

Exploring a Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy Under Time Pressure — A Study of Introductory Professional Texts for STEM Students

Minmin Tu, Yiqi Yu* and Ximin Yin

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, 200093, China

Email: yuyiqi@usst.edu.cn

How to cite this paper: Tu, M., Yu, Y., & Yin, X. (2026). Exploring a Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy Under Time Pressure — A Study of Introductory Professional Texts for STEM Students. *Educational and Humanities*, 4(3), 77–88. ISSN Print: 3104-4352, ISSN Online: 3104-4360.

<https://doi.org/10.63313/EH.9118>

Published: 2026-09-30

Copyright © 2026 by author(s) and Erytis Publishing Limited.

This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution International License (CC BY 4.0).

<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>



Abstract

Reading under time pressure requires readers to balance comprehension accuracy with processing speed, yet limited attention has been paid to how metacognitive strategy instruction affects this balance. Drawing on metacognitive theory, this study developed a Three-stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy to support STEM students in reading introductory professional English texts. A single-group pre-post design was adopted, involving 22 STEM freshmen. Participants completed a reading comprehension test before and after a one-week interval during which they watched a 10-minute instructional video on effective reading strategies. Reading accuracy, response time, and overall reading efficiency were measured respectively. The results showed no statistically significant changes in accuracy, response time, or reading efficiency after the deliberate interval. The near-perfect pre-test accuracy suggests that a ceiling effect may have limited the sensitivity of the accuracy measure. In addition, the short training period and the cognitive demands involved in applying an unfamiliar strategy may have prevented participants from integrating the strategy into their existing reading processes. These findings suggest that brief exposure to a metacognitive reading strategy may not produce immediate improvements among relatively proficient readers and highlight the need for longer training periods and more sensitive measures of reading performance.

Keywords

Metacognitive Strategies; Time Pressure; Reading Efficiency; Professional English Reading; Information Selection

1. Introduction

1.1. Metacognitive Strategies in Reading

Flavell (1979) introduced metacognition as an individual's awareness, monitoring,

and regulation of cognitive processes. Its role in reading has since received sustained attention in applied linguistics. Studies suggest that metacognitive knowledge and regulation can help learners plan reading tasks, monitor comprehension, and evaluate learning outcomes (Perry & Golder, 2018[14]; Ishak & Ahmad, 2025[6]). Metacognitive strategy instruction has therefore become an important area of reading research.

Haryono (2023) described metacognitive reading in terms of self-planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. Each stage involves different forms of metacognitive activity, including planning before reading, monitoring and regulation during reading, and evaluation after reading. Drawing on this framework, the present study organized metacognitive strategy training into three corresponding stages: pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading.

Despite growing interest in metacognitive reading strategies, two issues remain insufficiently addressed. First, differences in language proficiency are not always adequately controlled, even though proficiency may influence both strategy use and reading performance (Jang et al., 2025[7]). Second, relatively little attention has been paid to the way time pressure shapes strategy selection. Time constraints may change not only reading speed but also the strategies readers use to allocate attention and process information (Orthey et al., 2019[12]). On the basis of it, this study attempts to approach the issue from the variable of “reading strategies”, focusing on the actual needs of STEM students when reading fundamental English texts under time constraints. It explores the applicability and adjustment mechanisms of metacognitive strategies under time pressure, aiming to address the limitations of existing research regarding insufficient attention to the dimension of strategy selection and to provide actionable guidelines for improving time-sensitive reading efficiency.

1.2. Time Pressure and Reading Efficiency

Time pressure can affect both reading performance and judgements of readers’ own comprehension. Yan Min (2018) found that readers under time pressure exhibited lower accuracy in performance than their counterparts without time constraints and demonstrated greater overconfidence in metacognitive monitoring[2]. These findings suggest that limited time may reduce processing depth while also making it more difficult for readers to assess their comprehension accurately.

Eye-tracking research provides further evidence that readers adjust their behaviour when time is limited. Meschino (2011) found that students reading academic articles gradually shifted from linear reading to skimming and devoted proportionally more time to abstracts [9]. Other research indicates that readers may allocate more time to easier texts when working under time pressure, suggesting that attention is distributed partly according to expected value and processing cost (Seitz et al., 2023[16]).

