

KNOWLEDGE & TREATMENT OF STUDENTS WHO ARE POTENTIALLY DYSLEXIC: TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES

Komang Septiani¹, Luh Putu Artini², I Ketut Trika Adi Ana³

^{1,2,3}Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Jl. Udayana No.11, Banjar Tegal, Singaraja, Kabupaten Buleleng, Bali 81116, Indonesia

Corresponding Author(S): septiani.2@undiksha.ac.id

Abstract:

This study aims to: (1) explore classroom teachers' knowledge of dyslexia in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to second-grade elementary school students who are potentially dyslexic; and (2) examine the classroom treatments or support provided for those students. A qualitative case study approach was employed, with data collected through semi-structured interviews and classroom observations at three public elementary schools in Singaraja, Bali. This method facilitated a comprehensive exploration of teachers' knowledge of dyslexia and the treatments they provide to support students who are potentially dyslexic. The participants were classroom teachers responsible for teaching English to second-grade students. The study focused on teachers' knowledge and the treatments offered to students showing signs of potential dyslexia. Among the three teachers interviewed, varying levels of understanding regarding dyslexia were evident. Only one teacher was able to relate certain student difficulties specifically in reading, writing, and spelling to dyslexia. In contrast, the other two teachers observed similar challenges but did not associate them with dyslexia. Furthermore, none of the participants demonstrated awareness of the broader range of dyslexia-related characteristics, such as difficulties in phonological processing, memory, or visual perception. As a result, the treatments provided were general in nature such as extended time, verbal encouragement, and individualized support but lacked specialized approaches, including multisensory techniques or assistive technologies. These findings suggest the need for targeted teacher training and inclusive practices to support potentially dyslexic students more effectively.

Keywords:

Dyslexia; Classroom Teachers; English as a Foreign Language (EFL); Elementary School; Inclusive Education



Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

INTRODUCTION

Literacy plays a very important role in education to achieve the goal of sustainable development where people have the capacity to read, write and the ability to understand and transmit information effectively in various situations (Zua, 2021). These literacy skills are essential for individuals to actively engage in society, in education, obtain information, and take advantage of various opportunities (Gee, 2012; Prawira et al., 2023). In the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), literacy plays an important

role in students' language proficiency, equipping them with essential skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening (Padmadewi et al., 2020). These skills serve as a strong foundation for students in learning English effectively. Improving literacy skills is even more challenging for students with learning difficulties or learning disabilities, especially for those students who are potentially dyslexic.

The International Dyslexia Association (2017) defines dyslexia as a specific learning disability characterized by difficulties in accurate and/or fluent word recognition, weak spelling, and decoding ability, which often stem from deficiencies in the phonological components of language. According to Budiani and Putrayasa (2023), dyslexia does not affect or be affected by one's level of intelligence, as dyslexia is a complex condition. Peer and Reid (2003) identified ten characteristics of dyslexia, such as difficulties in reading, spelling, writing and handwriting, memory, coordination, organization, information processing, phonological processing, visual perception, and discrepancies in abilities. Previous research has identified a range of literacy challenges faced by children with dyslexia. These include difficulties in reading, caused by limited vocabulary, complex sentence structures, difficulties in understanding sentence context, deciphering words, reading aloud, and word recognition (Lestari et al., 2017; Prihatini, 2020; Hulme & Snowling, 2016). In addition, children with dyslexia also experience difficulties in writing, as they revise their writing as often as their non-dyslexic peers, but it takes longer and the results are of lower quality (Morken & Helland, 2013). Students with dyslexia are part of inclusive education, which guarantees equal access to learning for all students, regardless of their ability or learning style. According to Padmadewi et al (2024) inclusive education refers to the integration of students with special needs, who may have different challenges or disabilities, into educational programs, recognizing that individuals with special needs vary in their unique abilities and needs. Inclusive education benefits both students with special needs and students who develop typically in a mainstream school environment (Ratnadi & Adnyani, 2023).

