ORIGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLE

A systematic review of critical thinking for Engineering Students in Chinese classrooms

Zhiying Liu^{1,2}, Sook Jhee Yoon^{1,*}, Maoxing Zheng^{3,*}

ABSTRACT

As a result of fast technical breakthroughs, globalization, a customer-centric emphasis, and team-based design techniques, 21st century workplace expectations for engineers have evolved. These changes need that engineering graduates possess highly developed critical thinking abilities in order to work at a high level in the engineering field. Critical thinking has been introduced as a fundamental ability in the new Skills Framework. Countries from all over the globe have taken steps to foster the development of critical thinking skills in their citizens, and researchers from a variety of fields pay attention to and conduct critical thinking research. However, comprehensive research on the teaching and learning of critical thinking in the Chinese setting is scarce. This study examines the research literature on critical thinking in Chinese classrooms in order to discover which theories and research methodologies are applied in critical thinking research. By scanning the CNKI and Web of Science databases, 63 Chinese and English publications were discovered using the PRISMA model. The analysis demonstrates that Chinese schools lack theoretical applications of critical thinking research. In the meanwhile, three distinct research techniques are used, however quantitative research approaches have the most papers. According to research, anyone interested in studying critical thinking should be familiar with its theory. In addition, researchers must use a range of study methodologies to guarantee that the results give information beyond summaries of critical thinking. Finally, Chinese researchers on critical thinking need greater exposure to qualitative data sources in order to modify their data gathering procedures.

Keywords: critical thinking; CNKI; Web of Science databases; PRISMA

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1. Introduction

Due to globalization and transdisciplinary design alternatives, the 21st century has brought about a shift in the expectations put on the engineering profession^[1]. The need to work in teams and with clients to optimize technological solutions has accompanied the traditional conception of an engineer as an individual who brings original ideas to address isolated problems. This has led to a departure from the conventional viewpoint of an engineer. Therefore, the highly technical skills obtained via postsecondary engineering education alone are inadequate for success in engineering careers.

The development of students' intrapersonal and interpersonal abilities has become a crucial component of an engineering education leading to professional success. In spite of this, there continues to be a skills gap between engineering graduates and employers' needs. Employers believe that the majority of social and emotional abilities required of entry-level engineers have not been attained to a sufficient

¹ Faculty of Education, Language & Psychology, SEGI University, Kota Damansara 47810, Malaysia

² School of Humanities & Teacher Education, Wuyi University, Wuyishan 354300, China

³ School of Computer Sciences, Baoji University of Arts and Sciences, Baoji 721007, China

^{*} Corresponding authors: Sook Jhee Yoon, yoonsookjhee@segi.edu.my; Maoxing Zheng, morse2000@163.com

level. This is particularly true with communication abilities. Students have the chance to boost their employability by acquiring critical thinking skills through internship programs provided by engineering companies.

Critical thinking is one of the talents listed in the framework for 21st century competencies. Students of engineering must be adept at independently considering all material elements, making decisions, asking questions, expressing viewpoints, and avoiding jumping to conclusions^[2]. As a result, critical thinking has become a focal point of engineering curricula globally in order to prepare students for the information economy. While colleges in the United Kingdom have changed their emphasis from critical thinking to other qualities such as collaboration and leadership, critical thinking is still a vital component of higher education in the United States. Critical thinking is strongly emphasized at all educational levels in China. The China Education Innovation Institute of Beijing Normal University established the 5C Framework for 21st Century Key Competencies, which comprises five core competencies: creativity, cooperation, critical thinking, communication, and cultural competence. The four components of critical thinking are questioning and critique, analysis and argumentation, synthesis and generation, and reflection and assessment.

