

**CAMBRIDGE** UNIVERSITY PRESS

## Pathways for the development of students' critical thinking in EAP programmes

Part of the Cambridge Papers in ELT series May 2019

#### CONTENTS

2	Executive Summary	
3	Introduction	
4	What is critical thinking?	
6	The importance of critical thinking in academic English	
7	The challenges for EAP students and teachers	
9	Approaches to foster critical thinking in EAP	
14	What can teachers and students do to foster critical thinking?	
17	Conclusion	
18	Bibliography	

### **Executive Summary**

Critical thinking is as essential in 21st-century workplaces as it is in the 21st-century university. English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which aims to prepare students to study in English-medium universities, must address students' ability to use English critically so that they can participate effectively in tertiary study.

- It is hard to define the concept of critical thinking, but we can identify a set of a 'good' thinking skills associated with it, such as reasoning, examining evidence and offering interpretations.
- Regarding the EAP context, criticality involves analytical skills and critical thinking. Knowledge (especially about the discipline) is found to be strongly associated with critical thinking.
- Cultural practice and language proficiency have been identified as key factors influencing EAP learners' critical thinking skills – in addition to the fact that 'critical' thinking can often be misinterpreted as something negative.

- Critical thinking can be a challenge for many EAP students, as they have not likely had sufficient training in their prior learning experiences.
- Different approaches are proposed to enhance critical thinking. While a general approach treats critical thinking as an independent transferrable skill, the explicit and implicit approaches treat it as a disciplinary-specific skill. A mixed approach proves to be most effective.
- For students and teachers, Socratic questioning techniques, awareness of genre, using corpus analysis and collaborative work are all useful strategies to develop critical voice.
- When using a simulation/game-based approach, student language level and task complexity need to be taken into consideration.
- Teachers' training and support in fostering critical thinking is vitally important.



### Introduction

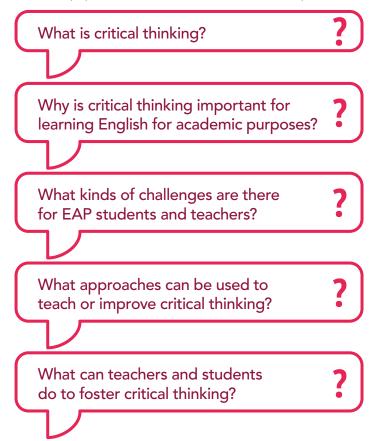
Demonstrating criticality, or critical thinking, is vital for success in academic work (Wallace & Wray, 2006). For a student studying at a university – or course preparing for university – in addition to gaining sufficient discipline knowledge, they also need to develop a skill that enables them to think critically about the knowledge they have gained (Woodward-Kron, 2002; Moore, 2013) and information they have obtained. Such a skill is even more demanding in today's society as students live in an information-loaded era. Additionally, critical thinking is now considered a key skill required by many employers (Pithers & Soden, 2000).

For these reasons, critical thinking (together with communication, creativity and collaboration) is considered a 21st-century skill, which is a widely recognised 4C framework. In fact, critical thinking perhaps plays a central and significant role in other 3Cs, as there is a degree of criticality in all of them.

In highlighting the significance of critical thinking in EAP, Wilson (2016) argues that all EAP students 'need and deserve a curriculum for critical thinking, which prepares them for tertiary study in the new environment', which is especially true for L2 learners who enter 'a new culture of learning' (p.257).

However, developing such a skill is not easy, particularly for those who do not speak English as their first language. There are two prevailing, identified reasons: firstly, critical thinking is a western concept (Atkinson, 1997), which is deeply rooted in western culture. Those who grew up and were educated in other cultures might find this concept difficult to grasp because criticism is not strongly reflected in their own culture (Chan, Ho & Ku, 2011; Durkin, 2008). Secondly, many English as a foreign/second language (EFL/ESL) learners struggle with both general and academic English. Even if they do engage in critical thinking, it might be challenging for them to express their ideas clearly and precisely.

Nevertheless, as we understand, critical thinking is expected in higher education (Andrews, 2010) and, therefore, it is essential to understand some critical aspects of it. This paper intends to address the following questions:



## What is critical thinking?

Defining 'critical thinking' is an important first step in addressing these questions. However, this is an almost impossible task as there are so many different definitions, which each take different angles. Moreover, different disciplines have offered different understandings of, and interpretations for, the concept (Kennedy et al., 1991; Lewis & Smith, 1993).

Lipman (1988) argues critical thinking is 'skilful, responsible thinking that facilitates good judgement' (p.9). Such a thinking skill relies on criteria in making decisions and judgements and is sensitive to context.

Ennis (1996) defines critical thinking as 'reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do' (p.166). Such understanding is closely related to Dewey's reflective thinking, which is defined as 'active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it ends' (Dewey, 1910, p.2).

Bloom et al. (1956) established a renowned taxonomy that identifies six critical aspects of thinking in education: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. They proposed that the first three skills are lower order thinking skills; whereas analysis, synthesis and evaluation demonstrated higher order thinking skills, which are key components of critical thinking.