In addition, dyslexia can significantly affect children's self-esteem, confidence and self-efficacy, especially in the context of learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Glazzard, 2010; Stagg et al., 2018). Research shows that students with dyslexia often report lower levels of self-esteem, confidence and self-efficacy compared to their non-dyslexic peers. This impact is largely due to negative experiences and feelings of isolation, frustration, and feeling different or unintelligent. Many students with dyslexia also experience anxiety, feelings of incompetence in written work, and lower academic achievement (Zdravkova, 2022; Riddick et al., 1999; Ibour et al., 2021). These factors can affect EFL students' motivation, engagement and overall performance in the process of learning English as a Foreign Language.

In this context, teachers play an important role in supporting dyslexic students by recognizing their needs, offering appropriate assistance and fostering a supportive learning environment. To support students with dyslexia in a positive learning environment, teachers should offer emotional support by creating a safe and welcoming environment, where students feel comfortable to express their feelings and seek help when needed. Providing encouragement, validation and reassurance can help boost their confidence and resilience, especially when facing frustration, anxiety or low self-esteem related to learning challenges. In addition, the important role of EFL teachers includes

two interrelated aspects: propositional knowledge, which relates to the subject matter they teach, such as English language materials, and procedural knowledge, which involves methods, strategies and processes that help teachers to deliver lessons effectively, so that learning becomes interesting and understandable for EFL students and dispositional knowledge, which refers to teachers' professional attitudes, beliefs and values that influence their teaching approaches and interactions with students.

A number of studies have explored teaching English as a foreign language to students with dyslexia. These studies have examined various aspects, including the potential correlation between pragmatic ability and language proficiency in adult EFL learners with dyslexia, the development of interactive multimedia for early readers with dyslexia, and the identification of four key teaching strategies such as analysis of task, direct phonics instruction, multisensory teaching, and field dependency, effectiveness of the IQRA multisensory learning model, also effectiveness of using jolly phonic method (Sari et al., 2021; Made et al., 2022; Al-edris et al., 2023; Ariati et al., 2018). While previous research has examined various pedagogical approaches and interventions for students with dyslexia in language learning, little attention has been given to the perspectives and practices of teachers in the EFL context, particularly at the elementary school level. Therefore, this study aims to explore teachers' knowledge of dyslexia and examine the classroom treatments or support provided for students who are potentially dyslexic.

However, in many developing regions, including Bali, teacher training programs on dyslexia remain limited or unevenly implemented. Recent initiatives, such as those by the Bali Dyslexia Foundation, have begun offering free training programs to equip educators with practical knowledge and strategies for supporting dyslexic students in inclusive classrooms (Bali Dyslexia Foundation, n.d.). Likewise, a large-scale study by Soegondo et al., (2022), conducted in collaboration with the Dyslexia Association of Singapore, revealed widespread misconceptions among Indonesian teachers and highlighted the need for structured training to improve awareness and classroom interventions. These examples show that targeted professional development is essential in empowering teachers to recognize and assist students with dyslexia effectively in the EFL context. Therefore, this study aims to explore teachers' knowledge of dyslexia and examine the classroom treatments or support provided for students who are potentially dyslexic.

METHOD

This study employed a qualitative case study approach to explore classroom teachers who teach English understanding of dyslexia. Data collection involved semi-structured interviews and non-participant classroom observations. The purposive sampling technique was employed to select participants after the researcher conducted preliminary observations and interviews with the relevant teachers, confirming the presence of second-grade students potentially exhibiting characteristics of dyslexia. The three schools SD Negeri 1 Kaliuntu, SD Negeri 1 Kampung Anyar, and SD Negeri 2 Banjar Bali were specifically chosen because each had at least one second-grade student who are potentially dyslexic, based on teacher reports and early classroom observations, demonstrated consistent indicators of potential dyslexia, such as difficulties in reading, writing, and letter recognition. Second, these schools were chosen based on the findings from preliminary observations and informal interviews conducted by the researcher at multiple schools in Singaraja. During these preliminary activities, teachers in the selected

