and 4 hours for grades 7-8—can be managed by support staff. In addition to

these hours, the travelling special needs teacher can also contribute 2 hours of support in small groups twice a week. In another school, the support has even been completely curtailed. Support staff used to cooperate with EFL teachers, which was beneficial to integrating anxious dyslexic students:

> [Support staff] were also very helpful in the integration process. They were not present in the institution every day, but on several days, and they were in very close contact with the parents and also with the colleagues teaching in the inclusion class. But it was about five years ago, if I remember correctly, exactly five years ago, that we were no longer able to employ teachers. Last school year, we had no special education provision at all. (Mona, 161—170).

The change took place five years ago, and since then, the school has had no special education support in the last school year. Bogi, the special education teacher, notes that it is not only the lack of available support staff, but the lack of cooperation that emerges as a barrier:

> There is no cooperation. I think it works very badly. There are outstanding examples (I've heard of specific ways of helping a student with SNI ... where the teacher emails the outline the night before, and he can write it down in his notebook, and in class he can concentrate on what he hears and not have to write it down), so there are such practices, and they are very good - but I think there are very few such examples. Rather, the practice is that everyone (in isolation) does their own thing and struggles with what they are given to do. And I think the language teacher does the same, I think. No one has ever asked me for advice (Bogi, 473—478).

There seems to be a lack of cooperation among teachers and support staff who help students with special needs. While effective practices exist—such as a teacher providing outlines in advance to help a student focus in class—these are not the usual practice. Bogi thinks that most teachers work in isolation, each struggling with their own responsibilities, and notes that no one has sought their advice on improving collaboration, including the language teacher. The data reveal that some schools can only ensure the physical placement of dyslexic students but cannot engage them or provide support to these students. These schools model an integrative framework rather than an inclusive one. Other schools, however, operate in a more inclusive setting; they have built systems, provided training, and resources for differentiated instruction.

In Emma's school, for instance, there is a full-time speech and language therapist who mainly caters for students with SNI, a special needs teacher who mainly works with children with learning disabilities in mathematics, and a development teacher. Emma receives requests for support for dyslexic students. She coordinates support within the school and also oversees its overall development initiatives, which often necessitate cooperation. Therapists and teachers work together to support students in their language tasks and emotional challenges. Additionally, Matild provides insight into how EFL teachers view the support staff available at their school:

> We now have a school psychologist, thank God, for the last three years, which can be helpful. ...We've had developmental teachers...and then, if somebody feels that this is something that they really want to deal with, they can ask for help. But, as I said; here, when teachers feel the need that they face this problem, they can ask about what it is that can do about it (Matild, 98—101).

The quote refers to the presence of developmental specialists and the possibility for teachers to seek their assistance when facing barriers in the school environment. When triangulating these findings and examining cooperation between support staff and teachers from the perspective of the support staff, Klaudia also confirms this interaction:

> Specifically, I have less contact with English teachers at the level of the panel team. There is one or two teachers with whom we are able to consult. I think they are extremely busy. But when their capacity allows, they do ask these questions. And, of course, it is the head of the working group whom I am able to talk to. I think he also passes on this information (Klaudia,80—84).

Klaudia, the developmental teacher, does not maintain extensive interaction with English teachers in the EFL panel team, only consulting with a couple of them due to their busy schedules. When they have the capacity, these teachers ask questions. The speech therapist communicates with the head of the panel or working group, who shares the information with other panel or working group members, as well. Some cooperation schemes work better than others. The school psychologist, Dorina, described cooperation as an example of more effective collaboration than the previous ones described:

> We work together. If teachers notice problems, they usually tell us. We have a full-time development teacher. We have a travelling special education teacher or a developmental teacher almost every day. They always talk to the special education teacher, or they let me know, and then we start an investigation. Sometimes it's just a partial ability test, so then it's enough for the parent to sign up for the test. And then it is determined there whether or not a specialist assessment is needed. We also have to work on a document for the expert

> examination - we all contribute; then we discuss the experience and cooperate. (Dorina, 311—320).

The support team collaborates closely. There is also exemplary cooperation with teachers, as they report any difficulties they notice. The team has a full-time development teacher and a travelling special education teacher available almost daily. When teachers observe barriers that need to be minimized, they communicate with the special education teacher or Dorina to start an investigation. This may only be a partial ability test, or it may lead to a specialist assessment. The support team members also work together on producing the document with their findings for expert evaluations and discuss their experience of cooperation.

Finally, Emma, the Deputy Head, represents the management view on the collaboration of support staff and teachers: "The colleague will tell you what the problem is, what they have noticed, and then we will try to figure out what skill gap is behind it. And what kind of training programme could be used" (Emma, 514—516). It translates into the teacher identifying a barrier and sharing the experience with the support team. As a next step, the team will work together to determine the underlying skill gap and explore suitable training to address this gap. However, the cooperation of teachers and support staff with managerial support is not sufficient to deal with the anxiety of dyslexic learners:

> The parent sees that the student is having difficulty learning anything. The class teacher sees that the student's grades are poor. The speech and language therapist, well, they may have seen it if they've treated the student before, and then the developmental teacher is the one we're lucky to have because they're here and they're very active and they're very hands-on. But honestly, they break it down to her area of what they are going to do with the student. I have to fight my own battles, and it's not easy (Anett, 150—154).

Anett explains the complexity of what is going on in the classroom. Each stakeholder—the parent, class teacher, speech and language therapist, and developmental teacher—has their own view on the student. The parent notices the student's challenges. The class teacher registers that the student is facing barriers overall, as shown by the grades. The speech and language therapist may have some insights, but it is the developmental teacher who addresses the specific barriers. At the end of the day, Anett, the EFL teacher, needs to fight their own battles to support the anxious dyslexic student in their language learning, which may suggest a lack of support among the various professionals. While each stakeholder has their role, the effectiveness of the support may not always be well coordinated.

Addressing the coordination among stakeholders from the school a more supportive educational landscape can be drawn that provides the support anxious dyslexic students need to minimize the barriers they are facing. Support is essential from the school management**,** which is in line with the literature “School leaders strive to create an inclusive learning environment in their work” (Révai & Kirkham, 2013, p. 94). The school's staff may come with different qualifications. EFL teachers in Hungary report that they lack training in inclusive practices to teach anxious dyslexic students (Nagyné Nyikes, 2019). Institutions have specialists, such as psychologists, educational or special educational teachers, to support teachers' work (Magyar et al., 2020). The interprofessional and intraprofessional collaboration among teachers and support staff strengthens teachers’ capacity and commitment to provide support the right support without judgement and normalizing, however, parental support is also needed in this process, as it fosters a partnership between home and school.

6.13.2 Cooperation with parents

The cooperation with parents in supporting anxious dyslexic students was examined from the schoolteachers', support staff's, and deputy headmasters' perceptions regarding their involvement. According to teachers, the cooperation and support from parents influence the learning experience of neurodivergent students. One teacher participant reported that "90% of parents are very supportive, cooperative - so they listen, they study with the student where appropriate; or they consult the teacher and ask what can be done or how they can help " (Matild, 440—441). Matild, the teacher participant, felt that it was helpful. It is understood as a positive experience when the teacher feels the parent is a source of support, and the majority of parents are found to be both supportive and cooperative. This is also confirmed by the headmaster, Gerda, who states that "parents are usually cooperative" (Gerda, 261—262).

Some parents worry that their neurodivergent children face many challenges and want to help. These parents consult teachers to understand how they could best assist the anxious dyslexic students. As an EFL teacher, Erna recalls it:

> Basically, parents tend to contact me when they find out that there is a barrier, and they also inform me. They beg me very fearfully, very gently, very politely, so I don't saddle the poor child. Which, by the way, I have no intention of doing, and I've obviously seen this happening before…. So, it is generally the case that it is made clear that I will, of course, take the various difficulties into account and that the students will not be made to feel uncomfortable (Erna, 758—761).

Erna gives an insight into the dynamics of teachers and parents cooperating. The emotions that overwhelm parents when they learn about the barriers and realize the impact on the language

learning in an EFL class, become visible via the expression "beg me very fearfully". However, Erna reassures parents of their understanding and intention to create a supportive environment. Matild's attitude is also reported to foster an environment of acceptance: It is about "building some trust, a little extra attention, and then those students where the parent is also a partner, they become quite self-reliant "(Matild, 396—397). Matild's words explain that trust born out of the cooperation between the EFL teachers and parents results in improved self-efficacy for anxious dyslexic students. The attention given to these students, both from the side of teachers and caregivers, and the partnership between them, will contribute to the students' improved self-efficacy; these students believe more in their ability to succeed in their foreign language learning. Their goals may seem unattainable despite the challenges associated with dyslexia and anxiety.

Other parents are concerned about the SNI stamp for their children and share their worries with support staff. These parents are afraid that the stigma will stick with them in their future, and their peers will mock them:

> There are very different parents in that respect. Moreover, unfortunately, more than once, they actually say that they don't want the SNI stamp for their children because they are afraid that it will stick with them; peers are teasing them, and it is stigmatising their future. In such cases, we reinforce the fact that they can receive developmental support at school. And then they can get accommodations. (Dorina,406—411)

Dorina claims that many parents fear that labelling their children with an SNI stamp may be stigmatising and may have potential long-term effects on their future. The root of this fear may be linked to a phenomenon in which, in the wider society, labels have a negative meaning. This negative meaning can lead to discrimination, not to understanding and support. However, support

staff call the attention of parents to the advantages, such as "receiving developmental sessions for a year until review" (Gerda, 65—66) and accommodations, such as extra time on tests that these students can receive. School psychologist Dorina explains, "it is typical that children are given more time" (Dorina, 483—484). Students, indeed, can receive extra time to complete their tests or a lessened workload. Developmental support and the accommodations may contribute to improving self-reliance/ self-efficacy in the students, and they feel that they can navigate language challenges more effectively. According to the literature, extra time is very helpful; however, it may not be sufficient on its own. Dyslexic students face barriers related to decoding, processing, memory, and affective factors. Effective support should go beyond extra time and developmental sessions, including strategies such as multisensory strategies (Kormos, 2017), positive psychology interventions such as emotional support (Abu Omar et al., 2024), and collaboration between professionals (Kormos & Kontra,2008).

As far as the nature of cooperation between parents and support staff is concerned, the language pedagogy expert reports about providing consultations and addressing common concerns, and directing parents to appropriate resources or specialists when necessary:

> Most often, parents come for advice. They usually ask for one, two, or three suitable parent consultations. I always try to communicate in a way that answers questions that might arise. If I feel that I am not competent in something they specifically ask, I may refer the parent to the relevant agency or specialist service. But I don't know of any where they have not dared to come or have put off continuing with the sessions. In two or three sessions, these questions are usually resolved, and they usually get the answers they are looking for. It's mostly things like, because it's difficult to navigate the care system, they don't always know who to go to in the first place. They don't know where to go for information, what literature

> to look for, or which portal is the one that is safe not to accept information from because it says contradictory things. I would actually describe myself more as a case manager - I think that is needed, and I am happy to help in general (Klaudia, 315—322).

Klaudia describes the challenges parents of anxious dyslexic students face in finding reliable information and understanding the system. That is why it is especially useful to have someone who can provide guidance in this complex task. The support staff colleague sees themselves as a "case manager". This positive type of partnership between support staff and parents can contribute to creating a supportive atmosphere.

Despite the generally positive relationship between parents and support staff, there are challenges in parental cooperation due to the fact that the parents do not see any problems. As a school psychologist, Dorina, puts it:

> Unfortunately, it can happen that the parent is not cooperating, and then, if they are asked, say, during the evaluation process, they can say they don't see any problems. It may be that the child doesn't get a diagnosis because of that. (Dorina, 369—373).

It may be challenging to see the difficulties for fear of labelling. This may lead to late diagnosis or no diagnosis at all, and corresponding late or no support. Understanding the barriers these learners face and providing the right support to them can be the result of improved communication and collaboration between parents and support staff.

