

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

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Abstract

University students in Japan may have undiagnosed dyslexia or exhibit dyslexic tendencies (DT) in the foreign language (FL) classroom. However, support for these students has been limited due to the relatively low rate of awareness of dyslexia by teachers of foreign languages and university administration. Examples and descriptions of practical ways in which class materials and assessments can be modified to support university students with DT would be beneficial to FL teachers but is limited in published research.

In this paper, I will discuss the results of an action research project I conducted over two years. I modified an existing course in hospitality English in order to support students with DT. Specifically, I adapted supplementary course materials and assessments to align with previously published guidelines. These modifications included formatting changes to supplementary class materials to be more legible and intuitive, and improving fairness in written and verbal assessments. The goal of the paper is to give teachers of foreign languages a practical example of how to efficiently adapt existing course materials to support students with DT.

Keywords: learning disorder, dyslexia, EFL, action research, accommodation

Introduction

It is estimated that 2-10% of higher education students in Japan have an undiagnosed learning disorder (LD) that can negatively affect their performance in the L2 classroom (Singleton & National Working Party on Dyslexia in Higher Education, 1998; Tanahashi, 2011). The most common LD in the L2 classroom is dyslexia, with an estimated 80% of students with a LD having some form of dyslexia (Moritoki Škof, 2015; Tanahashi, 2011; Wagner et al., 2020).

Montgomery

However, according to the Japan Student Services Organization (Moritoki Škof, 2015), only 0.44% of higher education students need special support in their studies. Of that 0.44%, students with a developmental disorder (which includes LDs such as dyslexia) account for 25%, or approximately 0.11% of the total student population. There appears to be a large gap between the number of students in higher education with LDs and the number who are receiving support. In a previous paper, I described how foreign language teachers can support students with dyslexic tendencies (DT) by adapting class materials and activities (Montgomery, 2023).

In this paper, I will discuss the results of an action research project that I conducted over the course of two years. I modified an English course in hospitality to make the course more accessible to students with DT. I will give background information on how teachers can recognize dyslexic tendencies in the classroom; reasons why EFL teachers should consider accommodating students with DT; the action research methods, planning, action, and analysis; and a conclusion in which I summarize my experience revising the course and plans for further revision.

Background

Dyslexia has biological origins that result in altered behavior. According to the British Dyslexia Association (2010), “Dyslexia is a specific learning difficulty which primarily affects reading and writing skills. However, it does not only affect these skills. (...) Dyslexic people may have difficulty processing and remembering information they see and hear, which can affect learning and the acquisition of literacy skills. Dyslexia can also impact on other areas such as organizational skills.”

When describing learning disabilities, it is important to keep in mind that all the symptoms and deficits manifest on a continuum, and some do not manifest at all. Figure 1 is a checklist of general signs of dyslexia in young adults adapted for the L2 classroom from Dalouis (2017), Shaywitz (2005), and Stansfield (2012). The authors stress that this checklist should be used as a general guide, and not a diagnostic tool. Students do not have to exhibit all the following symptoms to be considered dyslexic. Students should be compared to the average performance of peers with similar learning experience and background, rather than an ideal performance determined by the teacher. For an official diagnosis, the student should consult with a qualified clinical practitioner.

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

Reading

- Has developed some reading skills over time, but decoding is slow and requires a lot of effort.
- Has developed some compensatory strategies to remember spelling rules and difficult words.
- Frequently must reread to understand.

Writing

- Shows poor standard of written work compared with oral skills.
- Has poor handwriting.
- May rely on others for written work.

Skills

- Issues with time management and personal organization skills.
- Literacy skills lagging overall performance and apparent ability.
- May show oral signs of poor verbal memory.
- Difficulty copying from the board and textbooks.
- Consistent forgetting of class materials such as pens, pencils, textbooks.

Attitude

- Has low self-esteem.
- Displays anxiety, stress, tiredness.
- May be withdrawn and reluctant to interact.
- May be easily frustrated or annoyed.

Figure 1. Common signs of dyslexia in young adults adapted for the L2 classroom from Daloiso (2017), Shaywitz (2005), and Stansfield (2012)

While dyslexia is the most common learning disorder, the percentage of the population that has dyslexia is still being determined. The British Dyslexia Association (2010) estimates 10% of the UK population presents as dyslexic. Tanahashi (2011) estimates that up to 20% of students in higher education in Japan may have dyslexia. In addition, the

dyslexia of approximately 40% of young people is not identified until they reach higher education (Singleton & National Working Party on Dyslexia in Higher Education, 1998).

