CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Feedback has long been recognized as an essential component in education, particularly in its integration with teaching and learning strategies designed to enhance students' reading comprehension. Even numerous studies have highlighted the fundamental role of feedback in helping learners monitor and improve their performance. This is supported by Locke and Latham (1990, p. 23), who argue that feedback enables students to set reasonable goals and track their performance about these goals, allowing adjustments in effort, direction, and even strategy to be made as needed.

Nasab and Ghafournia (2016) also suggest that, as teachers, we should attempt to gather feedback regarding students' reactions and the effects on class achievement to determine the relevance and effectiveness of the strategies used. Furthermore, Hattie & Timperley (2007, pp. 31–33) stated that teachers offer feedback designed to help students master the subtasks needed to meet their longer-term goals, as feedback is recommended as an effective learning phase. It is also stated that providing feedback that highlights learners' capabilities as agents of their development and change where the individuals structure the achievement context in a manner that conveys to participants the criteria for success through the evaluation procedures, the distribution of rewards, the type of feedback provided, etc. (Pajares, 2006; Ames, 1992).

Feedback that verifies the validity of low-confidence responses should enable learners to reduce the gap between their perceived and actual performance by allowing them to adjust their subjective assessments of their knowledge. Moreover, when feedback enables learners to correct initial metacognitive errors, it should also enhance the long-term retention of correct responses and improve the accuracy of metacognitive monitoring on subsequent tests. Thus, feedback not only plays a role in helping guide students toward academic goals but also, over time, helps clarify what these goals are (Butler, 2008; Sadler, 1989).

oreover, Nicola and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) argued that good feedback s broadly defined as anything that might strengthen the students' capacity gulate their performance. It becomes important as it helps clarify what rformance is (goals, criteria and expected standards), facilitates the

development of self-assessment (reflection) in learning, delivers high-quality information to students about their learning, encourages teacher and peer dialogue around learning, encourages positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem, provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance, and provides information to teachers that can be used to help shape teaching. In addition, Taras found that providing feedback to students shows the benefits of integrating external and internal feedback, as well as ways to help students internalize and use tutor feedback (cited in Nicola and Macfarlane-Dick, 2006).

Obilor (2019) supports the previous point of view that feedback exists in all processes, activities, and information that enhances learning; it allows learners to reflect on their marks, understand their strengths, and identify areas requiring improvement. A finding by Nasmilah et al. (2021) also revealed that high-achieving students enjoy receiving feedback from their teachers, as they are eager to find out the results of their learning process in the classroom.

This is evidence that effective feedback enhances learning and development for both the giver and the receiver, as it should be accessible and helpful to students in improving their understanding of their studies and enhancing their future performance. It also plays multiple roles in mediating not only a learner's academic performance but also internal processes such as the learner's knowledge and beliefs, goal-setting processes, strategy use, and self-regulated learning (Brookhart, 2008; Butler & Winne, 1995; Carver & Scheier, 1990).

Based on the explanation above, feedback plays a significant role in learning success, particularly in reading comprehension, and is, therefore, frequently integrated as a key component in instructional strategies. Most researchers, such as Paris et al. (1991), believed that reading success depends on the strategies used, as strategy is a complex concept that needs clarification. It comprises the reader's awareness of comprehension problems and the selection of the most appropriate tool to solve them, which is the engine that drives comprehension. As Crossley and McNamara (2017) believe, one of the vital elements of effective instruction in reading comprehension is providing students with feedback targeting text comprehension.

As a result, feedback is frequently employed as an instructional technique functions as a supporting strategy in the learning process, particularly in reading comprehension. Numerous teaching approaches integrate as both a means of informing students about their performance and

guiding them on how to improve and as a means of encouraging the development of self-regulation, an element central to metacognitive reading strategies (MRS).

Ali and Razali (2019) stated that teachers are primarily aware of the importance of teaching reading strategies in the reading classroom. Therefore, teachers need to choose the most suitable strategies for their students' needs rather than using the same strategies throughout the term. This relates to the variety of strategies students might choose to comprehend the reading task through metacognitive regulation.

To support this idea, Flavell (1979: 906-907) demonstrated that metacognition plays a crucial role in oral communication, oral persuasion, oral comprehension, reading comprehension, writing, language acquisition, attention, memory, problem-solving, social cognition, and various types of self-control and self-instruction. Further, he added that metacognition includes four phenomena, namely, metacognitive knowledge, experiences, goals, and actions or strategies, and of the four phenomena in metacognition mentioned, metacognitive actions or strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluation) are considered the most fundamental phenomenon. Hence, they refer to the cognition or other behaviors employed to achieve metacognitive knowledge, experiences, and goals.

In line with Flavell, Block, and Israel (2005: 154) argued that a good reader uses metacognitive strategies for thinking and controlling before, while, and after reading a text. Zhang and Zhang (2019) also suggest that it is essential to help learners regulate their cognitive processes and develop into independent thinkers. In addition, Hartman (2001) agrees that effective instruction in metacognitive reading skills requires that teachers explain the skill or strategies, model them for the students…provide practice on a range of texts, and give corrective feedback.

Metacognitive skills involve the deliberate use of strategies, i.e., procedural knowledge, to control cognition. Metacognitive regulation refers to the metacognitive activities that help individuals control their thinking and learning. It consists of three components: planning, monitoring, and evaluation/evaluating (Flavell, 1979; Brown, 1980, 1987; Efklides, 2009; Schraw & Moshman, 1995, p. 354; Schraw, 1998; Tarricone, 2011; Veenman et al., 2006; Jacob & Paris, 1987; Kluwe. 1987; Wang et al., 2009; Swanson, 1994; Iwai, 2011; Meriado, 2016; 979; Oxford, 2002; and Pammu et al. 2021).

oncerning the implementation of metacognitive strategies mentioned in studies, students primarily applied planning, likely because planning

matures earlier than monitoring and evaluation, and they also applied evaluation to a lesser extent. These findings may inform that students had not been asked to evaluate their achievement behavior (Veenman, 2011; Veenman et al., 2006; Handel et al., 2013; Bransford et al., 2000; Schraw, 1998, as cited in Stephanou & Mpionthini, 2017, p. 1959). It is also evident from the findings of O'Malley et al. (1998) that, among metacognitive regulations, planning was the most common strategy applied by US ESL students (82.3%), compared to monitoring (9.4%) and evaluation (8.3%). Furthermore, Stephanou and Mpiontini (2017) concluded that the students used metacognitive regulation, mainly planning, to a moderate extent. Another study by Alsamadani (2009) also found that Saudis more frequently use planning strategies than evaluating strategies.

Based on the research findings above, the implementation of metacognitive reading strategies or metacognitive regulations has not been carried out systematically or optimally. Some parts are more dominant than others. As a result, this may be a reason to deal with rational explanations beyond maturity, as it indirectly becomes an obstacle to reading comprehension through the use of metacognitive strategies.

Additionally, certain studies have demonstrated the beneficial impact of metacognitive reading strategies on students' reading comprehension. Conversely, other studies have failed to identify a noteworthy enhancement. For example, Birjandi et al. (2013) concluded that metacognitive awareness guidance does not increase learners' engagement, nor does it influence their learning process, performance, or level of achievement on the test. According to Meniado (2016, p. 125), there is no significant relationship between the students' metacognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension performance. Likewise, a study conducted by Pammu et al. (2014) indicated that while the metacognitive strategy was associated with consistent increases in reported strategy use, it did not lead to increased observed reading performance.

Previous studies have indicated no significant relationship between students' metacognitive strategies and their reading comprehension. This suggests that metacognitive reading strategies are dynamic in their application, and further research is required. The fact that metacognitive reading strategies do /s succeed in improving students' reading comprehension, and that the provided to students can enhance self-reflection and self-regulation, e basis of this study. Hence, this research is of particular significance

because it aims to contribute novel insights into the idea of metacognitive reading strategies proposed by Flavell (1979) and further developed by Baker and Brown (1980) and Schraw and Moshman (1995) by integrating it with feedback.

Integrating feedback as a final element within the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, and evaluation could serve as a mechanism for discussing the evaluation results. This suggests that the process is not exclusively completed by allocating a grade. This assertion is substantiated by Hattie and Timperley (2007, pp. 88-89), who defined feedback as the information given to students and their teachers about the attainment of learning goals related to the task or performance, where the goals are more effective when students share a commitment to attaining the feedback because they are more likely to seek and receive feedback.

Though feedback plays an essential role in the MRS, its function as an independent component remains unexamined. This gap justifies the necessity of this research. Regarding this issue, the researcher intends to provide and implement feedback as a dependent component in the planning, monitoring, and evaluation phases and as an independent component of metacognitive regulation following the evaluation phase. This is due to its potential to offer students valuable insights regarding their academic progress, areas of vulnerability, and areas of proficiency. Furthermore, it also provides teachers with valuable insights into areas that may benefit from improvement, removal, or adjustment in future educational activities.

Therefore, in the present research, the researcher introduces the concept of multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS), a theoretical extension of Flavell's model, which integrates feedback as a distinct and integral component in students' comprehension processes that highlights the novelty of this study as the newest regulation/phase/component in metacognitive reading strategies, including planning, monitoring, evaluating, and feedback. This strategy was then employed to examine students' comprehension of the provided Qur'anic history-based reading materials at Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Pontianak, also known as the State Islamic Institute of Pontianak. The fact that IAIN Pontianak is the only state Islamic higher education institution in West Kalimantan, where a hundred per ıe students are Muslim. Therefore, it is a great responsibility to graduate ꜱ who are experts in their field and have a good understanding of Islam.

The integration of MMRS into English reading instruction, utilizing Qur'anic history, is based on the contextual needs of IAIN Pontianak, where it is not only academically important but also ideologically and morally relevant. This is also due to the presidential regulation No. 87 the year of 2017 concerning Strengthening Character Education Chapter I Article 3 states that Strengthening Character Education (PPK) is carried out by applying Pancasila values in character education, mainly including religious values, honest, tolerant, disciplined, hard-working, creative, independent, democratic …and be responsible, which is supported by the Regulation of the Minister of Religious Affairs (*Permenag*) of the Republic of Indonesia Number 2 the Year of 2020 concerning Implementation of Strengthening Character Education Part Four Article No. 9 Paragraph 2a that PPK in Religious Higher Education, as intended, is carried out through the implementation of PPK-based intracurricular activities.

Based on the aforementioned explanations and provisions, the educational practices within Islamic institutions must be harmoniously aligned with religious perspectives. This entails utilizing reading materials with historical roots in the Qur'an throughout instructional sessions, relating them to the significance of feedback in planning, monitoring, and evaluation, and providing feedback after all these phases within MMRS to improve students' reading comprehension. In response to this educational and contextual need, this research is entitled "*The Role of Feedback in Multi-Metacognitive Reading Strategies to Enhance Students' Comprehension of Qur'anic History-based Materials at IAIN Pontianak*," and it employs a mixed-methods research approach.

1.2 The Research Questions

Based on the background, the researcher formulated the following questions.

1.2.1 What is the role of feedback in multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) at different levels of students' comprehension (literal, inferential, critical, and appreciative), and how do the components of MMRS differ from those of Flavell's metacognitive reading strategies (MRS)?

1.2.2 How is the implementation of feedback in multi-metacognitive reading rategies (MMRS) at different levels of students' comprehension (literal, ferential, critical, and appreciative) in teaching English reading to the udents using Qur'anic history-based materials at IAIN Pontianak?

1.2.3 What reading strategies do the students utilize to comprehend the reading materials at IAIN Pontianak?

1.2.4 How does the implementation of multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) affect students' reading comprehension using Qur'anic history-based reading materials at IAIN Pontianak?

1.3 The Research Objectives

The objectives of this research are as follows:

1.3.1 To reveal the role of feedback in multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) at different levels of students' reading comprehension (literal, inferential, critical, and appreciative) and to analyze the differences between MMRS and metacognitive reading strategies (MRS) by Flavell.