Another aspect of parental cooperation is the extent to which parents can support the students' foreign language learning efforts at home. Some parents provide practice opportunities at home, according to Deputy Headmaster/ support specialist, Emma:

> Some parents can also help at home, so that the student does the homework, can look at the task, and then practice, and the student will have more of a sense of achievement in the

> class. And then it's such a self-stimulating process. So much can be achieved. (Emma, 350—352)

Emma elaborates on the role parents can play in supporting their children's foreign language learning at home. When parents support practice, students are more likely to complete their homework. The strategies, skills, and communication that are learnt in class, reinforced and practiced in the home environment, may result in a sense of achievement in the classroom. This sense of achievement contributes to intrinsic motivation and increased self-efficacy as students may feel more capable of managing their language learning tasks. Moreover, these students may experience less anxiety in their language learning process, which helps them to show their full potential.

Erna, the teacher participant, also stated that students can more effectively cope with their learning challenges if strong support is available from their families:

> Some of the students navigate their learning difficulties well because they get a lot of support at home…if this subject is handled well in the family, these children manage well. …. luckily that I have children who are getting a lot of support and help at home in that area, and good support obviously (Erna, 186—192).

The support family provides at home can empower students to cope with learning-specific barriers. Students who can rely on the support of their families can navigate challenges more effectively. When parents or other caregivers effectively engage with their children's studies, providing guidance, resources, and emotional support, students tend to become more resilient in the learning process. Overall, strong family involvement emerges as a key factor in enhancing the learning

experience, contributing to learners' capabilities to navigate barriers encountered in language learning.

While some parents demonstrate a high degree of involvement and interest, others may exhibit indifference or avoidance. Emma noted that "there are also parents who are not interested at all in how the student progresses, who think I have put the kid in school, it is the school's job to educate the learners. So, it varies. There are vast differences" (Emma,354—357). Parents who demonstrate avoidance behaviour are especially noticeable to the school management:

> [..] even parents who try to really listen and support their children in their learning have a lot of difficulties. If they speak a foreign language, they are frustrated that they cannot teach their own child things that they know. Moreover, if they do not speak the foreign language and have had problems with it, it is again a hopeless endeavour for them to provide any help to their child. And in such cases, emotional involvement is inevitable, so the parents empathise with the child. If they find themselves in a difficult situation, the solution is often not to support and encourage and help, but to try to find a way out of these situations, by justifying, explaining, deflecting - in other words, by showing the kids different coping techniques, how to get out of such a situation without looking for a solution (Mona, 409—416).

When parents feel that sharing their foreign language knowledge with their children is challenging, or they do not have sufficient command of the language themselves to provide effective language support, they empathise with the learners, show strong emotional reactions, and try to get out of the difficult situation. These parents model coping mechanisms to avoid problems. As parental influence impacts learners' problem-solving, it is essential for support staff and teachers to show learners different coping techniques, according to Mona, the deputy headmaster.

At the same time, when parents expect schools to educate their children without parental participation, they are unable to comprehend what is happening. "They don't understand what the problem is. Whether it's going to be bad for the child later on, or whether it's bad now" (Bogi, 410—411). Support staff have "to be able to put things in terms that make sense to the parent, the aspects of the problem with the child that are accessible to the parent" (Bogi, 395—397). Establishing effective cooperation is a prerequisite for creating an environment conducive to learning.

Frequent consultations with parents can increase parental understanding. Dorina explains that initial conversations may be characterised by resistance, as parents are not prepared to address the barriers. "Sometimes we talk once, and they are more resistant - the second time they are less resistant, or you can see that they have thought about it" (Dorina, 404—406). During the discussions, parents become less defensive and more open to a dialogue and maintaining communication about their anxious kids who face language barriers.

To support anxious learners who identify as neurodivergent, parental involvement is crucial, according to Dorina: "I usually consult with a parent at least two or three times, and then I can see the change, whether they have managed to follow something or whether they have thought about it"(Dorina, 402—404). Engaging parents and communicating with them are part of creating a supportive home environment that complements the school's efforts. This collaboration among parents, support staff, and EFL teachers serves as a foundation for student success for students with learning challenges. "It's useless to explain that it works if the students, the teacher and the parent are all cooperating and moving forward in the same direction."(Emma, 374—376)

Indeed, parents play a vital part in supporting their students. Support should not be confined to teaching methods that are being used in the classroom setting: "Teachers should see the student

as an individual, use different resources depending on the students' needs, for example, eliminate busy pages for those with reading difficulties; parents should be included as well, for example, how they can support their child at home." (Kałdonek-Crnjaković and Fišer, 2021, p.78.)

The section discussed the school climate, interdepartmental and intradepartmental collaboration, and parental cooperation in supporting anxious dyslexic students. School climate may not always be conducive to learning due to peer ridicule or a lack of institutional resources. Nevertheless, EFL teachers do their best to support students either on their own or with the guidance of available support staff, mainly developmental teachers. Most parents are very supportive and willing to engage with teachers and support staff to minimise the barriers their children are facing. These parents are willing to cooperate with EFL teachers and turn to support staff for guidance. Other parents fear labelling and do not always understand their children's challenges; thus, these students may receive support late or not receive support at all. Parental involvement may vary, yet when schools focus on building strong relationships with parents, it may empower students, especially students with dyslexia, increasing self-reliance. Communication and collaboration among EFL teachers, cooperation between EFL teachers and support staff, and parents can contribute to a supportive environment where teachers can consider the needs of their students and collaborate with parents to give the right support to students without judging them.

In line with the literature, Lei and Vibulphol (2024) emphasised the cooperation between EFL teachers, support staff, and parents in creating a climate that caters to the needs of students and contributes to an inclusive environment. Teachers can help empower parents to support their own children in their language learning journey. Some parents may be empowered to such an extent that they can take on a teaching role at home, while others face challenges in supporting

their children's study endeavours at home. These parents are at two distinct ends of the spectrum: at one end are parents who support their children, and at the other end are parents who are not involved in their children's English learning. The collaboration among students, the EFL teacher, and the parents, however, can be hindered. There are interpersonal and systemic barriers, such as poor communication and a lack of reasonable adjustments (Leslie et al., 2025).

6.14 Summary of the Findings of Strand 2

The findings of Strand 2 show that teachers talk about differentiated instruction as part of their reported practices; however, such practices are not always implemented in their lessons. While EFL teachers hardly refer to multisensory language approaches in their reported practice, they are observed using multisensory activities in their language lessons. Lesson observations indicate that there is a discrepancy between teachers' theoretical knowledge and their language teaching practice.

Moreover, results also show that instead of Communicative language teaching, EFL teachers often resort to more traditional instructional methods, such as teaching grammar rules and vocabulary through translation exercises or through repetition and drills. The reading exercise in class, grammar drills, and memorisation of texts do not cater to the needs of anxious dyslexic students. In addition, the section discussed the school climate, interdepartmental, as well as intradepartmental collaboration, and parental cooperation in supporting anxious dyslexic students. School climate may not always be conducive to learning due to peer ridicule or a lack of institutional resources. Nevertheless, EFL teachers do their best to support students either on their own or using guidance of available support staff, mainly developmental teachers. Most parents are very supportive and willing to engage with teachers and support staff to minimize barriers their children are facing. These parents are willing to cooperate with EFL teachers and turn to support

staff for guidance. Other parents fear labelling and do not always understand their kids' challenges; thus, these students may receive support late or not receive support at all. Parental involvement may vary, yet when schools focus on building strong relationships with parents, it may empower students, especially students with dyslexia, increasing self-reliance. Communication and collaboration among EFL teachers, cooperation between EFL teachers and support staff, and parents can contribute to a supportive environment where teachers can consider the needs of their students and collaborate with parents to give the right support to students without judging them.

7 A Model for Teaching Anxious Dyslexic Students in the English Classroom

Overall, the qualitative part of my dissertation explored how EFL teachers can include and teach anxious neurodivergent learners in an EFL lesson. Figure 2 offers a visual representation of exploring the complex relationships that define Teaching Anxious Dyslexic students in the English classroom.

Figure 2

An emerging model of teaching anxious dyslexic learners in the language classroom

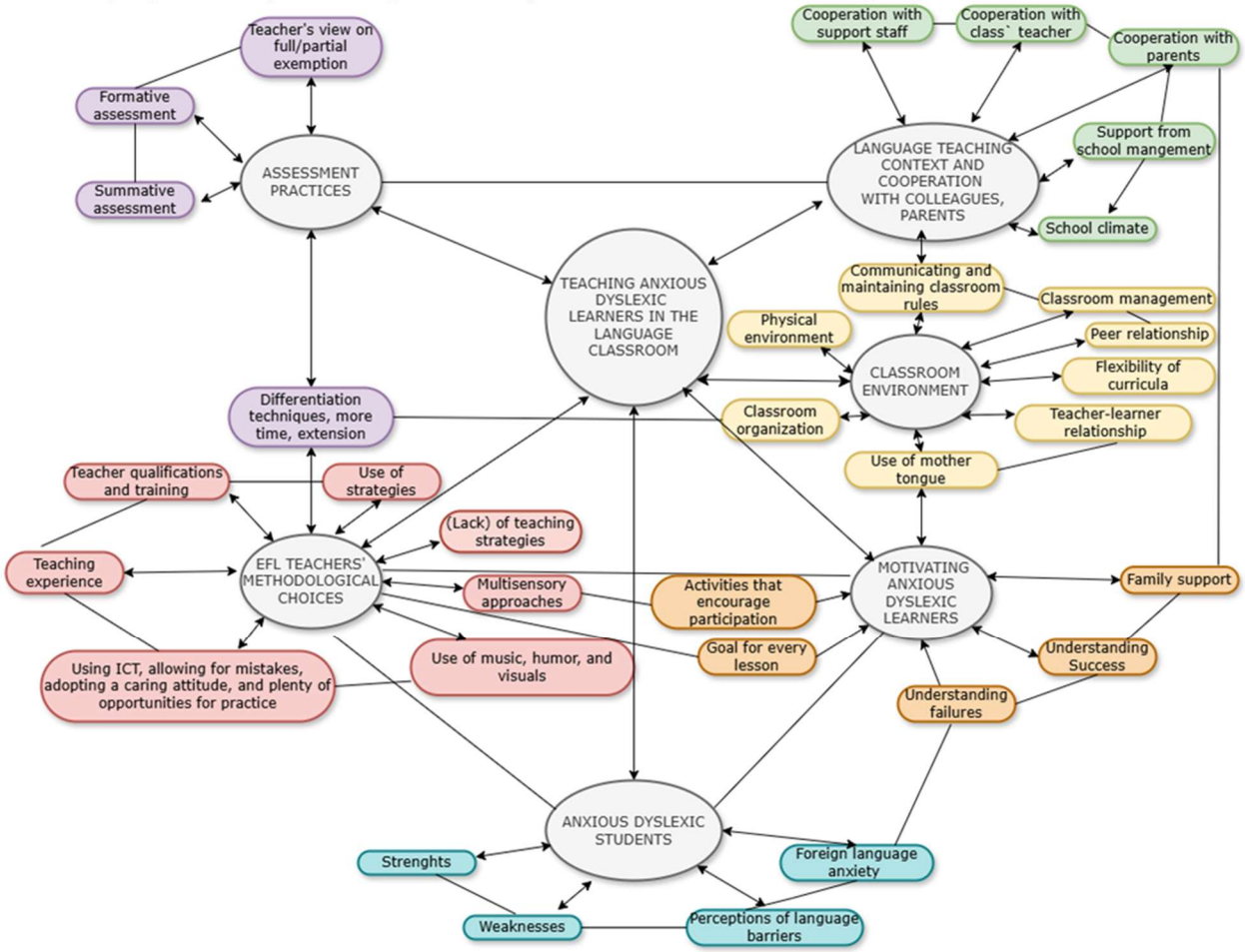


Figure 2 illustrates the emerging model of foreign language instruction in Hungarian primary schools. At the centre of the diagram is the main topic, Teaching Anxious Dyslexic Learners in the Language Classroom, with other components surrounding it. These components include Teachers' perception of anxious dyslexic learners, EFL teachers' methodological choices,

Assessment practices, motivating anxious dyslexic learners for success, the classroom environment, the language teaching context, and cooperation with colleagues and parents.