The late or non-identification of dyslexia among university students can be attributed to compensation skills developed earlier in their education. Although students had been able to compensate for earlier literacy difficulties that enabled them to enter higher education, they report that they are disadvantaged by their LD. Students with dyslexia have difficulties with reading, note taking skills, and successfully expressing ideas in writing, which only present themselves when they are faced with the challenges of higher education (Farmer, 2002).

While students may have learned to compensate for their dyslexic tendencies in their L1, learning a foreign language exacerbates the difficulties with phonological and orthographic processing (Nijakowska, 2010). For Japanese students learning English as a foreign language, challenges emerge because of the complexity of the English language.

English is classified as an *orthographically deep* and *opaque* language (Kormos, 2017; Nijakowska, 2010). In Figure 2, you can see the estimated rates of dyslexia vary considerably across languages. They have a positive correlation with orthographic depth and transparency: the more orthographically deep and opaque the language, the higher the rate of dyslexia.

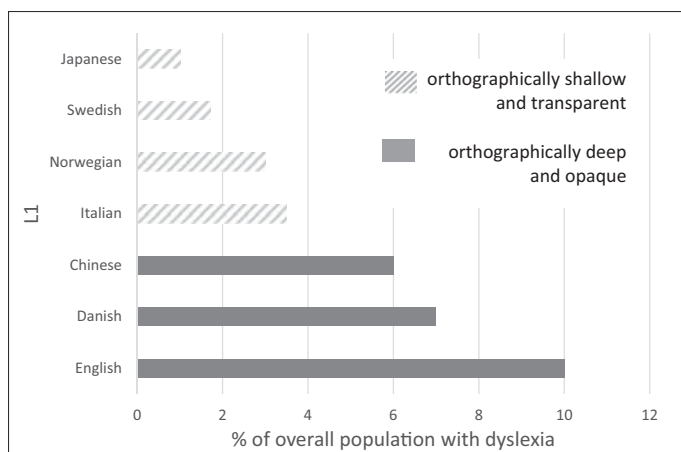


Figure 2. Estimated rates of dyslexia across first languages as a percentage of population (adapted from Brunswick, 2010)

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

The writing system Japanese students learn in early education is classified as orthographically shallow and transparent. This may allow students with dyslexia the ability to form compensation skills to mitigate the effects of their learning disability when they learn more orthographically opaque logographic kanji characters (Tanahashi, 2011). When students start to learn English formally in junior high school the compensation skills students with dyslexia acquired in Japanese may not be applicable, since the phonology and orthography are dissimilar and the amount of time they have to develop those skills is short compared to learning their L1 (Nijakowska, 2010).

Depending on a language's orthography, it can have different impacts on reading performance of students with dyslexia. It has been suggested that bilingual readers can show "differential dyslexia", i.e. difficulties in converting letters to sounds in one language, but not another (Smythe & Everatt, 2002). Therefore, Japanese students learning English may have undiagnosed dyslexic tendencies in the EFL classroom.

Methods

This study is based on an action research project that took place over 2 years at a private university in western Japan. According to George (2023), action research is a research method that aims to investigate and solve an issue simultaneously. It is often used in educational settings. It prioritizes reflection and bridges the gap between theory and practice. There are four basic parts to action research: *planning*, *action*, *analysis*, and *conclusion*. It is also an iterative process, or cycle (Figure 3). Action research is used most often to solve immediate problems and improve existing systems. In this case, it was used to improve an existing course in order to accommodate students with DT. The advantages to using action research is that it allows researchers to adapt their analyses to their individual needs and implement practical changes. I decided that an action research project would best suit my situation because the modifications to the materials can be done alongside analysis. With a busy teaching schedule this allowed me to decide what needed to be changed and make changes without delay.

While action research can be an efficient and effective way to modify existing lesson materials, there are some disadvantages. Due to their adaptable and unique nature, action research projects often have limited generalizability and are difficult to replicate. In the case of the current study, my goal was to efficiently modify an existing English course in

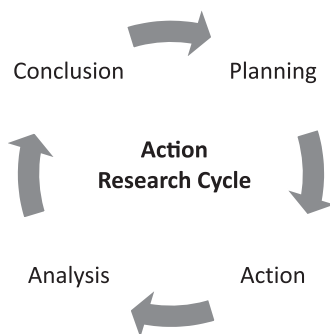


Figure 3. Steps in an action research cycle (adapted from George, 2023)

order to accommodate students with DT. I believe that EFL teachers looking to adapt their own materials can refer to this research and select elements that fit their own specific needs. They can take lessons that I learned during this project and apply them to their classroom situation.