1.3.2 To analyze how feedback is implemented in multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) across different levels of students' reading comprehension (literal, inferential, critical, and appreciative) in the teaching of English reading using Qur'anic history-based materials at IAIN Pontianak.

1.3.3 To identify the reading strategies utilized by the students to comprehend Qur'anic history-based reading materials at IAIN Pontianak.

1.3.4 To examine how the implementation of multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) affects students' reading comprehension when engaging with Qur'anic history-based reading materials at IAIN Pontianak.

1.4 The Research Significance

This research is expected to theoretically and practically enrich insight into English language teaching, especially in reading, using multi-metacognitive reading strategies.

1.4.1 Theoretically, this research is expected to contribute to the advancement of the metacognitive reading strategies theory, specifically the fundamental function of feedback.

1.4.2 In terms of a practical perspective, the findings of this research are anticipated to serve as a reference for teaching reading classes, particularly English reading comprehension through the application of feedback in metacognitive strategies utilizing Qur'anic history-based reading materials, specially at IAIN Pontianak.

1.5 The Scope of The Research

This research examines the role of feedback in the multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) in English reading instruction through Qur'anic history-based materials for the second-semester students enrolled in the English Language Education Study Program at IAIN Pontianak, comprising two classes. The research was conducted during the even semester Academic Year 2024/2025, with the primary focus is on students' reading comprehension that was measured through oral (literal, inferential, critical, and appreciative) and written pre-tests and post-tests, along with an analysis of the effectiveness of the MMRS in improving learning outcomes, and the reading strategies they utilized during the observation that identified using SORS and feedback questionnaire.

1.6 The Novelty

The novelty of this research lies in the introduction of a new regulation or component within the theory of metacognitive reading strategies, which expands upon the metacognitive strategies proposed by John H. Flavell (1979). In his theory of metacognitive strategies, Flavell identified three key regulations in the application of metacognition: planning, monitoring, and evaluation**.**

Furthermore, this research proposes an additional regulation that can be integrated into the planning, monitoring, and evaluation steps, as well as implemented after the evaluation step, namely, feedback. Feedback is not a new concept in the field of teaching and learning, particularly in reading, and has often been incorporated into the application of metacognitive strategies, but no previous studies have conceptualized feedback as a dual-functioning mechanism. In this framework, feedback can be dependent on external sources (feedback provided during the planning, monitoring, and evaluation processes) and function as an independent regulation that stands on its own, just as crucial as the three preceding steps, and is positioned as a critical component following the evaluation process.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 The Previous Related Research

Several studies have discussed the topic of metacognitive reading strategies (MRS) and their impact on students' reading comprehension. In this part, the researcher presents a review of previous research conducted on the subject matter, specifically focusing on feedback in MRS and MRS.

2.1.1 A study by Birjandi et al. (2013) with *The Impact of Dynamic Assessment on Reading Comprehension and Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Use in Iranian High School Learners*. The conclusion reveals that feedback was provided after each reading item or during the completion of a reading task, in the form of a graded set of standardized hints, ranging from implicit to explicit. In addition, feedback was not a part of the strategies. It was a dependent part of each step of MRS.

2.1.2 The next research finding was by Eker (2014) about *The Effect of Teaching Practice Conducted by Using Metacognition Strategies on Students' Reading Comprehension Skills*, which was conducted in Turkey in 2012-2013. The researcher found that by implementing the MRS by Zimmerman, et al. (1986), namely planning, monitoring, and regulation, increased students' reading comprehension significantly. To measure it, the researcher administered a sample of experimental and control groups of 65 students, who were taken randomly and in an experimental design during 6 meetings for treatment.

2.1.3 Furthermore, Mina et al. in their research posted in the Open Journal of Modern Linguistics (2017) entitled *Relationship between Metacognitive Reading Strategies Use and Reading Comprehension Achievement of EFL Learners*. This research concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between the use of the overall MRS of the students. The conclusion was based on the result of SORS and TOEFL reading comprehension given to 120 Iranian EFL Students.

other research conducted by Bria et al. in 2019 (*Metacognitive Strategies Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students in Reading*) found that post-aduate students demonstrated more metacognitive strategies and aturity in reading than undergraduate students. This result was based on

the questionnaire and interview given to the sample. In collecting the data, the questionnaire and interview were divided into three steps of MRS, namely planning, monitoring, and evaluating.

2.1.5 In addition, Iobidze (2019) in her research entitle *Effective Metacognitive Strategies to Boost English as A Foreign Language Reading Comprehension*, revealed that to be effective in teaching and learning reading, students should be taught strategies of reading, and informed the steps they had to take before, during, and after reading activities, then practice the recommended strategies. Even though they used metacognitive strategies, they still needed to be guided.

2.1.6 Hendarson et al in 2019 mention that learners can have diverse needs when it comes to learning, but they all deserve the opportunity to benefit from feedback processes. It is therefore imperative that educators who design feedback consider these individual needs. Online students were more positive than on-campus students about the detail of the feedback comments; however, it was the on-campus students who had less positive perceptions of detail in the later years of their programme. These results may reflect a tendency for educators to provide online students with more detailed comments than on-campus students. In the absence of other opportunities to check their progress and ideas, such as those enjoyed by on-campus students, the feedback received prior to submission can be a very important influence on online students' orientation to work.

2.1.7 Pieper, et al. 2020 in their journal on Feedback in Reflective Journals Fosters Reflection Skills of Student Teachers reveal that high-information feedback provided by lecturers in the educational sciences fostered reflection skills in student teachers. In addition, providing feedback to low-expertise learners is more effective than to high-expertise learners. Thus, it is recommended that high-information feedback be provided in particularly when learners are having difficulties applying the Gibbs reflection steps (1988), namely (a) description: learners describe the situation, without evaluation, (b) feelings: learners reflect on their feelings in the learning situation, (c) evaluation: the situation is assessed (what went ell and what did not), (d) analysis: learners analyze what exactly appened in the situation and what meaning can be derived from it, (e) onclusion: learners examine in detail what to conclude from this

experience for themselves, and (f) action plans: in the last and sixth stage, learners develop concrete action plans to implement in future situations.

2.1.8 Jurs and Špehte (2021) in their research on *The Role of Feedback in the Distance Learning Process* argued that effective feedback is important for both the classroom and distance learning processes, although there are differences between providing effective feedback in the face-to-face process and the distance learning process. There are characteristic elements that should be taken into account when providing feedback in both processes: timely, clear, educative, not only evaluative, proportional, indicative, forecasting, ongoing, and sensitive.

2.1.9 A research finding was also presented by Manh Do and Le Thu Phan in 2021 (*Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies on Second Language Vietnamese Undergraduates*), that Vietnamese students generally overcome difficulties with comprehension in texts by applying problem-solving abilities. On the other hand, support reading and global strategies was overlooked. They found that readers often used strategies including "trying to keep focused after distractions," "focusing closely on the content of the text" (PROB), "guessing the meaning of the text" (GLOB), and "adopting reference materials" (SOP). The least often used strategies were "visualizing information to remember" (PROB), "analyzing what they read" (GLOB), and "reading aloud for better understanding." They added that other from support reading strategies, gender, do not affect whatsoever on students' metacognitive understanding of reading strategies, as EFL Vietnamese students have good reading abilities; gender might not have any effect on their metacognitive awareness. The last was that they revealed the competent readers employ reading strategies regularly, and poor readers claimed less knowledge of them.

2.1.10 Meanwhile, Köse and Güneş, who published their journal article in 2021 under the title *Undergraduate Students' Use of Metacognitive Strategies While Reading and the Relationship Between Strategy Use and Reading Comprehension Skills*, argued that based on their survey quantitatively, the used of MRS of students differed from their level of education, gender, and partment and faculty they studied at. They also revealed that there was a ationship between MARSI scores and students' reading comprehension ores. The data were taken from 236 students in Primary Education and

Social Studies Teaching, Language & Literature (LL), and Sociology departments during the 2014–2015 academic year using MARSI and reading comprehension achievement tests.

2.1.11 Moreover, Khellab et al. (2022) researched the *Effect of teaching MRS on the Reading Comprehension of Engineering Students*. In their study, they tried to find out whether the instructor sought students' feedback and evaluation of the strategies used. This study applied the CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) model in an experimental group, where feedback was provided without engaging the students in the explicit process of providing correct answers, and the classes (control and experimental) were frequently observed during the observation to provide constant feedback to the teaching team. This means the instructors only need the feedback of the students related to the material given.

2.1.12 According to Bouknify (*Importance of Metacognitive Strategies in Enhancing Reading Comprehension Skills*, in 2023), the students use metacognitive reading methods before, during, and after reading, where the content evaluation and comprehension depend on the main ideas. MRS was found by assessing their environment, preparing for reading, and adopting a style. Before reading, they rapidly browsed to consider how to use the material. Metacognitive reading skills helped them adapt information, read slower and harder sections, reread incomprehensible paragraphs, avoid skipping, emphasize oblique or dark areas, underline essential points, analyze tricky words, read aloud, and generate hypotheses. Most students highlighted, photographed, and took notes after reading to apply knowledge. This research indicated that MRS helped students evaluate reading, determine future courses through knowledge and action, and become skilled and conscientious readers. The research revealed that competent readers could test their comprehension by looking at the book's layout and regulate reading comprehension by comparing predictions to textual results, focusing on key points, and interpreting difficult phrases. They may assess reading strategies by recognizing relevant plans, understanding text structure, and making predictions.

urram (2023) researched *The Impact of Metacognitive Instruction on ESL iversity-level students' Awareness and Use of Reading Strategies*. In her search, Khurram figures out the position of feedback as the students'

additional information collector (end-of-class feedback), together with the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) questionnaire at the beginning and end of the study. She added that getting feedback or comments from the students on the interview enhances the internal validity of her research, and member-checking and end-of-class feedback are also used for providing detailed accounts of the participants' standpoint to readers.

2.1.14 Finally, Pahrizal et al on their *findings Metacognitive Reading Strategies and Their Impact on Comprehension: Insights from Rural EFL Learners* in 2024 show their supportive result on the effectiveness of MRS specifically in rural EFL students by applying an exploited cross-sectional design, one of two major designs of survey methods of 114 EFL learners of the English Department in Indonesia. Even though they found that MRS could improve students' reading performance and effectiveness, and made learners more strategic and skilled in planning, monitoring, and evaluating their reading comprehension, they must still utilize those strategies effectively, reducing their performance in reading texts critically and independently.

From the findings mentioned above, however, it can be concluded that the use of MRS influences the students' reading comprehension significantly. In addition, the term feedback in this field is still becoming an important factor that determines the success of MRS implementation. Nevertheless, none of them proposed it as a new step in MRS, especially putting feedback as an independent component in the metacognitive regulation, which has the same function and status as other regulations. Thus, this will distinguish the previous studies from the present study.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Reading

2.2.1.1 Definition of Reading and Reading Strategies

Anderson (2002) defined reading as an activity to make meaning from print, which consists of four elements: the reader, the text, strategies, and fluency. It is a process of readers combining information from a text and their ound knowledge to build meaning. Here, meaning does not rest in the nor does it rest in the text. In addition, the reader's background dge integrates with the text to create meaning.

In addition, Anderson et al. (1985) also stated that reading is the process of constructing meaning from written texts and noted that it is a complex skill requiring the coordination of some interrelated sources of information. Moreover, according to the RAND Reading Study Group (2002), reading is defined as the process of extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. In line with them, Gee (1996) argued that reading is about more than combining information from the text with a reader's prior knowledge; it is also about the kind of knowledge that the reader possesses based on prior experiences and relationships with the discourses with which the reader is familiar.

To complete the definition of reading, Hall (2012) stated that reading is an activity that requires motivation and engagement, besides the reader's experiences with reading over time. Similarly, Grabe and Stoller also said the ability to read requires the reader to draw information from a text and combine it with information and expectations that the reader already has (Grabe & Stoller, 2001, p.187). It means that reading activity needs multiple aspects, not only the reader, the text, strategies used, and fluency, as Anderson's and other researchers' arguments suggest, but also motivation, engagement, and experiences.