These aspects are still frequently and widely used by researchers, educators and curriculum developers, in critical thinking-based curriculum and assessment (Reece, 2002).

Despite the plethora of definitions of critical thinking, the concept remains 'elusive' (Davies & Barnett, 2015:

3). This said, Wegerif, Li & Kaufman (2015) argue that we should be able to recognise 'good' thinking and pay attention to the development of it in learning situations.

Wegerif, Li & Kaufman (2015) argue that we should be able to recognise 'good' thinking and pay attention to the development of it in learning situations.

asking meanin	examining evidence	
offering interpretations	making rational decisions	
giving explanations	evaluating materials	analysing assumptions
reasoning	demonstrating self-regulation/ self-management	
avoiding sir	being open- minded	

Some key features of 'good' thinking are illustrated below:

Figure 1: Features of 'good' thinking skills

With regards to EAP, Pally (2001) suggests that critical thinking includes two key aspects, namely analytical thinking and critical thinking, with specific skills involved as shown below:

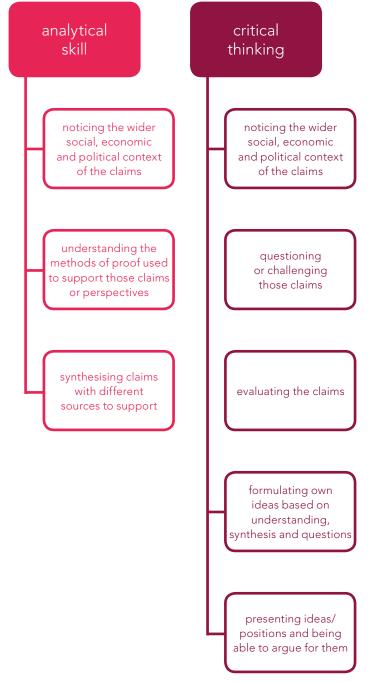


Figure 2: Critical thinking skills in EAP (based on Pally, 2001)

In this framework, we can see that there are two types of skills or abilities that a student needs in academic work:



understanding and summarising, with analysis



taking a stance or perspective in a given context and being able to argue for it.

Similar attempts have been made to clarify the concept of critical thinking. For example, Thomas & Lok (2015) developed an operational framework for critical thinking, which comprises three interconnected sets of attributes:

- skills: reasoning, evaluation and self-regulation
- knowledge: general information, specific content and experience
- disposition: intellectual virtues, habits of mind and attitude.

Research suggests there is a strong link between knowledge and critical thinking, especially the specific content knowledge which can be interpreted as disciplinary knowledge. It also includes cultural knowledge that accounts for differences in interpreting sub-themes in critical skills.

For example, 'reflective' thinking in the Confucian tradition has a different meaning from that used in the West (e.g. Dewy's reflective thinking) (Li, 2015).

## The importance of critical thinking in academic English

For many EFL/ESL learners, critical thinking enables them to 'question, challenge and demand reasons and justifications for what is being taught' (Siegel, 1985, p.71). Being able to challenge and question the knowledge they learn or information they gather is a critical skill for life, and a fundamental goal of learning in higher education (Ennis, 1996; Barnett, 1997).

Ultimately, the importance of critical thinking in achieving success in academic (and general) life cannot be stressed enough. For that reason, teaching critical thinking has already been listed as a key area to be cultivated and assessed in higher education in the UK, United States and Australia (Ku & Ho, 2009). In fact, the global movement of enhancing learners' critical thinking in higher education is especially vital for EAP contexts, as the goal of the instruction is to equip students with the knowledge and skills necessary to succeed in their university learning.

The importance of critical thinking in achieving success in academic (and general) life cannot be stressed enough It is widely recognised that critical thinking plays a crucial role in academic success in EFL/ ESL and EAP settings. For example:



Research suggests that critical thinking is related to student achievement, especially its positive influence on the achievements of learners in EFL contexts (Hashemi & Ghanizadeh, 2012).

Successful learners demonstrate active and creative participation in the learning process, in particular in the use of learning strategies (Nikoopour, Farsani & Nasiri, 2011; Bagheri, 2015).



L2 success is strongly associated with metacognitive knowledge and strategies that students have, despite the differences across cultures (Li & Larkin, 2017).



Successful, argumentative writing depends on students' level of critical thinking (Golpour, 2014).

## The challenges for EAP students and teachers

For many L2 learners, it is difficult to identify the voices of the authors when doing an academic reading or to make their own voices 'visible' in their writing. Lack of a critical voice and an inability to identify it usually has something to do with students' language proficiency but, more importantly, also criticality. In EAP courses, especially regarding academic reading and writing, there are widely recognised issues regarding promoting the criticality of students. For example:

 Most English courses focus on developing students' language proficiency level, rather than criticality. Therefore, it is widely acknowledged that there is low critical thinking among EFL learners (Pei et al., 2017; Moghaddam & Malekzadeh, 2011) unless critical thinking is deliberately taught (Halpern, 2014; Gelder, 2005). Critical thinking ultimately becomes a challenge for many students given that they have never studied it in their prior learning.