Over the course of two years (2019 and 2020) I conducted an action research project where existing class materials were modified to accommodate students with DT. The course is a one-year hospitality English course, split into two semesters. Each semester was comprised of fifteen 90-minute classes. The purpose of the course is to teach practical English that can be used in hospitality settings to mostly third-year students enrolled in a four-year course in international communication. Specifically, students learn communication skills such as participating in conversations with customers in person and on the telephone, polite ways to deal with problems, appropriate body language in professional settings, how to write professional emails, dealing with customer payments, and other hospitality-related skills. Original assessments included quizzes, role plays, presentations, and writing assignments.

For the purpose of this paper, I will include the portions of the course that were revised specifically to support students with DT.

Planning

I knew statistically that there may be some students in my classes struggling with

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

English as their L2 because of undiagnosed dyslexic tendencies (Brunswick, 2010; Moritoki Škof, 2015). Even if students do not exhibit any dyslexic tendencies, curriculum modifications can be beneficial to all students (Kormos, 2017). I created a list of quick and effective ways to revise existing class materials to support those students. However, I soon realized that a larger project may be necessary for my hospitality English course to make it more effective.

There were a few challenges early in the first semester of the hospitality course which led me to develop this action research project. I could see that the textbook required for the course was too difficult for the students to use effectively. The textbook was given a CEFR level of B1 to C1. However, the strongest students in the class would be considered B1, according to an achievement test given at the end of their second year. The large amount of supplementary course material that had been created and the limited amount of textbook work in the first semester lesson plans seemed to imply that previous teachers of the course also recognized the text difficulty. Also, based on informal class observation and the dyslexia checklist (see Figure 1), I identified two students that exhibited one or more dyslexic tendency in each category: *reading*, *writing*, *skills*, and *attitude*. It was at this point that I started planning a more detailed course revision plan.

I decided to focus on two areas that were under my direct control in order to make the course material more accessible to students with DT: supplementary course materials and assessments. As for supplementary materials in the year-long course, there were a total of eleven units, which consisted of pdf's that students could download and use on their school-supplied tablets during the class. These supplementary materials consisted of a variety of activities, including conversation practice, listening, reading, and discussion starters.

There were also two vocabulary lists, one for each semester. These vocabulary lists consisted of words and phrases taken from the textbook and supplementary materials, and corresponding explanations and examples in English, to be used when studying for the quizzes. The supplementary materials were created and sent to students digitally, allowing me to edit them throughout the semester without having to worry about publishing or printing costs. Finally, there were a total of fourteen assessments, seven for each semester: three vocabulary and phrase quizzes; two role plays; and one research project, which consisted of a presentation and written report.

I had hoped that I could complete all supplementary material and assessment edits

Montgomery

within one year. Unfortunately, the reality of the time commitment made me modify my original plan from one year to two years. Most of the supplementary course material edits took place within the first year, and the assessment edits took place in the second year. Also, because action research is an iterative process, some supplementary material edits continued into the second year, after judging the student performance the first year.

Action

Supplementary materials

At the beginning of the first semester teaching the course in 2019, I started marking up the supplementary course material with notes on how to make the material easier to read, more visually appealing, and simplifying the instructions. After making notes and writing ideas on how to improve existing materials, I began revising all the lesson materials with clearer icons, fonts, and formatting to make the lessons more visually appealing and easier for students with DT to understand. Many students with dyslexia have a difficult time reading serif and italic fonts. Instead, verdana, arial, and calibri fonts are preferred. Larger spacing between lines and larger font sizes, with more concise instructions are easier for students with DT to understand (Daloiso, 2017; Nijakowska, 2010; Verner, 2016). The icons I chose were more directly related to the activities and provided visual support to improve student understanding, and many students with DT respond more positively to visual aids (Mortimore, 2008; Nijakowska, 2010).