schools reported that they encountered students who showed signs of learning difficulties consistent with dyslexic characteristics, such as reading below grade level, frequent letter reversals, and challenges in phonological awareness. These early findings suggested the presence of students potentially at risk of dyslexia, making these schools suitable for further investigation aligned with the research focus. After the interviews and classroom observations, the researcher administered tests specifically designed to screen for or diagnose dyslexia. The Dyslexia Early Screening Test (DEST), intended for younger children aged 4 to 7, was used to identify second-grade students (aged 7 years) who may be at risk of dyslexia. The outcomes of these tests confirmed that the students faced notable difficulties with reading, writing, spelling, phonological awareness, speed of processing information, as well as organizational skills in writing, reinforcing the relevance of these schools for this study. Additionally, selecting schools located within close proximity in the Singaraja area facilitated more frequent coordination with teachers, allowed for efficient data collection, and enabled follow-up observations or interviews when necessary. The interview process involved one-on-one sessions with second-grade classroom teachers who teach English, using a semi structured interview guide while allowing flexibility for follow-up questions to explore teachers' knowledge and teachers' treatment more deeply. During the interviews with classroom teachers, the researcher did not pose direct questions regarding the teachers' knowledge of dyslexia. Instead, the researcher employed Peer and Reid's (2003) framework of ten dyslexia characteristics as an analytical reference to explore their knowledge indirectly. The goal was to explore their knowledge, teaching strategies or treatments, and challenges related to dyslexic students. Interviews lasted between 30–40 minutes and were recorded and transcribed for analysis.

The study employed non-participant classroom observations, where the researcher observed teaching and learning activities without intervening in any way. The observations aimed to capture teacher-student interactions, instructional strategies, and classroom environments, with particular attention to how teachers supported students who showed signs of learning difficulties, including those potentially experiencing dyslexia. During the observations, specific attention was given to how teachers addressed students' difficulties in reading, writing, and spelling, the use of multisensory teaching strategies, classroom modifications or accommodations, and how feedback was provided to struggling learners. The researcher also noted student engagement levels, the clarity of teacher instructions, the use of learning aids, the pacing of lessons, and whether differentiated instruction or oral response opportunities were provided. These elements were used to guide the documentation of teaching practices and student behavior, allowing for a focused and systematic collection of relevant classroom data.

The collected data were analyzed using Miles and Huberman's (1994) interactive model, which consists of three key components: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. In the data reduction phase, interview transcripts and observation notes were reviewed and coded to identify relevant patterns and themes. The data display stage involved organizing the reduced data into tables and figures to enhance clarity and support thematic analysis. Finally, in the conclusion drawing and verification phase, the researcher interpreted the findings by identifying recurring patterns and verifying them through comparison across data sources to ensure consistency and credibility. All

participants provided informed consent before data collection. Anonymity and confidentiality were maintained throughout the research process.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

This section presents the findings of the study on teachers' knowledge of dyslexia and the treatments employed in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to second-grade elementary school students who are potentially dyslexic. The data are organized according to the ten characteristics of dyslexia proposed by Peer and Reid (2003). The findings describe teachers' knowledge and the treatments or strategies they use to address potentially dyslexic challenges in the classroom, supported by direct excerpts from the interview.

1. The Knowledge of Classroom Teachers about Dyslexia

The data revealed that most teachers demonstrated limited awareness of dyslexia and its characteristics. Among the three teachers interviewed, several exhibited varying levels of knowledge regarding the characteristics of dyslexia, with only one teacher able to relate three characteristics such as difficulties in reading, writing, and spelling. However, the other two teachers did not recognize these challenges as signs of potential dyslexia, often misinterpreting the difficulties as general learning delays or a lack of motivation. For example, Teacher 1 stated, "There are students who write 'frend' instead of 'friend', even after being corrected several times," but did not associate this with dyslexia. Similarly, Teacher 3 observed, "Some students write letters backward or mix capital and small letters," yet did not recognize these signs as potential indicators of dyslexia. While the teachers acknowledged the challenges their students faced, they primarily attributed these difficulties to being slow learners or not academically strong, rather than identifying them as potential dyslexia-related issues. The teachers' perceptions of their students' struggles seemed influenced by the students' young age as second graders, with the difficulties viewed as part of normal developmental stages rather than as specific learning challenges.