Reading is a good way of comprehension. A good reader can understand the sentences and structures of a written text. Bright and McGregor (1970, p.53) believed that reading is 'the most pleasant route to command of the language', because it is via reading 'the student is most likely to find words used memorably with force and point.

Nunan (2003, p.68) in this case stated that reading is a fluent process of readers combining information from a text and their own background knowledge to build meaning, and the goal of reading is comprehension. Furthermore, Anderson (2000) states that reading is built from two components: word recognition and comprehension. These two components gained through reading will foster learners' language competence. This is then supported by Krashen and Terrell (1989, p.131), who point out that reading enables learners to comprehend better, which is an important factor that can develop language

ence.

According to Krashen & Terrel (1983, p.131), it is not an exaggerated

) say that reading is a fundamental aspect and skill that should be

mastered by students, as reading may contribute significantly to competence in a second language. There is good reason to hypothesize that reading contributes to overall competence in all four skills.

By the definitions above, it can be concluded that reading plays a fundamental role in language learning successfully. Hence, it can develop speaking skills by enriching vocabulary through reading, by storing the number of words in language storage, which can improve listening ability, then by having good comprehension of the material or subject matter and vocabulary mastery, the students can be good writers.

Strategy, as defined in the Cambridge Online Dictionary (2023), is a way of doing something or dealing with something. It is a detailed plan for achieving success in skills. Collins and Oxford Online Dictionary (2023) also mentioned that strategy is a general plan or set of plans intended to achieve something, especially over a long period, and it is a plan of action or policy designed to achieve a major or overall aim. Moreover, Pressley (in Westwood, 2004) suggested that strategy is a mental plan of action designed to achieve a specific purpose.

A similar point of view, stated by Freedman (2013), is that strategy is important because the resources available to achieve goals are usually limited. It generally involves setting goals and priorities, determining actions to achieve the goals, and mobilizing resources to execute the actions. Additionally, Baker and Brown (1980, p. 6) argued that strategy varies depending on the goal of the activity; for example, reading for meaning (comprehension) demands different skills than reading for remembering (study).

By combining the limitations of reading and strategy, then will be the definition of reading strategies. Garner (1987) defines reading strategies as an action or series of actions employed to construct meaning, where readers benefit from some strategies to help them with the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information.

In addition, the implementation of reading strategies initially requires a greater time investment. However, through consistent application, these strategies provide enhanced comprehension and retention of textual information what can be achieved without their utilization. An instance of a prevalent / or method seen in the literature involves the practice of expressing ns before, during, and after the process of reading. At first, the

implementation of such a method may necessitate a greater investment of time and cognitive exertion on the part of the reader, potentially leading to a perception of inefficiency. But, according to McNamara (2007), with practice, such strategies become more automatic, and then they become a natural part of reading. Furthermore, Oxford & Crookall (1989) suggested some actions to reach the goals, reading strategies defined as learning skills, performances, problem-solving skills, or study techniques, which can result in more efficacious and productive learning.

Individuals who consider themselves to be skilled readers acknowledge the significance of implementing reading strategies. Three primary arguments can be advanced in support of this statement. At the outset, it is typical for a significant number of readers to encounter a sense of ambiguity concerning their understanding of the material. Further, it has been shown that a significant number of readers possess an illusion of understanding while engaging with a text, as they tend to rely on surface-level indicators as a measure of satisfactory comprehension (Baker, 1985; Otero & Kintsch, 1992). Finally, it is observed that a significant proportion of adult individuals encounter difficulties in fully comprehending technical expository texts while possessing advanced reading abilities. The definition presented above emphasizes the significance of strategies for reading in the reading process.

2.2.1.2 Types of Reading

From some references, the researcher shows four types of reading (Solak and Altay, 2014; Anderson, 2008; Grellet, 1996).

a. Academic Reading

Throughout their education, students are required to complete a series of examinations. The primary objective for a reader is to comprehend a given passage to successfully respond to various examination questions. This is achieved by effectively extracting the necessary information from the text.

b. Non-Academic Reading

Along with academic reasons, there are a multitude of non-academic rationales for performing reading activities. In the context of academic reading, students commonly interact with texts primarily due to their clusion in the syllabus and the perceived necessity of comprehending the aterial to succeed in examinations. However, non-academic reading fers a more flexible experience, allowing readers to select from an

extensive selection of books based on their interests, providing them with several possibilities for selecting and affording them the ability to dedicate time to their preferred reading materials.

c. Intensive Reading

Intensive reading is the teaching of reading skills, vocabulary, and phonological instruction, typically through short reading passages followed by reading comprehension exercises.

d. Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is the reading of longer passages with a focus on enjoyment and/or learning new information while reading.

2.2.1.3 Reading Strategies

Strategies, according to Oxford (1990), are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. In addition, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) defined strategies as the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information.

As a tool to reach the goals, enjoyable and effective, Brown (2001, pp. 306-310) offers ten strategies for reading comprehension, as follows:

a. Identify the purpose of reading.

Efficient reading consists of clearly identifying the purpose of reading something. By doing so, you know what you are looking for and can weed out potentially distracting information.

b. Use graphemic rules and patterns to aid in bottom-up decoding (especially for beginning-level learners)

At the beginning levels of learning English, one of the difficulties students encounter in learning to read is making the correspondence between spoken and written English.

c. Use efficient silent reading techniques for relatively rapid comprehension (for intermediate to advanced level)

Silent reading rules are: no need to pronounce the word to yourself, try to visually perceive more than one word at a time, preferably phrases, and unless a word is crucial to global understanding, skip over it and try to infer ; meaning from its context.

d. Skim the text for main ideas

Skimming consists of quickly running one's eyes across a whole text for its gist. It gives readers the advantage of being able to predict the purpose of the passage, main topic, or message, and possibly some developing or supporting ideas.

e. Scan the text for specific information

The purpose of scanning is to extract specific information without reading through the whole part.

f. Use semantic mapping or clustering

Making such semantic maps can be done individually, but they make for a productive group work technique as students collectively induce order and hierarchy to the passage.

g. Guess when you aren't certain

Learners can use guessing to their advantage to guess the meaning of a word, grammatical relationship, discourse relationship, infer implied meaning, guess about a cultural reference, and content messages.

h. Analyze vocabulary

Several techniques to analyze vocabulary are: look for prefixes that may give clues, look for suffixes that may indicate what part of speech it is, look for familiar roots, look for grammatical context that may signal information, and look at semantic context for clues.

i. Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships

Many discourse markers in English signal relationships among ideas as expressed through phrases, clauses, and sentences. A clear comprehension of such markers can greatly enhance learners' reading efficiency.

Moreover, according to Anderson (2008, pp. 23; 29-30), strategies may be mental but observable, such as observing someone taking notes while reading to recall information better, or strategies may be mental and unobservable, such as thinking about what one already knows on a topic before reading a passage. Because strategies are conscious, there is active involvement of the reader in their selection and use. He argued that the reading es suit their learning level. To confirm his argument, he provided reading es depending on the level of readers. Below is a list of appropriate reading es to consider teaching beginning-level readers.

a. Activate prior knowledge,
b. Ask questions,
c. Identify the main idea,
d. Make a prediction,
e. Scan for specific information and
f. Skim for the main ideas.

In addition, he stated that strategies are used in combination with other strategies. They are used in what is often referred to as strategy clusters. Furthermore, Gunderson (in Anderson, 2008, p. 98) lists reading strategies that are valuable to advanced-level readers. The strategies are supposed to benefit students' reading comprehension.

a. Recognize the significance of the content
b. Recognize important details
c. Recognize unrelated details
d. Find the main idea of the paragraph
e. Find the main idea of large sections of discourse
f. Differentiate fact and opinion
g. Locate topic sentences
h. Locate answers to specific questions
i. Make inferences about content
j. Critically evaluate content
k. Realize an author's purpose
l. Determine the accuracy of information
m. Use a table of contents
n. Use an index
o. Use a library card catalog
p. Use appendices
ad and interpret tables
ad and interpret graphs
r. Read and interpret charts
s. Read and interpret maps
t. Read and interpret cartoons
u. Read and interpret diagrams
v. Read and interpret formulae
w. Read and interpret pictures
x. Read and understand written problems
y. Read and understand expository material
z. Read and understand the argument
aa. Read and understand descriptive materials
bb. Read and understand categories
cc. Adjust the reading rate relative to the purpose of reading
dd. Adjust the reading rate relative to the difficulty of the material
ee. Scan for specific information
ff. Skim for important ideas
gg. Learn new material from the text

Besides the reading strategies mentioned above, some reading comprehension skills are also offered by Mikulecky & Jeffries (1996).

a. Scanning

   Scanning is a very high-speed reading, with no need to read every word. For example, we want to answer a question. Scanning the passage only to get the answer. This is helpful to skip unimportant words and to read faster.

b. Previewing and predicting

   Previewing and predicting are two essential skills in reading. Preview benefits to gather information about a book by examining its cover. Previewing aims to help the readers to predict or make some educated guesses.

c. Vocabulary knowledge for effective reading

   There are some effective ways to play with vocabulary during reading, guess the words' meaning in a sentence, guess the words' meaning in context, guess the meaning using the grammatical structure of the sentences, recognize the words that connect ideas, summarize word names general idea that has many examples, and referents in a longer essay.

d. Topics

   To read for meaning, one should begin by looking for the topic. This is useful to connect what we read and what we already know.

e. Topics of the paragraph

   The topic of the paragraph consists of only the main idea, so we may find the topic sentence.

f. Main ideas

   The main idea of a paragraph is the author's idea about the topic. It is always complete sentences that include both the topic and the idea that the author wishes to express.

g. Patterns of organization

   There are four basic patterns that writers often use in developing their ideas, namely: list related ideas or examples, sequence, comparison/contrast, and cause-effect.

h. Skimming

Skimming is high-speed reading to get the general sense of a passage or a book that can save lots of time. Read only the words that will help you get a sense of the text, for example, read the first or the last sentence or paragraph quite carefully, but if the text is long, you may read the second paragraph.

i. Making inferences

Sometimes the topic of a text may not be stated anywhere directly, so look for the clues and try to guess what the passage is about.

j. Summarizing

Summarizing is the retelling of the important parts of a passage in a much shorter form, to ensure understanding, to explain the sense of a passage to someone else, and to review the text for examination.

Moreover, six reading strategies offered by Duke and Pearson (2002), namely, prediction or background knowledge, using think-aloud strategies to observe comprehension, applying text structures, utilizing visual models not excluding graphic organizers and imagery, summarizing, and questioning and answering questions.

Different from other reading strategies mentioned before, Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002) developed a Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS). These reading strategies were developed to enable adolescents and adult students for whom English is a second or foreign language. It consists of three major divisions, namely Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem Solving Strategies (PROB), and Support Strategies (SUP).

Global Reading Strategies (GLOB) are those intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading, which consist of 13 items. They are:

a. GLOB 1: I have a purpose in mind when I read.
b. GLOB 2: I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.
c. GLOB 3: I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading it.
d. GLOB 4: I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.

GLOB 5: I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.

f. GLOB 6: When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.
g. GLOB 7: I use tables, figures, and pictures in the text to increase my understanding.
h. GLOB 8: I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.
i. GLOB 9: I use typographical features like boldface and italics to identify key information.
j. GLOB 10: I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.
k. GLOB 11: I check my understanding when I come across new information.
l. GLOB 12: I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read.
m. GLOB 13: I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.

Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB) are the actions and procedures that readers use while working directly with the text. The PROB consists of 8 items, namely:

a. PROB 1: I read slowly and carefully to make sure what I am reading.
b. PROB 2: I try to get back and track when I lose concentration.
c. PROB 3: I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.
d. PROB 4: When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.
e. PROB 5: I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.
f. PROB 6: I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.
g. PROB 7: When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.
h. PROB 8: When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.