In Appendix A and B, I give an example of supplemental class material pre- and post-modification. In Appendix A, the original lesson, there are multiple areas which need improvement. In this single page, there are six different font styles, including difficult to read serif fonts, italics, and very small font sizes under 10-point. The activity 1 robot icon has little relation to the activity, making it difficult for students with DT to intuit what they should do. The quote towards the bottom of the page is written in a cursive-like font and italicized, making it difficult to read. Also, the links to the videos are not embedded in a title or description, making it difficult for students to guess what the video will be about.

Appendix B shows the edited version. I tried to unify the lesson style by limiting fonts and using icons that directly relate to the activity. I also embedded links within the video description, making it easier for students to anticipate what the video will be about. When adapting materials for students with DT, encouraging students to anticipate or make an

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

informed guess as to what the activity will be about helps them grasp the general meaning of the material without becoming “bogged down” in the details (Mortimore, 2008). It will also reduce anxiety and stress and lead to more successful outcomes (Dalosio, 2017).

Also, during the first semester 2019, I found that the existing vocabulary lists had no Japanese translations. Since this is a technical field with a lot of industry-specific vocabulary, having translations available to students would support them during their studies. Providing written support to students with DT in their L1 has been shown to be particularly beneficial (Nijakowska, 2010; Pokrivčáková et al., 2015, pp. 39-62). I requested translations by native Japanese speaking staff be made for the first and second semester at the end of the first semester, 2019.

Assessments- vocabulary and phrase quizzes

Often students with DT struggle with traditional assessments. According to Dalosio (2017) and Kormos & Smith (2012), creating *valid* and *fair* tests of target skills is more challenging than most educators believe. In order for an assessment to be valid, it must measure what it is intended to measure. Fairness refers to whether or not a test taker would be disadvantaged by elements of the test that are not the target of assessment. For example, a student with DT may be disadvantaged by an essay writing requirement on a test because of underdeveloped spelling skills, even though the target skill is not spelling.

After a year of administering the vocabulary and phrase assessments, I gained a deeper understanding of their strengths and weaknesses. Throughout the course in 2019 I analyzed the assessments and concluded that some of the questions, specifically short answers and short essays may not be fair to students with DT, since the main goals of the course were to improve verbal communication skills (Appendix C). Reducing these types of questions would not necessarily affect the validity of the test, since the goal was comprehension, not spelling accuracy. Another issue I recognized was that there were too many short answer translation questions on the original tests. There were no Japanese translations provided (at the time) to students on their vocabulary lists provided during the semester. I thought this was unfair, since students may have translated words differently on their vocabulary lists than what was given on the tests.

Overall, I determined that the vocabulary and phrase quizzes should be more concise, while still retaining their core validity. Between the second semester 2019 and the first

Montgomery

semester 2020 I adapted and shortened the quiz sections, specifically open short answers and short essays. I also increased the number of multiple-choice questions and short answer questions with word banks (Appendix D). Please see the Analysis section and Table 1 and 2 for a full breakdown of vocabulary and phrase quiz modifications.

Assessments- role plays

Role plays can be particularly useful assessment tools for students with DT for several reasons. Often these students will be verbalizers and there is a discrepancy between their literacy abilities and verbal dexterity (Mortimore, 2008). Moreover, this was an English communication class in hospitality, where dealing with customers verbally was the most common activity. Therefore, verbal assessments were more useful to me as a teacher in order to accurately gauge a student's progress. For students with DT, allowing sufficient time to prepare, encouraging collaboration with a partner or group, and providing simple, explicit instructions increase their chances of success (Kormos & Smith, 2012). Role plays fulfill all these criteria.

I spent 2019 identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the four role plays throughout the year-long hospitality course. In addition to notes on formatting and layout, I paid particular attention to the instruction language and grading rubric. In the first semester 2019 I made formatting edits to the role play materials, including fonts, icons, and layout, similar to the edits done on the supplemental materials described above.

Between the second semester 2019 and first semester 2020 I edited the role play instructions, supporting language, and rubric. I also created one additional role play assessment per semester. The original role plays called for pairs to use an inflexible outline with 21 requirements such as "Answer the phone. Identify yourself. Ask for someone. Explain the person is busy," etc. This format was confusing and limited the choices students could make when creating their role play.