A literature search revealed that there are few systematic reviews of the teaching and learning of critical thinking in Chinese contexts. The review by Tian and Low^[3] that focuses on Chinese higher education students concludes that culture is not the primary cause for engineering students' lack of critical thinking. There is a more recent evaluation by Fan and See^[4]; however, they focused on Chinese students studying abroad and concluded that there is insufficient evidence to suggest that Chinese students have worse critical thinking abilities than their peers. In addition to engineering students' learning of critical thinking, the teaching of critical thinking by instructors is another subject that has quietly garnered interest over the last decade. They found, for instance, in Zhang et al.^[5] that the instructors' lack of professional expertise hindered their adoption of critical thinking. Concerning research methodologies, Tian and Low^[3] advocated for an increase in context-sensitive research and qualitative studies in order to better comprehend the problem. In a similar spirit, Fan and See^[4] advocated for additional large-scale empirical investigations to comprehend the critical thinking of Chinese learners. Therefore, it is essential to perform a systematic study to determine how far the teaching and learning of critical thinking have advanced in China. This analysis sought to address two questions: What theories are utilized to investigate critical thinking in Chinese classrooms? What research methodologies are utilized to investigate critical thinking in Chinese classrooms?

2. Related work

One of the early works on critical thinking was How We Think by Dewey, which introduced the notion of reflective thinking (1933). Additionally, other fields have sought to define critical thinking. The psychological approach emphasizes cognitive ability and thinking. The philosophical approaches emphasize the need to be rational, skilled, and deliberate while making decisions. The sociological approach emphasizes how an individual's connections with the community affect his or her thinking^[5]. In education, Bloom's Taxonomy and its subsequent revision are emblematic of critical thinking^[6]. Bloom's Taxonomy's educational goals include six levels of cognitive abilities, and the three higher-level talents of analysis, assessment, and creativity are termed "critical thinking"^[7]. In teaching and learning, educators have used a variety of frameworks. In their book, Moseley et al.^[5] classified frameworks into four primary groups. First, frameworks that may assist educators in establishing instructional activities Second, structures that emphasize both thought and action Third, cognitive development incorporating intelligence-focused frameworks Fourth, all-encompassing frameworks for instruction, behavior, and cognition.

In ancient China, ancient sages emphasized the significance of critical thinking in the learning process, according to historical documents. For instance, the Doctrine of the Mean (Zhongyong) advised a thorough

learning process consisting of broad study, accurate inquiry, thoughtful reflection, clear discrimination, and diligent practice. This ancient Chinese method of education is one of the most significant historical examples of critical thinking. Confucius, a revered Chinese sage, emphasized the need to promote critical thinking in the educational process and the value of independent thought in learning. Confucius said in the Analects of Confucius (Lunyu) that learning without thinking leads to misunderstanding, while thinking without learning leads to danger. As a result, traditional Chinese critical thinking places more emphasis on action. To establish the unity of knowledge and action after inquiring, thinking, and judging, one must apply the conclusion or belief to everyday life. These first works in China demonstrate that the development of critical thinking among students in Chinese society has long historical roots.

In contemporary China, the government has placed an emphasis on teaching students to think critically. The government put up regulations to guarantee that critical thinking was included in the curricula of schools and universities. Under the first policy, the Core Competencies and Values for the Development of Chinese Students, logical thinking, critical questioning, and an eagerness to investigate are recognized as the fundamental criteria for judging the scientific spirit of engineering students. Second, in 2018, a new policy, Education for the Future: Global Experience, Developing 21st Century Skills and Competencies was implemented in an effort to increase the teaching of essential concepts. Lastly, critical thinking is one of the seven basic characteristics of individuals in the 21st century that are highly appreciated by nations and international organizations (China Education Innovation Institute of Beijing Normal University, 2018). Also, Chinese colleges have emphasized critical thinking. In the fall 2003 class at Peking University, for instance, Logic and Critical Thinking was established as an optional course^[8]. In recent years, additional empirical research on the teaching of critical thinking in English as a foreign language (EFL)^[9], nursing education^[8], and teacher training^[10] has been done, among others.

3. Proposed method

3.1. Search strategy

Figure 1 depicts the procedure for choosing papers for this systematic review. The Web of Science database was searched using keyword combinations ("critical thinking" AND China OR Chinese AND education) in the title of English-language articles. The search returned 768 matches for English-language articles. This assessment was done in June 2022, using data from the Web of Science database that was last updated on June 22, 2022. Using CNKI, a search was run using the terms "critical thinking" as a topic. Initial searches yielded a total of 768 English-language articles and 888 Chinese-language pieces, for a grand total of 1656 items.