Most English courses focus on developing students' language proficiency level, rather than criticality. Therefore, it is widely acknowledged that there is low critical thinking among EFL learners.

- The idea of being critical might be challenging to some students, for example Asian students whose fundamental cultural norms value the opinion of experts and knowledge (Bali, 2015). Moreover, 'being critical' is widely misinterpreted as something negative (Durkin, 2008; O'Sullivan & Guo, 2010).
- Criticality in academic work requires a good level of language. It is clear that sometimes it's not criticality that students lack but rather their L2 language proficiency limits their ability to engage more successfully in critical analysis (Melles, 2009; Tian & Low, 2011; Manalo et al., 2015).

Criticality in academic work requires a good level of language. It is clear that sometimes it's not criticality that students lack but rather their L2 language proficiency limits their ability to engage more successfully in critical analysis.

From a teacher's perspective, it can be challenging to teach critical thinking even when students recognise the importance of the concept for their academic success. taught without content. While the language  Critical thinking is an abstract concept and, as discussed, it is difficult to define. Many teachers have little training on what critical thinking is or how to teach it. English language teaching and learning is strongly associated with linguistic knowledge and developing accuracy in language, as the assessment is predominantly about grammar and lexical knowledge (Li, 2016). Instructors' own critical thinking skills inevitably affect their teaching and their ability to enhance students' thinking skills (Li, 2011; Mok, 2009; Xu & Li, 2018).

General English courses do not prepare students to engage in critical thinking, so when they start studying an EAP course, instructors can find it difficult to change students' behaviour, thinking styles and perceptions towards learning English

- There are not enough resources available that focus on developing students' critical thinking skills, although in recent years publishers/researchers have started to pay significant attention to producing materials for teachers and students. Teachers can still find it challenging to use the materials in their contexts, because there is a lack of guidance on critical thinking pedagogies.
- Assessing critical thinking is another challenging area for teachers to tackle. Thinking-based curricula and pedagogies require changes in assessment processes, which teachers are sometimes unable to realise.

Having discussed some of the challenges in developing critical thinking skills in EAP, it is vital to see how we can overcome them to facilitate the development of critical thinking. As Pally (2001) emphasised, critical thinking skills 'do not develop automatically in language classes' and a deliberate approach to teaching them is essential.

## Approaches to foster critical thinking in EAP

There are different approaches available for critical thinking instruction, depending on how it is conceptualised. If it is viewed as a generic skill, a general approach is used to promote critical thinking, separately and independently of a subject. In this case, critical thinking is considered as a transferrable skill that students can apply in different subjects and in different contexts. However, there are other views regarding what critical thinking is and therefore alternative approaches to teaching it are required – the differences in discipline decide what specific aspects of critical thinking are most important.

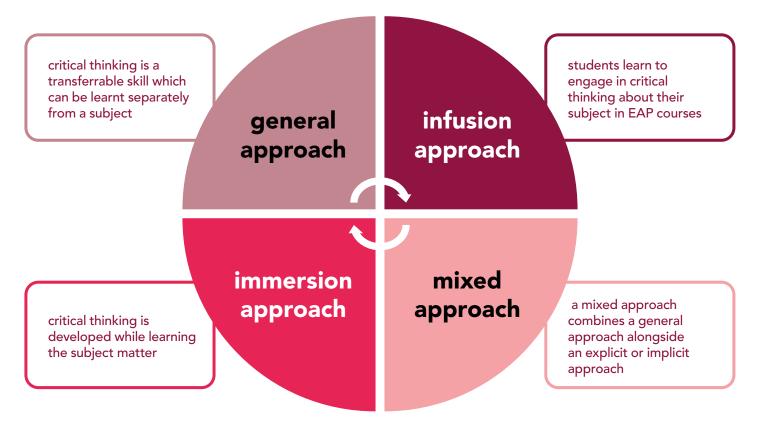


Figure 3: Approaches to foster critical thinking

#### Infusion approach

The infusion approach is an explicit approach to critical thinking that, in principle, believes different subjects have different perspectives towards critical thinking and therefore the critical thinking subskills will be different across subjects (Resnick, 1987; Swartz, 1987). This is a popular approach in EAP instruction, where students are taught to engage in critical thinking explicitly about their subjects.

The infusion approach is an explicit approach to critical thinking that, in principle, believes different subjects have different perspectives towards critical thinking and therefore the critical thinking sub-skills will be different across subjects (Resnick, 1987; Swartz, 1987).

Research suggests an explicit approach is effective in developing student's critical thinking (Abrami et al., 2008). Two examples of the infusion approach in developing critical thinking are:

#### Corpus-based approach

Hyland & Tse (2005) argue that using corpus-based materials is particularly useful in 'helping readers towards a preferred interpretation of the information'. Argent (2017) discusses the language of critical thinking, pointing out the areas of language that teachers might want to consider working on in order to improve students' critical thinking in 'critical voice'.