I replaced this format with one that was grounded in the role plays students had practiced in earlier units. For students with DT, repetition and access to support language when producing new language has been shown to be particularly effective (Nijkowska, 2010; Pokrivčáková et al., 2015, pp. 39-62). I had students choose a role play they had practiced in previous units. They then adapted that role play using their own ideas and alternative language introduced in earlier lessons. This had two functions. First, students

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

could use the style and basic grammar structure introduced earlier, while retaining agency in being able to adapt the role play with their own ideas. Second, students would be graded using similar material.

I modified the role play grading rubric and the role play instructions concurrently. There are six criteria before and after the editing, though the specific criteria changed slightly. First was *creativity*. Students were asked to include props and unique ideas in their role plays. These might include menus if the role play was set at a restaurant, or telephones if the students were doing a telephone conversation. Second was *group work*. This was to ensure that both students contributed equally to the project and had equal speaking time. Third was *voice*, where I gauged their pronunciation, rhythm of language, and how clearly they spoke in front of the class. Fourth was *content: introduction and conclusion* where I graded how they introduced their role play scenario, including polite greetings to the class, introducing themselves, explaining what the role play would be about, and how smoothly they concluded the role play. Fifth was *content: register*, in which I noted specific hospitality phrases and vocabulary appropriate to their role play situation, which was introduced in earlier lessons. Sixth was *quality of language: grammar and spelling* in which I reviewed their written role play notes before the role play.

The most important change I made to grading role plays was the increase in points awarded to *voice*, the addition of *content: introduction/conclusion*, and removing *content: flow*. The specific number of points awarded is shown below in Table 3. To help support students with DT, increasing the point value for *voice* encouraged students to practice with their partner leading up to the assessment, as well as reward students who are stronger in verbal production compared to written output. Since the role play was not as rigidly structured and didn't follow a flow chart as previously designed, I removed *content: flow* from the assessment. I added *content: introduction/conclusion* to the criteria to encourage students to consider how they will effectively introduce and conclude their role play including all relevant information in a natural way.

Analysis

Edits to supplementary material and assessments were completed in the first semester 2020. The following section will look at the quantitative results of the assessment edits. It is important to remember when looking at these numbers that generally, students

Montgomery

with DT respond positively to verbal assessments (such as role plays) and have a difficult time with written assessments (such as essays and written reports) (Nijakowska, 2010). Assessments which rely heavily on writing and spelling may be unfairly biased against those students with DT. I reduced the number of assessments that focused primarily on written responses, while increasing the number that focused on verbal output. PreE refers to the assessments pre-edit (2019), and PoE refers to assessments post-edit (2020). Please see Table 1 for a breakdown of the number and type of assessments per semester.

Table 1. Number of formal assessments per semester pre- and post-editing

Number of assessments per semester					
	Vocab and phrase quizzes	Role plays	Presentations	Written reports	Total assessments
Semester 1					
PreE	3	2	1	1	7
PoE	2	3	0	0	5
Semester 2					
PreE	3	2	1	1	7
PoE	2	3	0	0	5

Along with specific edits to each assessment to provide more support for students with DT, I reduced the total number of assessments from fourteen to ten. I felt that reducing the number of assessments, while providing students with more time to prepare for them, would improve assessment performance and boost confidence in students with DT.

I analyzed the number of vocabulary and phrase assessment questions by question type (Table 2). Over the two semesters, there is a total of four vocabulary and phrase quizzes. I identified four basic question types in the quizzes. First, there are *open short answer problems* (OSA), where the student must write their own answer, usually one to a few words. Second, there are *short essays* (SE), which are one sentence to a paragraph in length. Third, there are *multiple choice questions* (MC), with an average of four answer choices per question. Finally, there are *short answers with word bank* (SAWB), which allow the student to complete a short answer using vocabulary and phrases provided by me.

As Table 2 shows, question types considered to be potentially unfair to students with DT decreased, and the total number of questions (Total) was reduced by 7% for the four

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

quizzes each academic year. In the future, I would like to reduce this even further, as during my research planning stage I recognized that the quizzes were not concise enough and could be unfair to students with DT, as they often have difficulty focusing on lengthy assessment tasks. The most appropriate place to reduce questions further would be in the semester 2 quiz 2, as there are thirty questions PoE compared to the twenty-two PreE.

I reduced the number of open short answers by 46%. As clarified in the previous section, writing assessments without time to prepare beforehand can be a disadvantage to students with DT (Pokrivčáková et al., 2015, pp. 39-62). This was also the reason I reduced the short essay questions by 67%.