The components described in detail contribute to a deeper understanding of how teachers can promote the development of approaches and strategies to address the anxiety of dyslexic learners. The visual description describes six major clusters: 1.) Teachers' perceptions of anxious dyslexic students, 2.) EFL teachers' methodological choices, 3.) Assessment practices, 4.) Motivating anxious dyslexic learners for success, 5.) Classroom environment and 6.) Language teaching context and cooperation with colleagues, parents that correspond with the major categories of the coding scheme: 1.) dyslexic students/anxious dyslexic students in mainstream primary schools; 2.) methodological choices; 3.) assessment practices and exemption; 4.) success, ways of motivation, and anxiety; 5.) providing a supportive environment; 6.) language teaching and cooperation with colleagues and parents.

The major clusters are connected in a way that many of the links extend across categories, indicating the complex nature of teaching anxious dyslexic students in the English classroom. For instance, there are cross-category links for differentiation: teachers can differentiate both in terms of teaching methods and in terms of assessment. Another example is the relationship between *Activities that encourage participation* and *multisensory approaches.* Additionally, activities that engage multiple senses are more likely to involve learners and help maintain focus on language learning tasks.

Furthermore, EFL teachers reportedly use strategies such as giving instructions or explaining grammar items in the mother tongue, which also has an impact on the classroom environment, presenting less stress for anxious students who identify as neurodivergent. Setting a goal for every lesson and EFL teachers' methodological choices appear to be strongly influenced

by one another. When EFL teachers know the goal they aim to reach with their students by the end of the lesson, they can choose the most effective methodological tools, strategies, and approaches to reach it. Establishing goals and ground rules does not only emerge in relation to the classroom environment**.** Based on the data, EFL teachers are shown to create supportive environments by establishing classroom ground rules at the beginning of EFL lessons to provide a general study framework for the students. Classroom rules are connected to and lead to consistent classroom management. Additionally, they also play a part in minimizing the anxiety of dyslexic learners by reducing humiliation in the classroom. Thus, classroom rules relate to *success***,** *ways of motivation***,** and *anxiety*, as well as *motivating anxious dyslexic learners for success***.**

Effective teaching must align with the school and classroom environment, taking into consideration the learner. There is one critical omission in the coding scheme, which is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy strongly influences motivating anxious dyslexic learners for success**;** however, teachers do not talk about self-efficacy directly, hence it does not appear as an emerging theme right from the beginning, but in analysing the data, self-efficacy emerged as a necessary component of the framework capturing psychological dimensions.

Teaching anxious dyslexic students in an EFL course calls for a two-level approach. Both the general level and the individual level of this two-level approach require careful consideration (UNESCO, 2017). At the general level, there needs to be a deep understanding of the barriers anxious dyslexic students experience in the classroom. Provided there is a deep understanding of barriers at the general level, the teacher can start working on reducing these barriers at the individual level. At the individual level, the barriers the learners face need to be identified. Once these are identified, teachers can plan the classroom methodology, teaching techniques, and material to be used to ensure that dyslexic learners can reach their full potential.

8 Conclusion

This final chapter summarizes the main findings of the mixed methods project based on the quantitative and qualitative data collected. The dissertation project aimed to filter the key findings into an emerging model for teaching anxious dyslexic learners within the language classroom. Before summarizing the main findings, there are two notable outcomes of the dissertation project that will be highlighted here due to the implications they have on the interpretation of the findings. This chapter not only brings together the findings of the two strands but also lays the foundation for future research to better support EFL teachers in teaching dyslexic learners struggling with anxiety in primary school language classrooms.

One notable outcome from the quantitative strand reveals an agreement among teachers regarding the use and efficiency of anxiety-reducing strategies. This finding was further explored in the qualitative strand of the research, and the insights obtained through the qualitative strand of the research did not correspond with the quantitative findings. While the quantitative strand measured the extent of agreement among teachers regarding the use and efficiency of anxiety-reducing strategies, the qualitative strand explored the experiences and perceptions of the teachers. These reported and observed experiences revealed that teachers use various strategies to decrease the apprehension of students; however, they hardly teach students any strategies to manage their own anxiety.

There is a gap between equipping students with tools and techniques to cope with their own anxiety and only using methods to alleviate students' anxiety. When students are not equipped with tools and techniques to cope, they may be unable to deal with their anxiety. As a result, their mental health may suffer, their resilience may be lower, and their problem-solving skills may not function at a sufficient level. Alleviating student anxiety often relies on measures that reduce

stress, such as creating a supportive environment where expectations are communicated clearly. Equipping students with tools and techniques to cope with their own anxiety aims to facilitate self-regulation, through which students are in charge of their educational development, possessing the ability to regulate their learning experience, thus dealing with their anxiety. Based on the reported data and observed practice, almost all of the teachers managed to create inclusive, caring environments for students. Some EFL teachers achieved this via discussing how students felt about their language learning tasks, as demonstrated by Vilma. Participating teachers such as Berta and Erna set clear rules at the beginning of their classes, which helped students to understand the expectations. Unfortunately, equipping students with coping strategies was less visible during the observed lessons and the reported practices. Training workshops were great examples of ways to teach students how to prioritize tasks and break assignments into smaller steps.

The other notable outcome relates to the training of EFL teachers. This can enhance the ability to recognize and deal with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners. It was hypothesized that EFL professionals who attended dyslexia training would support affective learning. In the first strand of the research, quantitative procedures were carried out, including reliability analysis of the scales and one-way ANOVA tests to determine whether there were significant differences between the teachers who completed dyslexia training and those who did not. These aims took the form of the following research questions:

- RQ1a What manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety are language teachers primarily aware of?
- RQ1b What factors can be used to describe teachers' attitudes to the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?

- RQ1c What factors can be used to describe teachers' perceptions about the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?
- RQ1d What is the relationship among these factors?

In response to RQ1a, while teachers were aware of manifestations such as learners' avoidance of reading/speaking, withdrawal and silence, difficulties completing tasks, visible nervousness, and fear of mistakes or humiliation, the quantitative findings indicated that overall awareness was moderate ($M = 3.60$). This suggested that many signs were not consistently identified.

The findings showed that while teachers generally found affective strategies important in the quantitative strand, the implementation of these strategies was not consistent based on the data collected in the second, qualitative, strand of the dissertation research. Furthermore, it was also revealed that attending training did not correlate with applying anxiety-reducing strategies in the EFL classroom based on the ANOVA reporting of the quantitative inquiry**.** It was found that those EFL teachers who underwent training are not more likely to recognize and minimize anxiety among dyslexic students. Due to the fact that dyslexia training programs concentrate on teaching methods tailored for dyslexic students, but may not adequately address the specific anxieties experienced by dyslexic learners in the foreign language learning context**.** This calls for training that not only covers how to support dyslexic students but provides a deeper understanding of emotional support EFL teachers should provide in EFL contexts.

8.1 Summary of main findings

The findings of the two strands of the dissertation research helped to inform the current practice of teaching anxious dyslexic learners. I set out to answer the following research questions:

- RQ1a What manifestations of dyslexic primary school students' foreign language anxiety are language teachers aware of?
- RQ1b What factors can be used to describe teachers' attitude to the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?
- RQ1b What factors can be used to describe teachers' perceptions about the signs of anxiety exhibited by their dyslexic learners and ways of dealing with them?
- RQ1d What is the relationship between the factors?

The answer to RQ1a was that while teachers were aware of manifestations such as learners' avoidance of reading/speaking, withdrawal and silence, difficulties completing tasks, visible *overall awareness was moderate* ($M = 3.60$). This suggested that many signs were *not consistently* identified.

To answer RQ1b and c, the findings of the quantitative study showed that the teachers' understanding was informed by different constructs, such as identifying anxious dyslexic students, approaches to addressing their anxiety, and teaching strategies to reduce anxiety. However, the manifestations of foreign language anxiety in dyslexic students did not influence how the participating EFL teachers dealt with their learners' anxiety. The severity of anxiety symptoms did not depend on the factors mentioned above. Once anxiety was recognized in dyslexic learners, the participating teachers provided support for neurodivergent language learners.

The qualitative strand of the interview complemented the findings of strand 1 by offering a deeper understanding of teaching anxious dyslexic learners via interviews, lesson observations, student tests, notes, student exercise books, and the planning boards of the schools. The interviews, observations, and other sources of information confirmed that EFL teachers themselves or their colleagues were primarily responsible for identifying students with language barriers.

The aim of my exploratory dissertation research was to provide a deeper understanding based on the perspectives of the EFL teachers, support staff and deputy head teachers. I hoped to gain a deeper understanding of why participants who participated in dyslexia training are not more likely to teach anxiety-reducing strategies to anxious dyslexic students than those who participated in such training. Second, I wanted to see how the participants saw their ability to manage anxious dyslexic students, what tools they used, and if they considered it their job to manage anxious dyslexic students, before asking how they did it. I was interested in exploring teachers' experience, and the experience of support staff and deputy heads. I was curious to characterize teachers' reactions to dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety, on teachers' practices in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety, and on teaching practices that contribute to the success of dealing with dyslexic students' foreign language anxiety in EFL classes in Hungary.

To answer the research questions, I used an exploratory approach to investigate participants' perceptions and considered the following key elements: teachers' perceptions of anxious dyslexic learners, the EFL teachers' methodological choices, assessment practices, motivating anxious dyslexic learners for success, the classroom environment, the language teaching context, and cooperation with colleagues and parents. These categories also contributed

to the emerging model of teaching anxious dyslexic learners. The research questions of the qualitative inquiry are as follows:

- RQ2a How does anxiety affect the L2 learning process for students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems based on the experience of language teachers in mainstream primary schools?
- RQ2b How do language teachers reflect on their experience dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic language learners?
- RQ2c How do participating language teachers in mainstream primary schools view the use of different methods in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learners or students with dyslexia-like symptoms?
- RQ3 What characterizes teachers' practices in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety?
- RQ4 What are participating language teachers' perceptions on success in dealing with the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic students?
- RQ5 What teaching practices contribute to the success of dealing with dyslexic students' foreign language anxiety in EFL classes in Hungary?

When revisiting the research question about teachers' reactions and practices in dealing with their dyslexic learners' foreign language anxiety, it was found that they were guided by the following categories:

8.1.1 Teachers' perceptions of anxious dyslexic learners

Both qualitative and quantitative data indicate that anxious dyslexic learners experience barriers when learning a foreign language. This was evident in all of the interviews and in the trends that emerged from the survey data. The finding aligns with a number of studies showing that learners with dyslexia may struggle with age-appropriate literacy skills and weak verbal memory among other difficulties (Kontra et al., 2015; Kormos, 2017; Kormos & Csizér, 2009; Kormos & Kontra, 2008; Kormos & Smith, 2012; Schneider & Crombie, 2003) and that dyslexia

can negatively impact foreign language learning. Specific learning difficulties have been associated with anxiety and behavioural problems (McNulty, 2003; Siegel, 2016).

As for the characteristics of anxious dyslexic learners, some of their strengths were reported to include creativity as well as effective speaking skills when not being tested. Their weaknesses, however, were associated with handwriting, particularly anxiety stemming from the expectation to produce handwritten work, concerns about illegible writing, and challenges in reading and grammar skills, which give rise to anxiety when encountered in a foreign language. Some of their strengths were reported to include creativity as well as effective speaking skills when not being tested. Their weaknesses, however, were associated with handwriting, particularly anxiety stemming from the expectation to produce handwritten work, concerns about illegible writing, and fears of not being able to finish their assignment on time.

To understand the data, the study investigated how anxious dyslexic learners are identified in EFL language classrooms and which characteristics impact the process of language learning. The findings reveal a gap between the theoretical commitment to inclusive education and its implementation in EFL classrooms. While the questionnaire data indicate that most EFL teachers agree with statements about teaching anxiety-reducing strategies, data collected from the interviews and observations show that they do not necessarily teach such strategies to their students. Although EFL teachers and colleagues can identify anxious dyslexic students and, according to the quantitative data, attempt to address these barriers by establishing classroom rules, integrating technology, allowing for mistakes, adopting caring attitudes, and providing opportunities to practice using appropriate strategies, the qualitative data provided further insight into how anxious dyslexic students can be more effectively supported.