She argues that 'the language of critical thinking is all about voice, and voice needs language: metadiscourse, hedging, distancing, terms for persuasion and caution, attitude, markers, maximisers/minimisers, emphasisers' and so on. Basically, 'a voice' is about doing three things:

- taking and defending a stance
- expressing meaning relations
- making evaluations.

Demonstrating a critical voice in EAP involves making evaluations and judgements based on evidence (Hyland & Tse, 2005), offering own perspective and taking a stance (Hyland, 2005), making a convincing argument (Hyland & Tse, 2007), using language to show positions (which includes the use of hedging, qualification and certainty) and metadiscourse (Liu & Stapleton, 2018).

In this approach, students can select an article (or articles) to analyse the critical voice by engaging the following questions:

What are the author's claims and perspectives? What reported verbs does the author use to make a claim/point?

How valid are the author's claims/points? What evidence is used to support the claims? Is there any false generalisation?

- To what extent are these claims true, in a context that you know of?
- How would you support the author's claims? Is there any more evidence you can offer?
- If you disagree with the author, what points can you make? What evidence/material can you use to support your own claims?

This question list is just an example. Teachers and learners can come up with their own lists to help focus on the process of critical thinking. This is also a practical approach to break the task into smaller chunks so that students do not feel it is too challenging or daunting.





The pedagogical effectiveness of simulation in EAP is well documented in helping to prepare students for academia. There are a few notable advantages of the simulation/game-based approach:

- Simulation provides students with a rich learning experience, which other methods are unable to achieve, because students can interact with others in a simulated reality (Garcia-Carbonnell, Rising, Montero & Watts, 2001).
- Simulation gives students opportunities to manipulate the material in their discipline and develop writing skills (Cheng, 2007).
- Simulation enhances generic academic skills, such as presentation and group work (Reese & Wells, 2007).
- Simulation motivates and engages students in learning (Andreu-Andres & Garcia-Casas, 2011).
- Simulation can provide students with opportunities to express their views, thereby facilitating critical thinking (Codita, 2016).

Codita (2016) designed a simulation-based learning activity where students participated in a simulated court hearing, in which they assumed the roles of Supreme Judge, state attorneys, district attorneys and witnesses. In the activity, students assumed different roles to defend their position, disagreeing with and persuading each other. In the writing process, students developed various strategies such as 'seeking, evaluating, and transferring information' that contributed to formulating their own opinions and appreciating different views.

Codita (2016) outlined three phases that a simulation-based approach might have:

- Briefing phase: students get ready for the activity by doing the relevant reading and listening activities to hear different views regarding the law. Students thus build background knowledge about the content and purpose of the (Arizona) law.
- 2. **Simulation phase:** students receive their roles and participate in a simulated court hearing for the scenario and court procedure – they also need to research the roles they play.
- 3. **Debriefing phase:** students complete a questionnaire and engage in an in-class discussion.

Codita concluded that 'simulation was effective in creating a learning framework conducive to discussion and debate, which had an impact on the betterment of students' critical thinking skills' (691). However, students' language proficiency level and the task complexity need to be taken into consideration if a simulation/game-based approach is adopted.

11

#### Immersion approach

Different from the infusion approach, the immersion approach focuses on developing critical thinking skills within a subject. As the name suggests, when an immersion approach is adopted, lecturers and tutors teach the subject matter but challenge students with that subject matter so that they engage in analysis, evaluation, problem solving, arguments and decision-making. Sometimes this approach requires both EAP teachers and discipline instructors to work together to address the relevant written 'genre', such as lab report, market analysis and research report. Two examples of the immersion approach are:

#### 1 'Sustained' content-based EAP

An example of the immersion approach is 'sustained' content-based EAP instruction (Pally, 1997), which embeds language learning and critical thinking in the content of a discipline (McDonough & Neumann, 2014; Thompson, 2002).

Such an approach requires students to engage in analysis, including synthesising sources and incorporating the ideas in their work (Pally, 2001). It includes both description and evaluation of the material with which the students are engaging (Woodward-Kron, 2002).

Melles (2009) adopted the 'sustained' instruction in teaching engineering students to write a literature review to develop their critical appraisalskills. In his design, the 'sustained' critical appraisal, language and writing focus was staggered by four assignment milestones – within the 12-week semester – in the development of a literature review. The students 'sustain' the same topic throughout so they can build a coherent understanding of a particular topic and area:

- 1. The first assignment requires students to evaluate one source from their field (750 words).
- 2. The second assignment focuses on comparing and contrasting two sources (1000 words).
- 3. The third assignment is a literature review in which students engage with 12 articles in their field, to produce a written review (3000 words).
- 4. The final assignment is an oral presentation where students give a 12-minute presentation on the topic of assignment 3 (500 words).