Support Strategies (SUP) are basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text. These strategies are

SUP 1: I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.
SUP 2: When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.

c. SUP 3: I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.
d. SUP 4: I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.
e. SUP 5: I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.
f. SUP 6: I go back and forth in the text to find the relationship among the ideas in it.
g. SUP 7: I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.
h. SUP 8: When reading, I translate from English into my native language.
i. SUP 9: When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.

Various reading strategies have been proposed by researchers to facilitate student comprehension of the texts they read. The primary responsibility of an educator is to instruct students in various methods, ensuring their familiarity and knowledge of these strategies. The selected strategies are intended to enhance their cognitive abilities. As supported by Wardah (2017), when students apply a good and appropriate strategy, the process of understanding the reading text will be easier.

2.2.1.4 Reading Procedures

In the reading process, some researchers divide reading into three stages. The first stage is pre-reading, the second stage, namely while or during reading, and the last stage is post-reading (Block & Israel, 2005; Zhang, 2008; Paris et al., 1991). For more explanation, it can be seen as follows.

a. Pre-reading stage

The pre-reading phase provides a preliminary step whereby the objective is to activate relevant prior knowledge and cultivate student engagement prior to engaging in the process of reading. Furthermore, this practice serves to establish the basis for proficient reading comprehension by priming the reader's cognitive processes and engaging pertinent pre-existing knowledge. In addition to the activation of prior knowledge, several activities can be undertaken to enhance comprehension and engagement. These activities include previewing the text, ıhing a purpose for reading, making predictions and hypotheses, ving terms, engaging in discussions and interactions, utilizing visual aids, ıducting preliminary research.

b. While-reading stage

Within this phase, it is recommended that the instructor provide the students with instructional materials that facilitate the enhancement of their reading strategies, proficiency in a foreign language, and ability to decipher challenging textual sections. Furthermore, the task of facilitating students in utilizing reading strategies presents challenges due to the fact that each student possesses unique preferences and requirements in terms of strategy selection and implementation. Nevertheless, the instructor possesses the ability to identify effective strategies, clarify the strategies that require further practice, and provide specific activities (Toprak & Almacıoğlu, 2009).

This phase is considered to be important in the stages of reading since the outcome of the teaching process determines the overall success of the entire endeavor. Hedge (2003) provides a favorable review of the interactive activities implemented throughout the while-reading phase. However, it is worth noting that there exists a limited number of research papers that have investigated the effects of such interventions and their corresponding outcomes. Furthermore, it has been observed that a significant number of pupils express positive opinions regarding the efficacy of while-reading tasks.

c. Post-reading stage.

According to Toprak & Almacıoğlu (2009), after completing the reading process, the teacher may ask the students to reflect and synthesize the information they have encountered. In this phase, the teacher may employ the evaluation to assess comprehension achievements. Because the goals of most real-world reading are not to memorize an author's point of view or to summarize text content, but rather to see into another mind, or to mesh new information into what one already knows, foreign language reading must go beyond detail-eliciting comprehension drills to help students recognize that different strategies are appropriate with different text types.

2.2.2 Reading Comprehension

2.2.2.1 Definition

Instead of digging into the definition of reading comprehension, it is necessary to have a preliminary understanding of comprehension within the of reading. The concept of comprehension is subject to varying tations among individuals. Indeed, the phenomena in question are not erized by unity, but rather by a collection of talents and activities. One

common element seen in several definitions of comprehension is the process of interpreting textual material, utilizing past knowledge to make sense of this information, and finally constructing a cohesive mental representation or conceptualization of the text's subject matter within the reader's mind. (Kintsch & Kintsch, 2005; Rapp & van den Broek, 2005; van den Broek et al., 2005; Applebee, 1978; Gernsbacher, 1990; Graesser & Clark, 1985; Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Stein & Glenn, 1979; Trabasso, Secco, & van den Broek, 1984 in Kendeou et al., 2006, 27-28).

Comprehension is the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language (Snow, 2002) which is a complex, multidimensional interaction between the reader, text, activity, and classroom context to encourage strategic reading (Afflerbach, et al., 2017; Brevik, 2015; Brown, 2017; Kamil, Afflerbach, Pearson, & Moje, 2011). Additionally, Vitale & Romance (2006, p. 75) also defined reading comprehension proficiency can be engendered as a transferable skill, but rather the determination of the conditions through which content-area comprehension can be developed by using reading as a means of learning. It magnifies the role of prior knowledge as a primary factor in student-meaningful learning.

Moreover, reading comprehension is a product of complex interactions between the properties of the text and what readers bring to the reading situation. Proficient readers approach a text with relevant knowledge, word decoding ability, text-based and situational model-based inferencing skills, competency with a variety of reading strategies, metacognitive skills, and so on (111). (Graesser, Millis, & Zwaan, 1997; Oakhill, 1994; Perfetti, 1985, 1994; Snow, 2002).

Reading comprehension needs strategies, as Garner (1987) found that reading comprehension strategies should include some questions: why the strategy should be learned, what the strategy is, how to use it, when and where to use the strategy, and how to evaluate strategy use. In line with the previous opinion, Graesser (2006, p. 6) stated that a reading comprehension strategy is a cognitive or behavioral action that is enacted under particular contextual conditions, intending to improve some aspect of comprehension. In hending the reading, Graves & Graves (2001) suggested that teachers ore, during, and after reading to help the students recognize that reading tive and ongoing process.

In addition, Richards (1997) stated comprehension means the identification of the intended meaning of written or spoken communication. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences, and connected text. The primary focus in teaching children to read should be on comprehension, rather than treating it as a secondary concern that is only addressed after children have acquired decoding and word identification skills.

Klingner et al. (2007) stated that reading comprehension involves much more than readers' responses to text. They added it is a multi-component, highly complex process that involves many interactions between readers and what they bring to the text (previous knowledge, strategy use) as well as variables related to the text itself (interest in text, understanding of text types. Rubin (2000, p. 171) also agreed that reading comprehension is a complex intellectual process involving some abilities, where readers must use information already acquired to filter, interpret, organize, reflect upon, and establish relationships with the new incoming information on the page.

To understand the text, according to Lyon (1998) and Scarborough (1998), a reader must be able to identify words rapidly, know the meaning of almost all of the words, and be able to combine units of meaning into a coherent message. This is caused by the comprehension of textual material depends on the dynamic interaction of three key factors: the accurate recognition of words, the activation of relevant background knowledge, and the proficient use of cognitive methods. Thus, according to Westwood (2004), students who are well-comprehended use a variety of cognitive processes as they read, namely posing mental questions to themselves and seeking answers in the text, generative visual images when reading certain types of material, particularly narratives, mentally summarizing the main points in a ley paragraph, and reflect upon and consider the importance or relevance of what they have read.

Finally, in comprehending a reading task, Snow and Chair (2002) express three entails elements:

a. The reader who is doing the comprehension
b. The text to be comprehended
c. The activity in which comprehension is a part

From the definitions above, it can be concluded that reading hension is a product of reading activities that require intentional

interaction, background knowledge, and the use of certain strategies by the readers.

2.2.2.2 Levels of Reading Comprehension

According to Smith in Westwood (2004), reading comprehension is considered to occur at four levels of complexity. These levels are

a. Literal comprehension

   Literal comprehension refers to the process of reading to comprehend, retain, or recall the explicit information presented in a written text.

b. Inferential comprehension

   Inferential understanding refers to the act of engaging in reading to extract information that is not explicitly expressed within a given text. This process involves drawing upon the reader's personal experiences, intuition, and the process of making inferences.

c. Critical or evaluative comprehension

   Critical or evaluative comprehension reading is the process of comparing the information presented in a passage with the reader's current understanding and personal values.

d. Appreciative comprehension

   Appreciative comprehension, as a concept, refers to the process of reading to elicit an emotional or otherwise appreciated reaction from a given text.

2.2.3 Cognition

The term cognition, sometimes known as cognitive, encompasses all processes by which sensory data is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, retrieved, and utilized. It pertains to these processes even when they function without pertinent stimulation, as shown in pictures and hallucinations. The expansive definition indicates that cognition is integral to all human activities, suggesting that every psychological phenomenon is inherently cognitive (Neisser, 1967). It is also defined by other experts, such as Flavell (1977), who stated that cognition refers to all the structures and processes involved in perceiving, remembering, thinking, and understanding; Siegler & Alibali (2005) that defined cognition as the mental action or process of acquiring knowledge and ıding through thought, experience, and the senses, and Anderson (2010) ıition is a central concept in psychology and education, referring to the

mental processes involved in thinking, understanding, remembering, problem-solving, and decision-making.

Cognition is also described as a mental mechanism, that is, a chain of information processing steps (Bechtel, 2008). It is thus akin to a physical mechanism that consists of parts and operations in which one part operates on another part (e.g., one cogwheel puts in motion another cogwheel and so forth).

In addition, cognition is information processing. This is a mental perspective, as the mind is considered to be informational. It is also a dynamic process that can be described as a mental mechanism, that is, a chain of information processing steps (Bechtel, 2008). Cognition does not refer to consciousness. Hence, it is compatible with the idea that mental mechanisms can operate not only consciously but also unconsciously (Neisser, cited in Houwer et al., 2016).

2.2.4 Metacognition

Flavell initially introduced the term metacognition in 1976 and 1979, as shown by his published works. Metacognition, according to Flavell (1976, 1977), is closely connected to the process of cognition. Cognition refers to the specific cognitive processes and strategies employed by a reader. For instance, when a child recalls information, it entails the engagement of memory processes. Metacognition is a theoretical concept that relates to an individual's awareness and understanding of their cognitive processes. It involves the conscious recognition of these processes and the ability to articulate them in some manner. Additionally, metacognition encompasses the ability to control (monitor) these cognitive processes, which involves making choices among different activities, as well as planning, monitoring, and changing activities.

He also provided a definition of metacognition as an individual's understanding of their own cognitive processes and outcomes, as well as any associated factors. Furthermore, metacognition involves actively monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data they pertain to, typically in pursuit of a specific goal or objective. Furthermore, he stated that metacognition refers to one’s knowledge concerning one’s cognitive processes and products or anything related to them,

earning-relevant properties of information or data.

etacognition (cognition about cognition—hence the meta-) also has been

s any knowledge or cognitive activity that takes as its object or regulates

any aspect of any cognitive activity (Flavell, Miller, & Miller, 2002). In addition, Flavell (1976; 2004) also noted metacognition as knowledge involving cognitive processes for careful monitoring and regulating the comprehension strategy of readers with certain goals, and as an active process used to regulate, to some extent of cognitive creativity.

Moreover, he (1978) stated that metacognition is knowledge that takes as its object or regulates any aspect of any cognitive endeavor; two clusters of activities are included in that statement: knowledge about cognition and regulation of cognition. In line with Flavell, Anderson (2002, p. 2) also defined metacognition as thinking about thinking, where learners who are metacognitively aware know what to do when they don't know what to do; that is, they have strategies for finding out or figuring out what they need.

To support the previous argumentation, Brown (1977, p. 6) suggested that metacognition demands the ability to introspect about one's performance and to differentiate one's perspective from that of others. In other words, metacognition involved in intelligent control of one's actions while memorizing is necessarily different from that involved in any other problem-solving situation, whether experimentally induced or naturally occurring.

Further, Baker and Brown (1980, 3) stated that metacognition consists of the self-regulatory mechanisms used by an active learner during an ongoing attempt to solve problems. These indices of metacognition include checking the outcome of any attempt to solve the problem, planning one's next move, monitoring the effectiveness of any attempted action, testing, revising, and evaluating one's strategies for learning.