The second screening phase consisted of two stages. Firstly, the titles and abstracts of the articles were read to identify studies that met the inclusion criteria^[11]. **Figure 1** demonstrates the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The screening produced a total of 733 articles. The second step of screening included reading the whole document. At this stage of screening, the criteria for inclusion were that the research techniques must be described in the publications, the study participants must be Chinese engineering students or instructors, and the research location must be China. Journal articles without a description of study methodology, review articles, abstracts, and conference papers were excluded. After the second phase of screening, 28 Chinese articles and 35 English pieces fulfilled the selection criteria, bringing the total number of articles to 63.

3.2. Information sources

The purpose of this study is to examine critical thinking in the Chinese environment between 2012 and 2022. The articles considered for this analysis were published in both Chinese and English. The identification of the items included two steps: searching and filtering. First, to assure the quality, papers were picked from the Science Citation Index (SCI), Chinese Social Science Citation Index (CSSCI), Chinese Science Citation

Database (CSCD), and Peking University core journals based on the division of China's journal index. The CNKI database in China was queried for articles published in Chinese.

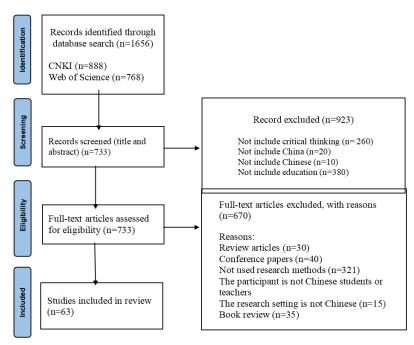


Figure 1. Flow diagram based on PRISMA guidelines.

3.3. Inclusion criteria

Four inclusion criteria were established before conducted the review: (1) published journal articles; (2) written in Chinese and English; (3) participants are teachers or students; (4) The research setting is in China.

3.4. Exclusion criteria

In this systematic review, exclusion criteria: (1) review article; (2) dissertation; (3) conference articles; (4) book review; (5) abstract; (6) non-Chinese and non-English articles.

4. Result

Figure 1 depicts the process of article evaluation for this systematic review. This section starts with a description of the chosen articles' demographics. The results for the two research questions are then provided. Moher et al.^[12] advocated that, when analyzing the data, the search variables should be put first. For data analysis in this assessment, MAXQDA 2020 software was employed. Prior to analyzing the 63 publications, the researchers assigned codes to research questions, research methods, research hypotheses, study participants, research instruments, and research outcomes. The researchers then analyzed and categorized all the data to present an overview of studies on critical thinking in Chinese education over the last decade. Following this rule, the researchers carefully reviewed each manuscript in search of codes and to establish distinct groups and subjects. The outcomes of this analysis are provided in the next section.

4.1. Descriptive information

The review focuses on Chinese and English-language journal papers published between 2012 and the present (i.e., the past 10 years). The yearly trends of Chinese and English journal papers are identical, as illustrated in **Figure 2**. The data indicates that the greatest number of publications were published in 2020. As seen in **Figure 2**, the number of Chinese articles published has been on the increase since 2016, but will decline in 2021 relative to the two preceding years. From 2018 to 2021, the number of articles published in English

skyrocketed. Since the data search was completed in June of 2022, it is probable that the number of articles published in 2022 will be comparable to that of 2021.



Figure 2. Publications per year.

As indicated in **Table 1**, 74.6% of the total chosen papers included college engineering students as participants. There were eight studies on teachers, including four on college English instructors (n = 4), two on high school teachers (n = 2), and one on middle school teachers (n = 1), but none on elementary school or preschool teachers. In addition, one article's participants comprised elementary, middle, and high school principals. Participation by middle school students (n = 4) and high school students (n = 2) in articles represented just 9% of the total. However, there are few publications that involve elementary and preschool pupils.

Table 1. Study participants.

| Participants | Number of articles | Percentage | |
|------------------------------|--------------------|------------|--|
| Teachers and students | 2 | 3% | |
| Teachers only | 7 | 11% | |
| School leaders | 1 | 1.5% | |
| College students only | 47 | 73.4% | |
| High school students only | 2 | 3% | |
| Middle school students only | 5 | 8% | |
| Primary school students only | 0 | 0 | |
| Preschool children only | 0 | 0 | |

^a Not equal to 100% as a result of rounding.