Taken together, these findings indicate that time pressure may affect not only reading speed but also how readers allocate attention and select strategies. Conventional intensive or extensive reading approaches may therefore be insufficient when readers must identify relevant information within a limited period. This highlights the need to examine strategies that explicitly incorporate time constraints and information prioritisation.

1.3. Academic English Reading in STEM Disciplines

For STEM students, the ability to read academic English texts is critical for accessing disciplinary knowledge. Introductory materials serve as a bridge between general English courses and research literature by introducing key concepts, terminology, and conventional patterns of disciplinary explanation. Difficulties in reading such materials may therefore restrict students' access to more advanced academic sources.

Traditional intensive reading often encourages close, line-by-line processing. Although this approach can support detailed comprehension, it may be inefficient when students need to locate central arguments, key evidence, or specific information quickly. Under deadlines or timed-test conditions, readers must determine which parts of a text deserve close attention and which can be scanned or skipped. Strategies that support these decisions may help students allocate their limited time more effectively.

1.4. Purpose and Significance of the Study

This study examines whether a Three-stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy affects STEM students' accuracy, response time, and reading efficiency when they read introductory professional English texts under time pressure. By linking metacognitive regulation with information selection, the study explores how readers may plan, monitor, and evaluate their reading when time is limited.

The study also has a practical aim. The proposed strategy gives students a structured way to identify their purpose, prioritise relevant information, monitor comprehension, and review what they have learned. Although the present experiment offers only preliminary evidence, the strategy may inform future professional English instruction and longer-term training programmes.

2. Theoretical Framework and Strategy Development

To address the demands of reading under time pressure, this study developed the Three-Stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy. Within this framework, selective reading strategy refers to the deliberate selection and prioritisation of text sections according to their relevance to the reader's purpose. The strategy integrates metacognitive planning, monitoring, regulation, and evaluation with principles drawn from information foraging theory.

2.1. Metacognitive Regulation and Information Selection

Haryono's (2023) account of metacognitive reading in terms of self-planning, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation provides the organisational basis for the strategy. Metacognitive regulation operates throughout these stages: readers plan by setting goals and choosing an approach before reading; monitor and regulate comprehension while reading; and evaluate their understanding after reading (Novia et al., 2019[11]; Binbasaran & Greene, 2014[3]).

Previous research on reading under time pressure provides further support for selective attention allocation. Xu Yiming et al. (2018) found that writing keywords under time pressure promoted deeper processing during screen reading and reduced the disadvantage associated with the medium [1]. This finding suggests that an explicit task can direct attention and partly offset the effects of limited time. Meschino (2011) similarly found that experienced readers shifted from linear reading towards more goal-directed scanning under time pressure[9]. Together, these studies support the view that readers can be taught to allocate attention more selectively.

This selective allocation of attention can be further explained through information foraging theory. Pirolli and Card (1999) propose that people seek useful information while balancing its expected value against the cost of obtaining it [15]. In a time-limited reading task, readers must decide which sections are likely to contain relevant information and whether the expected benefit of closer reading justifies the time required. Selective reading is therefore treated here as purposeful information selection rather than indiscriminate skimming.

2.2. The Three-Stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy

On this basis, the reading process was organised into three stages that correspond to planning, monitoring and regulation, and evaluation.

Stage 1 Pre-reading: Value Prediction and Strategy Selection. Before reading, students clarify their purpose, scan high-information sections such as titles, abstracts, and conclusions, and decide how closely different parts should be read. This stage is intended to reduce time spent on information that is unlikely to contribute to the reading goal.

Stage 2 While-reading: Comprehension Monitoring and Problem Solving. During reading, students focus on central content, ask questions, and use connections or analogies to resolve difficulties. These activities encourage them to monitor whether they understand the text and adjust their approach when comprehension breaks down.

Stage 3 Post-reading: Integration and Evaluation. After reading, students explain central ideas in their own words, connect new information with prior knowledge, and evaluate whether the reading goal has been achieved. The use of explanation and reflection is intended to move reading beyond information intake towards

knowledge integration (Travero et al., 2025[19]; Nobutoshi, 2023[10]). This stage is also consistent with Partosa's (2012) emphasis on the relationship between metacognition and science reading [13].