It turned out that students could have been better involved in EFL classes. Based on the interview and observation data, participating EFL teachers reported using anxiety-reducing strategies to minimise the stress and apprehension of their dyslexic learners and utilised such strategies during the classes observed. Instead of teachers just reducing the anxiety of dyslexic learners, they should also teach students strategies so that they can learn to manage their anxiety on their own. Involving anxious dyslexic learners in language classes was a challenge for EFL teachers, as the EFL teachers in the sample felt unprepared for the job. Where EFL teachers were prepared and knew what adjustments would work for anxious dyslexic learners, their work was more successful, which is consistent with the literature (Szatzker, 2011).

8.1.2 The EFL teachers' methodological choices

Data revealed that teaching qualifications and training failed to prepare EFL teachers to deal with anxious dyslexic learners. While, in some cases, language barriers were minimized when training courses were reported to address literacy challenges, participating EFL teachers did not report any preparatory courses on how language professionals should deal with the anxiety that accompanies language-related barriers.

The methodological choices, techniques, and activities used by EFL teachers were investigated from the perspective of meeting the needs of anxious dyslexic learners in an EFL teaching context. Based on the data collected from classroom observation, classroom activities mostly promoted reading skills and writing skills. In terms of classroom activities, grammar exercises dominated the EFL language classroom. This particular pedagogical approach rarely supported the needs of anxious dyslexic learners. Rather than using a multisensory approach and techniques of differentiation, teachers sometimes fell back on traditional reading and grammar-translation in a frontal teaching mode. However, more pair and group work with chatty partners

was observed in one of the classes. Furthermore, as suggested in the literature (Schneider & Crombie, 2003), some positive examples of creating learning opportunities through explicit teaching of learning strategies, the use of ICT and other technologies, music, humour, and visual aids such as flashcards, may be particularly helpful for teaching vocabulary, have been used in other classrooms observed.

8.1.3 Assessment practices

Concerning the assessment practices, the EFL classes observed were dominated by summative assessment practices, in the form of grammar and vocabulary tests, even though formative assessment might have been more suitable for anxious dyslexic learners. In addition to the limited number of formative assessment examples, differentiation techniques were used on several occasions. Either shorter tests or word tests with reversed language tasks were administered; instead of asking for the English equivalent of the terms, the tests asked these students to provide the vocabulary items in their mother tongue.

The EFL teachers' reports were consistent with the classroom observation experiences. Forms of assessment that would have provided insight into the personal development of students were not recorded in the classes observed. The personal development of anxious dyslexic students measured against their own performance throughout the language learning journey was barely visible. The attitudes of EFL teachers towards exempting students from language learning activities varied greatly. Some believed in completely removing the anxiety from students' EFL learning activities, while others allowed for complete withdrawal from language learning activities. However, most EFL teachers agreed to refuse full exemption from language learning in

line with the literature, according to which dyslexic learners should not be exempted from FL education (Szatzker, 2011).

8.1.4 Motivating anxious dyslexic learners to become successful learners

The issue of motivating anxious dyslexic learners was neglected in the quantitative part of the inquiry. However, motivation emerged right at the beginning of the qualitative part of the inquiry when a speech therapist colleague stated that the successful integration/inclusion of anxious dyslexic students depended on several factors, including the motivation of these students. Conversely, qualitative data showed that EFL classroom practices consisted of several activities that discouraged anxious dyslexic students from participating.

Few teachers managed to motivate their anxious dyslexic students to become successful learners or at least avoid failures. Data reported by teachers also revealed that dyslexic students repeatedly failed in their language learning, making them stop learning. The definitions of success for anxious dyslexic students may range from objective criteria, such as passing exams, to subjective criteria, such as positive experiences, not dropping out of the foreign language course, or not being partially or fully exempted from language learning. The data also indicated that for dyslexic students, success may be short-lived. EFL teachers also note that some anxious dyslexic students brought encouragement from home. Motivating family support could lead to successful integration/inclusion, even if EFL teachers' classroom practices lack motivation or peer motivation. According to data reported by EFL teachers, some peers laugh at or ridicule anxious dyslexic students and consider them a nuisance. Meaningful and engaging tasks, however, improved students' performance and prevented their withdrawal from classroom activities in line with the recommendations of Kontra (2019).

8.1.5 The classroom environment

EFL teachers gave a detailed account of their efforts to create a welcoming and supportive classroom environment. Data also revealed that positive teacher-learner relationships as well as peer relationships contributed to a language-teaching atmosphere that emotionally served the needs of anxious dyslexic learners, a finding which aligns with the literature (Jin & Dewaele, 2018). Thus, the classroom learning environment is primarily a result of the relationship between the learners and the EFL teacher. The participating teachers reported that they were able to manage the anxiety levels of their students in the EFL classroom by various methods, such as exercises or breathing techniques. Teachers viewed several practices as highly conducive to effective instruction: starting the lesson by clarifying the rules of interaction; maintaining firm, fair, and consistent classroom management; organising group and pair work alongside thoughtful classroom layout; and, when deemed necessary, the use of the mother tongue. In one school, the administration provided new furniture or flooring for one classroom per year. Most institutions, however, did not report such school-level support.

8.1.6 The language teaching context and cooperation with teacher colleagues, support staff

The wider context of language teaching, particularly the school, is one of the main contextual factors. The language teaching context, that is, the school climate, is strongly influenced by the support EFL teachers and support staff receive from the school management. Based on their reported practice, management saw themselves as supportive, while the level of supportiveness of headmasters or deputy headmasters varied among EFL teachers. Some heads of the institutions were seen as helpful and willing to assist, whenever approached, or the institution was perceived as completely open and supportive of the support program they were operating. Supportive headmasters/deputy headmasters made specific suggestions to EFL teachers, were available for

consultation about the challenges that EFL teachers experienced or developed the accessibility of the physical environment of the school. Based on the data reported, the headmaster/deputy headmaster can make school-wide training, such as the 'learning to learn' program, available to the community, improve the accessibility of the physical environment of the school, and provide a language assistant.

Data shows that while some schools achieve access and inclusion, most have integrative rather than inclusive settings: "Integration is about admitting special needs learners into the existing mainstream classroom settings. Inclusion… the classroom is improved and redesigned in such a way that it can accommodate the needs of all learners" (Nagyné Nyikes, 2019, p. 15). The role of the class teacher is also of paramount importance in creating the language teaching context.

Cooperation between teaching colleagues, supporting staff, and parents is key to teaching dyslexic students and managing their anxiety in successful examples. There is a lack of collaboration among colleagues, and support from parents and school management varies greatly. Aiming to include students with different abilities, such as anxious dyslexic students, could lead to interprofessional cooperation. In two schools, inter- and intra-professional collaboration worked well and strengthened teachers' ability and commitment to provide the appropriate support for students in need without judgment and normalisation. This finding aligns with the findings that advocate collaboration with school-based special needs professionals when teaching stressed dyslexic students (Kontráné Hegybíró & Kormos, 2008).

When revisiting the research question about teaching practices that contribute to the success of dealing with dyslexic students' foreign language anxiety in EFL classes in Hungary, it is found that EFL teachers teach cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, including preparation, breaking down a task into manageable chunks, affective strategies such as showing

compassion, consoling students, and using coping strategies, so that they facilitate their anxious dyslexic students' self-management skills and self-efficacy. These strategies are combined with teaching methods such as differentiation, multisensory language approaches, and extra classes to help minimise the FLA of the students with dyslexia if they want them to succeed. Dealing with anxious dyslexic students does not require a new teaching method, but combining cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and coping strategies—and if possible, teaching these strategies to students— with the right teaching methods for dyslexia and creating a learning environment where the teacher is a facilitator to student learning in a stress-free environment with lots of practice opportunities. The rules of the language group community are established from day one. The teachers' work is supported by a teaching assistant and the support staff, a developmental teacher, speech therapists, and school psychologists.

EFL teachers must be prepared for growing numbers of anxious dyslexic students in language learning groups, and these EFL teachers must be properly trained on student needs at the general level, at the level of the individual student. Moreover, EFL teachers should possess psychological competencies to deal with the anxiety of all learners, not only those of the dyslexic ones. Should the teacher be unable to cater for the needs and anxiety of these students, all the students might suffer because situations can arise when students react to the tension between the teacher and the students or between peers.

The results show that there is a discrepancy between the theory of creating an inclusive language teaching environment and its implementation in EFL classrooms. While quantitative data showed that teachers agreed on the use and effectiveness of anxiety-reducing strategies, qualitative data from interviews and observations found that teachers use various strategies to decrease student anxiety, but do not consistently teach strategies to students to manage their own foreign language

anxiety. This suggests that participating teachers focus more on dealing with the anxiety of their dyslexic students rather than empowering them with self-management skills so that anxious learners can be helped to build narratives from their experiences to process them and manage anxiety at this narrative level (Şimşek & Dörnyei, 2017).

Data from the questionnaire study showed the strongest correlation between identifying dyslexic learners who experience anxiety and the implementation of strategies aimed at reducing this anxiety, which was supported by qualitative data. Most participating teachers in the interview and observations study who recognised the needs of anxious dyslexic learners did their best to create supportive learning environments. The findings suggest that EFL teachers create supportive environments by establishing classroom rules and using technology. This is in line with Kormos and Smith (2012), who recommend using technological devices including interactive whiteboards and other forms of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) for effective and stress-free ways to teach vocabulary and grammar items. Other ways to create supportive environments included allowing for mistakes, adopting caring attitudes, and providing practice opportunities. Challenges faced by EFL teachers included a lack of cooperation with parents and limited support from school management.

Moreover, the study revealed that participants had different levels of understanding of what the definition of success means for anxious dyslexic students. Definitions range from objective criteria such as passing exams to subjective criteria such as positive student experiences, not dropping out of the foreign language course, or being partially or fully exempted from language learning. It was also highlighted that any success for dyslexic students may be temporary. Another remarkable outcome of the dissertation project is that dyslexia training did not make teachers more

capable of teaching anxiety-reducing strategies to dyslexic students, which indicates that dyslexia training may not fully address the issue of foreign language learning anxiety.

Strategies and practices emerging from the dissertation project resonated with previous research on inclusive practices. For instance, studies by Price (1991) or Pan and Zhang (2021) highlighted the importance of supportive classroom atmospheres and positive relationships between teachers and students (Lombardi et al., 2019), which seemed more relevant for anxious students with dyslexia (Daloiso, 2017). Furthermore, multisensory language approaches (Nijakowska, 2008, 2010; Schneider & Crombie, 2003; Sparks et al., 1998), supportive teaching methods (Kormos et al., 2009a) and formative assessment practices (Rapp, 2014) also aligned with previous findings.

Overall, the results of the dissertation indicate that there is room for improvement in terms of how teachers address the needs of anxious dyslexic students within mainstream educational settings. The findings of this dissertation research will provide a model for engaging and teaching anxious dyslexic learners and map out areas for future research to better support EFL teachers.

9 Limitations and future research

As with any study, the present dissertation research has certain limitations. The primary limitation has to do with the COVID-19 pandemic. Data collection had to be postponed due to the restrictions and lockdowns. Since it was not possible to conduct onsite classroom observations until September 2021, my dissertation research was significantly delayed. This resulted in an extension of the data collection phase beyond the projected timeline, with a corresponding reduction in the time available for the writing-up process. Another limitation of my dissertation study is related to the quantitative part. Specifically, two constructs of the measuring survey instrument needed improvement to avoid their removal from the first strand of the research, which is the quantitative part. This limitation of the questionnaire needs to be considered in case it is to be used in further studies.

There were further limitations related to the locations and type of schools regarding the samples. Further research could include the South of Hungary geographically and study other types of schools, not only primary schools. This would offer richer data on managing the anxiety of dyslexic learners in the public education context. Moreover, instead of the cross-sectional data collection—collecting data at a specific point in time; longitudinal research—repeatedly collecting data from the same participants over an extended period of time could help to determine if inclusive teaching strategies, methods, and practices can make a difference over time in dealing with the emotions of foreign language learning.