Table 1 Teachers' Knowledge of Dyslexia Characteristics

No	Dyslexia Characteristics	Level of Teachers' Knowledge	Excerpts from Teachers' Responses	Recognized as Dyslexia-Related
1	Difficulties in reading	No knowledge (1 teachers) Very limited knowledge (2 teachers)	"Alex Pseudonym) is unable to read, does not know all the letters, and cannot spell yet." (T1) "They are not fluent in reading yet, still struggling with reading, and cannot spell either". (T2) "They are not fluent in pronunciation, I as the classroom teacher end up teaching them". (T3)	Yes (T2) No (T1 and T3)
2	Difficulties in spelling	No knowledge (1 teacher) Limited knowledge (2 teachers)	"Words were misspelled, such as writing 'friend' as 'frend', and often omitting the letters 'n' and 'm'." (T1) "The difficulty lies in blending one syllable words, especially	Yes (T2) No (T1 and T3)

3	Difficulties in writing and handwriting	Moderate knowledge (1 teacher) Limited knowledge (1 teacher) Very limited knowledge (1 teacher)	those containing <i>ba, bi, bu</i> and double consonants such as ‘ng’, ‘kh’, ‘ny’.” (T2) “His errors often involve mispronouncing similar-sounding letters, particularly the consonants <i>z</i> and <i>s</i> .” (T3) “Alex (pseudonym) cannot write the requested letters unless the alphabet writing is demonstrated.” (T1) “They sometimes write the letter ‘T’ in a form resembling the number seven (7)”. (T2) “Adam’s (pseudonym) printed handwriting is less neat”. (T3)	Yes (T2) No (T1 and T3)
4	Difficulties in memory	Moderate knowledge (2 teacher) Limited knowledge (1 teacher)	“They quickly forgot what had been taught, unable to answer the same question when it was repeated”. (T1) “Student forgets words quickly, gets distracted, and confuses similar letters (e.g., <i>b</i> and <i>d</i> .” (T2) “The student was able to complete the task and remember what had been taught today”. (T3)	No
5	Difficulties in coordination	Moderate knowledge (1 teacher) Limited knowledge (2 teacher)	“Student demonstrates competence in fine motor tasks like tying shoelaces and using a pencil.” (T1) “The student can hold a pencil but struggles with spatial organization when writing.” (T2) “There are no difficulties with fine motor skills, such as holding a pencil, but their handwriting is less neat.” (T3)	No
6	Difficulties in organization	Moderate knowledge (3 teachers)	“The sentences written are sometimes inconsistent and do not align with the topic I have provided.” (T1) “They often do not align their text properly with the pages or lines in the book.” (T2). “Their main drawback is that their writing does not align with the page format, as they sometimes start writing in the middle of the page.” (T3)	No
7	Difficulties in information processing	Good knowledge (1 teacher) Moderate knowledge (2 teachers)	“Even after I inform the student to bring a specific book the next day, they still ask about it again.” (T1) “They often ask repeatedly, ‘What does that mean,	No

			<p>ma'am?' and tend to have their own interpretations. When attempting to convey the information back, it is often incomplete." (T2)</p> <p>"The student can receive information but has difficulty recalling and conveying it, with some inconsistency in performance". (T3)</p>	
8	Difficulties in phonological processing	Limited knowledge (2 teachers) Very limited knowledge (1 teacher)	<p>"Alex often confuses letters like 'p' and 'q' or 'm' and 'n'. He even reverses numbers like 9 or writes 7 in the wrong direction."(T1)</p> <p>"When I write the letter 'v' and say 'vi-vi', the student keeps asking, 'What is this, ma'am?' It's the same with 'p' and 'T'. Also, he often writes the number 9 backwards and confuses it with the letter 'g'." (T2)</p> <p>"Now the students can tell the difference between letters like 'b' and 'd', although they had trouble with this in grade one. Their reading is still not very strong." (T3)</p>	No
9	Difficulties in visual perception	Limited knowledge (1 teachers) Very limited knowledge (2 teachers)	<p>"Alex (pseudonym) is unable to read and spell yet, when asked to read in front of the class, he remains silent and does not attempt to read" (T1)</p> <p>"Students who read silently often forget parts of the text, leading to hesitation, they typically read aloud only the words they recognize." (T2)</p> <p>"If Adam (pseudonym) encounters a word he does not recognize, he tends to remain silent, struggles with certain words, particularly those that contain two consecutive consonants at the beginning." (T3)</p>	No
10	Discrepancies in abilities	No knowledge (1 teachers) Very limited knowledge (2 teachers)	<p>"Alex's (pseudonym) skills have not yet been observed in any area, he struggles with both reading and writing. However, he shows great enthusiasm when it comes to playing." (T1)</p> <p>"Most second-grade students do not show significant differences in abilities across</p>	No

various subjects or other fields.” (T2)
 “Their strongest interest is in physical education, but no outstanding academic strengths have been observed yet.” (T3)