4.2. Researching critical thinking in the Chinese classrooms

Only ten of the sixty-three papers analyzed used critical thinking ideas in their study. These ideas come from many angles, with sociological theories appearing in three of the articles. Student engagement theory and the community of inquiry framework have each been used in two papers, while the other theories indicated in **Table 2** have been utilized in just one research. In their investigation, only Qin and Lyu^[13] used both the theory of moral growth and the student engagement theory. The other nine investigations used just a single hypothesis.

Table 2. The theories used by researchers of the 10 articles.

| Perspective | Theory used | Author using the theory | Language of article |
|-------------|--|--|---------------------|
| Psychology | Theory of moral development | Qin and Lyu ^[13] | Chinese |
| | Student involvement theory | Qin and Lyu ^[13] ; Mei et al. ^[14] | Chinese |
| Philosophy | Five Dimensions of Epistemological Beliefs of Schommer | Xia and Zhong ^[15] | Chinese |

Table 2. (Continued).

| Perspective Theory used | | Author using the theory | Language of article | |
|-------------------------|---|--|---------------------|--|
| Cognitive | Piaget's cognitive development theory | Bi et al. ^[16] | Chinese | |
| Sociological | Vygotsky's sociocultural theory | Ma and Luo ^[11] | English | |
| | McIntyre's Notion of Rationality | Tan ^[17] | English | |
| | Community of Inquiry Framework | Wu ^[18] ; Yuan et al. ^[19] | Chinese | |
| Social psychology | Positioning theory | Pu and Evans ^[20] | English | |
| Social cognitive | Four-stage content analysis framework model | Ye and Yin ^[21] | Chinese | |

4.3. Research designs used in researching critical thinking in Chinese classrooms

According to an analysis, there are four kinds of research designs used to study critical thinking in China. With 23 publications, survey design was the most prevalent, followed by experimental design with 16 articles. A comprehensive study of the articles revealed that their purpose was to highlight the critical thinking of pupils. The purpose of these articles is also to assess students' critical thinking abilities and inclinations. In addition, there are papers that investigate the link between students' critical thinking and other pertinent aspects (learning styles, social factors). 64 was the lowest sample size, while 46820 was the largest. Experiments designed to determine the efficacy of different critical thinking development strategies Problem-based learning^[22], task-based learning^[23], group study^[21], philosophy for children^[1], online teaching methods^[24,25], blended teaching methods^[26], and service learning activities were among the treatments included in **Table 3**.

Table 3. Research designs used in researching critical thinking in China.

| Research design | Author | Sample size |
|-----------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Survey | Lu et al. ^[27] | 103 undergraduate students |
| | Huang et al. ^[28] | 1075 medical students |
| | Cheng and Wan ^[29] | 3869 high school students |
| | Huang et al. ^[30] | 1,338 medical students |
| | Wu and $Wu^{[31]}$ | 64 nursing students |
| | Pu et al. [32] | 130 undergraduate medical students |
| | Ma et al. ^[33] | 46,820 students under 547 physics teachers |
| | Zhang et al. ^[34] | 157 senior undergraduate nursing students |
| | Yang and Mohd ^[35] | 542 EFL university students |
| | Lu and Chen ^[36] | 437 engineering college students |
| | Li et al. ^[37] | 1075 college students |
| | Qin and Lyu ^[13] | 1610 top-notch college students |
| | Mei et al. ^[14] | 1060 college students |
| | Xia and Zhong ^[15] | 1049 college students |
| | Shen et al. [38] | 1833 college students |
| | $Wu^{[39]}$ | 350 college students |
| | Zheng et al. ^[40] | 504 medical students |
| | Zhang et al. ^[41] | 385 medical students |
| | Gao[42] | 489 college students |
| | Mao and Xu ^[43] | 115 high school teachers |