The definition of metacognition, also formulated by Hartman (2001, pp. 3-4), which is knowing about your thinking or thinking about your thinking, includes thinking about your thinking processes and the products of your thinking through two fundamental aspects, namely, awareness of thinking and control over one's thinking. He added that it refers to thinking about thinking such as deciding how to approach a task with two basic types namely executive management strategies for planning, monitoring, evaluating, and revising one's thinking processes and products. and strategic knowledge about what information and strategies/skills one

arative), when and why to use them (contextual/conditional), how to use

ocedural).

In line with Hartman, Wagner, and Sternberg (1984) stated that metacognition refers to thinking about thinking, such as deciding how to approach a task. It also refers to an individual's monitoring of cognitive processes and knowledge, and use of cognitive processes for successful learning. Additionally, Mc. Namara et al. (2022, p. 411), when applied to reading, metacognition involves the reader's monitoring of whether the written material is successfully comprehended, coupled with active reading strategies that enhance and repair comprehension.

Armbruster, et al. (1983), however, concluded metacognition in reading to learn involves the knowledge and control of four variables and how they interact to produce learning: the text, the task to be performed by the learner as evidence of learning, the learner's strategies, and the learner's characteristics. These show how metacognition plays a vital role in reading. Any treatment of reading, therefore, must include a discussion of metacognitive knowledge and skills and their implications for effective reading. Metacognition means both the knowledge and the control an individual has over his or her thinking and learning (Brown, 1978).

In 1979, Flavell offered four classes of phenomena in metacognition, as mentioned in the previous chapter they are (1) metacognitive knowledge, (2) metacognitive experiences, (3) goals/tasks, and (4) actions/strategies. He expressed that metacognitive knowledge stores world knowledge that has to do with their diverse cognitive tasks, goals, actions, and experiences. Metacognitive experiences are any conscious cognitive or affective experiences that accompany and pertain to any intellectual enterprise. Goals/tasks refer to the objectives of a cognitive enterprise, and actions/strategies are the cognitions or other behaviors employed to achieve them. Consequently, Hoffman & McCarthey (in Westwood, 2004) strategic readers use metacognition to monitor their level of understanding as they read; they will modify their approach to the text in the light of their self-monitoring.

2.2.5 Metacognitive Reading Strategies (MRS)

2.2.5.1 Definition of Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Flavell and Brown (in Kluwe, 1982, p. 202) define metacognitive reading (MRS) strategies as an individual's cognitive activity having as its object his ve enterprise, aiming at efficient and appropriate thinking. Meanwhile, et al. (2017) outline MRS, which refers to students' cognition and nt of reading strategies.

Furthermore, Flavell (1979, pp. 907-909) expressed that metacognitive strategies are aimed at the metacognitive goal of assessing one's knowledge, and thereby generating another metacognitive experience. Cognitive strategies are invoked to make cognitive progress, and metacognitive strategies are used to monitor it, referring to the cognitions or other behaviors employed to achieve the objectives.

MRS helps the students and the teacher in the learning process, especially in improving students' reading comprehension. It is proven by some studies in this field, i.e., Michalsky et al. (2009), who showed that students with more MRS can deal with science reading tasks efficiently.

In light of the available fact, metacognitive processes depend on the maturation and coordination of relevant executive functions (Hofmann et al., 2012). When the mature reader decides to read, he usually has some purpose in mind, and the purpose for reading can vary considerably over the situation (Gibson & Levin, 1975). Then, the first major concern of the investigation is reading strategies. In general, MRS awareness in reading is defined as the reader-performed actions such as planning, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a particular learning task (O'Malley & Chamot, 1994).

Some researchers have been aware that reading involves the planning, checking, and evaluating activities now regarded as metacognitive skills. This cluster of metacognition consists of the self-regulatory mechanisms used by an active learner during an ongoing attempt to solve problems. These indices of metacognition include checking the outcome of any attempt to solve the problem, planning one's next move, monitoring the effectiveness of any attempted action, testing, revising, and evaluating one's strategies for learning (Baker & Brown, 1978).

2.2.5.2 Metacognitive Regulations

Metacognitive regulation is the monitoring of one's cognition and includes planning activities, awareness of comprehension and task performance, and evaluation of the efficacy of monitoring processes and strategies (Lai, 2011, p. 2). Following the previous statements, some researchers stated that metacognitive activities help control one's thinking or learning. Three essential metacognitive regulation, namely, planning, monitoring, and evaluation , 1979; Baker & Brown, 1980; Jacobs and Paris, 1987; Kluwe, 1987; ' & Moshman, 1995).

This is supported by O'Malley et al. (1998), who stated metacognition category included planning (e.g., advance organizers), monitoring (including self-monitoring), and evaluating (including self-evaluation). Planning involves the selection of appropriate strategies and the allocation of resources that affect performance. It includes making predictions before reading, strategy sequencing, and allocating time or attention selectively before beginning a task. Monitoring refers to one's online awareness of comprehension and task performance (Glenberg et al., 1987; Pressley and Ghatala, 1990). Monitoring ability improves with training and practice. Evaluation is appraising the products and regulatory processes of one's learning.

In other terms, metacognitive regulation refers to the process through which individuals employ their metacognitive abilities to guide their knowledge and cognitive processes. Metacognitive regulation is a cognitive process that involves utilizing an individual's knowledge about themselves and their strategies, including the understanding of how and why they employ particular strategies. This process also relies on cognitive abilities, such as planning, self-correction, and goal-setting, to effectively and efficiently utilize one's cognitive resources. When thinking metacognitively, learners reflect on their existing knowledge or thought processes. Individuals may be aware of, evaluate, and/or regulate their thinking.

Baker & Brown (1980) argued that since effective readers must have awareness and control of the cognitive activities they engage in as they read, most characterizations of reading include skills and activities that involve metacognition. Some of the metacognitive skills involved in reading are: (a) clarifying the purpose of reading; (b) identifying the important aspects of a message; (c) focusing attention on the major content rather than trivia; (d) monitoring ongoing activities to determine whether comprehension is occurring; (e) engaging in self-questioning to determine whether goals are being achieved; and (f) taking corrective action when failures in comprehension are detected.

Metacognitive experiences involve the use of metacognitive strategies or metacognitive regulation (Brown, 1987). Metacognitive strategies are sequential processes that one uses to control cognitive activities and to ensure that a ve goal (e.g., understanding a text) has been met. These processes help ate and oversee learning and consist of planning and monitoring cognitive s, as well as checking the outcomes of those activities.

In addition, strategies specific to reading can be classified into three metacognition clusters: planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies (Israel, 2007; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Planning strategies are used before reading (activating learners' background knowledge to prepare for reading). Previewing a title, picture, illustration, heading, subheading, and general information in the text and its structure can help readers grasp the overview of the text. Moreover, learners may check whether their reading material has a certain text structure, such as cause and effect, question and answer, and compare and contrast, also setting the purpose for reading can also be categorized as a planning strategy (Almasi, 2003; Paris et al., 1991, and Pressley, 2002).

Monitoring strategies occur during reading. Some examples of monitoring strategies are comprehension vocabulary, self-questioning (reflecting on whether they understood what they have read so far), summarizing, and inferring the main idea of each paragraph (Israel, 2007; Pressley, 2002). Whereas, evaluating strategies is employed after reading. For example, after reading a text, learners may think about how to apply what they have read to other situations. They may identify with the author, a narrative, or a main character, and may have a better perspective of the situation in the book than they did at first.

In line with the previous point of view on metacognitive strategies, Graham (1997, pp. 42-43) agrees that it allows students to plan, control, and evaluate their learning, and has the most central role to play in this respect, rather than those that merely maximize interaction and input. Thus, the ability to choose and evaluate one's strategies is of central importance.

Additionally, herewith MRS are according to some researchers. Khosa and Volet (2014) investigate productive group engagement in cognitive activity and metacognitive regulation by coding high-low-quality metacognitive regulation, namely planning, monitoring, and evaluating. Furthermore, Winne & Hadwin (2008) argued that metacognitive planning, monitoring, and evaluating should figure prominently as regulatory processes in motivation, emotion, behavior, and cognition.

Then, El-Kaumy (2004) divides reading strategies into metacognitive and cognitive strategies, where metacognitive strategies are divided into three levels; g (learners have a reading goal in mind and comprehend the text ng to this goal); self-monitoring (learners modulate the reading process ply the suitable strategy when needed); and self-evaluation (the reform

phase whereby readers modify strategies if needed to determine whether the aim is to achieve or vice versa or rereads the text).

Hartman (2001) said metacognitive skills involve executive management processes such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating. He suggested that teaching needs to emphasize metacognitive skills because:

a. Teaching specific strategies, such as the order in which to perform a particular task, will not give students the skills they need in the long run. Students must learn general principles, such as planning, and how to apply them over a wide variety of tasks and domains.
b. Both the long-term benefits of training in cognitive skills and the ability to apply cognitive skills to new tasks appear to depend, at least in part, on training at the metacognitive level as well as at the cognitive level. Metacognitive knowledge and skills are needed for effective cognitive performance.
c. Generally, students have a history of blindly following instructions. They have not acquired the habit of questioning themselves, to leads to effective performance on intellectual tasks.
d. Students with the greatest metacognitive skill deficiencies seem to have no idea what they are doing when performing a task.
e. Students have metacognitive performance problems of: a) determining the difficulty of a task; b) monitoring their comprehension effectively, i.e., they don't recognize when they fully understand something (e.g., task directions, information in textbooks); c). planning (e.g., what they need to do and how long each part should take); d). monitoring the success of their performance or determining when they have studied enough to master the material to be learned; e). using all relevant information; f). using a systematic step-by-step approach; g). jumping to conclusions; and h). using inadequate or incorrect representations.
f. Metacognitive skills and knowledge, as important as they are, are not often taught in most areas of the curriculum.

It is an interesting fact that as time goes by, metacognitive strategies become very varied. Some researchers all over the world offer various strategies on their research findings. Firstly, Dent & Koenka (2016) mention five ıtly identified metacognitive processes, namely: goal setting, planning, nitoring, self-control, and self-evaluation. Secondly, Lajoie et al. in 2015

examined the role of socio-emotional processes in both metacognition and co-regulation and showed that the processes in metacognition are orientation, planning, executing, monitoring, evaluating, and elaborating. Further, Berger and Karabenick (2016) gave the points of metacognitive strategies as planning, monitoring, and regulating.

In addition, Grau and Whitebread in 2012 noted limited use of metacognitive knowledge in young children's science learning but found more significant use of regulation strategies such as planning, monitoring, control, and reflection. Moreover, Mischel (2014) the successful children used metacognitive strategies (i.e., planning, controlling, and monitoring their intention) to wait for the larger reward. Differently, Bembenutty and Karabenick (1998, 2004, 2013) found that U.S. college students with a high willingness to delay gratification also reported using meta-cognitive learning strategies, such as planning, monitoring, and self-regulation. Otherwise, according to Chen and Chen (2015), metacognitive strategies include regulating, planning for organization, selective attention, goal setting, monitoring, and self-assessing.

Differently, Anderson (2002) divided the metacognition model or regulation into five primary components: preparing and planning for learning, selecting and using learning strategies, monitoring strategy use, orchestrating various strategies, and evaluating strategy use and learning.

a. Preparing and planning for learning

   Preparation and planning are important metacognitive skills that can improve student learning. By engaging in preparation and planning in relation to a learning goal, students are thinking about what they need or want to accomplish and how they intend to go about accomplishing it.

b. Selecting and using learning strategies

   The metacognitive ability to select and use particular strategies in a given context for a specific purpose means that the learner can think and make conscious decisions about the learning process. To be effective, metacognitive instruction should explicitly teach students a variety of learning strategies and also when to use them.

c. Monitoring strategy use

   By monitoring strategies used, the students are better able to keep themselves on track to meet their learning goals.

d. Orchestrating various strategies

Knowing how to orchestrate the use of more than one strategy is an important metacognitive skill. The ability to coordinate, organize, and make associations among the various strategies available is a major distinction between strong and weak second language learners.

e. Evaluating strategy use and learning

Second language learners are actively involved in metacognition when they attempt to evaluate whether what they are doing is effective. Teachers can help students evaluate their strategy use by asking them to respond thoughtfully to the following questions: What am I trying to accomplish? What strategies am I using? How well am I using them? And what else could I do?