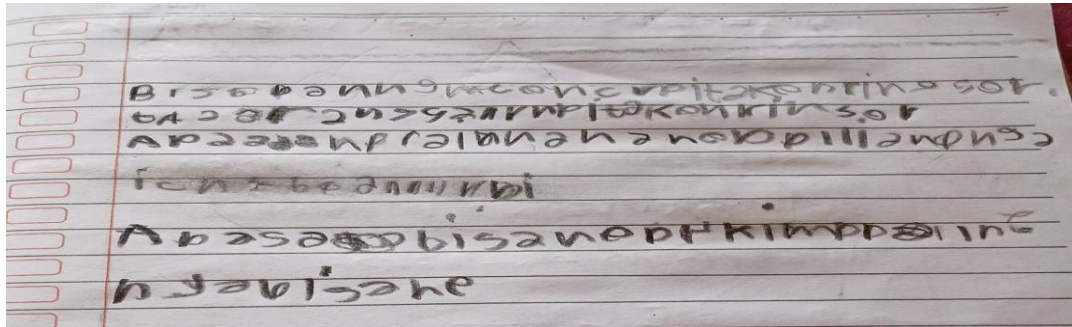


Figure 1 A sample of sentence writing in Bahasa Indonesia showing inconsistent letter formation, spacing, and letter reversals, which are common dyslexic writing indicators.
 Source: Field data, 2025.

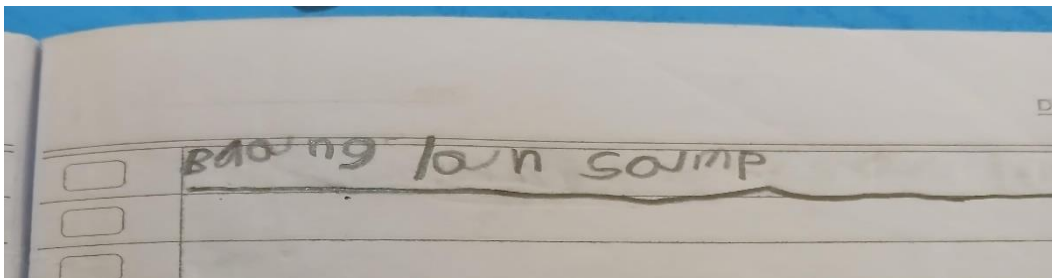


Figure 2 A student’s handwriting showing incorrect spelling of the phrase “brown soup” as “bloung loun soump”, indicating phonological confusion and letter substitution.
 Source: Field data, 2025

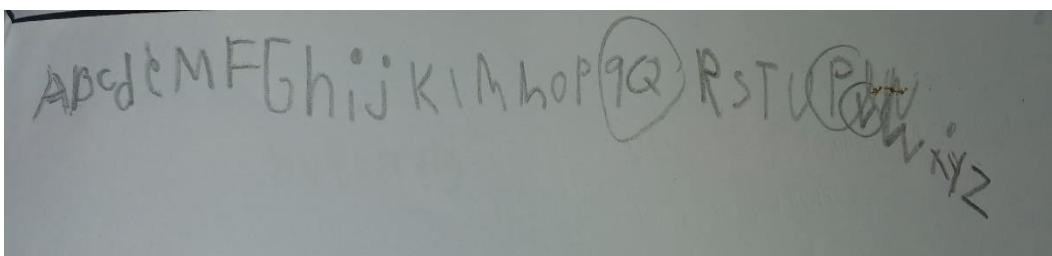


Figure 3 Alphabet writing by a student showing reversed letters, inconsistent sizing, and incorrect sequencing, which reflect difficulties in letter recognition and orientation.
 Source: Field data, 2025

2. The Treatment of Classroom Teachers Toward Potentially Dyslexic Students

The findings related to the second research question, which explored how teachers treat students who are potentially dyslexic in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom, reveal a range of strategies and responses. These were categorized into five key themes: identifying signs, emotional support, academic support, collaboration with stakeholders, and the absence of specific treatment.