This approach, according to Melles (2009), has helped students to 'develop a good understanding of critical appraisal as analysis and evaluation' and students seem to 'recognise the analytic/critical appraisal approach emphasised in the EAP course





A similar approach is the process-genre approach in writing (Badger & White, 2000) to promote critical thinking. Xu and Li (2008) adopted this writing approach to focus on criticality in an academic writing course. In their design, there are four stages:

- In stage one, students are asked to select two original journal articles – published within ten years, in journals – which have been written by renowned scholars in the topic area. This activity focuses on selecting material based on criteria.
- 2. In stage two, students work in groups to set up an online forum where they can submit their commentaries online. Students also need to review each other's work. This stage focuses on developing and presenting ideas and providing an evaluation.
- 3. In stage three, students engage in a group discussion after class, based on their readings. During this stage, students are also guided to view video clips on the samples of expert writing, conferencing and round-table discussion. Students are expected to submit a group commentary, with a focus on the argumentation development and an in-class report on the linguistic and generic features of the papers they read. In this stage, collaboration is required and reasoning skills are fostered through jointly producing a commentary. At the same time, different perspectives are valued through different types of input and group task.
- In stage four, students are required to write a simulated research proposal. This stage focuses on using process writing skills, such as brainstorming, planning, drafting and proofreading. Format and content are both emphasised.

Xu and Li (2018) claim that explicit teaching of academic writing, through a process-genre approach, does facilitate students' thinking skills as well as their academic writing skills.

#### A mixed approach

Sometimes lecturers and tutors mix the general approach with either the infusion approach or immersion approach. This is normally divided into two parts, with the first part teaching students the critical thinking (general approach) and the second part teaching and applying the critical thinking to the subject (explicitly or implicitly). It is not surprising that this mixed approach is proven to be most effective (e.g. Abrami et al., 2008; Solon, 2007).

# What can teachers and students do to foster critical thinking?

In terms of developing critical thinking, there are several implications for teaching and learning EAP. Let's look briefly at what teachers and learners can do to foster critical thinking.

Kuhn (1999) argued for the importance of teacher training in critical thinking, claiming that teachers did not have sufficient knowledge about critical thinking skills or how to assess them. Twenty years on, this issue still exists, despite the widespread belief about the significance of critical thinking skills in academic work.

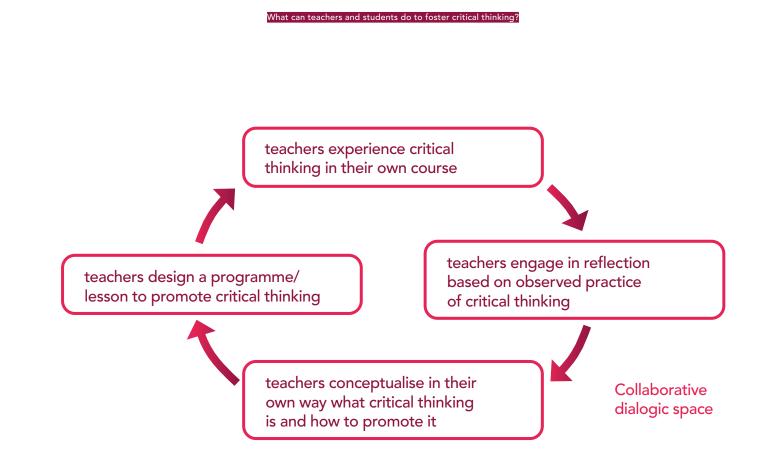
Although there are more and more peer-sharing activities going on in the academic community (e.g. the critical thinking skill forum at IATEFL 2019), there is a pressing need to offer teachers training opportunities to increase their theoretical understanding and pedagogical knowledge about developing critical thinking skills. Professional development courses with practical guidance will have a significant impact on teachers' knowledge of and ability to teach critical thinking skills.

Similarly, teacher education programmes should consider critical thinking as an essential part of the curriculum so that teachers can develop a systematic understanding of the concept, its applications in education and its assessment. Teacher education programmes are also an ideal place for teachers to engage in community learning where they can share ideas and design programmes to combine theory and practice. The experiential learning model, where student teachers experience critical thinking, would be beneficial as they would:

- understand what critical thinking is
- engage in reflection based on observation
- conceptualise the concept in their own way
- implement it in a specific context.

One effective method is to enhance teacher learning in a 'collaborative dialogic space' where teachers are able to identify an issue, conduct research, and propose a possible solution in a collaborative manner (Li, 2017).

Despite the popularity of the infusion approach, a mixed approach might be more effective if a good balance can be achieved. Of course, instructors should always assess their students' language proficiency, learning styles and available resources to decide on the approach most suitable in their contexts. Apart from these approaches that teachers can follow, there are also some generic practical guidelines that instructors and students might find useful in fostering criticality in academic work. For example:



#### Figure 4: Experiential learning for teachers to enhance critical thinking

• Generally speaking, Socratic questioning is an effective strategy to engage students in critical thinking. In Li's 2011 study, she observed that when teachers asked more referential questions, students were more engaged in critical, creative and reflective thinking. For example, teachers can always follow up with questions like: Why is this the case? What alternatives can be offered? How is it different/similar?