Further qualitative inquiries are needed to gain insights into the professional development of EFL teachers. This dissertation research focused on what the institution and EFL teachers can do to break down barriers for dyslexic learners with anxiety. The focus of the inquiry was on teachers. As for a learner perspective, a questionnaire study involving primary school students

would provide more generalizable information on the impact of anxiety on L2 learning processes, which would broaden the scope of the study. A qualitative systematic analysis could be conducted to understand the perspectives and experiences of anxious dyslexic students.

The transferability of the findings of the present dissertation research are limited by the sample, as these findings may not be transferable to all school contexts. Nevertheless, the dissertation's findings can be useful for the foreign language teaching context both in and outside of Hungary. The emerging model of teaching anxious dyslexic learners in the language classroom model can inform teacher training programs on the importance of both cognitive factors, such as learning about dyslexia, and on affective factors, such as giving emotional support. The insights gained into the perspectives of the EFL teachers, support staff, and school management and the process of making sense of the collected data, allow for a deeper understanding of the structured support system that needs to be implemented for the teaching of anxious dyslexic students. By using both qualitative and quantitative inquiries, we can better identify the most effective practices and include, not just integrate, anxious dyslexic students in foreign language courses.

The transferability of the findings may also be limited due to the unique characteristics of the Hungarian school system and participant demographics. It was challenging to find male EFL teachers willing to participate in the interviews and observations. Therefore, the findings may not be transferable to all school contexts. Nevertheless, they can still be used in the context of foreign language teaching. The data collected provides a comprehensive understanding through complementary qualitative and quantitative perspectives.

10 Pedagogical Implications and Novelty

This chapter discusses the implications of the dissertation project findings. The implications from the dissertation project are discussed. The findings have the potential to inform EFL teaching practice, EFL teacher training, institutional management, support staff, and decision–makers. The model of teaching anxious dyslexic learners emerged with cognitive, affective, and collaborative dimensions. The cognitive understanding of dyslexia, the affective recognition of anxiety, and a collaborative approach among the stakeholders are the key elements of this comprehensive framework. The novelty of this dissertation lies in a model that integrates the cognitive dimensions of dyslexia with the affective dimension of anxiety in language learning — a combination that earlier frameworks largely overlooked. In doing so, the model advances a more holistic conceptual framework for understanding the interplay between language-learning difficulties and their emotional aspects. The model addresses pedagogical, methodological, and theoretical considerations, which will be explained in the next three paragraphs.

10.1 Pedagogical considerations for EFL teaching practices

As far as pedagogical considerations are concerned, teachers should be aware that anxious dyslexic learners may be silent or may opt for withdrawing from language learning activities in their EFL classrooms. For EFL teachers, it is vital to recognize language processing difficulties and different manifestations of FLCA. The shared understanding of cognitive and affective aspects of learning and teaching represent the pedagogical implications of the study and the emerging model. Teachers who recognise language barriers associated with dyslexia and the signs of anxiety can address them both by employing structured classroom practices, anxiety-reducing strategies such as reframing mistakes as well as giving supportive feedback. These considerations include

both general classroom-level practices that reduce anxiety for all learners and individualized support strategies to meet the socio-affective and learning needs of dyslexic students.

10.2 Methodological Implications: Teacher Training

The methodological implications follow pedagogical considerations. The results and model indicate that teachers should be trained on both the cognitive and affective aspects of the language teaching and learning at the theoretical and practical levels. Knowledge on individual differences, neurodiversity, and the psychology of language learning classrooms and practical skills such as conflict resolution, and communication with parents or colleagues during the process of language teaching could contribute to more efficient EFL learner experience. Teacher training degree courses should prepare professionals to assess the learner's context, learner weaknesses and strengths, learner's needs, and emotional aspects of teaching a diverse student body. Additionally, the model underlines the methodological importance of networking and collaboration in the institutions. A network of teachers that collaborate could address the needs of anxious dyslexic learners more effectively than those who cannot turn to their colleagues for help. Cooperation among school support staff and EFL teachers could further enhance the effectiveness of including these anxious dyslexic students and manage their emotional experience. When school management supports initiatives that empower neurodivergent learners with anxiety, it can lead to fuller inclusion.

10.3 Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, the model of teaching anxious dyslexic learners challenges the views on cognitive and affective processes in EFL contexts. Traditionally, dyslexia and anxiety are understood as separate categories, cognitive and affective categories. The model indicates that

these categories interact dynamically. Framing EFL teaching as an interconnected system can shape L2 learning and teaching theories.

To conclude, an understanding of individual differences and the acquisition of methods, techniques, and strategies are crucial to accommodate the needs of dyslexic students with anxiety. The dissertation study has pedagogical, methodological, and theoretical implications for language teachers, school management, and decision-makers. Culturally relevant and inclusive teaching practices may be appreciated by learners.

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Appendices

Appendix A: The English translation of the questionnaire for teachers

Experiences of primary school English language teachers on reducing language anxiety of dyslexic language learners

Dear Colleague!

My name is Natália Nagyné Nyikes, I am a doctoral student of the Doctoral Program in Language Pedagogy at the Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology of Eötvös Loránd University.

I would like to ask you to fill out the following questionnaire for my doctoral dissertation. The aim is to explore the challenges primary school teachers of English face and the good practices of dealing with anxious dyslexic language learners.

It takes a maximum of 10-15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers. The success of my research depends on how honestly you answer the questions.

Thank you so much for your kind help.

Natália Nagyné Nyikes

e-mail: nyikesn@ceu.edu , phone : +36 20 5489898.

I. **In the following sections, you will find statements that are true for some respondents and not for others. Please put an X in the box that best expresses to what extent the statement is true of you. For example, if you really like dancing, put an X in the last box:**

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	not true of me at all	**not really true of me**	**partly true, partly not true of me**	**quite true of me**	**very much true of me**
I really like dancing					**X**

	not true of me at all	**not really true of me**	**partly true, partly not true of me**	**quite true of me**	**very much true of me**
1. Usually I easily recognize signs of dyslexia in my students.					
2. I notice if a dyslexic learner is not simply nervous but anxious in the language lesson					
3. If an anxious dyslexic child joins my group, I know who to ask for help.					
4. I teach my students how to plan what and how to practice for the next class.					
5. I also incorporate language tasks that are based on movement into the language lesson.					
6. I feel I am pedagogically prepared to involve anxious dyslexic students in the work of the lesson.					
7. I make students aware of the importance of encouraging themselves.					
8. Whenever possible, I use word cards to teach vocabulary items					
9. I teach students to break down longer texts into smaller sections.					
10. Whenever possible, I use graphics and drawings to illustrate the curriculum.					
11. I teach students how to deal with stress when they have to say something very important in English.					
12. I have pedagogical tools to reduce the anxiety of dyslexic students.					
13. I notice if a dyslexic student is so anxious that they would prefer to stay away from the language lesson.					

II. **In the following, you will find statements that some respondents agree with, others do not. Please put an X in the box that best expresses to what extent you agree with the**

statement. For example, if you fully agree, it is very important to tell the truth, put X in the last cube:

	1	2	3	4	5
	I do not agree at all	**I disagree to a small extent**	**I partly agree, partly disagree**	**I agree to a small extent**	**I fully agree**
It is very important to tell the truth.					**X**

	I do not agree at all	**I disagree to a small extent**	**I partly agree, partly disagree**	**I agree to a small extent**	**I fully agree**
14. There are signs you can recognize if someone has dyslexia.					
15. I think it is the teacher's job to deal with dyslexic student anxiety in the language lesson.					
16. Anxiety often occurs together with dyslexia.					
17. It helps to talk to students about what they are afraid of in the language lessons.					
18. My dyslexic students are usually shy when they have to speak English in front of others.					
19. Group work can encourage students to speak more boldly in language lessons.					
20. It is the responsibility of the teacher to shape the curriculum to the individual needs of the students.					
21. It is mostly visible that a dyslexic learner is nervous.					
22. Pair work can encourage students to speak more boldly in language classes.					
23. It takes too much time to create individualized tasks.					
24. Dyslexic students are more afraid of being laughed at than others in the language lesson.					
25. It takes too much energy to pay attention to the individual needs of students.					

	I do not agree at all	**I disagree to a small extent**	**I partly agree, partly disagree**	**I agree to a small extent**	**I fully agree**
26. It is the teacher's job to foster collaboration between students in language classes.					
27. It is striking how scared my dyslexic students are if they don't understand what I'm asking them in English.					
28. In my opinion, pair work involves too much noise.					
29. My dyslexic students mostly panic when they have to speak unexpectedly in the lesson.					
30. In my opinion, teamwork involves too much noise.					
31. Some dyslexic students are so nervous in the foreign language lesson that they can't even say what I know they know.					

III. Finally, please kindly provide me with some information about yourself without giving your name. Put an X in the appropriate box or write the answer on the dots

32. Gender:

* male ☐
* female ☐

33. Age:.....

34. How long have you been teaching English in public education?.....

35. Type of school:

* primary school only ☐
* primary school with language or other specialization ☐

* primary and secondary school ☐

36. Type of settlement:

* Budapest ☐
* county seat ☐
* city ☐
* municipality ☐

37. What degree/s did you earn in the foreign language? Check the appropriate box(es):

* lower primary school teacher ☐
* 3-year single major ☐
* 4-year double major ☐
* Master of Arts degree with teaching qualifications ☐
* Master of Education ☐
* no foreign language teacher degree ☐
* other ☐,namely:.....

38. Which classes/years do you teach the foreign language? Check the appropriate one(s):

* class/year 1 ☐
* class/year 2 ☐
* class/year 3 ☐
* class/year 4 ☐
* class/year 5 ☐
* class/year 6 ☐
* class/year 7 ☐
* class/year 8 ☐
* class/year 9 ☐

* class/year 10 ☐
* class/year 11 ☐
* class/year 12 ☐

39. Have you read an article, a piece of research, or a book about dyslexic students?

(until the date of filling the questionnaire)

* yes ☐
* no ☐

If so, What? .....

40. Have you participated in a lecture, course or further training session on dyslexic students? (until the date of filling the questionnaire)

* yes ☐
* no ☐

If so, What ? .....

Thank you for sharing your experience and opinion in this questionnaire!

Appendix B: The English translation of the final version of the interview guide for teachers– translated from Hungarian

Interview questions /**Teachers**

Start recording. It's 22nd July 2021, and we're talking to English teacher from X Primary School.
Thank you again for taking the time for this interview. I would like to assure you that the research will be conducted completely anonymously, and neither the school nor your name will appear in any form in my dissertation..

I. Background information:
First I would like to ask you a few questions about yourself:
1. How many years have you been teaching English? How many years at this school?
2. Can you tell me what year you were born?
3. Where did you graduate? What subject? When?
4. How long have you known or perceived that there are students with SNI in your classes? Could you say that you have been prepared for this task (working with children who are out of the queue) during your studies? How?

5. Does your school provide opportunities for professional development in this area? Can you give an example? What kind of training would you like to go on, what would you need most?

II. Questions about students
1. How common is it to have children with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems in your groups?
2. Do you identify them yourself? Do you receive information from headtecher, /school psychologist/ development teacher/ speech therapist/parent)?
3. How can you tell if an underachieving student is not only lazy or not interested, but may have dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems? What are some of the difficulties these children have? At what grade level does this usually occur?
4. It is reported in the literature that pupils with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems not only get anxious in class, but also feel anxious. Do you agree with this? Do you experience this in English classes? Can you give examples from your own practice?
5. To what extent do you think it is the teacher's responsibility to recognise pupils with anxiety dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems?
6. What do you think might be the cause of this anxiety? Is it a major obstacle to children's language learning if they are overly anxious, embarrassed or distressed? Can this be addressed in class? How?
7. What is your opinion on partial or full exemption for such students?