Most teachers identified signs commonly associated with dyslexia through repeated observations, often noticing indicators such as poor letter recognition, letter reversals, and slow reading. However, the depth of their knowledge varied significantly. Among the participants, only Teacher 2 demonstrated some knowledge of dyslexia-related characteristics, specifically in reading, writing, and spelling difficulties. The teacher stated, "I sometimes give students who struggle with writing more time to finish their tasks, but I have not considered if they have potential dyslexia." While the term "dyslexia" was not explicitly used, the ability to connect these difficulties with a possible underlying condition reflects a limited knowledge level. Treatment strategies such as providing extra time, simplifying tasks, and offering encouragement were responsive, although not yet based on formal dyslexia intervention methods.

In contrast, Teacher 1 and Teacher 3 did not recognize that the symptoms they observed could be signs of dyslexia. Teacher 1 provided individual support and used visual media to enhance understanding but admitted, "I do not have a particular method for addressing spelling mistakes like 'frend' for 'friend'." This shows Limited knowledge, with no knowledge of dyslexia-specific strategies. Similarly, Teacher 3 noticed reading issues and encouraged students to read more, but said, "I haven't made any specific adjustments to help with reading speed," indicating a general approach without linking the symptoms to dyslexia. This difference in levels of knowledge directly influenced the type and quality of support provided. The teacher with some knowledge (Teacher 2) offered more emotional and academic support, even if informally. Meanwhile, teachers with limited or no knowledge of dyslexia tended to rely on generic classroom adjustments, such as giving more time or encouragement, without targeted strategies.

Some teachers also reported collaborating with stakeholders such as parents and other teachers particularly when a student's difficulties were ongoing. However, these efforts often addressed broad academic issues rather than being tailored to specific learning challenges such as dyslexia. Overall, the findings emphasize a clear connection between teachers' knowledge and the support they provide in the classroom. The one teacher with some knowledge of dyslexia responded more flexibly and supportively, even without formal training. In contrast, teachers who lacked this knowledge tended to perceive struggling students as simply slow learners and responded with only basic assistance. This suggests that strengthening teachers' knowledge of dyslexia is essential for enabling them to provide more accurate, appropriate, and effective support for students showing potential signs of the condition

Discussion

These findings highlight a specific gap in teachers' knowledge and treatment of students who are potentially dyslexic in the EFL classroom. The lack of knowledge about dyslexia among teachers suggests an urgent need for targeted professional development that promotes awareness and equips educators with appropriate instructional strategies. While some teachers showed efforts to support students emotionally and academically, these were not grounded in an informed understanding of dyslexia. According to Elliott and Grigorenko (2014), dyslexia involves persistent difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition, decoding, and spelling, often rooted in phonological deficits. These aspects were not specifically targeted in the interventions used by teachers in this study.

Teachers frequently used general classroom strategies, including extending time, providing visual aids, and involving peers. While helpful to an extent, these methods did not specifically address the needs of potentially dyslexic learners. The absence of specialized techniques such as structured literacy instruction, multi-sensory approaches or assistive technology reveals a lack of readiness to effectively support these students. This aligns with the findings of Washburn et al., (2011), who emphasized that many elementary school teachers receive little formal training in dyslexia, often leading to misinterpretation of student behavior as laziness or low motivation. Moreover, collaboration with specialists such as special education teachers or psychologists was minimal. While some teachers reported informal consultations with parents or other teacher, these efforts did not result in structured interventions. According to Peer and Reid (2003), effective support for dyslexic students requires coordinated teamwork among professionals to ensure consistent support across learning environments. Another key finding is that most teachers did not recognize or label the observed difficulties as signs of potential dyslexia. This lack of identification further limits the support students receive, as early recognition is crucial for timely intervention. Knight (2025) argues that proper diagnosis and understanding can significantly improve learning outcomes for students with dyslexia, but this requires educators to be able to distinguish between general academic struggles and specific learning disorders. These findings call for future research to investigate the impact of teacher training programs on their ability to identify and support potentially dyslexic students in EFL classrooms. Additionally, there is a need to promote greater collaboration between teachers and specialists, ensuring a more inclusive and supportive learning environment for all learners.