Students should try to elaborate their thoughts, to offer reasons and use evidence to support their arguments when presenting their viewpoints. Students can also try to ask themselves, when engaged in academic work, students can also try to ask themselves: To what extent do I find the presented argument solid and sound, and what alternatives can I offer?  Awareness of genre is very important in developing a critical voice. Alexander et al. (2008) argue that purpose and audience should be part of a writing task. In fact, these should be considered an essential part of academic practice. In reading and listening activities, students should pay attention to the purpose of the text or material and who the intended audience/readers are. Questions can be asked, for example: What does the author want to achieve? What communicative strategies are used to achieve the aims?

Teachers can also guide students to engage in analysing genres and communicative strategies in groups and compare their analyses. Similarly, in speaking and writing tasks, students need to bear in mind the context in which they develop the speech and text, for example: Who are they writing this material for/speaking to? What are their aims? The language (e.g. lexical choices) should be matched with their purposes.

- If students are required to evaluate a text and take a stance in their writing, perhaps one of the most effective ways is to use corpus analysis in developing critical thinking. Students and teachers can start with authentic texts of the discipline/subject and analyse them to understand how the authors evaluate others' work and then display their perspectives. For example: Do they show agreement/disagreement? How do they evaluate others' work? Do they show certainty and hedging? What metadiscourse is there? Do the authors deliberately make a connection between materials and ideas? With these questions in mind, students and teachers can use a concordance to analyse the text. This practice helps the reader develop an ability to communicate effectively with 'adequate reasons and evidence for these claims' (Wallace & Wray, 2011: 7).
- When students produce written work, they can engage in collaborative revision and peer feedback to analyse how they successfully and unsuccessfully demonstrate critical thinking. By considering what they attempt to express and discussing how to make the valid point, students can engage in evaluation of their critical voice through a dialogic process. In this sense,

multiple-drafting and dialogic peer learning can also help students engage in identification of critical voice, taking a stance with support from evidence, selecting appropriate material and making an evaluation.

When a simulation/game-based approach is adopted, careful consideration should be given to its format, content and structure concerning the pedagogical aims and learning context (Cummings and Genzel, 1990). A simulation/game-based approach might require students to have an advanced proficiency level. When students have a low proficiency level, individual or group presentations and open debate could replace a more challenging task, such as a court hearing. Usually, a complex topic is required to allow simulations to be possible. If the issue at hand is beyond students' cognitive level, brainstorming ideas and negotiating their stance on the issue is essential. Building in thinking time before conducting the tasks is another useful strategy. In this sense, group discussion and concept mapping can create a space where students begin to engage in collaborative group thinking (Li, 2011).



### Conclusion

This paper aims to shed light on the development of critical thinking in EAP. After reviewing the concept of critical thinking and its importance, approaches to teaching it and implications for teachers and students, I would like to stress once again that critical thinking is very closely related to the success of academic work and life, so it should be considered a core element in academic practice.

Considering the different approaches available, I want to highlight the importance of context in selecting an approach to teach critical thinking. The context here covers both the cultural and disciplinary dimensions, as well as the language proficiency level of the students. Equally, teacher knowledge about critical thinking is of utmost importance (Li, 2016). Teachers need to be equipped with the subject and pedagogical knowledge of critical thinking in order to successfully and effectively integrate critical thinking with EAP instruction. Of course, developing critical thinking requires students to play an active role. In particular, students need to consider context (including target audience), the variety of language to present their voice, and being self-regulated and motivated. They can take any approach outlined above to try to self-direct their learning to address their needs.

Finally, cautions have to be taken here as critical thinking cannot be developed overnight. It takes time for students to fully develop the capacity to synthesise, select, critique, evaluate and create new ideas.

Li Li is Senior Lecturer at the University of Exeter. Her research interests include language teacher cognition, developing thinking skills, the use of new technologies in language learning, and classroom discourse. She has published widely in these topics in international journals. She is on the editorial board for a prestigious journal: Thinking Skills and Creativity, and served as guest editor twice. She is the editor of the book Thinking Skills and Creativity in Second Language Education (Routledge) and has also co-edited the Routledge Handbook for Researching in Teaching Thinking Skills (with Rupert Wegerif & James Kaufman) (Routledge). She is also the author of Social Interaction and Teacher Cognition (Edinburgh University Press) and New Technologies and Language Learning (Palgrave). Li Li, University of Exeter li.li@exeter.ac.uk

To cite this paper:

Li, L. (2019). Pathways for the development of students' critical thinking in EAP programmes. Part of the Cambridge papers in ELT series. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Available at cambridge.org/cambridge-papers-elt

## Bibliography

Abrami, P. C., Bernard, R. M., Borokhovski, E., Wade, A., Michael, A., Surkes, R., & Zhang, D. (2008). Instructional interventions affecting critical thinking skills and dispositions: A stage 1 meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(4), 1102–1134. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308326084

Alexander, O., Argent, S., & Spencer, J. (2008). EAP Essentials. Reading: Garnet Publishing.