2.3. Strategy Implementation and Evaluation

Each stage includes concrete prompts, such as scanning the title and summary, identifying the reading goal, and asking questions while reading. These prompts are intended to make the strategy easier to practise and to clarify how each action relates to metacognitive planning, monitoring, regulation, or evaluation.

The strategy could be incorporated into existing professional English courses through guided practice with disciplinary texts and timed reading tasks. Instruction could begin with teacher modelling and gradually move towards independent strategy use. Repeated practice would allow students to test when scanning, selective close reading, or more detailed processing is appropriate.

Future evaluations could assess strategy use at several levels. Performance measures may include comprehension accuracy, response time, and reading efficiency; metacognitive measures may examine the relationship between confidence and actual comprehension; and transfer tasks may test whether students apply the strategy to new academic texts. Eye-tracking or retrospective reports could provide additional evidence about how attention is allocated during reading.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Twenty-seven first-year STEM students from the University of Shanghai for Science and Technology were recruited. None had received systematic instruction in the Three-Stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy. All participants reported normal or corrected-to-normal vision and no reading disabilities. Twenty-two participants completed the pre-test, intervention, and post-test, and their data were included in the final analysis ($N = 22$).

3.2. Design and Procedure

The study used a single-group pre-post design to examine preliminary changes in students' reading performance after instruction in the Three-Stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy. The procedure consisted of four phases.

- 1) **Pre-test.** Participants completed a five-item reading comprehension test based on Reading Material A in E-Prime. The test measured baseline comprehension accuracy and response time before strategy instruction.
- 2) **Interval.** After the pre-test, participants were given one week to study the strategy independently. The research team provided a 10-minute instructional video explaining the purpose and steps of the Three-Stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy.

- 3) **Strategy mastery assessment.** Before the post-test, participants completed a knowledge quiz covering the three stages and their main procedures. They were required to answer all questions correctly before proceeding. Participants who answered incorrectly reviewed the relevant material and attempted the quiz again. This assessment checked whether participants understood the content of the instructional video; it did not directly measure whether they applied the strategy during reading.
- 4) **Post-test.** After passing the knowledge quiz, participants completed a second five-item reading comprehension test based on Reading Material B in E-Prime. Texts A and B were both popular science texts and were selected to be comparable in topic, difficulty, and structure. E-Prime recorded response accuracy and response time during the post-test.

3.3. Materials and Measures

- 1) **Reading materials.** Two popular science texts were selected to represent introductory professional English reading. Their subject matter was relevant to the participants' STEM backgrounds, which was intended to reduce significant differences in terms of their prior knowledge. Subject-matter specialists reviewed the texts to verify comparability in difficulty and structure. Two five-item multiple-choice tests were developed to assess information extraction, logical reasoning, and identification of main ideas. The texts and questions are provided in the Appendix.
- 2) **Instructional material.** The research team produced a 10-minute video explaining and demonstrating the Three-Stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy with extracts from popular science texts. The video introduced the purpose of each stage and modelled the main procedures.
- 3) **Equipment.** The reading tests were programmed in E-Prime 3.0. All passages and questions appeared in the centre of a computer screen, and participants responded by keyboard. The software standardised the presentation sequence and recorded accuracy and response time in milliseconds.

3.4. Variables and Measures

- 1) The independent variable was exposure to the strategy-instruction intervention.
- 2) The dependent variables were:
 - Comprehension accuracy: the proportion of correct responses.
 - Response time: the time taken to read and answer the test items.
 - Reading efficiency: comprehension accuracy divided by response time.

3.5. Data Analysis

Raw data from the 22 participants were exported from E-Prime and analysed in

RStudio. The analysis proceeded as follows.

- 1) **Data preprocessing.** Mean accuracy and response time were calculated for each participant in the pre-test and post-test. Reading efficiency was then calculated as accuracy divided by response time.
- 2) **Descriptive analysis.** Means (M) and standard deviations (SD) were calculated for accuracy, response time, and reading efficiency in each test.
- 3) **Inferential analysis.** Paired-samples t-tests compared pre-test and post-test scores for the 22 participants. Statistical significance was evaluated at $\alpha = .05$, and Cohen's d was reported as an estimate of effect size.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for comprehension accuracy, response time, and reading efficiency in the pre-test and post-test.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Pre-test and Post-test Performance (N = 22)