A question might occur regarding this issue: Why are metacognitive strategies important in teaching reading comprehension? To respond, it is important to recognize that not all students naturally acquire and employ metacognitive skills. Consequently, teachers must offer students explicit guidance in both metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies. Through this method, teachers can improve students' consciousness and mastery of the learning process, enabling them to engage in metacognitive reflection and introspection into their cognitive processes.

Finally, it can be stated that metacognitive aspects of the strategy, in particular the skills of monitoring comprehension, reasoning, and learning, are expected to be internalized by readers for later use independently to promote their deep comprehension (King, 2007, p. 274).

2.2.6 Feedback

2.2.6.1 Definition of Feedback

Feedback is information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, and experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. The way to give feedback from the agents varies. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, a book can provide information to clarify ideas, a parent can encourage, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response & Timperley, 2007).

Bransford et al. (2000) argue that feedback can help students develop hension monitoring skills, which can then be applied at a later stage in

situations in which students do not receive feedback. A previous meta-analysis covering decades of research showed, on average, a positive effect of feedback on reading comprehension but also showed that effects differed concerning two design features: the timing of feedback and the richness of information provided in feedback messages (Swart et al., 2019).

Concerning timing, feedback was found to be less effective if it was provided during reading than after reading because feedback during reading required the reader to multitask by processing the text and the content of the feedback, and by integrating the two processes. This additional load on the reader's working memory hindered the reading process (Sweller, 1994; Sweller, van Merrienboer, & Paas, 1998). About the richness of the information provided in the feedback message, feedback containing the correct answer or both the correct answer and explanations was more effective than feedback solely stating 'right' or 'wrong'. This only held, however, when feedback was provided after reading the text rather than during reading. From a Vygotskian perspective, feedback can be seen as a form of scaffolding aimed at reducing the gap between actual and desired performance (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Shute, 2008).

In the case of reading comprehension, this is the gap between a reader's current understanding of the text and a complete and coherent mental model of the text. As such, feedback has a cognitive function, namely to inform the reader about misunderstandings, to fill in gaps in understanding, and/or to increase awareness of one's level of understanding (Ilies, Judge, & Wagner, 2010). Additionally, Bransford et al. (2000) argue that feedback can help students develop comprehension monitoring skills, which can then be applied at a later stage in situations in which students do not receive feedback.

Sadler (1989) defines feedback as a "consequence" of performance, which is needed to provide information specifically relating to the task or process of learning that fills a gap between what is understood and what is aimed to be understood. Thus, Irons (2008) suggested that to assist students with feedback is an important aspect of the teacher's role in higher education because it enables them to learn from assessment and can have a significant impact on the

ion of a learner, both intrinsic (wanting to learn) and extrinsic (needing to

In addition to this, feedback plays a crucial role in the learning process of

students, the interaction between teachers and students, and facilitating their ability to learn from assessments.

Likewise, Hofer et al. (1998) stated that the feedback provided as part of completing the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) is supposed to impact students' perceptions of their own strengths and weaknesses in a way that improves their academic success. In line with this statement, Amjad & Awan (2020) confirm feedback is post-reaction data provided to learners, to advise them about their real condition of learning, and to help them to reproduce their insight or capability to what is required.

It is said that good feedback should attempt to acknowledge the progress students have made in their learning and understanding through the provision of constructive comments and indications of how they can improve their learning for the future (feedforward). Therefore, Hall and Burke (2003: 10) suggest that if students know what to do to improve, they can "close the gap" between what they can do or know and what they need to do or know. As a consequence, 'it is better to focus on causes of success and failure than to praise performance on the basis of the final product or completed task'.

2.2.6.2 Types of Feedback

There are some kinds of feedback, as stated by some experts.

a. Formative feedback

Formative feedback is any information, process, or activity that affords students learning based on comments relating to either formative or summative assessment activities (Irons, 2008). This feedback is designed to know learners' progress toward learning targets during the learning process (teacher-provided and/or teacher-guided, consistent, timely, and specific, relevant to learning targets based on a learner's current level of proficiency, descriptive, and provided in student-friendly language (free of jargon).

b. Summative feedback

Summative feedback provides an assessment of student performance at the end of a learning cycle (unit, semester, program) (teacher-provided and/or teacher-guided, given at the end of a learning sequence, easurement of a learner's current language performance, evaluative).

c. Reflective feedback

Reflective feedback offers a way to frame the feedback experience as a positive, collaboratively constructed conversation about student performance or progress (Cantillon & Sargeant, 2008). In addition, it invites learners to play an active role in self-evaluation of their performance. This self-assessment provides learners the opportunity to make the changes necessary to improve their language performance (teacher designed, but learner-driven, opportunities occur at the beginning of, during, and after a learning sequence, develops learner awareness of language skills and current level of performance, demonstrated through a variety of ways including, but not limited to: portfolios, learner-written reflection of specific performance, surveys, questionnaires, peer-assessment, co-constructed evaluations, class discussion, one-on-one informal conversations or conferences, formative checks, such as exit slips or stamp sheets).

d. Effective feedback

Effective feedback provides information to students and teachers about the students' understanding of goals and criteria (Black & Horison, 2004).

Different from previous types of feedback, Boud (1995) divided feedback into three parts, namely:

a. Judgement feedback: offers an evaluative judgment on performance.
b. Advisory feedback: provides suggestions for improvement without explicit judgment.
c. Facilitative feedback; encourages self-assessment and reflection, aiming to develop the learner's capacity to monitor and improve their work.

Other types of feedback are listed by Lyster and Ranta (1997), who have mentioned six different types of feedback:

a. Explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the students had said was incorrect (e.g., "Oh, you mean…!", "You should say…!".
b. Recasts involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. This is generally implicit in that they are not troduced by phrases such as "You mean," "Use this word," and "You ıould say." However, some recasts are more salient than others in that ey may focus on one word only, whereas others incorporate the

grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse. Recasts also include translations in response to a student's use of the L1.

c. Clarification requests, according to Spada and Froehlich (1995, p. 25), indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. This is a feedback type that can refer to problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both. We have coded feedback as clarification requests only when these moves follow a student error.

d. Metalinguistic feedback contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere (e.g., "*Il y a une erreur*," "Can you find your error?" "No, not X," or even just "No."). in addition, metalinguistic information generally provides either some grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error (e.g., "It's masculine") or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Metalinguistic questions also point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student (e.g., "Is it feminine?")

e. Elicitation refers to at least three techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student. First, teachers elicit completion of their own utterances by strategically pausing to allow students to "fill in the blank". Such "elicit completion" moves may be preceded by some metalinguistic comment such as "No, not that. It's a . . . " Second, teachers use questions to elicit correct forms (e.g., "How do we say X in English?"). Such questions exclude the use of yes/no questions: A question such as "Do we say that in English?" is metalinguistic feedback, not elicitation. Third, teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterances.

f. Repetition refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation to highlight the error.

2.2.6.3 How to Perform Feedback

Feedback should be understandable and communicated in such a way nable students to use the feedback to help in achieving the learning es or reaching the required standard. Similarly, Irons (2008) added that it

should be worded in such a way as to encourage students to take action to address any learning issues. However, in order to be valuable and perceived by students to be valuable, feedback needs to be relevant to future assessments and to the student learning process. The relevance of feedback for future learning can be enhanced by:

a. Ensuring a holistic curriculum, and that students understand how various bits of the program join together;
b. Providing feedback that will address future issues – feedforward – as well as providing feedback on the summative work submitted; and
c. Encouraging students to develop deep learning.

He added that providing feedback on summative assessments allows teachers the opportunity to contextualize the feedback based on the student work and indicate where students have done well, where there might be issues, where they can 'close the gap', and what developmental activities to feedforward to future assessments or modules. It may be argued that feedback plays a significant role in developing intrinsic motivation by motivating students to engage in learning activities and overcoming the gap in their comprehension of various subjects.

Furthermore, it is proposed in this study that the most beneficial and efficient form of feedback is dependent upon the desires and preferences of the students. How can one determine the desires or preferences of others? It is recommended to inquire with the relevant individuals for further clarification. What is the result when an inquiry is made to them? Someone else initiates a dialogue. By entering into a dialogue with students about feedback even before we generate the feedback, the principle of using feedback as a basis for discussion is set (Irons, 2008).

We need to make sure that the feedback that is provided will be useful and usable for students; by this we mean that feedback should: be understandable by students, be valued by students, close the gap on their understanding, be of appropriate quality, be timely, provide an opportunity for dialogue (Holmes & Smith, 2003; Hattie, 1987; Sadler, 1998; Lea & Street, 1998; Glover & Brown, 2006; Nichole & Macfarlane-Dick, 2004; Hall & Burke, 2003; 2003; Black & William, 1998; Cowan, 2003; Brown, et al., 1997; Hounsell, Ecclestone, 1998; Ding, 1998; Adams et al., 2000; MacLellan, 2001; and , et al., 2001).

To employ feedback in the learning and teaching process, Black (1999) suggests the following as the basic principles of formative feedback:

a. Goals (learning objectives) need to be clear to students;
b. Feedback should measure (give guidance to) the student's current learning state;
c. Formative feedback should be used as a means for closing the gap between the student's learning state and the learning goals;
d. Formative feedback needs to be high quality and effective in its advice.

Furthermore, it is likely that students with process-oriented goals had challenges in assessing their own progress in acquiring the strategy and evaluating the level to which the adoption of the strategy improved their performance. Throughout the instructional period, all students were provided with feedback regarding the accuracy of their responses to comprehension questions. However, students who were focused on process goals did not get feedback regarding their progress in acquiring the strategy or the degree to which their utilization of the approach was enhancing their performance. Self-efficacy assessment in this study may have been conducted using the same criterion as that applied by learners with product goals, namely, evaluating their performance in responding to questions.

As a result, it is possible that students could have achieved more significant advantages from process goals if they had received feedback on their progress. Telling students they are learning the strategy, informs them of progress, and implies that the strategy is helping them answer questions. Such explicit feedback has beneficial effects on remedial readers' self-efficacy and skills (Schunk & Rice, 1987).

Regarding the levels of feedback, Hattie & Timperley (2007) suggested the following items, which are directed to influence their effectiveness.

a. First, feedback can be about a task or product, such as whether work is correct or incorrect. This level of feedback may include directions to acquire more, different, or correct information, such as "*You need to include more about the Treaty of Versailles*."
b. Second, feedback can be aimed at the process used to create a product or complete a task. This kind of feedback is more directly aimed at the processing of information, or learning processes requiring understanding or completing the task. For example, a teacher or peer may say to a

learner, "You need to edit this piece of writing by attending to the descriptors you have used so the reader is able to understand the nuances of your meaning," or "This page may make more sense if you use the strategies we talked about earlier."

c. Third, feedback to students can be focused at the self-regulation level, including greater skill in self-evaluation or confidence to engage further on a task. For example, "You already know the key features of the opening of an argument. Check to see whether you have incorporated them in your first paragraph." Such feedback can have major influences on self-efficacy, self-regulatory proficiencies, and self-beliefs about students as learners, such that the students are encouraged or informed how to better and more effortlessly continue on the task.

d. Fourth, feedback can be personal in the sense that it is directed to the "self," which, we argue below, is too often unrelated to performance on the task. Examples of such feedback include "You are a great student" and "'That's an intelligent response, well done."