Andreu-Andres, M. A., & Garcia-Casas, M. (2011). Perceptions of gaming as experiential learning by engineering students. *International Journal of Engineering Education*, 27, 795–804.

Andrews, R. (2010). Argumentation in Higher Education: Improving Practice through Theory and Research. New York: Routledge.

Argent, S. (2007). Corpus based materials for teaching critical voice. BALEAP PIM.

Atkinson, D. (1997). A critical approach to critical thinking in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 71–94.

Badger, R. G., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 153–160.

Bagheri, F. (2015). The relationship between critical thinking and language learning strategies of EFL learners. *Journal* of Language Teaching and Research, 6(5), 969–975.

Bali, M. (2015). Critical thinking through a multicultural lens. In Davis, M., & Barnett, R. (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Critical Thinking in Higher Education*, 317-334. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan

Barnett, R., & Society for Research into Higher Education. (1997). *Higher education: A critical business.* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & the Open University Press. Bloom, B. S., Engelhart, M. D., Furst, E. J., Hill, W. H., & Krathwohl, D. R. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: the classification of educational goals. Handbook I: Cognitive Domain.* New York: Longman.

Chan, N. M., Ho, I. T., & Ku, K. Y. L. (2011). Epistemic beliefs and critical thinking of Chinese students. *Learning & Individual Difference*, 21(1), 67–77.

Cheng, A. (2007). Simulation-based L2 writing instruction: Enhancement through genre analysis. *Simulation & Gaming*, 38, 67–82. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046878106297879

Codita, A. M. (2016). Integrating an immigration law simulation into EAP course: instructors' and students' perceptions. *Simulation & Gaming*, 47(95), 684–700.

Cummings, M. G., & Genzel, R. B. (1990). Simulation/ game design and adaptation. In Crookall, D., & Oxford, R. (Eds.), *Simulation, gaming and language learning*, 67–72. New York, NY: Newbury House.

Davis, M., & Barnett, R. (2015). Introduction. In Davis, M., & Barnett, R. (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Critical Thinking in Higher Education*, 1–26. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.

Dewey, J. (1910). *How We Think*. Boston: D.C Heath & Co. https://doi.org/10.1037/10903-000

Durkin, K. (2008). The adaptation of East Asian masters students to Western norms of critical thinking and argumentation in the UK. *Intercultural Education*, 19(1), 15–27.

Ennis, R. H. (1996). *Critical thinking*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Garcia-Carbonnell, A., Rising, B., Montero, B., & Watts, F. (2001). Simulation/gaming and the acquisition of communicative competence in another language. *Simulation & Gaming*, 32, 481–491. https://doi.org/10.1177/104687810103200405



Gelder, T. V. (2005). Teaching critical thinking: Some lessons from cognitive science. *College Teaching*, 53(1), 41–46. <u>https://doi.org/10.3200/CTCH.53.1.41-48</u>

Golpour, F. (2014). Critical thinking and EFL learners' performance on different writing modes. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 18(1), 103–119.

Halpern, D. (2014). Thought and knowledge: An introduction to critical thinking. New York: Psychology Press.

Hashemi, M. R., & Ghanizadeh, A. (2012). Critical discourse analysis and critical thinking: An experimental study in an EFL context. *System*, 40(1), 37–47. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.01.009

Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: a model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 173–192.

Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2005). Hooking the Reader: A Corpus Study of Evaluative That in Abstracts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(2), 123–139. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2004.02.002

Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2007). Is There an 'Academic Vocabulary'? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(2), 235–253.

Kuhn, D. (1999). A developmental model of critical thinking. *Educational Researcher*, 28(2), 16–25.

Kennedy, M., Fisher, M. B., & Ennis, R. H. (1991). Critical thinking: Literature review and needed research. In Idol, L., & Jones, B. P. (Eds.), *Educational values and cognitive instruction: implications for reform.* Hillsdale, NJ Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology – methods and techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International (P) Ltd.

Kolb, D. (1984). Experiential Learning: experience as the source of *learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Ku, Kelly Y. L., & Ho, Irene T. (2009). Assessing students' critical thinking performance: Urging for measurements using multi-response format. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, ELSEVIER, 4, 70–76.

Lewis, A., & Smith, D. (1993). Defining higher order thinking. *Theory into Practice*, 32(3), 131–137. <u>https://</u> doi.org/10.1080/00405849309543588

Li, L. (2011). Obstacles and opportunities for developing thinking through interaction in language classrooms. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 6(3), 146–158.

Li, L. (2015). A Confucian perspective on teaching thinking in China. In Wegerif, R., Li, L., & Kaufman, J. (Eds.), *Routledge Handbook* of *Researching for Teaching Thinking Skills*, 45–57. Routledge.

Li, L. (2016). Integrating thinking skills in foreign language learning: what can we learn from teachers' perspectives? *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 22, 273–288.

Li, L. (2017). Social Interaction and Teacher Cognition. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Li, L., & Larkin, S. (2017). The role of metacognition in the success of reading and writing tasks across cultures. *ELT Research Papers*. British Council.