CONCLUSION

This qualitative case study was conducted through classroom observations and interviews at SD Negeri 1 Kaliuntu, SD Negeri 1 Kampung Anyar, and SD Negeri 2 Banjar Bali. Based on the research findings, the following conclusions can be drawn as follows:

- 1) In response to the first research question, the teachers were able to identify some signs of students who are potentially dyslexic, especially difficulties in reading, writing, and spelling. However, their knowledge remains limited in other important areas, such as phonological awareness, sequencing, and auditory memory. The recognition of these characteristics is mostly based on personal teaching experiences rather than specialized training.
- 2) Concerning the second research question, the teachers provided support to potentially dyslexic students by using simple instructions, providing additional time, giving individual assistance, and utilizing visual media. These methods have been useful, but they are general practices rather than specific strategies aimed at supporting dyslexic learners.

In light of these findings, there is a clear need for more structured professional development opportunities for teachers. It is recommended that teacher training programs include specific modules or workshops focused on dyslexia awareness and instructional strategies tailored to the needs of dyslexic learners. Training topics may include early identification of dyslexia-related characteristics, the use of multisensory teaching approaches, assistive technology, phonological training, and classroom accommodations. Collaborations with specialists and inclusive education trainers could also help equip

teachers with the necessary skills to provide more effective support for students with learning differences.

REFERENCE

- Al-edris, A., Baneng, M., & Masoh, K. (2023). A Case Study of Using IQRA ' Multi-Sensory Learning Model to Enhance EFL Letter Recognition Among Grade 5 Dyslexia Students in the Southern Border of Thailand. *PERINTIS EJournal*, 13(1), 117–125.
- Ariati, N. P. P., Padmadewi, N. N., & Suarnajaya, I. W. (2018). Jolly phonics: effective strategy for enhancing children english literacy. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 42, 00032. <https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20184200032>
- Bali Dyslexia Foundation. (n.d.). Empowering children with dyslexia in Bali. Retrieved May 7, 2025, from <https://www.balidyslexiafoundation.org/>
- Budiani, L., & Putrayasa, I. B. (2023). Kesulitan Membaca Kata Anak Disleksia Usia 7-12 Tahun di Sekolah Dasar. *Journal of Education Action Research*, 7(3), 376–381. <https://doi.org/10.23887/jear.v7i3.66560>
- Elliott, J. G., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2014). Assessment and intervention. In *The Dyslexia Debate* (pp. 123–165). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9781139017824.006>
- Gee, J. P. (2012). What is literacy? *Language and Linguistics in Context: Readings and Applications for Teachers*, 2(1), 257–264. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203929124>
- Glazzard, J. (2010). The impact of dyslexia on pupils' self-esteem. *Support for Learning*, 25(2), 63–69. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9604.2010.01442.x>
- Hulme, C., & Snowling, M. J. (2016). Reading disorders and dyslexia. *Current Opinion in Pediatrics*, 28(6), 731–735. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MOP.0000000000000411>
- Ihbour, S., Anarghou, H., Boulhana, A., Najimi, M., & Chigr, F. (2021). Mental health among students with neurodevelopment disorders: Case of dyslexic children and adolescents. *Dementia e Neuropsychologia*, 15(4), 533–540. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1980-57642021dn15-040014>
- International Dyslexia Association. (2017). Dyslexia in the classroom. *International Dyslexia Association (IDA)*, 15. <https://dyslexiaida.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/DITC-Handbook.pdf>
- Knight, C. (2025). Dyslexia: Identity, labelling and its place in inclusive education. *British Journal of Special Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8578.70028>
- Lestari, R. P., Fitriani, S. S., & Erdiana, N. (2017). *E-ISSN 2528-746X Reading Comprehension Difficulties Encountered By Senior High School EFL Students* (Vol. 2, Issue 2).
- Made, N., Indah, D., & Dewi, P. (2022). Teaching Strategies Used to Deal with Dyslexic Students' Learning Difficulties. *Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Undiksha*, 10(2), 128–137. <https://doi.org/10.23887/jpbi.v10i2.4>
- Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis* (second). SAGE Publications.
- Morken, F., & Helland, T. (2013). Writing in dyslexia: Product and process. *Dyslexia*, 19(3), 131–148. <https://doi.org/10.1002/dys.1455>
- Padmadewi, N. N., Artini, L. P., Budiarta, L. G. R., & Apriliadewi, P. A. R. (2020). *Primary Literacy Activities in Basic Education in Bali: Describing Implication on Children Reading and Writing in EFL*.