While reducing the number of open short answer and short essay questions, I increased the number of multiple-choice questions by 28% and short answers with word bank support by 920%. The most common style of short answer questions PoE took the form of conversation completion, mirroring conversation practice students had done in pairs or groups leading up to the quiz. My aim was to make the conversations as natural as

Table 2. Number of questions per type in vocabulary and phrase quizzes pre- and post-editing

Number of assessment questions by type					
	OSA*	SE*	MC	SAWB	Total
Sem 1 Quiz 1 PreE	21	4	0	5	30
Sem 1 Quiz PoE	0	1	6	9	16
Sem 1 Quiz 2 PreE	25	0	0	0	25
Sem1 Quiz 2 PoE	8	0	0	17	25
Sem 2 Quiz 1 PreE	17	3	6	0	26
Sem 2 Quiz 1 PoE	7	2	6	10	25
Sem 2 Quiz 2 PreE	10	2	10	0	22
Sem 2 Quiz 2 PoE	10	0	10	10	30
% change PreE to PoE	-46%	-67%	+28%	+920%	-7%

* = question style determined to be less fair to students with DT

Montgomery

possible, giving students support through contextualization when answering the questions.

The role-play assessments modifications were outlined in the previous section. Table 3 is a breakdown of changes to the grading rubric used in the three role plays per semester, six over the year-long course. The major changes included a weight increase of 20% for *voice*, which includes pronunciation, rhythm of language, and how clear the audience can hear the presenters. Another major change was the addition of *content: introduction/conclusion* with 10% of the role play grade. Finally, I decided to remove *content: flow*, which brought the total points back to 100.

Table 3. Grading rubric for role plays pre-edit and post-edit

Role play grading rubric								
	Creativity	Group work	Voice	Content: introduction/conclusion	Content: register	Content: flow	Grammar and spelling	Total points
PreE	10	10	10	–	30	30	10	100
PoE	10	10	30	10	30	–	10	100

In the future, I'd like to further modify the role-play grading criteria and possibly remove *grammar and spelling* from the rubric completely. Since this is an assessment students prepare for, they have multiple opportunities to rewrite their role plays with input from myself and role-play partners. By the final draft, there are usually no or very few grammar and spelling mistakes remaining.

Conclusion

The action research project described above was an efficient and effective way to modify an existing curriculum in order to support students with DT. I chose two main areas of a year-long hospitality English course to modify: supplementary materials and assessments. The supplementary materials consisted of vocabulary lists and a supplementary lesson pdf for each unit. By giving students more L1 support with vocabulary list translations, I aimed to boost their confidence when it came to vocabulary assessments. I edited the supplementary lessons in three specific areas: unifying all fonts to be more readable, choosing icons to act as supporting visual cues, and embedding video and listening links with descriptions that allow students to anticipate what the media will be about. The intended result of these edits was to make the lessons more easily

Modifying an EFL Course to Accommodate Students with Dyslexic Tendencies

understandable, readable, and enhance student confidence. These are all key elements to supporting students with DT.

The vocabulary and phrase assessment edits also involved formatting changes, similar to the supplementary lesson materials. The edits also took into consideration fairness: whether the test taker is disadvantaged by elements of the test which are not the target of the assessment. To that end, I reduced writing questions, replacing them with multiple choice questions and short answer questions with word bank support. I also reduced the overall number of questions, since students with DT often have difficulty focusing for long periods of time on traditional assessments.

The role-play assessment edits focused on modifying the instruction language and grading rubric, and increasing the number of role-play assessments from four to six per year. The instruction language encouraged students to work together with a partner, create original dialogues from existing conversations introduced earlier in the course, and it gave them more time to complete the work. The grading rubric was modified to reward students who practiced and prepared before the assessment, with clear pronunciation, appropriate language, equal speaking time, and a cohesive introduction and conclusion.

Action research is an iterative process. If I had the chance to continue modifying the hospitality English course in order to support students with DT, I would further edit the supplementary course material and assessments. I would add more visual support to course material and closely analyze instructions, chosen question formats, and reading passage difficulty. I would also further edit the role-play assessments and remove the grammar and spelling portion of the criteria, since the assessment is focused on oral output.

I hope that FL teachers in a variety of classroom situations can adapt the ideas and techniques outlined in the above action research project to increase support for students with DT.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Example of supplemental material formatting pre-editing



Hospitality English




Unit 2

“Service” ~VS~ “Hospitality”

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GOALS

- To understand the basic concept of *hospitality*
- To understand the difference between *service* and *hospitality*.