III. Questions on teaching
1. Can you say where you would like to see your English teaching students at the end of grade 8 being good or average? By the age of 14, what would you be satisfied with?
2. In comparison, what would you consider a success for dyslexic students? And what would you consider a failure?
3. How far are you able to take into account the different needs of students with different abilities? How can you help? What has worked best? Can you list the methods that work for you? Did you invent these or did you learn them from someone else? What advice would you give to others/less experienced colleagues?
4. For better learners, is it not a problem for the teacher to deal with slower learners in class? How do you deal with this? Can you talk openly about this in class? What feedback do you get?
5. Does your school offer any extra remedial work (in language)? On a regular basis? Occasionally?
6. How can you help your pupils with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems to overcome anxiety? Have you read about methods that might be useful? Can you give examples?
7. How much do you cooperate with other English teachers, exchange materials, share methods, discuss problems? What institutional support do teachers receive in your school?
8. What is your experience of how useful group work or pair work is in overcoming anxiety for your students with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems?
9. How important do you think the learning environment is for children with anxiety? (classroom, group, seating)
10. Have you heard or read about strategies to reduce anxiety such as ... affective strategies - reducing language anxiety and encouraging oneself? Do you know or use them? What has worked best for you? List as many as you can.
11. What are your experiences of working with parents and family members?
12. If you could change anything about supporting language learning for students with anxiety dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems, what would it be?

Appendix C: The English translation of the final version of the interview guide for deputy heads – translated from Hungarian

Interview questions /**Deputy Heads**

Start recording. It's 22nd July 2021, and we're talking to Deputy Head from X Primary School.
Thank you again for taking the time for this interview. I would like to assure you that the research will be conducted completely anonymously, and neither the school nor your name will appear in any form in my dissertation.

I. Background information:
First I would like to ask you a few questions about yourself:
1. How many years have you been working as Deputy Head? How many years at this school?
2. Where did you graduate? What subject? When?
3. Can you tell me what year you were born?

II. Questions about students. As mentioned, my doctoral research focuses on dyslexic language learners, with particular emphasis on the phenomenon of anxiety experienced by them, so my questions mainly focus on this.

4. Could you tell us what percentage of students at your school have special educational needs, including those with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems?
5.To the layman, it seems as if the number of these students is increasing; is this your experience as well?
6.What is your practice for diagnosing students?
7.We often hear that it is only very late, often when a child starts learning a foreign language, that it is discovered that their problems are caused by dyslexia. What is your practice: do teachers report problems when they see them, or do parents come forward?
8.Is there a school psychologist/speech therapist at the school who works with dyslexic students? What is their role?
9. There are certainly special education teachers at the school. What is their role? Which grades do they work with?
10. If a language teacher encounters a student with anxiety-related dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems in their language classes, who can they turn to for support? What is the procedure?
11. What institutional opportunities are there for support classes in foreign languages? Occasionally? Regularly?
12. Have there been any training courses organized for teachers on students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems and effective teaching methods?
13.Do you order foreign language textbooks for your students centrally? Are you able to take into account the different needs of your students?
14.In your school, do you find that it is more of an advantage or a disadvantage for students to be able to prove that they are dyslexic?
15.What is your policy on exempting students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems from language classes?
16 Have you ever encountered a case where a dyslexic student was exempted from foreign language classes because they were extremely anxious?
17.What is your experience of working with parents and family members?
18.In your opinion, are the language teachers at your school professionally prepared to deal with anxious dyslexic students or students with dyslexia-related problems?
19.If you could change one thing about the language learning support provided to anxious dyslexic students or students with dyslexia-like problems, what would it be?

Appendix D: The English translation of the final version of the interview guide for support staff – translated from Hungarian

Interview questions /**School psychologists/speech therapists/developmental teachers**

Start recording. It's 22nd July 2021, and we're talking to developmental teacher from X Primary School.
Thank you again for taking the time for this interview. I would like to assure you that the research will be conducted completely anonymously, and neither the school nor your name will appear in any form in my dissertation.

I. Background information:
First I would like to ask you a few questions about yourself:
1. How many years have you been working as ? How many years at this school?
2. Where did you graduate? What subject? When?
3. Can you tell me what year you were born?

II. Questions about students. As mentioned, my doctoral research focuses on dyslexic language learners, with particular emphasis on the phenomenon of anxiety experienced by them, so my questions mainly focus on this.

4. Could you tell me what percentage of students at your school have special educational needs, including those with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems?
5. To the layman, it seems as if the number of these students is increasing; is this your experience? What could be the reason for this?
6. What is your practice? How do students get diagnosed?
7.In your school, do you find that it is more of an advantage (e.g., discounts) or a disadvantage (stigmatization, ridicule, changing schools) for students if they can prove that they are dyslexic?
8. As a school psychologist/speech therapist/developmental teacher, what exactly is your role here at the school, what tasks do you perform?
9 What difficulties do students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems and their teachers report when learning a foreign language?
10. How often do you observe signs of anxiety in students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems? Can you determine in which classes this occurs more frequently; can we say that it is particularly noticeable in foreign language classes? How disorderly, how quiet, how visible are the various signs of anxiety in these students?
11.Do parents often complain that their dyslexic children or children with dyslexia-like problems do not want to come to school (they have headaches, sore throats, stomach aches) when they have foreign language classes? (What about Hungarian language classes?)
12. What advice do you usually give to students, parents, and colleagues to help them overcome anxiety?
13 How common is it for students with dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems to be diagnosed late (e.g., only when they start learning a language)? Is it still possible to provide remedial classes in such cases? How?
14. What is your experience of working with parents and family members?
15.If you could change something about the support given to anxious dyslexic students or students with dyslexia-like problems in language learning, what would it be?
16. What is your opinion on exemption from foreign language learning? What is your experience in this regard?
17. To what extent is it possible to cooperate with teachers, including language teachers, and to seek their advice?
18. How are individual development plans for students created at school? Could you describe the process for me?
19. Do you know of any exemplary initiatives at the local or other levels that aim to help students with anxiety-related dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems?
20. What publications would you recommend to help students with anxiety-related dyslexia or dyslexia-like problems?

Appendix E: The English translation of the final version of the observation guide – translated from Hungarian

1. School:

2. Lesson details:

(a) Type of school:

(b) Year:

(c) Number:

(d) Subject:

(e) Topic:

(f) Date of visit (year, day, which lesson during the day):

3. Lesson objectives:

4. The overall classroom environment. Is it conducive for learning?

5. The pace of the class. How did this contribute to learning?

6. Pedagogical aspects:

(a) Instances when teacher addresses the needs of dyslexic learner/learner showing dyslexic symptoms:

(b) Instances when teacher addresses the foreign language anxiety of dyslexic learner/learner showing dyslexic symptoms:

7. Classroom management:

(a) Classroom organization:

(b) Multisensory methods:

(c) Teaching material and technical equipment:

(d) Teacher motivational strategies:

(e) Differentiating classroom instruction:

(f) Anxiety-reducing strategies:

8. To what extent has the lesson accomplished its objective?

9. Other remarks:

Appendix F: The English translation of the email message sent to schools with the questionnaire for teachers and the cover letter that accompanied the message – translated from Hungarian

Dear Director,

My name is Natália Nyikes, and I have earned my degree as a secondary school English teacher. I am currently studying for a PhD in Language Education at the Faculty of Education and Psychology at Eötvös Loránd University.

For several years I have worked in secondary school language education and language schools, and I am currently working at a university.

As part of my doctoral studies, which I am pursuing alongside my work, I am researching the language teaching methods of Hungarian English teachers in upper elementary school classes.

I kindly ask you to support my questionnaire-based research and forward the attached cover letter to your English-teaching colleagues at your school.

The questionnaire takes only 10-15 minutes to complete. Completing the questionnaire is voluntary, completely anonymous, and does not entail any other obligations.

The questionnaire is available at the following link: https://forms.gle/2v4n3U51b2TJTSWy5. For your information, I have also attached a Word document to this message.

If you have any questions regarding the questionnaire, please feel free to contact me at the following email address: nyikesn@ceu.edu or at the following phone number: +36 20 5489898.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely

Natália Nagyné Nyikes

Natália Nyikes PhD questionnaire: Cover letter

My name is Natália Nyikes, and I am a doctoral student in the Language Education Program at the Faculty of Education and Psychology at Eötvös Loránd University. I would like to ask you to complete the following questionnaire for a research project that is part of my doctoral dissertation. The title of the questionnaire is: The experiences of English teachers in Hungarian primary schools in reducing the anxiety of dyslexic students in language classes. The aim of the research is to identify good practices among English teachers in Hungarian primary schools and to explore the challenges they face when working with anxious dyslexic students. If you have had upper-grade students with dyslexia or dyslexia-related problems, please take the time to complete the questionnaire below.

The questionnaire takes only 10-15 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer honestly, as this is the only way to ensure the success of the research. I am aware that the end of the 2019/2020 school year is a busy time for you, but I trust that you will be able to find the time to respond.

The questionnaire is available electronically at https://forms.gle/2v4n3U51b2TJTSWy5 or as a Word document attached to an email sent to the school principal. Data protection: By clicking on the link to the questionnaire, you acknowledge that you have read, understood, and accepted the following information regarding the questionnaire:

• I am aware that this questionnaire is voluntary and anonymous and that no specific personal data or information that could be used for identification purposes will be collected.

• I agree to participate in the questionnaire and consent to the use of the summarized results in a doctoral dissertation.

• I am aware that I can change my mind at any time and withdraw from completing the questionnaire.

Questions, results

The results of the research will be published in a summarized, anonymous form (without specific personal data or information that could be used to identify individuals) in the doctoral dissertation. If you have any questions regarding your rights in participating in the questionnaire or the administration of the questionnaire, please feel free to contact me at the following email address: nyikesn@ceu.edu or at the following telephone number: +36 20 5489898. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely, Natália Nagyné Nyikes Doctoral Student, Eötvös Loránd University

Appendix G: The original questionnaire for teachers – in Hungarian

A magyarországi általános iskolában tanító angol nyelvtanárok tapasztalatai a diszlexiás diákok nyelvórai szorongásának csökkentéséről

Tisztelt Kolléga!

Nagyné Nyikes Natáliának hívnak, az Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem Pedagógiai és Pszichológiai Kar Nyelvpedagógia Doktori Program doktori hallgatója vagyok.

Szeretném felkérni Önt az alábbi kérdőív kitöltésére, mely kutatás a doktori értekezésem számára készül, és célja a hazai általános iskolában tanító angol nyelvtanárok által tapasztalt kihívásoknak és a kialakított jó gyakorlatoknak feltárása a szorongó diszlexiás diákok vonatkozásában.

A kérdőív kitöltése legfeljebb 10-15 percet vesz igénybe. Nincsenek jó vagy rossz válaszok. Kérem válaszoljon őszintén, mert csak így lesz sikeres a kutatás.

Jóindulatú segítségét előre is nagyon köszönöm.

Nagyné Nyikes Natália
e-mail: nyikesn@ceu.edu, tel.:+36 20 5489898.

I. **A következőkben olyan állításokat talál, melyek egyes válaszadókra igazak, másokra nem. Kérem, tegyen X-et abba a kockába, amelyik legjobban kifejezi, mennyire igaz az állítás az Ön esetében. Például, ha nagyon szeret táncolni, tegyen X-et az utolsó kockába:**

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	egyáltalán nem igaz rám	**kis mértékben nem igaz rám**	**részben igaz, részben nem igaz rám**	**kis mértékben igaz rám**	**teljes mértékben igaz rám**
Nagyon szeretek táncolni					**X**

	egyáltalán nem igaz rám	**kis mértékben nem igaz rám**	**részben igaz, részben nem igaz rám**	**kis mértékben igaz rám**	**teljes mértékben igaz rám**
32. Általában könnyen felismerem a diszlexia jeleit a diákjaimon.					
33. Észreveszem, ha a diszlexiás tanuló nem egyszerűen izgul, hanem szorong a nyelvi órán.					
34. Ha szorongó diszlexiás gyerek kerül a csoportomba, tudom, kitől kérjek segítséget.					
35. Megtanítom a diákokat arra, hogy tervezzék meg, hogy mit és hogyan gyakoroljanak a következő órára.					
36. Olyan nyelvi feladatot is beépítek az órába, mely a mozgásra épül.					

	egyáltalán nem igaz rám	**kis mértékben nem igaz rám**	**részben igaz, részben nem igaz rám**	**kis mértékben igaz rám**	**teljes mértékben igaz rám**
37. Pedagógiailag fel vagyok készülve, hogy a szorongó diszlexiás diákokat bevonjam az órai munkába.					
38. Tudatosítom a diákokban, milyen fontos önmaguk bátorítása.					
39. Amikor csak lehet, a szavak tanításához szókártyákat használok.					
40. Megtanítom a diákokat arra, hogy a hosszabb szövegeket kisebb részekre bontva olvassák el.					
41. Amikor csak lehet, illusztrációk, rajzok segítségével szemléltetem a tananyagot.					
42. Megtanítom a diákokat arra, hogy hogyan kezeljék a stresszt, amikor valami nagyon fontos dolgot kell angolul mondaniuk.					
43. Vannak pedagógiai eszközeim arra, hogy csökkentsem a diszlexiás diákok szorongását.					
44. Észreveszem, ha a diszlexiás tanuló annyira szorong, hogy leginkább távolmaradna a nyelvórától.					