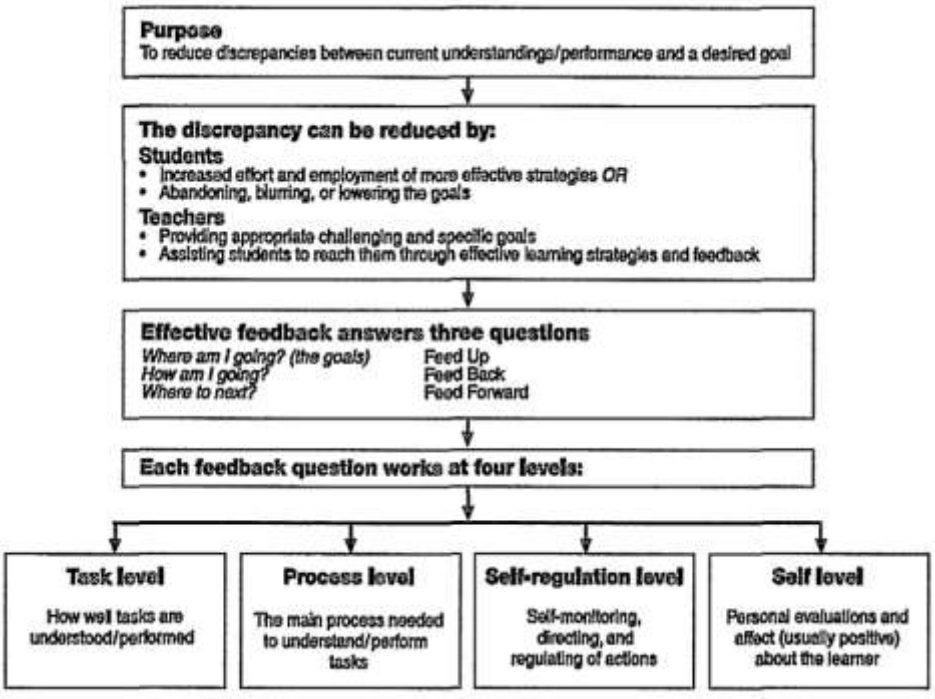

Figure 2.1. Model of feedback by Hattie and Timperley (2007)

As teachers, it is essential to ascertain the extent to which students ate or dismiss the feedback provided. Concerning this, Reynolds in Obilor suggested some steps to be followed to ensure that students receive ck and attend to it:

a. Students should be required to specify what they would like feedback on.
b. Teachers should provide feedback without marks so that students can read the feedback and get some ideas on how to improve their learning.
c. Teachers should provide avenues for students' assignments to be self-assessed and peer-assessed before the assignments can be submitted to the teacher for scoring. This will enable students to compare their reviews with the teacher's reviews.
d. Teachers should provide grades only after students' self-assessments, peer-assessments, and teacher feedback have been completed.

Moreover, to support the teachers' role in the classroom when engaging students in effective feedback practices, they should draw from the following tips provided by Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) and Race (2010) as follows.

a. Ensure feedback comments are not just backward-looking (explaining why the grade was awarded) but also include a plentiful supply of forward-looking feedback.
b. Make feedback timely, so the relevance is still seen as pertinent to the student.
c. Plan for students' reflection on learning activities and feedback which will make students increasingly aware of how to improve their learning and thus more ready to engage with feedback.
d. Return marked work with feedback comments only (excluding the grade). Ask students to reflect on the feedback comments after their grades are released.
e. Ask students to reflect on your feedback and respond to it. 6. Require students to reflect on feedback and prepare a short action plan addressing how they can make improvements in future work.
f. Design a series of assessment tasks requiring students to build upon earlier work. For example, ask students to submit with subsequent tasks how they have attended to earlier feedback.
g. Include opportunities for peer review.
h. Plan to have conversations about the assessment and feedback. Encourage discourse by arranging in-class break-out discussion groups to scuss marking rubrics, guides, and generic feedback comments.

Obilor (2019) then concludes that feedback is constructive when it goes pointing out the mistakes of learners to providing solutions for areas of

weakness and suggesting improvement in future learning. The potential for feedback to facilitate future learning lies in its ability to correct current learning without having a disproportionate impact on future learning. In instances when feedback fails to strike the right balance, its capacity to bring about substantial changes in behavior and learning outcomes becomes limited.

In essence, feedback has the potential to effectively correct current faults, although it may not necessarily result in an improvement in a student's approach to subsequent assignments or their approach to future learning activities. Ineffective feedback can arise from delayed implementation and insufficient student engagement. It is characterized by an overview focus on previously covered content that will not be revisited, as well as a lack of specificity. Hence, for feedback to be considered successful, it is essential that it relates to the current situation of learning and can improve subsequent learning activities.

Finally, Hattie & Timperley (2007) stated that effective feedback must answer three major questions asked by the teacher or the students: Where am I going? (What are the goals?) as a feed up, how am I going? (What progress is being made toward the goal?) as feedback, and where to next? (What activities need to be undertaken to make better progress?) as feed-forward. How feedback contributes to these processes depends largely on the focus of feedback and the level to which it is directed.

2.2.6.4 The Problem in Feedback

In academic settings, feedback is information about how the students' present states of learning and performance are related to goals and standards (Ivanic, Clark, & Rimmershaw, 2000; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). However, Sadler (2010) shows how students perceive and interpret feedback and how teachers intend feedback to be taken often leads to miscommunication due to unclear task specifications. Students cannot convert feedback statements into actions for improvement unless they have a working knowledge of the basic task requirements and the criteria by which their performance is judged. Thus, teachers are often misinformed about their students' prior knowledge and make assumptions that lead to setting the standard too high and inhibiting the development of a skill

Although researchers agree that feedback is essential for improved ıance and can contribute to enhanced achievement on the task, but on trary, it is also known that (a) learners often dread it and dismiss it, (b) the

effectiveness of feedback varies depending on specific characteristic of feedback messages that learners receive, and its implementation can be complicated for several reasons (see, e.g., Boud & Molloy, 2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Jonsson & Panadero, 2018; Lipnevich & Smith, 2009; Shute, 2008 in Panadero & Lipnevich, 2021).

Regarding this, Brookhart (2008) proposed some feedback strategies to use, namely timing, amount, mode, and audience.

a. Timing

   The purpose of giving immediate or only slightly delayed feedback is to help students hear it and use it. Feedback needs to come while students are still mindful of the topic, assignment, or performance in question.

b. Amount

   A natural inclination is to want to "fix" everything you see. That's the teacher's-eye view, where the target is the perfect achievement of all learning goals. For real learning, what makes the difference is a usable amount of information that connects with something students already know and takes them from that point to the next level. Judging the right amount of feedback to give, how much, on how many points, requires deep knowledge and consideration of the topic in general and your learning target or targets in particular, typical developmental learning progressions for those topics or targets, and the students' personal.

c. Mode

   Feedback can be delivered in many modalities. Some kinds of assignments lend themselves better to written feedback (for example, reviewing and writing comments on students' written work); some, to oral feedback (for example, observing and commenting as students do math problems as seatwork); and some, to demonstrations (for example, helping a kindergarten student hold a pencil correctly). Some of the best feedback can result from conversations with the student.

d. Audience

   Like all communication, feedback works best when it has a strong and appropriate sense of the audience. Feedback about the specifics of dividual work is best addressed to the individual student, in terms the udent can understand. That simple act is powerful in itself because, in ddition to the information provided, it communicates to the student a sense

that you care about his or her progress. (“The teacher read and thought about what I did!”).

Therefore, the first point about audience is “Know whom you’re talking to, and talk to them!” If the same message would benefit a group of students, providing feedback to the class or group can save time and also serve as a minilesson or review session. If you speak to the whole class when only a subset needs the feedback, you can use the students who have mastered the concept as the “more experienced peers,” helping you demonstrate the concept or skill. Or you can pull a group aside to give some feedback while others are doing something else. You can also mix individual and group feedback. For example, imagine you had just collected a writing assignment in which you found many students had used bland or vague terms. You might choose to give the whole class some feedback about word choice, with examples of how to use specific, precise, or vivid words instead of dull and uninteresting ones.

In addition, she also pointed out some feedback contents that can support the effort to avoid problems in delivering feedback, consisting of focus, comparison, function, valence, clarity, specificity, and tone.

a. Focus

   To provide feedback, the lecturer should determine the focus as proposed by Hattie and Timperley (2007), whether it is feedback about the task, the processing of the task, self-regulation, or the self as a person

b. Comparison

   Comparing student work to a learning target is criterion-referencing, and it is the primary kind of comparison to use for good feedback. Feedback against clear criteria matches with the model of instruction used in most classrooms.

c. Function

   If only using “descriptive” versus “evaluative” feedback were simply a matter of wordsmithing, we could all learn how to write descriptive feedback just as we learned to write descriptive paragraphs in elementary school. Unfortunately, part of the issue is how the student understands the comment. Students filter what they hear through their own past experiences, good and bad.

d. Valence

Feedback should be positive. Being “positive” doesn’t mean being artificially happy or saying work is good when it isn’t. Being positive means describing how the strengths in a student’s work match the criteria for good work and how those strengths show what the student is learning. Being positive means pointing out where improvement is needed and suggesting things the student could do about it. Just noticing what is wrong without offering suggestions to make it right is not helpful.

e. Clarity

Clarity is important; students need to understand the feedback information as you intend it. Students have different vocabularies and different backgrounds, and different experiences. The criterion for clarity is whether the writing or speech would be clear to the individual student.

f. Specificity

Deciding how specific to make your feedback is a matter of the Goldilocks principle: not too narrow, not too broad, but just right.

g. Tone

Tone refers to the expressive quality of the feedback message, and it affects how the message will be “heard.” The tone of a message is conveyed by word choice and style; these are much more than just linguistic niceties.

2.2.6.5 The Importance of Feedback

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), feedback is considered important in the learning and teaching process as students consider feedback for every student to acknowledge error constructively with support either from the teacher, peers, or students themselves. It is also supported by Sadler (2010), who identified three conditions in which students would benefit from feedback in academic tasks. *First*, students need to know what good performance is and therefore possess a concept of the target goal or standard. *Second*, students need to know how current actions relate to a performance that indicates sful progress towards the expected outcome or standard. *Third,* students know how to make necessary adjustments to their current performance e closer to the expected outcome or standard. Significant to Sadler’s

argument is the comparison of student performance with a standard to obtain feedback from internal or external sources, positioning formative assessment within a model of self-regulation.

Feedback is important for both the teacher and learner as it improves learning, influences making learners responsive to their learning, and richly enhances teachers' teaching. Some benefits include the effective feedback mentioned by Obilor (2019):

a. Identifies for the student the gap between their level of performance and their desired level of learning (Shute, 2008). The gaps that arise as a result of the teaching process are the burden that effective feedback uncovers and remedies.
b. Creates responsive learners, and being responsive to learning and feedback improves learning and enhances students' reflection on their work. When students are responsive in processing the feedback and information received from the teacher, learning is enhanced (Chappuis, 2012). Teachers must, therefore, assist students to develop the skill of responding to feedback because students who are good at self-regulation achieve highly (Nicol, 2009).
c. Occurs from teachers to students and from students to teachers. The implication is that as the student uses information from feedback to improve his learning, the teacher also uses the information from feedback to sharpen his teaching, adjust his strategies, and improve his relationship with students. The act of assessing has an effect on the assessor as well as the assessed. Assessors learn about the extent to which the assessed (students) have developed expertise, and the assessor can tailor their teaching accordingly (Yorke, 2003). Black and William (2009) added that feedback allows teachers to build models of how their students learn and to use this to inform future teaching and feedback processes, which, on the whole, produce better learners with enhanced learning skills, resulting in improved learners' academic performance.
d. Provides clear information about students' behavior and what is expected of them, thereby reshaping their behavior. Especially when self-assessment and peer assessment are involved, students' reflection on their work and approvals/disapprovals from peers enrich effective feedback and enhance students' learning.

e. Promotes curiosity and encourages students to try new behaviors, especially when students interact with one another, exchanging and reviewing the teacher's comments on their responses, and sharing ideas resulting from learning, assignments/tests, and feedback from the teacher. Effective feedback creates in students the enthusiasm and motivation to find out more. The result is enhanced learning and improved outcomes.
f. Enhances students' desire to learn, by increasing their self-esteem and confidence whenever possible and by helping them to believe that they can indeed achieve the intended learning outcomes and demonstrate this in ways where they will be duly credited for this achievement.
g. Motivates students to move forward into their next episodes of learning by doing, and focusing their efforts more sharply towards bringing the experience from their past work to bear on making their next work better.
h. Becomes one of the most powerful tools available to shape one another's behavior when peer assessment is used. Feedback helps students to clarify and take ownership of what they have learned, as defined by the intended learning outcomes they are working towards achieving.
i. Makes students and teachers learn at the same time. Student-to-student feedback is often received more positively than teacher-to-student feedback. With basic instruction and ongoing support, students can learn to be exceptional peer strategists, providing thoughtful insight into what works from an audience's perspective and offering constructive strategies for improvement.
j. Encourages students to gain some control of their learning, which enhances students' learning and academic achievement. This increases students' engagement and awareness of their strengths and challenges and opens up endless opportunities for students and teachers alike to grow.