- Padmadewi, N. N., Sukadana, I. M. S. A., Artini, L. P., Ana, I. K. T. A., Lesmana, K. Y. P., & Susiani, K. (2024). Inclusive Education: Survey on Teachers' Perception of Its Implementation. *Indonesian Journal of Instruction*, 5(3), 315–330. <https://doi.org/10.23887/iji.v5i3.81932>
- Peer, L. & Reid, G. (2003). Introduction to Dyslexia. *David Fulton, London*.
- Prawira, N. N. P., Artini, L. P., Marsakawati, N. P. E., Padmadewi, N. N., Ratminingsih, N. M., & Utami, I. G. A. L. P. (2023). The Implementation of Literacy Activities in Primary School. *Jurnal Imiah Pendidikan Dan Pembelajaran*, 7(1), 150–156. <https://doi.org/10.23887/jipp.v7i1.56108>
- Prihatini, S. O. (2020). an Analysis of Students' Difficulties in Reading Comprehension At Sma Negeri 1 Sukodadi Lamongan. *E-Link Journal*, 7(1), 21. <https://doi.org/10.30736/ej.v7i1.261>
- Ratnadi, N. N. A., & Adnyani, L. D. S. (2023). EFL teachers' experience for hard of hearing students in inclusive setting. *Journal of Research on English and Language Learning (J-REaLL)*, 4(2), 39–51. <https://doi.org/10.33474/j-reall.v4i2.20003>
- Riddick, B., Sterling, C., Farmer, M., & Morgan, S. (1999). Self-esteem and anxiety in the educational histories of adult dyslexic students. *Dyslexia*, 5(4), 227–248. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-0909\(199912\)5:4<227::AID-DYS146>3.0.CO;2-6](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0909(199912)5:4<227::AID-DYS146>3.0.CO;2-6)
- Sari, E. M., Siswanto, W., & Efendi, M. (2021). Development of Interactive Multimedia for Early Readers with Dyslexia at an Inclusive Elementary School in Malang City. *Journal of ICSAR*, 5(1), 14–18. <http://journal2.um.ac.id/index.php/icsar/article/view/18364>
- Soegondo, K. D., Solek, P., Natasha Hartanto, R., Pambudi, W., Elizabeth, R., Irma Rachmawati, R., Iman, Y., Alia, D., Aufie, A., Nur Brusiana Suandi, R., & Maufuriyah, I. (2022). Empowering teachers, empowering the nation: Developing an accessible training system for dyslexia in Indonesia. Introduction And Background-The Need For Training. *Asia Pacific Journal of Developmental Differences*, 9(1), 31–41. <https://doi.org/10.3850/S2345734122000108>
- Stagg, S. D., Eaton, E., & Sjoblom, A. M. (2018). Self-efficacy in undergraduate students with dyslexia: a mixed methods investigation. *British Journal of Special Education*, 45(1), 26–42. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8578.12200>
- Washburn, E. K., Joshi, R. M., & Binks-Cantrell, E. S. (2011). Teacher knowledge of basic language concepts and dyslexia. *Dyslexia*, 17(2). <https://doi.org/10.1002/dys.426>
- Zdravkova, V. (2022). the Influence of Dyslexia on Childrens' Self-Esteem in Primary School. *KNOWLEDGE - International Journal*, 54(5), 757–761. <https://doi.org/10.35120/kij5405757z>
- Zua, B. (2021). Literacy: Gateway to a World of Exploits. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, 9(1), 96. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.9n.1p.96>