Table 3. (Continued)

| Research design | Author | Sample size |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|---|
| Experimental | Zhou et al. ^[44] | 119 high school students |
| | Hwang et al. ^[45] | 40 middle school students |
| | Huang and Ning ^[28] | 430 engineering students |
| | Chen and Hu ^[24] | 60 freshmen English majors |
| | Qin et al. ^[46] | 229 undergraduate nursing students |
| | Bi et al. ^[16] | 100 middle school students |
| | $Wu^{[28]}$ | 76 college students |
| | Han and Wei ^[47] | 78 middle school students |
| | Qiao ^[48] | 33 college engineering students |
| | Nie et al. ^[49] | 82 college engineering students |
| | $Wu^{[1]}$ | 178 middle school students and 2 teachers |
| | Ye and Yin ^[50] | 30 college engineering students |
| | Yuan et al. ^[51] | 44 undergraduate students |
| | Ma et al. ^[52] | 75 undergraduate psychology students |
| Explanatory sequential | Huang et al. ^[53] | 1241 medical students |
| | Ng et al. ^[54] | 178 college students |
| | Liang and Fung ^[55] | 125 primary school students, 5 English teachers |
| | Wang and Seepho ^[56] | 50 English majors |
| | Chiu ^[57] | 45 English majors |
| | Liao et al. ^[58] | 118 nursing undergraduates |
| | Du and Zhang ^[59] | 156 English majors |
| | Ma and Liu ^[60] | 186 teachers |
| | Liu and Jin ^[61] | 23 English majors |
| | Leng et al. ^[62] | 55 college engineering students |
| | Zhang et al. ^[41] | 57 college engineering students |
| | Mao and Xu ^[63] | 115 high school teachers |
| Case study | Pu and Evans ^[20] | 29 postgraduate students |
| | Zhao ^[64] | 8 middle school teachers |
| | Li and Pan ^[65] | 4 high school teachers |

4.4. Data sources in researching critical thinking in Chinese classrooms

Analysis revealed that both quantitative and qualitative data were obtained to investigate critical thinking in Chinese schools. The most prevalent source of numerical data was critical thinking tools. In the papers, a total of 18 instruments were used. The most popular tool was the Chinese version of the California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CTDI-CV). This instrument appears in seventeen articles. In seven papers, the California Scale of Disposition for Critical Thinking (CCTDI) was the second-most-used instrument. Among the instruments, there are a few that are based on Chinese culture. There were several papers that used quantitative research methodologies. The goal of the papers was to examine the critical thinking of Chinese students or instructors or to evaluate the efficacy of utilizing certain teaching techniques or tactics to foster critical thinking in engineering students. The CCTDI is designed to assess the personality components of critical thinking. The questionnaire is intended to assess cognitive capacity and is relevant to those aged 15 and older. Using CCTDI, a number of scholars^[13] have advocated localizing the questionnaire. As stated in

Table 4, we redesigned the CCTDI and released the Chinese version of the Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CTDI-CV).

Table 4. Instruments used in researching critical thinking in Chinese classrooms.

| Instruments | Author |
|--|-------------------------------|
| The Chinese version of Watson Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (CWGCTA); | Pei et al. ^[66] |
| California Critical Thinking Disposition (CCTD) | Chiu ^[57] |
| Learning Environment Affordance Survey Critical Thinking (LEAS_CT), | Du and Zhang ^[59] |
| University of Florida Critical Thinking Inventory (UFCTI) | Lu et al. ^[10] |
| The Scale of the Critical Thinking Tendency | Hwang et al. ^[45] |
| The Critical Thinking Skills Survey (CTSS) | Chen and Hu ^[24] |
| The Critical Thinking Disposition Assessment (CTDA), | Cui et al. ^[67] |
| The Program for Regional Assessment of Basic Education Quality (PRABEQ) | Ma et al. ^[68] |
| Cornell Critical Thinking Tests-Level X, | Bi et al. ^[16] |
| The Chinese College Students' Cognitive and Creativity Development Questionnaire | Mei et al. ^[14] |
| ETS Proficiency Profile (EPP), Educational Testing Service | Xia and Zhong ^[15] |
| Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal | Wu ^[26] |

Critical thinking research in Chinese classrooms also gathered non-numerical data. **Table 5** shows the non-numerical data sources. These sources included semi-structured interviews, observations, focus group discussions, open-ended questionnaire and reflective log. Semi-structured and focus group interviews were the most common data sources.