Measure	Pre-test (M±SD)	Post-test (M±SD)	Change (M±SD)
Accuracy	0.991±0.043	0.982±0.059	-0.009±0.043
Response time (ms)	60250.39±15753.70	62040.09±14796.07	+1789.70±9392.11
Reading efficiency	0.01761±0.00493	0.01678±0.00434	-0.00083±0.00268

Mean accuracy was 0.991 (SD = 0.043) in the pre-test and 0.982 (SD = 0.059) in the post-test. Accuracy therefore remained close to the maximum in both tests. Mean post-test response time was 1,789.70 ms longer than mean pre-test response time, indicating that participants spent slightly more time reading and answering the post-test items. Mean reading efficiency also decreased slightly in the post-test.

4.2. Paired-Samples t-Test Results

Paired-samples t-tests were conducted to determine whether the observed differences between pre-test and post-test scores were statistically significant.

- 1) **Accuracy.** The difference in accuracy between the pre-test and post-test was not statistically significant, $t(21) = -1.00$, $p = .329$, Cohen's $d = -0.21$.
- 2) **Response time.** The difference in response time between pre-test and post-test was not statistically significant, $t(21) = 0.89$, $p = .382$, Cohen's $d = 0.19$.
- 3) **Reading efficiency.** The difference in reading efficiency between pre-test and post-test was not statistically significant, $t(21) = -1.45$, $p = .161$, Cohen's $d = -0.31$. The effect estimate was small and negative, although it did not reach statistical significance.

4.3. Individual Differences

Although none of the overall differences reached statistical significance, individual participants varied in the direction and magnitude of change (see Table 2).

Table 2. Pre-test and Post-test Accuracy and Response Times by Participant (N = 22)

Subject ID	Pre-test Accuracy	Post-test Accuracy	Pre-test reaction time (ms)	Post-test reaction time (ms)
1	1.00	1.00	50165.2	52903.6
2	1.00	1.00	77211.0	78202.2
3	1.00	1.00	65512.8	74953.6
4	1.00	1.00	44946.2	50916.8
6	1.00	1.00	73791.2	64233.8
7	1.00	1.00	77693.4	61461.2
10	1.00	1.00	57902.2	72976.0
11	1.00	0.80	33901.6	36316.0
12	1.00	1.00	77303.8	70497.4
13	0.80	0.80	60174.2	81570.6
14	1.00	1.00	49601.0	55140.4
15	1.00	1.00	37752.0	35113.2
18	1.00	1.00	91710.6	82227.0
19	1.00	1.00	73926.4	81532.2
20	1.00	1.00	49381.4	47610.2
21	1.00	1.00	66443.4	79604.8
22	1.00	1.00	57258.6	47127.6
23	1.00	1.00	47814.2	51189.2
24	1.00	1.00	43850.8	52797.0
25	1.00	1.00	52048.6	58860.8
26	1.00	1.00	52883.8	54956.2
27	1.00	1.00	84236.3	74692.3

- 1) **Accuracy:** Twenty participants obtained a pre-test accuracy score of 1.00. Nineteen maintained a score of 1.00 across both tests, one decreased from 1.00 to 0.80, and one maintained a score of 0.80 across both tests. The concentration of scores at or near 1.00 indicates that the test provided little room for measurable improvement.
- 2) **Response time:** Seven participants (31.8%) responded more quickly in the post-test, whereas 15 (68.2%) took longer. Participant 7 showed the largest reduction in response time (-16,232.2 ms), while Participant 13 showed the largest increase (+21,396.4 ms) (see Figure 1). These values describe individual changes and should not be interpreted as evidence of a general treatment effect.