Lipman, M. (1988). Critical thinking: What can it be? *Educational Leadership*, 46(1), 38–43.

Liu, F., & Stapleton, P. (2018). Connecting writing assessment with critical thinking: An exploratory study of alternative rhetorical functions and objects of enquiry in writing prompts. *Assessing Writing*, 38, 10–20.

Manalo, E., Kusumi, T., Koyasu, M., Michita, Y., & Tanaka, Y. (2015). Do students from different cultures think differently about critical and other thinking skills? In Davis, M., & Barnett, R. (Eds.), The Palgrave Handbook of Critical Thinking in Higher Education, 299–316. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.

McDonough, K., & Neumann, H. (2014). Using prewriting tasks in L2 writing classes: insights from three experiments. *TESL Canada Journal*, 31(8), 132–143.

Melles, G. (2009). Teaching and evaluation of critical appraisal skills to postgraduate ESL engineering students. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 46 (2), 161–170.

Moghaddam, M. M., & Malekzadeh, S. (2011). Improving L2 writing ability in the light of critical thinking. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(7), 789–797.

Mok, J. (2009). From policies to realities: Developing students' critical thinking in Hong Kong secondary school English writing classes. *RELC Journal*, 40(3), 262–279. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688209343866

Moore, T. (2013). Critical thinking: Seven definitions in search of a concept. *Studies in Higher Education*, 38(4), 506–522. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2011.586995



Nikoopour, J., Amini Farsani, M., & Nasiri, M. (2011). On the relationship between critical thinking and language learning strategies among Iranian EFL learners. *Journal* of Technology of Education, 5(3), 195–200.

O'Sullivan, M., & Guo, L. (2010). Critical thinking and Chinese international students: An East-West dialogue. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education*, 5(2), 53–73.

Pally, M. (1997). Critical thinking in ESL: An argument for sustained content. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6(3), 293–311.

Pally, M. (2001). Skills Development in 'Sustained' Content-Based Curricula: Case Studies in Analytical/Critical Thinking and Academic Writing. *Language and Education*, 15(4), 279–305.

Pei, Z., Zheng, C., Zhang, M., & Liu, F. (2017). Critical thinking and argumentative writing: Inspecting the association among EFL learners in China. *English Language Teaching*, 10(10), 31–42. <u>https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v10n10p31</u>

Pithers, R.T., & Soden, R. (2000). Critical thinking in education: A review. *Educational Research*, 42(3), 237–249

Reese, C., & Wells, T. (2007). Teaching academic discussion skills with a card game. *Simulation & Gaming*, 38, 546– 555. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/1046878107308063</u>

Reece, G. (2002). Critical thinking and transferability: A review of the literature. Accessed on 10 April 2019 from: <u>https://people.umass.edu/curtis/academics/</u> researchtoolbox/pdfs/Reece\_LitReview\_2010.pdf

Resnick, L. B. (1987). *Education and Learning to Think*. Washington DC: National Academy Press.

Siegel, H. (1985). Educating reason: Critical thinking, informal logic, and the philosophy of education. *Informal Logic*, 7(2), 69–81. https://doi.org/10.22329/il.v7i2.2706

Solon, T. (2007). General Critical Thinking Infusion and Course Content Learning in Introductory Psychology. *The Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 34(2), 95–109.

Swartz, A. (1987). Teaching for Thinking: A Developmental Model for the Infusion of Thinking Skills into Mainstream Instruction. In Baron, J., & Sternberg, R. (Eds.), *Teaching Thinking Skills: Theory and Practice*, 106–126. New York: W. H. Freeman & Co. Tian, J., & Low, G. (2011). Critical thinking and Chinese university students: a review of the evidence. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24(1), 61–76.

Thomas, K., & Lok, B. (2015). Teaching critical thinking: An operational framework. In Davis, M., & Barnett, R. (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Critical Thinking in Higher Education*, 93–105. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.

Thompson, C. (2002). Teaching critical thinking in EAP courses in Australia. *TESOL journal*, 11(4), 15–20.

Xu, X., & Li, X. (2018). Teaching academic writing through a process-genre approach: a pedagogical exploration of an EAP program in China. *TESL-EJ*, 22(2), 1–21.

Wallace, M., & Wray, A. (2006). *Critical reading and writing* for postgraduates. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Wallace, M., & Wray, A. (2011). Critical reading and writing for postgraduates (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

Wegerif, R., Li, L., and Kaufman, J. (2015). Introduction. In Wegerif, R., Li, L., & Kaufman, J. (Eds.), *Routledge Handbook* of *Researching for Teaching Thinking Skills*, 1–7. Routledge.

Wilson, K. (2016). Critical reading, critical thinking: Delicate scaffolding in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Thinking Skills and Creativity, 22, 256–265.

Woodward-Kron, R. (2002). Critical analysis versus description? Examining the relationship in successful student writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1(2), 121–143.

#### Find other Cambridge Papers in ELT at: cambridge.org/cambridge-papers-elt

cambridge.org/betterlearning