II. **A következőkben olyan állításokat talál, melyekkel egyes válaszadók egyetértenek, mások nem. Kérem, tegyen X-et abba a kockába, amelyik legjobban kifejezi, mennyire ért Ön egyet az állítással. Például, ha teljesen egyet ért azzal, nagyon fontos igazat mondani, tegyen X-et az utolsó kockába:**

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	egyáltalánnem értek egyet	**kis mértékben nem értek egyet**	**részben egyetértek, részben nem**	**kis mértékbe negyetértek**	**teljes mértékbe negyetértek**
Nagyon fontos igazat mondani					**X**

	egyáltalán nem értek egyet	**kis mértékben nem értek egyet**	**részben egyetértek, részben nem**	**kis mértékben egyetértek**	**teljes mértékben egyetértek**
45. Vannak felismerhető jelei annak, ha valaki diszlexiás.					
46. Úgy gondolom a tanár feladata azzal foglalkozni, hogy a diszlexiás tanuló szorong a nyelvórán.					
47. A szorongás gyakori kísérője a diszlexiának.					
48. Segít, ha beszélünk a diákokkal arról, hogy mitől félnek a nyelvórákon.					
49. A diszlexiás diákjaim általában félénkek mikor angolul kell beszélniük a többiek előtt.					
50. Csoportmunkával ösztönözni lehet a diákokat, hogy bátrabban beszéljenek a nyelvórán.					
51. A tanár feladata, hogy a tanulók egyéni igényeihez formálja a tananyagot.					
52. Azt, hogy a diszlexiás diák izgul, többnyire lehet látni.					
53. Pármunkával ösztönözni lehet a diákokat, hogy bátrabban szólaljanak meg a nyelvórán.					
54. Túl sok időt igényel egyénre szabott feladatokat készíteni.					
55. A diszlexiás diákok jobban tartanak attól, hogy kinevetik őket, mint a többiek.					
56. Túl sok energia-befektetés a tanulók egyéni igényeire odafigyelni.					
57. A tanár feladata, hogy a diákok közötti együttműködést kialakítsa a nyelvórákon.					
58. Feltűnő, hogy a diszlexiás diákjaim mennyire megijednek, ha nem értik, amit angolul kérdezek tőlük.					
59. Megítélésem szerint a pármunka túl sok zajjal jár.					

	egyáltalán nem értek egyet	**kis mértékben nem értek egyet**	**részben egyetértek, részben nem**	**kis mértékben egyetértek**	**teljes mértékben egyetértek**
60. A diszlexiás diákjaim többnyire pánikba esnek, ha váratlanul meg kell szólalniuk a nyelvórán.					
61. Megítélésem szerint a csoportmunka túl sok zajjal jár.					
62. Némelyik diszlexiás tanuló annyira izgul az idegen nyelvi órán, hogy azt sem képes kimondani, amit tudom, hogy tud.					

III. Kérem, végül adjon meg név nélkül néhány információt saját magáról. A megfelelő kockába tegyen egy X-et, vagy írja a választ a kipontozott helyre.

32. Neme:

* férfi ☐
* nő ☐

33. Életkora:.....

34. Hány éve tanít idegen nyelvet a közoktatásban?.....

35. Iskolája típusa:

* általános iskola ☐
* tagozatos általános iskola ☐
* általános iskola és középiskola ☐

36. Állandó lakóhelye:

* főváros ☐
* megyeszékhely ☐

* város ☐
* község ☐

37. Milyen szakon szerzett diplomát/diplomákat az idegen nyelvből? Jelölje be a megfelelőt/megfelelőket:

* tanítói ☐
* 3 éves egyszakos főiskolai ☐
* 4 éves, kétszakos főiskolai ☐
* bölcsész és tanári ☐
* osztatlan tanári ☐
* nincs nyelvtanári képesítésem ☐
* egyéb ☐, mégpedig:.....

38. Hányadik osztályosokat szokott tanítani idegen nyelvre? Jelölje be a megfelelőt/megfelelőket:

* 1.osztály ☐
* 2.osztály ☐
* 3.osztály ☐
* 4.osztály ☐
* 5.osztály ☐
* 6.osztály ☐
* 7.osztály ☐
* 8.osztály ☐
* 9.osztály ☐
* 10.osztály ☐
* 11.osztály ☐
* 12.osztály ☐

39. Olvasott-e diszlexiás tanulókkal foglalkozó cikket, kutatást, vagy könyvet?

(a kérdőív kitöltésének időpontjáig)

* igen ☐

* nem ☐

Ha igen, Mit? .....

40. Rész vett-e diszlexiás tanulókkal foglalkozó előadáson, kurzuson vagy továbbképzésen? (a kérdőív kitöltésének időpontjáig)

* igen ☐

* nem ☐

Ha igen, Milyenen? .....

Köszönöm, hogy megosztotta tapasztalatait, véleményét ebben a kérdőívben!

Appendix H: The final version of the interview guide for teachers – in Hungarian

Interjúkérdések magyarul /**tanár**

Felvétel indul. Rámondani: 2021. jumi.22.-a van, P M *angoltanárnővel beszélgetünk, a H Általános Iskola és Alapfokú Művészeti Iskola Iskolából.*
Mégegyszer Köszönöm, hogy vállalkoztál erre az interjúra. Szeretnélek biztosítani arról, hogy a kutatás feldolgozása teljesen anonim módon történik, sem az iskola, sem a Te neved semmilyen formában nem fog megjelenni a disszertációmban.

I. Háttér-információk:
Először Rólad kérdeznék néhány dolgot:

1. *Hány éve tanítasz angolt? Hány éve ebben az iskolában?*
2. *Elárulnád, hogy hányban születtél?*
3. *Hol végeztél? Milyen szakon? Mikor?*
4. *Mióta tudod vagy érzékeled, hogy vannak SNI-s diákok a csoportjaidban? Mondhatjuk, hogy a tanulmányaid során felkészítést kaptál erre a feladatra (a sorból kilógó gyerekekkel való foglalkozásra)? Hogyan?*
5. *Itt az iskolában biztosítanak lehetőséget az ilyen irányú szakmai fejlődésre? Tudnál példát mondani? Milyen továbbképzésre mennél el szívesen, mire lenne leginkább szükséged?*

II. Diákokra vonatkozó kérdések

6. *Mennyire jellemző az, hogy diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő gyerekek vannak a csoportjaidban?*
7. *Ezt Te veszed észre, vagy kapsz tájékoztatást előre (ofő/ig./iskolapszichológus/ fejlesztőpedagógus/logopédus/szülő)?*
8. *Te miből látod, ha egy alulteljesítő diák nem csak lusta vagy nem érdeklődő, hanem esetleg diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémái lehetnek? Milyen nehézségek jellemzik ezeket a gyerekeket? Ez hányadik osztályban szokott előfordulni?*
9. *A szakirodalomban azt írják, hogy a diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő tanulók nemcsak izgulnak az órán, hanem kifejezetten szoronganak. Egyetértesz ezzel? Te is tapasztalsz ilyesmit az angolórákon? Tudnál példákat mondani a saját gyakorlatodból?*

10. *Szerinted mennyire a tanár feladata, hogy felismerje a szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő tanulókat?*
11. *Véleményed szerint mi lehet az oka ennek a szorongásnak? Nagyon hátráltatja a gyerekek nyelvtanulását az, ha túlzottan izgulnak, zavarban vannak, vagy szoronganak? Lehet ezt az órán kezelni? Hogyan?*
12. *Mi a véleményed a részleges vagy teljes felmentésről az ilyen diákok esetében?*

III. A tanításra vonatkozó kérdések

13. *Meg tudnád fogalmazni, hogy az angoltanításban hová szeretnéd eljuttatni a jó vagy az átlagos tanulóidat a 8. osztály végére? 14 eves korukra Mivel lennél elégedett?*
14. *Ehhez képest mit tartanál sikernek a diszlexiás diákok esetében? És mit tartanál kudarcnak?*
15. *Mennyire van lehetőséged figyelembe venni a különböző képességekkel rendelkező diákok eltérő igényeit? Hogyan tudsz segíteni? Mi vált be a legjobban? Fel tudnád sorolni, hogy milyen módszerek válnak be Neked? Ezeket Te találtad ki, vagy tanultad valakitől? Mit tanácsolnál másoknak/tapasztalatlanabb kollégáknak?*
16. *A jobb tanulók számára nem okoz problémát, ha a tanár a lassabban tanulókkal foglalkozik az órán? Ezt hogyan szoktad kezelni? Lehet erről nyíltan beszélni az osztályban? Milyen visszajelzést szoktál kapni?*
17. *Van az iskolában lehetőség külön felzárkóztató foglalkoztatásra (mármint nyelvből)? Rendszeresen? Alkalmanként?*
18. *Hogyan tudsz segíteni a szorongás leküzdésében a diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő tanítványaidnak? Olvastál olyan módszerekről, melyek hasznosak lehetnének? Tudnál példát mondani?*
19. *Mennyire szoktatok kooperálni a többi angoltanárral, anyagokat cserélni, módszereket megosztani, problémákat megbeszélni? Milyen intézményi támogatást kapnak az iskolában a tanárok?*
20. *Mi a tapasztalatod, mennyire hasznos a csoportmunka vagy pármunka a szorongás leküzdésében a diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő tanítványaid esetében?*
21. *Mi a véleményed, mennyire fontos a szorongó gyerekek számára az, hogy milyen a tanulási környezetük? (tanterem, csoport, ültetés)*
22. *Hallottál vagy olvastál esetleg szorongásoldó stratégiákról mint például **...** az affektív stratégiák – a nyelvi szorongás csökkentése és önmagunk bátorítása? Ismersz vagy használsz ilyeneket? Mi vált be a legjobban? Sorolj fel amennyit csak tudsz.*
23. *Milyen tapasztalataid vannak a szülőkkel, családtagokkal történő együttműködésben?*
24. *Ha meg tudnál változtatni valamit a szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok nyelvtanulásának támogatásával kapcsolatban, mi lenne az?*

Appendix I: The final version of the interview guide for deputy heads – in Hungarian

Interjúkérdések magyarul **/intézményvezető-helyettes**

Felvétel indul. Rámondani: 2021. Február 19-e van, S LM a C Általános Iskola Ált Isk intézményvezető-helyettesével beszélgetek .
Köszönöm, hogy vállalkozott erre az interjúra. Szeretném biztosítani arról, hogy a kutatás feldolgozása teljesen anonim módon történik, sem az iskola, sem az Ön és kollégái neve semmilyen formában nem fog megjelenni a disszertációmban.

I. Háttér-információk:

1. *Először Önről kérdeznék néhány dolgot:*
2. *Hány éve dolgozik intézményvezetőként/ intézményvezető-helyettesként ebben az iskolában?*
3. *Milyen szakos tanár? Megkérdezhetem, hogy hol végzett és mikor?*
4. *Elárulná, hogy hányban született?*

II Diákokra vonatkozó kérdések: Amint említettem, a doktori kutatásom a diszlexiás nyelvtanulókra irányul, különös tekintettel a náluk tapasztalható szorongás jelenségére, ezért a kérdéseim főként erre irányulnak.