Table 5. Non-numerical data sources.

| Sources of Data | Author |
|---------------------------|--|
| Semi-structured interview | Ma and Luo $^{[11]}$; Pu and Evans $^{[20]}$; Huang and Wu $^{[69]}$; Zhao $^{[64]}$; Yuan and Stapleton $^{[70]}$; Chen $^{[71]}$; Li and Pan $^{[65]}$ |
| Observation | Ma and Luo ^[11] ; Huang and Wu ^[69] ; Zhao ^[64] ; Li and Pan ^[65] |
| Open-ended questionnaire | Tan ^[72] |
| Reflective log | Wei ^[73] |
| Group discussion | Wei ^[73] ; Yuan and Stapleton ^[70] ; Leng and Guo ^[62] |

Researchers utilize a mixture or combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques, tools, or ideas in a single study or set of linked studies, as shown in **Table 6**. The qualitative and quantitative components of research may be conducted concurrently or sequentially to answer a research topic or a set of interrelated questions. Since the 1990s, the intricacy of research issues has necessitated that researchers answer queries using more than just words and statistics.

Table 6. Mixed-methods studies included in review.

| Source | Language | Sample size | Instruments/Sources of data |
|-----------------------------|----------|--|---|
| Wu ^[1] | English | 178 middle school students and 2 teachers | Questionnaires designed by scholars on the basis of three questionnaires: CAT, the Cornell Test Level, and the Watson Glasser test; Classroom observation; informal interview |
| Ma et al. ^[52] | Chinese | 75 undergraduate psychology students | Student reflection journal; coding Table of critical thinking performance in problem solving |
| Yuan et al. ^[51] | Chinese | 44 undergraduate students majoring in educational technology | Learner Text Interactive Content; Newmen's Critical Thinking Depth Measurement Model |

Table 6. (Continued).

| Source | Language | Sample size | Instruments/Sources of data |
|------------------------------------|----------|---|--|
| Ye and Yin ^[50] | Chinese | 36 college engineering students | Critical issues for group inquiry; group works |
| $Xu^{[22]}$ | Chinese | 88 college students | The Chinese version of Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CTDI-CV); interview; student logs |
| Liang and Fung [55] | English | 125 primary school students, 5 English teachers | The California Scale of Disposition of Critical Thinking (CCTDI); audio- recording of group discussion; classroom observation, students' written work; semi-structured interviews with teachers. |
| Wang and Seepho ^[56] | English | 50 English majors | Learner voice questionnaire; semi-structured interviews |
| Chiu ^[57] | English | 45 English majors | California Critical Thinking Disposition (CCTD); the summative assessment reflection; student focus group |
| Liao et al., ^[58] | English | 118 nursing undergraduates | Chinese version of the Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CTDI-CV) |

5. Discussion

Teachers and engineering students in China have paid greater attention to critical thinking during the last decade. However, the evaluation revealed that the breadth of the research was more focused on the setting of higher education. Preschool and elementary school pupils must get enough attention. Critical reasoning is not a natural talent. At its 45th Anniversary Conference in 1995, UNESCO stated that education should aid in the development of autonomous judgment, critical thinking, and moral reasoning among young people. The development of critical thinking is a continuous process, and research demonstrates that even toddlers may benefit from instruction in this area. The use of tangible objects (tales, images) to establish favorable circumstances for teaching critical thinking may increase the development of thinking abilities in preschool children aged 5 to 6.