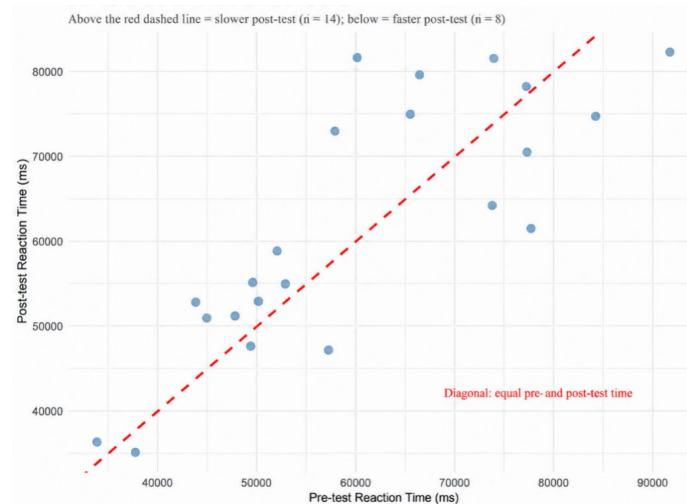


Figure 1. Pre-test and Post-test Response Time

- 1) **Reading efficiency:** Seven participants (31.8%) showed higher reading-efficiency scores in the post-test. Participant 7 showed the largest increase (+0.0034). The remaining participants showed no improvement or lower efficiency scores after the intervention.

5. Discussion

The analysis found no statistically significant changes in comprehension accuracy, response time, or reading efficiency after the one-week interval. The effect sizes were small, with the largest absolute effect observed for reading efficiency (Cohen's $d = -0.31$). Several features of the study may help explain these findings.

5.1. Ceiling Effect in Comprehension Accuracy

Mean pre-test accuracy was 0.991, and mean post-test accuracy remained high at 0.982. Because most participants answered all five questions correctly before the interval, the accuracy measure offered little room to detect improvement. The small number of questions also limited the measure's sensitivity: one incorrect response changed a participant's score from 1.00 to 0.80. The resulting ceiling effect may therefore have obscured subtle changes in comprehension (Staus et al., 2021[17]). Because reading efficiency was calculated from accuracy and response time, the restricted variation in accuracy also reduced the interpretability of the combined measure.

5.2. Cognitive Demands of Strategy Adjustment

Applying an unfamiliar reading strategy may initially require conscious attention to its individual steps. Participants had to remember when to plan, monitor, adjust, and evaluate their reading while also processing the text itself. This additional demand may have slowed reading before the strategy became automatic (Sweller,

2024[18]; Urban et al., 2023[20]). The lower mean efficiency observed after training may reflect a temporary adjustment cost, but the present data do not establish such a mechanism. Direct measures of strategy use or cognitive load would be needed to test this explanation.

5.3. Duration and Intensity of Training

The interval may also have been too brief to generate measurable behavioral change. Research on strategy instruction indicates that repeated practice and feedback can support the development of stable strategy use. For example, Mekuria et al. (2024) reported improvements following a 12-week reading-strategy programme [8]. In contrast, the present interval consisted of a 10-minute video followed by one week of independent study. This exposure may have helped participants understand the strategy without giving them sufficient practice to apply it fluently under time pressure.

5.4. Participant and Design Limitations

The participants demonstrated strong comprehension scores at baseline and may already have been relying on familiar, well-practiced reading strategies. Introducing a new procedure could have conflicted with these established routines and temporarily increased the effort required to complete the task (Sweller, 2024[18]). In addition, the study used a small sample and no control group. Differences between the two texts, familiarity with the testing procedure, or normal variation in participant performance could therefore have contributed to the observed changes. The results should be interpreted as preliminary rather than causal evidence of the strategy's effectiveness.

6. Conclusion

This study explored the preliminary effects of a Three-Stage Metacognitive Selective Reading Strategy on the reading performance of STEM students under time pressure. After the one-week interval, participants showed no statistically significant changes in comprehension accuracy, response time, or reading efficiency. Brief exposure to the strategy therefore did not generate an immediate improvement in this sample. The findings nevertheless identify several issues for future research. Near-perfect baseline scores limited the ability of the comprehension test to detect improvement, whereas the short interval may not have provided enough time for the strategy to reach automaticity. Future studies should use longer training periods, include repeated practice and feedback, recruit larger and more varied samples, and adopt more sensitive comprehension measures. A control group and direct measures of strategy use or cognitive load would also help determine whether changes in performance are attributable to the strategy. Further research should focus on how readers gradually integrate metacognitive regulation with selective information

processing, rather than assessing only their immediate performance after a brief introduction.