2.2.7 Qur'anic History-based as Reading Materials

Al-Qur'an means the recitation, which is the central religious text of Islam, the Muslim religion's sacred book. Muslims believe it is a revelation from Allah. It is a message that was revealed to the Prophet Muhammad through Gabriel, partly in Mecca and Medina. The message was initially addressed to the Arabs, but ' to all mankind because it is the last book. The Qur'an consists of 30 juz, ıs, and contains a total of 6236 verses (Rafiki, 2020, & Asnur et al., 2020).

It contains not only religious teachings and moral guidance but also stories of prophets, communities, and significant events from the past. These historical narratives often carry valuable lessons and insight for believers and readers. It is not a book of science, but it contributes to the advancement of science; reading it can enrich our knowledge and vocabulary. Even though it was written in Arabic, it was translated into some languages, including English. Hence, it can be used as an English reading material.

Qur'anic history-based reading material here refers to content or text that is centered around the historical events, narratives, stories, and incidents mentioned in the Qur'an, which is the holy scripture of Islam. In this case, the histories are taken from Al-Qur'an alone and the Tafseer by Ibn Kathir. To take Qur'anic history-based reading material to improve reading comprehension is not a coincidence. It is to integrate Islamic values into the subject to develop students' character as regulated in PPK by the government in IAIN Pontianak as one of the Islamic Higher Institutions.

Furthermore, Qur'anic history-based reading materials refer to reading materials provided to students, derived from historical narratives or stories found in the Qur'an and interpreted by renowned Islamic scholars (e.g., Ibn Kathir). In this study, the selected materials are taken from authentic texts, chosen based on several considerations. These include providing students with knowledge about the greatness of Surah Al-Fatiha, the Family of Imran, and the esteemed and noble characteristics of the righteous women mentioned in them. Due to their remarkable status, Allah mentions them both explicitly and implicitly in the Qur'an.

The selected reading materials are mostly the stories of righteous women, because in many sources used as reading materials for discussing Qur'anic narratives, accounts of these women are rarely highlighted. Additionally, the selected reading materials are intended to serve as role models and references for students, particularly female students.

Moreover, several reasons justify the selection of Qur'anic history-based reading materials as the reading material in this study, namely:

a. The background of the research subjects consists of students from the English Language Education Program at an Islamic university. Therefore, ey are expected to have a deep understanding of religious studies and e ability to convey this knowledge in English, the most widely spoken nguage in the world (detik.com, 25 Des 2022, Kompas.com 7 Maret 2024,

and Pikiran Rakyat.com, 6 April 2024). As pointed out by Asnur et al. (2019), to learn and spread the teachings of religion throughout the world, people need to have good language mastery that is used worldwide, and English is one of them. It is added that students who study in Islamic institutions become one expectation to disseminate the religious teachings of Islam.

b. Based on the definition of reading comprehension proposed by Guthrie and Scafiddi (2004), reading comprehension consists of the processes of constructing conceptual knowledge from a text through cognitive interaction and motivational involvement with the text. We can reveal that in comprehending the reading text, the students need to integrate their cognitive ability and their motivation. The motivation here can be from the teacher, the reading text itself, the learning environment (strategies applied), and their internal motivation.

   This is supported by the research of Muhsinin et al. (2017), which increases students' motivation in reading the text because they have been familiar with the topics or they have background knowledge of the topics, which are part of their subject. In this case, in Islamic Higher Education, they study some Islamic subjects (History of Islamic Civilization, etc.). In addition, when Islamic literature is equipped with stimulating illustrations, accessible intertextuality, and attractive glosses, it would serve as an effective instrument to teach English and to nurture Islamic values (Irwansyah, 2019).

c. To support the vision and mission of the English Education Study Program at IAIN Pontianak, as stated on the official website of *Tadris Bahasa Inggris* (ftik.iainptk.ac.id/tadris-bahasa-inggris).

   Vision

   "*Menjadi Pusat Pengembangan Pendidikan dan Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris Yang Unggul, Terkemuka Dan Terbuka pada tahun 2026 Dalam KajianKeagamaan dan kebudayaan Borneo yang terintegrasi dengan Keilmuan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris".*

   "To become a leading center for the development of excellence in English language education and teaching by 2026, distinguished and open to religious studies and Bornean culture, integrated with the field of English language Education".

Mission

1) *Menyelenggarakan kegiatan pendidikan dan pengajaran menghasilkan mencetak tenaga pengajar yang profesional dalam keilmuan bidang pendidikan Bahasa Inggris dengan tidak meninggalkan pengetahuan dan etika keislaman dan kebudayaan Borneo.*
2) *Menyelengarakan kegiatan penelitian untuk meningkatkan keilmuan pendidikan dan bahasa yang berbasis keIslaman dan Budaya Borneo.*
3) *Menyelenggarakan kegiatan pengabdian masyarakat berbasis penelitian untuk meningkatkan mutu pendidikan Bahasa Inggris yang berbasis pada keislaman dan budaya Borneo disesuaikan dengan perkembangan teknologi dan komunikasi serta kebutuhan masyarakat*

1) Organizing educational and teaching activities to produce professional educators in the field of English Language Education while upholding Islamic knowledge, ethics, and Bornean culture.
2) Conducting research activities to advance knowledge in education and language studies, grounded in Islamic principles and Bornean culture.
3) Implementing community service programs based on research to enhance the quality of English language education, integrating Islamic values and Bornean culture while aligning with technological advancements and societal needs.

2.3 The Conceptual Framework

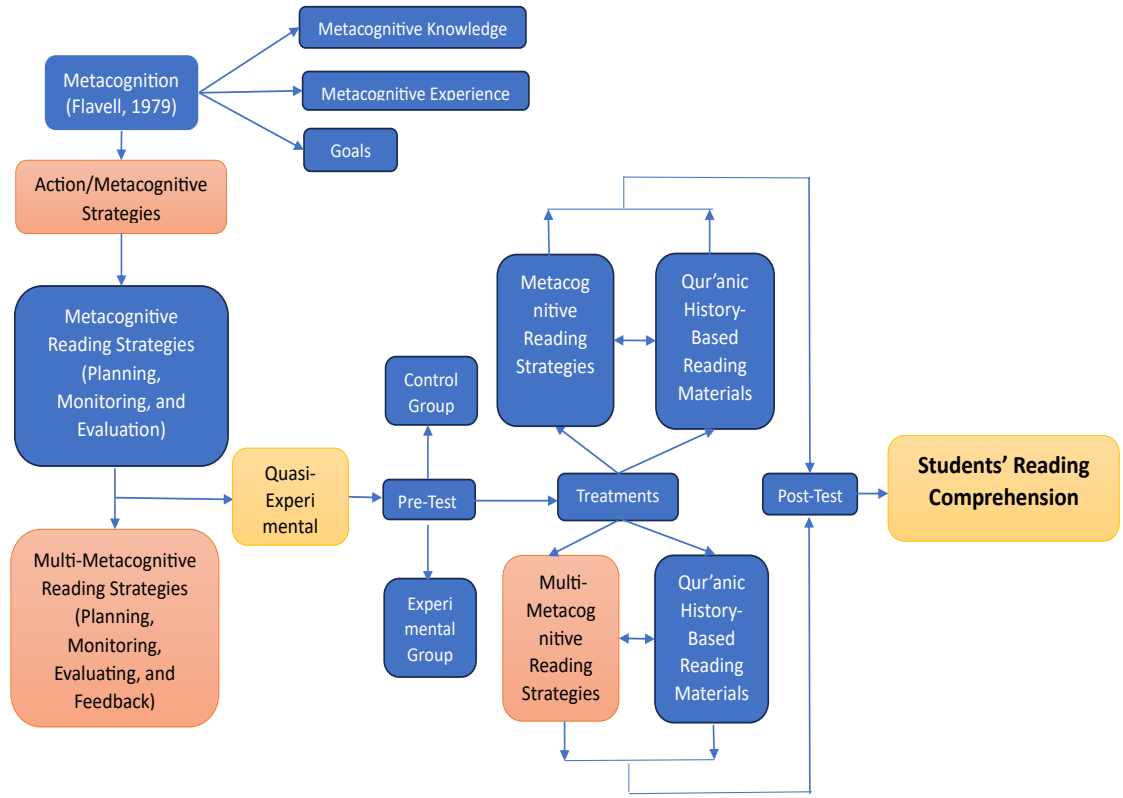

Figure 2.2. The conceptual framework

For detailed information, the description of the framework can be seen as follows.

2.3.1 Metacognition in this research is based on the work of Flavell (1976), who divided metacognition into four key components: metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experience, goals, and metacognitive strategies.

2.3.2 The metacognitive reading strategies (MRS) developed in this research draw upon the theories of Flavell (1979), specifically focusing on planning, monitoring, and evaluation. These strategies were applied to the reading process across three phases outlined by Block & Israel (2005): pre-reading, while/during-reading, and post-reading.

2.3.3 Metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) is the new issue in MRS by integrating an extra regulatory step or component, namely, feedback. The feedback applied here is the feedback level by Hattie and Timperley (2007) and feedback strategies and content by Brookhart (2008). It is introduced following the evaluation phase, as well as implemented during

the three phases (planning, monitoring, and evaluating phases), resulting in the concept of MMRS.

2.3.4 This research utilized a Quasi-Experimental design (Gay, 2006), wherein the control and experimental groups underwent pre-tests and post-tests to assess students' reading comprehension of Qur'anic history-based reading materials, with different interventions for each group. The control group used MRS in terms of planning, monitoring, and evaluation phases, whereas the experimental group applied MMRS in terms of planning, monitoring, evaluating, and feedback. Furthermore, the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) by Mokhtari & Reichard (2002) was administered to both groups to identify the MRS utilized during the research, and a feedback questionnaire was used to reveal the students' responses to the implementation of feedback in MMRS.

2.4 Definition of the Terms

To specify the terms administered in this research, here are some definitions.

2.4.1 Metacognitive reading strategies (MRS) refer to metacognitive reading strategies proposed by John H. Flavell (1979), namely planning, monitoring, and evaluation.

2.4.2 Multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) is the new term in metacognitive reading strategies proposed in this research by integrating the concept of feedback in the steps of planning, monitoring, and evaluation, and also adding feedback as a new step or component after evaluation in the post-reading phase.

2.4.3 Students' reading comprehension refers to the students' comprehension of Qur'anic history-based reading materials, measured by the formative post-test administered after conducting several treatments using metacognitive reading strategies (MRS) with the control group and multi-metacognitive reading strategies (MMRS) with the experimental group.

2.4.4 Qur'anic history-based reading materials refer to the reading materials provided for the students in both groups of the control and the experimental treatment activities, which were taken from the histories contained in the al-Qur'an itself, the history explained by Ibn Kathir, and reputable online sources.

2.4.5 IAIN Pontianak is the only state Islamic higher education Institution located in the Capital City of West Kalimantan, Pontianak, where this research was conducted.