The analysis revealed that not all papers used relevant theories in their research. Despite the fact that there is more research on critical thinking in Chinese classrooms, it is concerning that a huge majority of these studies disregard theoretical grounding. In planning a study, rookie researchers may rely only on their intuitive understanding, resulting in a lack of theoretical foundation^[74]. The significance of the theory cannot be disputed. Theoretical frameworks in qualitative research communicate researchers' core principles and offer a clear signal or lens for how new information should be handled in a study. Similarly, theories define a range of phenomena worthy of investigation and how to observe and comprehend them^[75]. noted that publications in Chinese social science journals are often replete with assertions, general norms, or emotive anecdotes but lack proper research procedures. According to Sun^[76], the research approach of developing a theoretical framework through evaluating literature is no longer enough to meet China's present educational research demands. In this review, it was determined that surveys were the method of choice among Chinese researchers. Because the findings of quantitative research techniques are thought to be more objective and scientific, surveys were frequently employed in China. Experiments were the second-most-favorite kind of design. Using specific instructional approaches, experiments were done to evaluate the students' critical thinking. The duration of the trials did not exceed one semester (12–16 weeks). In a mixed-methods study, for instance, individuals were treated for just four weeks. The growth and training of critical thinking is a long-term, continuing process^[17]. Instructors adapt new teaching techniques or tactics in the classroom as a result of experimental research, which is a significant issue for both teachers and engineering students. Zhou et al. [77] stated that the duration of the classroom experiment may have been insufficient to synthesize the impacts of the novel technique. It is considered that the 12-week intervention time on student learning may not be sufficient to make meaningful effects. Longer-term or longitudinal studies may thus serve to characterize the development of engineering students' critical thinking abilities in more detail. Regarding instrumentation, the instruments used in these

investigations were created outside of China. Certain aspects of cultural heritage impact critical thinking. Confucianism has the greatest effect on Chinese culture. The culture of Confucius promotes peace and zhongyong. Moreover, the Chinese possess a collective attitude. It is proposed that the critical thinking test scale now used in China was designed in the past and, hence, cannot be utilized to represent current developments in the area of critical thinking. There are few studies that utilize methods other than instruments to obtain data about critical thinking. There are only eleven papers with qualitative data. As opposed to qualitative data, quantitative conclusions are more frequently acknowledged as scientific. This likely explains why there are so few studies adopting qualitative data collection methodologies in critical thinking research. In addition, it was suggested that cultural, political, and ethical concerns added to the complexities of qualitative research in China.

Regarding the research participants, the analysis revealed that they were virtually exclusively students and teachers in higher education. Similarly, researchers in higher education are instructors. Universities at China's higher education level employ general education to foster critical thinking among engineering students. However, the quality and substance of courses, as well as the teaching philosophy and practices of professors, are crucial aspects that have a direct impact on critical thinking education. Similarly, in the 21st century learning environment, knowledge is continuously updated and created, and the advancement of science and technology has a direct impact on the transmission and interchange of information. These have presented the school's purpose and function with unprecedented obstacles. Therefore, more emphasis should be placed on technology and instructional approaches for teaching and researching critical thinking. Although higher education stresses the significance of the intellectual, moral, and skill development of engineering students, there is always room for improvement. In order for engineering students to gain key 21st century competences and prosper in a diversified and global information economy, elementary and secondary schools must place more focus on cognitive development.

6. Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to determine how much critical thinking research has advanced over the previous decade. The review assessed the chosen publications' ideas, study designs, and data sources. The study highlights three significant consequences. Those interested in exploring critical thinking must first be familiar with critical thinking ideas. In addition, researchers' abilities in study design must be enhanced to guarantee that their studies are anchored in applicable ideas. Second, researchers must use a variety of study designs, such as action research, causal research, and cross-sectional designs, to guarantee that the findings of their studies give information beyond the profiles of critical thinking. Thirdly, people doing research on critical thinking in China need more exposure to qualitative data sources. Researchers might use qualitative data sources such as content analysis and photovoice to diversify their data gathering tactics.

Future studies on critical thinking in Chinese classrooms must concentrate on various phases of formal education, such as early childhood, preschool, elementary, and secondary. The absence of critical thinking in early life and preschool education necessitates additional study in these areas. The study also merits a request for further qualitative research to unravel the intricacies of critical thinking instruction and learning.

Author contributions

Conceptualization, ZL; methodology, ZL; data curation, ZL and MZ; writing—original draft preparation, ZL and MZ; writing—review and editing, ZL and MZ; visualization, SJY; supervision, SJY; project administration, SJY; funding acquisition, SJY. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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