References

- [1] Xu, Y. M, Shang, T. T., Yan, M., Du, Y. Y., Wang, X., & Zhang, Z. X. (2018) The effects of time pressure and presentation medium on reading performance and metacognition. In proceedings of the 21st National Conference on Psychology (eds.), Department of Psychology, Zhejiang Normal University.
- [2] Yan, M. (2018) The effects of time pressure and presentation medium on reading performance and metacognition [D]. Zhejiang Normal University.
- [3] Binbasaran Tuysuzoglu, B., & Greene, J. A. (2014) An investigation of the role of contingent metacognitive behavior in self-regulated learning. *Metacognition and Learning*, 10(1), 77–98. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11409-014-9126-y>
- [4] Flavell, J. H. (1979) Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive–developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, 34(10), 906–911. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.34.10.906>
- [5] Haryono, P. (2023) Implementation of Metacognitive Strategies on Students' Ability to Read English Texts. *Sustainable Jurnal Kajian Mutu Pendidikan*, 6(2), 543–548. <https://doi.org/10.32923/kjmp.v6i2.3770>
- [6] Ishak, M., Oderinde, I., & Ahmad, S. (2025) The role of metacognitive strategies in enhancing learning outcomes and educational efficiency: A systematic review of quantitative, qualitative and mixed method studies. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*.
- [7] Jang, E., Seo, Y.S. & Brutt-Griffler, J. (2025) The mediating effect of metacognitive strategies on the relationship between reading motivation and reading achievement in multilingual and english-dominant students. *Read Writ* 38, 1271–1289. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-024-10555-2>
- [8] Mekuria, A., Bushisho, E. W., & Wubshet, H. (2024) The effects of reading strategy training on students' reading strategy use and critical reading ability in EFL reading classes. *Cogent Education*, 11(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186x.2024.2310444>
- [9] Meschino L. (2011) Studying Journal Articles under Time Pressure[D]. University of Waterloo.
- [10] Nobutoshi, M. (2023) Metacognition and Reflective Teaching: A Synergistic Approach to Fostering Critical Thinking Skills. *Research and Advances in Education*, 2(9), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.56397/rae.2023.09.01>
- [11] Novia, H., Kaniawati, I., Rusli, A., & Rusdiana, D. (2019) The development of metacognitive awareness related to the implementation of metacognitive-based learning. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, 1170, 012034. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1170/1/012034>
- [12] Orthey, R., Palena, N., Vrij, A., Meijer, E., Leal, S., Blank, H., & Caso, L. (2019) Effects of time pressure on strategy selection and strategy execution in forced choice tests. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 33(5), 974–979. <https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.3592>
- [13] Partosa, J. D. (2012) Using Metacognition as a Tool to Advance Reading Comprehension in a Science Class. In *Biology Education for Social and Sustainable Development* (pp. 86–96). SensePublishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6091-927-5_8
- [14] Perry, J., Lundie, D., & Golder, G. (2018) Metacognition in schools: what does the literature suggest about the effectiveness of teaching metacognition in schools? *Educational Review*, 71(4), 483–500. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2018.1441127>
- [15] Pirolli, P., & Card, S. (1999) Information foraging. *Psychological Review*, 106(4), 643–675.
- [16] Seitz, F. I., von Helversen, B., Albrecht, R., Rieskamp, J., & Jarecki, J. B. (2023) Testing

- three coping strategies for time pressure in categorizations and similarity judgments. *Cognition*, 233, 105358. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2022.105358>
- [17] Staus, N. L., O'Connell, K., & Storksdieck, M. (2021) Addressing the Ceiling Effect when Assessing STEM Out-Of-School Time Experiences. *Frontiers in Education*, 6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/educ.2021.690431>
- [18] Sweller, J. (2024) Cognitive load theory and individual differences. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 110, 102423. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2024.102423>
- [19] Traverro, A. S., M. Castrodes, C., & B. Panganiban, P. J. (2025) Students' Perceptions of Feynman Technique in Mathematics Learning: A Case of a State University in Claveria, Misamis Oriental. *Research and Analysis Journal*, 8(06), 01-05. <https://doi.org/10.18535/raj.v8i06.535>
- [20] Urban, M., Urban, K., & Nietfeld, J. L. (2023) The effect of a distributed metacognitive strategy intervention on reading comprehension. *Metacognition and Learning*, 18(2), 405-424. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11409-023-09334-1>
- [21] Waris, O., Fellman, D., Jylkka, J., & Laine, M. (2021) Stimulus novelty, task demands, and strategy use in episodic memory. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 74(5), 872-888. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1747021820980301>