Activity 1: Discussion


- ⟨ Read the short passage below.
- ⟨ Watch the following videos about actual robots
- ⟨ Answer the questions.

‘Dr Smith says that “service” is very important in any customer care situations. For a start, to help people who work in restaurants, he invented a robot waitress. The robot waitress is a perfect waitress. It doesn't make any mistakes in serving food, taking orders, cleaning tables and everything! Now, Dr Smith is thinking of making similar robots for other industries such as hotels and welfare too.’


Robots in Hotels: ☐

<https://www.wired.com/2016/03/robot-henn-na-hotel-japan/>

http://www.dailymail.co.uk/travel/travel_news/article-3187169/Is-future-room-service-Robots-deployed



Hospitality English




Unit 2

Service vs Hospitality

GOALS

- To understand the basic concept of *hospitality*
- To understand the differences between *service* and *hospitality*



Activity 1: Read and Watch

- Read the short passage below.
- Watch the videos about actual service robots.

“Dr Smith says that ‘service’ is very important in any customer care situations. For a start, to help people who work in restaurants, he invented a robot waitress. The robot waitress is a perfect waitress. It doesn’t make any mistakes in serving food, taking orders, cleaning tables and everything! Now, Dr Smith is thinking of making similar robots for other industries such as hotels and welfare too.”

Robots in Hotels:

- [Robot Hotel in Japan](#)
- [Robot Room Service](#)

Appendix C

Example of vocabulary and phrase quiz pre-editing

Hospitality English

Name _____

Final Vocabulary/Phrases Test

1. Complete the following dialogue at a business meeting.

Host: Good evening. 1. _____
(Mr Smith でいらっしゃいますね。) Welcome to our company.

Mr. Smith: It's nice to finally meet you face to face.

Host: 2. _____
(マネージャーの山田を紹介いたします。)

3. _____
(山田マネージャー、こちらが Mr Smith です。)

Yamada: It's nice to meet you.

Mr. Smith: 4. _____
(こちらこそ宜しくお願いします。)

Mr. Yamada: How was your trip to Hiroshima, Mr. Smith?

Mr. Smith: It was very smooth. I left Haneda at 10:30, and it's only 12:30 now!

Host: We are glad that you had a smooth trip down to Hiroshima. Usually it takes much longer because of the heavy traffic in Hiroshima City Centre. You are very lucky, Mr. Smith. I'm sure our meeting today will go well too!

Mr. Yamada: Shall we take Mr. Smith to the meeting room?

Host: Sure. Mr. Smith, please come this way. Oh, and 5. _____
(They walk to the meeting room.) (段差にお気を付け下さい。)

Host: Here we are. This is our meeting room 6. _____
_____ ? (コートをお預かりしましょうか?)

Hospitality English
Vocabulary and Phrases Test #2

Name _____

1. Complete the conversation with the words and phrases in the box.

Percy: Good afternoon, you must be Matsuko Yamada. I'm Percy Fitt. _____ to TTE.

Matsuko: Thank you. It's nice to finally meet you _____.

Percy: Yes, we've talked so much on the phone, I feel I know you already. Matsuko, I'd like to _____ you to Clarabel Carriage, our office manager. Clarabel, this is Matsuko Yamada from Sodor, in Tokyo.

Matsuko: It's nice to meet you, Ms Carriage.

Clarabel: It's nice to meet you, too.

Percy: If you'd just come this way...

Clarabel: _____ was your flight from Tokyo?

Matsuko: It was fine. It even _____ a bit early.

Clarabel: And is this your first time in London?

Matsuko: No, it's my _____. I've been here a few times as a visitor. I really like this city.

Percy: So here we are. _____ take your hat?

Matsuko: Oh, that's very kind of you.

Percy: If _____ to take a seat...

Matsuko: Thank you.

Percy: Would you _____ coffee or tea?

Matsuko: Coffee, please. Black.

...

Matsuko: So here's my train. Well, thank you for a good meeting. It was great to _____ both of you.

Percy: The same for us. Thanks for coming. It was a very productive meeting. So, we'll be in _____ by email as usual.

Matsuko: Yes, of course. Bye.

Clarabel: Have a nice trip, bye!

Percy: _____ for now.

so long welcome arrived face to face contact
introduce how fourth meet may I you'd like
care for

1