5. *Meg tudná mondani, hogy az iskolában körülbelül milyen arányban fordulnak elő SNI-s tanulók, azon belül is diszlexiás vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő gyerekek?*
6. *A laikus ember számára úgy tűnik, mintha ezeknek a tanulóknak a száma egyre növekedne; Ön is így tapasztalja?*
7. *Önöknél mi a gyakorlat, hogyan jutnak el a tanulók a diagnózisig?*
8. *Sokat hallani arról, hogy valakinek csak egészen későn, gyakran csak az idegennyelv-tanulás kezdetekor fedezik fel, hogy a problémái diszlexiából adódnak. Önöknél mi a gyakorlat, a tanárok jelzik, ha problémát látnak, vagy a szülők jelentkeznek?*
9. *Van az iskolában iskolapszichológus/logopédus aki foglalkozik a diszlexiás tanulókkal? Mi az ő szerepük?*
10. *Bizonyára vannak fejlesztőpedagógusok az iskolában. Mi az ő szerepük? Hányadik osztályosokkal foglalkoznak?*
11. *Ha egy nyelvtanár szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákkal találkozik a nyelvóráin, kitől kaphat támogatást? Mi a rend vagy mi a szokás?*
12. *Milyen intézményi lehetőségek vannak a külön fejlesztő foglalkozásokra idegen nyelvből? Alkalmanként? Rendszeresen?*
13. *Volt már, hogy a tanárok számára szerveztek továbbképzést a diszlexiás vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő tanulókról, a hatékony tanítási módszerekről?*
14. *Az idegen nyelvi tankönyveket Önök is központilag rendelik meg a tanulóknak? Figyelembe tudják venni a tanulók eltérő szükségleteit?*
15. *Az Önök iskolájában mit tapasztal, inkább előny a tanuló számára, vagy inkább hátrány, ha igazolni tudja, hogy diszlexiás?*
16. *Milyen gyakorlatot követnek diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok nyelvórákról való felmentésével kapcsolatban?*
17. *Találkozott már olyan esettel, amikor egy diszlexiás tanuló számára azért kértek felmentést az idegen nyelvből, mert rendkívüli módon szorongott?*
18. *Milyen tapasztalatai vannak a szülőkkel, családtagokkal történő együttműködésben?*
19. *Ön szerint az iskolájában tanító nyelvtanárok szakmailag felkészültek-e arra, hogy a szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákokkal foglalkozzanak?*
20. *Ha meg tudna változtatni valamit a szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok nyelvtanulásának támogatásával kapcsolatban, mi lenne az?*

Appendix J: The final version of the interview guide for support staff – in Hungarian

Interjúkérdések magyarul /**iskolapszichológus/logopédus/fejlesztőpedagógus**

Felvétel indul. Rámondani: 2021. június 17-e van, N D *iskolapszichológussal beszélgetünk a G Általános Iskolából Köszönöm, hogy vállalkozott erre az interjúra. Szeretném biztosítani arról, hogy a kutatás feldolgozása teljesen anonim módon történik, sem az iskola, sem az Ön és kollégái neve semmilyen formában nem fog megjelenni a disszertációmban.*

I. Háttér-információk: Először Önről kérdeznék néhány dolgot:

1. *Hány éve dolgozik .....-ként ebben az iskolában?*
2. *Milyen szakos végzettsége van? Megkérdezhetem, hogy hol végzett és mikor?*
3. *Elárulná, hogy hányban született?*

II Diákokra vonatkozó kérdések: Amint említettem, a doktori kutatásom a diszlexiás nyelvtanulókra irányul, különös tekintettel a náluk tapasztalható szorongás jelenségére, ezért a kérdéseim főként erre irányulnak.

4. *Meg tudná mondani, hogy az iskolában körülbelül milyen arányban fordulnak elő SNI-s tanulók, azon belül is diszlexiás vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő gyerekek?*
5. *A laikus ember számára úgy tűnik, mintha ezeknek a tanulóknak a száma egyre növekedne; Ön is így tapasztalja? Mi lehet ennek az oka?*
6. *Önöknél mi a gyakorlat? Hogyan jutnak el a tanulók a diagnózisig?*
7. *Az Önök iskolájában mit tapasztal, inkább előny (pl. kedvezmények) a tanuló számára, vagy inkább hátrány (megbélyegzés, kicsúfolás, iskolaváltás), ha igazolni tudja, hogy diszlexiás?*
8. *Önnek mint iskolapszichológus/logopédus/fejlesztőpedagógus pontosan mi a szerepe itt az iskolában, milyen feladatokat lát el?*
9. *Milyen, az idegen nyelv tanulása során felmerülő nehézségekről számolnak be a diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok és tanáraik?*
10. *Mennyire gyakori, hogy a diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákoknál a szorongás jeleit tapasztalja? Meghatározható, hogy milyen órákon jelentkezik ez inkább; mondhatjuk, hogy az idegen nyelvi órákon különösen? Mennyire rendetlen, mennyire csendes, mennyire láthatóak rajta a szorongás különböző jelei?*
11. *Szokták panaszolni a szülők, hogy a diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő gyerekük nem akar iskolába jönni (fáj a feje, torka, hasa), amikor idegen nyelvi óra van? (Mi a helyzet magyar nyelvből?)*
12. *Mit szokott tanácsolni a szorongás leküzdésére a diákoknak, szülőknek, kollégáknak?*
13. *Mennyire gyakori a diszlexiás vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok késői diagnózisa (pl. csak akkor veszik észre, amikor már elkezd nyelvet tanulni)? Van lehetőség ilyenkor is a fejlesztő foglalkozásokra? Hogyan?*
14. *Milyen tapasztalatai vannak a szülőkkel, családtagokkal történő együttműködésben?*
15. *Ha meg tudna változtatni valamit a szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok nyelvtanulásának támogatásával kapcsolatban, mi lenne az?*
16. *Mi a véleménye a felmentésről az idegen nyelvek tanulása alól? Melyek az ezzel kapcsolatos tapasztalatai?*
17. *Mennyire van lehetőség a tanárokkal, ezen belül a nyelvtanárokkal való együttműködésre, tanácsadásra?*
18. *Hogyan születnek az iskolában a diákok egyéni fejlesztési tervei? Le tudná írni nekem a folyamatot?*
19. *Tud valamilyen példaértékű kezdeményezésről helyi vagy más szinten, mely a szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok segítését célozza?*
20. *Milyen kiadványokat ajánlana a szorongó diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő diákok megsegítésére?*

Appendix K: The final version of the observation guide – in Hungarian

1. Iskola:

2. A tanítási óra adatai:

(a) Iskolatípus:

(b) Évfolyam:

(c) Létszám:

(d) Tantárgy:

(e) Téma:

(f) A látogatás dátuma (év, nap, hányadik tanítási óra):

3. A tanítási óra célja:

4. A tanítási óra légköre, hogyan segítette elő a tanulást?

5. A tanítási óra üteme, hogyan segítette elő a tanulást?

6. A nevelési szempontok érvényesülése:

(a) Mozzanatok, amelyek a diszlexiás tanulókkal való egyéni bánásmódot mutatják:

(b) Mozzanatok, amikor a tanár a diszlexiás tanuló vagy diszlexiás tüneteket mutató tanuló idegennyelvi szorongásával való egyéni bánásmódot mutatják:

7. Alkalmazott eljárások:

(a) Szervezési mód:

(b) Multiszenzoros módszerek:

(c) Taneszközök és alkalmazásuk:

(d) Motiváló tanári viselkedés:

(e) Differenciálás:

(f) Nyelvi szorongást csökkentő módszerek:

8. Mennyire érte el az óra a célját?

9. Egyéb észrevételek:

Appendix L: The email message sent to schools with the questionnaire for teachers and the cover letter that accompanied the message – in Hungarian

Tisztelt Igazgató Asszony/ Igazgató Úr!

Nagyné Nyikes Natáliának hívnak, végzettségemet tekintve középiskolai angol nyelvtanár, jelenleg az Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem Pedagógiai és Pszichológiai Kar Nyelvpedagógia Doktori Programjának hallgatója vagyok.

Magamról még annyit, hogy több évet dolgoztam a középiskolai nyelvoktatásban, illetve nyelviskolákban, jelenleg pedig egy egyetemen dolgozom.

A munka mellett folytatott doktoranduszi tanulmányaim keretében a magyar anyanyelvű angoltanárok nyelvtanítását vizsgálom az általános iskola felső tagozatos osztályaiban.

Kérem, hogy szíveskedjék engedélyezni a kérdőíves kutatásomat és szíveskedjék továbbítani a mellékelt kísérő levelet az iskolájában tanító angol szakos kollégáknak.

A kérdőív kitöltése mindössze 10-15 percet vesz igénybe. A kérdőív kitöltése önkéntes, teljesen anonim és semmilyen egyéb kötelezettséggel nem jár.

A kérdőív az alábbi https://forms.gle/2v4n3U51b2TJTSWy5 hivatkozáson érhető el és tájékoztatásul WORD dokumentumban csatoltam ehhez az üzenethez is.

Amennyiben bármilyen kérdése van a kérdőívvel kapcsolatosan, kérem, forduljon bizalommal hozzám az alábbi email-címen nyikesn@ceu.edu vagy az alábbi telefonszámon: +36 20 5489898.

Együttműködését előre is köszönöm.

Tisztelettel:

Nagyné Nyikes Natália

Nyikes Natália PhD kérdőív: Kísérőlevél

Nagyné Nyikes Natáliának hívnak, az Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem Pedagógiai és Pszichológiai Kar Nyelvpedagógia Doktori Program hallgatója vagyok.

Szeretném felkérni Önt az alábbi kérdőív kitöltésére egy kutatáshoz, mely a doktori értekezésem számára készül. A kérdőív címe: **A magyarországi általános iskolában tanító angol nyelvtanárok tapasztalatai a diszlexiás diákok nyelvórai szorongásának csökkentéséről**. A kutatás célja a hazai általános iskolában tanító angol nyelvtanárok jó gyakorlatainak megismerése és a szorongó diszlexiás diákokkal való foglakozás során tapasztalt kihívások feltárása.

Kérem, ha már volt felső tagozatos diszlexiás, vagy diszlexia jellegű problémákkal küzdő tanítványa, okvetlen vegyen részt az alábbi kérdőív kitöltésében.

A kérdőív kitöltése mindössze 10-15 percet vesz igénybe. Nincsenek jó vagy rossz válaszok. Kérem válaszoljon őszintén, mert csak így lesz sikeres a kutatás.Tisztában vagyok azzal, hogy a 2019/2020-as tanév befejezése az Ön számára számos elfoglaltsággal jár, ugyanakkor bízom benne, hogy időt tud szakítani a válaszadásra.

A kérdőív elektronikusan a https://forms.gle/2v4n3U51b2TJTSWy5 hivatkozáson érhető el vagy WORD dokumentumban az intéznényvezetőnek küldött elektronikus üzenet csatolmányaként.

Adatvédelem
A kérdőívhez tartozó hivatkozásra való kattintással, Ön elismeri, hogy elolvasta, megértette és elfogadta a kérdőívvel kapcsolatos alábbi tájékoztatást:

• Tudatában vagyok annak, hogy ez a kérdőív önkéntes és névtelen és nem történik olyan adatgyűjtés sajátos személyes adatokról, információkról, melyek beazonosításra alkalmasak.
• Részt veszek a kérdőív kitöltésében és hozzájárulok az összefoglalt eredmények doktori értekezésben való felhasználásához.
• Tudatában vagyok annak, hogy bármikor meggondolhatom magam és visszaléphetek a kérdőív kitöltésétől.

Kérdések, eredmények

A kutatás eredményei összefoglalt, névtelen (sajátos személyes adatokról, információkról nem-beazonosítható) formában kerülnek publikálásra a doktori értekezésben. Amennyiben bármilyen kérdése van a kérdőívben való részvételt illető jogaival, vagy a kérdőív ügyintézésével kapcsolatosan, kérem, forduljon bizalommal hozzám az alábbi email-címen nyikesn@ceu.edu vagy az alábbi telefonszámon: +36 20 5489898.

Együttműködését előre is köszönöm.

Tisztelettel:
Nagyné Nyikes Natália

DEALING WITH THE ANXIETY OF DYSLEXIC STUDENTS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

doktori hallgató,
Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem