ENGLISH TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP STYLES AND
CHALLENGES IN TEACHING IN TIBETAN AREAS OF CHINA

by
Mr. Caixiangduojie

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
Graduate School of Education
ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY OF THAILAND
August 21, 2008

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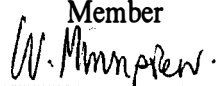The result is:
☑ **Excellent**
☐ **Good**
☐ **Pass**
☐ **Fail**

Dr. Athipat Cleesuntorn
Chairperson

Dr. Payungsak Jantasurin
Member (Outside Expert)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pornchulee Achava-Amrung
Member

Dr. Wipa Mhunpiew
Member

ANNOTATION

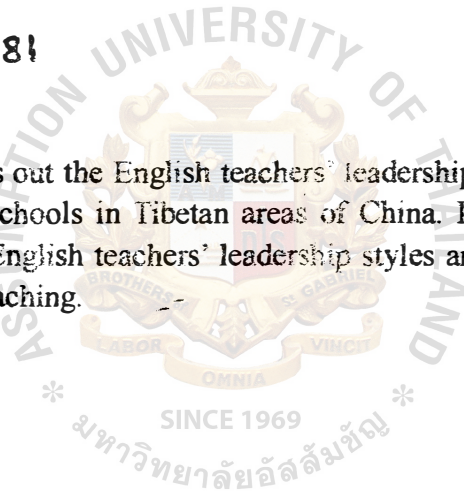## ENGLISH TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP STYLES AND CHALLENGES

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Mr. Caixiangduojie

No. of Pages: 181   August 21, 2008

This study finds out the English teachers' leadership styles and challenges in teaching at schools in Tibetan areas of China. It provides a guide for improving the English teachers' leadership styles and for addressing their challenges in teaching.

ABSTRACT

ENGLISH TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP STYLES AND CHALLENGES

IN TEACHING IN TIBETAN AREAS OF CHINA

Mr. Caixiangduojie

No. of Pages: 181   August 21, 2008

This study examined issues related to English teachers' leadership styles and challenges at schools in Tibetan areas of China. It identified English teachers' common challenges and leadership styles in teachings by using the following three sets of questionnaires.

- Demographics: a). Personal Background--age, nationality and gender; b). Teaching Experience--year and duty; c). Educational Background--degree, major and location; and c). Organizational Background--name, location, level and size.
- Leadership Styles in Teaching: a questionnaire with a total of 20 items
- Challenges in Teaching: open-ended questions

Furthermore, this study determined relationships among the English teachers' demographic variables, their leadership styles and levels of practice, and their challenges in teaching. Finally, this study synthesized the findings and provided recommendations for educators and government leaders in improving the quality of English education in Tibetan areas of China.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

The People's Republic of China is identified as a unified, multi-national country with 56 nationalities, including the dominant Han Chinese. Minority nationalities account for between 8% and 9% of China's total population and resided in about 60% of the country's total area, including border regions in the Northwest, Southwest and Northeast. In the 1950s, five areas with large minority populations were designated as autonomous minority nationality regions--Guangxi, Inner-Mongolia, Ningxia, Guangxi, and Xizang or Tibet Autonomous Region (TAR). These large regions range in density of minority populations from 94% in TAR to 20% in Mogolia. In addition to these five autonomous regions, there are throughout China 159 national autonomous areas, 30 autonomous prefectures

Map 1.1: Tibetan areas in PR. China
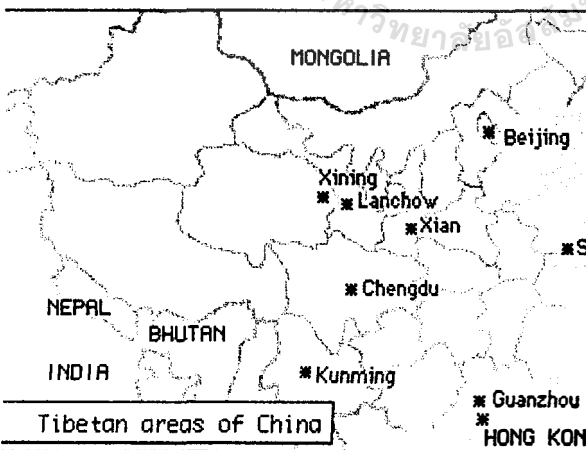
Source:http://www.ciolek.com/WWWVLPages/TibPages /Map/tibet-map1.gif, sited by Caixiangduojie, 2006:2)

and 124 autonomous counties and 1,252 autonomous town or townships, most of which are in provinces like Qinghai, Sichuan, Gansu, Yunnan and the three provinces of the northeast (Ross, 2006; XHNA, 2008; and Wikipedia, 2008). Most of the autonomous areas in Southwest of China are residence of Tibetans, which are historically called Tibet (Map 1.1).

The territory of Tibet has been claimed differently by different governments based on the culture and history (Map 1.2). However, the Tibet of China includes TAR and all the Tibetan autonomous prefectures and counties bordering on provinces such as Qinghai, Gansu, Sichuan and Yunan (Map 1.1). Tibet is located in the southwest part of China. It takes more than one fourth of China (9,596,960 sq km), 2,500,000 square kilometers, where approximately six million Tibetans live (Lixiong, 2000; TWFC, 2007; and Weizhong, 2007).
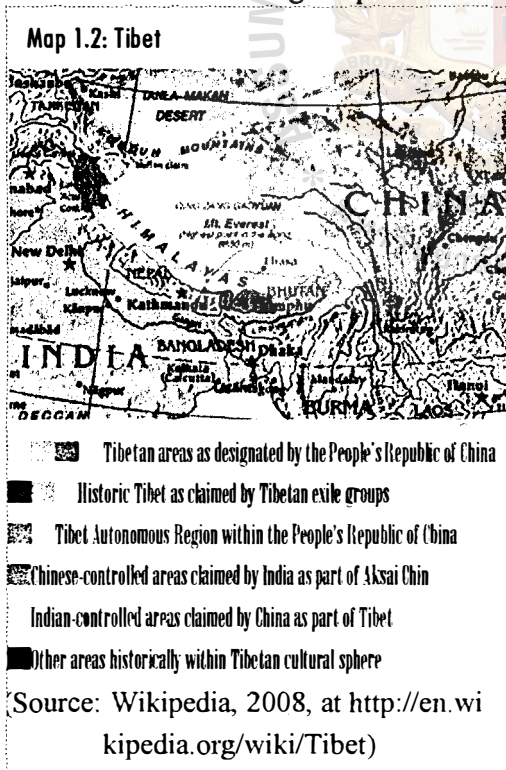
Map 1.2: Tibet

Tibetan areas as designated by the People's Republic of China

Historic Tibet as claimed by Tibetan exile groups

Tibet Autonomous Region within the People's Republic of China

Chinese-controlled areas claimed by India as part of Aksai Chin

Indian-controlled areas claimed by China as part of Tibet

Other areas historically within Tibetan cultural sphere

(Source: Wikipedia, 2008, at http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tibet)

Tibetans have had their own language for well over a thousand years. However, today Chinese is the major official language dominating business activities across Tibet while English is dominating in the world. Thus, the English language education is crucial for the successes of Tibetans. As a saying, the quality of a nation or society depends on the quality of its people, and the quality of the people to a certain extent depends on the quality of language education they have received. In today's market, one's success much depends on how successfully s/he can utilize the benefits of new technology that requires adequate language proficiency in English--a super key that unlock the most doors behind that are the most knowledge for people. Unfortunately, majority Tibetan students did not have chances to learn English until late 21st century due to constrains of policy, politic, fund and others such as lack of human resources and poor leadership. In other words, English education is new to Tibet and there are many issues need to be addressed (Stuart &Wang, 2003). As, researches related to Tibetan education state that there were finance shortages, policy and politic obstacles, lack of appropriate EFL resources, and poorly prepared EFL teachers practicing inappropriate leadership and facing tremendous

challenges in teaching (Bass, 1998; Zhou, 2001; Ross, 2006; and Shiyong, 2007). However, there were no studies have been done to address any of the issues.

Statement of the Problem

Tibetans are not doing well in today's market. According to Shiyong (2007), Tibet is the economically poorest areas in China and Tibetans are not being unable to compete with non-Tibetan migrants in their own home area in Tibet. Additionally, the findings of studies done by Li (1992), Bass (1998), Tian (1998), Zhou (2001), Meng (2002), Yang (2004) and Ross (2006), indicate that Tibet has the highest illiteracy rate in Chinese and English in China. Also, Tibetans are not advanced as much as other ethnic groups in China. Put simply, Tibetans are not doing well in today's thriving economy.

This current phenomenon of Tibetans is mainly caused by the poor quality of Chinese and English language education in Tibet. More specifically, it is caused by the poor leadership and challenges of the school teachers in Tibet. As Shiyong (2007) states that the poor quality of second

language (Chinese and English) education is one of the crucial factors to explain the current phenomenon of Tibet. The findings of studies done by Ross (2006) and Shiyong (2007) indicate that the poor quality of English education is caused by the poorly prepared teachers in Tibet. The poorly prepared teachers practice inappropriate leadership and they are unable to address the educational challenges properly in teaching. As results, in Tibet, the quality of English language education remains poor; Tibetans have low proficiency in English; they are not being able to gain and utilize the knowledge of modern technologies; and they are having difficulties in participating in today's market. No studies have been done for addressing issues related to leadership and challenges teachers in Tibet face, despite the obvious need. Also, English education is relatively new to Tibet and English teachers face challenges that other teachers in Tibet do not. Thus, there is a greet need of conducting studies on leadership and challenges of English teachers of Tibetans in order to improve the quality of people in Tibet.

Purpose of the Study

Therefore, this study focused on the English teachers' leadership and challenges in Tibet. It aimed to help the English teachers of Tibetans by addressing the issues related to their leadership styles and challenges in teaching. More specifically, the main goal of this study was to come up with implications and recommendations for addressing the issues related to the English teachers' leadership styles and challenges at schools in Tibet.

Theoretical Framework

Teachers play the leadership role in their classrooms. They guide and influence students to reach the goal of classes or courses. They play a major role in engaging students to accomplish mutual goals, and establishing a healthy environment and climate for students. The role requires the teachers to be particularly sensitive to the values, ideals and behaviors they promote that affect of the quality of the students. Thus, the teachers have to practice appropriate leadership styles to lead students.

Leadership styles are categorized based on the behaviors that teachers use as they interact with students to complete a goal (Anuwatprakit, 2003;

Owen, 2003; Northouse, 2004; and Kitija, 2005). There are many theories of leadership styles developed based on two types of leadership behaviors: concern with task and concern with student. According to Owen (2003) and Northouse (2004), the early studies looking for behaviors of leaders, date from 1930s with the Iowa State University studies that identified two types of leadership styles: Autocratic, which emphasizes task, and Democratic, which emphasizes people. By 1960s the Ohio State University studies came up with a model of two leadership styles by using the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The two Ohio State University leadership styles are: Initiating Structure, which emphasizes only task; and Consideration, which emphasizes only people. After that, in Ohio State, the University of Michigan studies identified two kinds of leadership styles: Production Centered, which emphasizes task; and Employee Centered, which emphasizes people. Later on, Blake and Mouton (1985) sum up the previous works and conceived the Management Grid that highlights five major leadership styles (see the following Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: The Five Major Leadership Styles
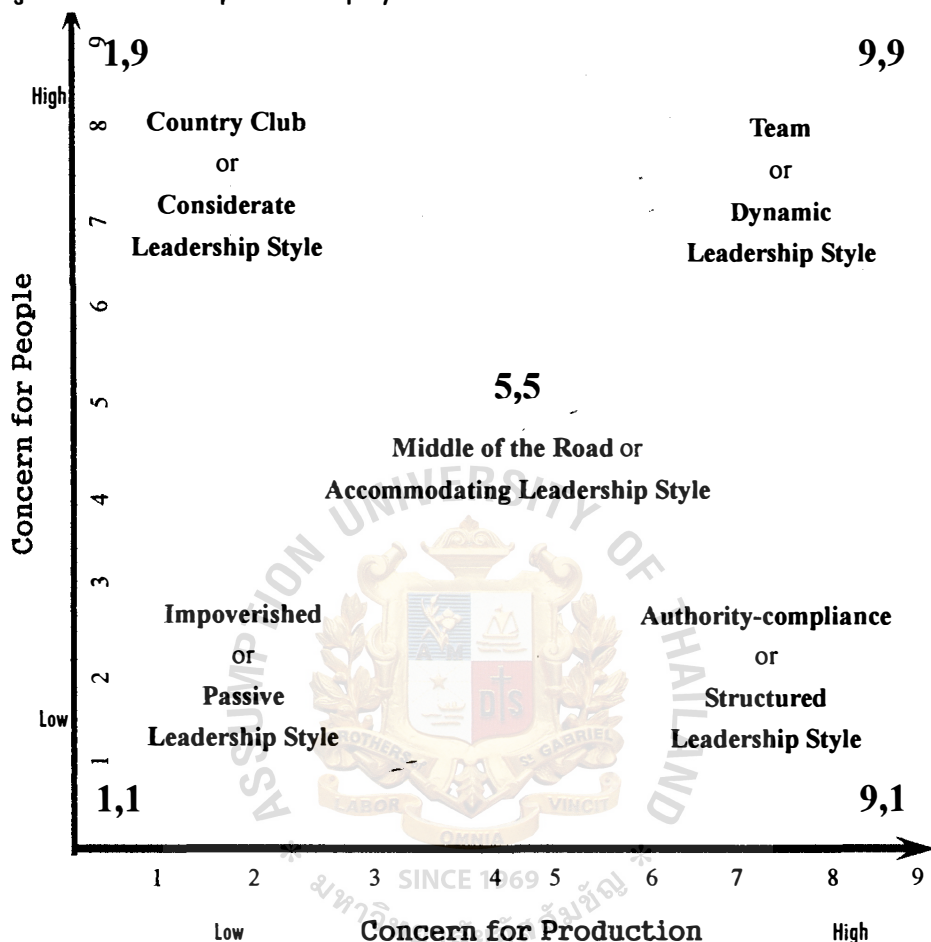
(Source: Black& McCanse, 1991:29; and Northouse, 2004:70)

In researchers' jargons the five major leadership styles are named differently. However, the underlying meanings of the styles are the same. The five major leadership styles can be defined as follow based on the works done by Black & McCanse (1991), Anuwatprakit (2003), and Northouse (2004).

- 1,1--*Impoverished* or *Passive Leadership Style*: Leaders with this style have low concern for production and for people, and do just what it takes to stay in position. Thus, routine activities are performed with little or no direction from the leader in the organization.

- 9,1--*Authority-compliance or Structured Leadership Style:* Leaders with this style have high concern for production but low concern for people, and only looks for getting the job done. They are starkly task oriented in structuring, planning, and controlling activities of subordinates. Therefore, the efficiency in work results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to minimum degree. As a result, people are treated like tools or machines.

- 1,9--*Country Club or Considerate Leadership Style:* Leaders with this style have high concern for people but low concern for production. They make every possible effort, even if production suffers as a result, to keep a good

working environment and a friendly atmosphere with little or no concern for production.

- 5,5--*Middle of the Road or Accommodating Leadership Style:* Leaders with this style have a mediocre concern for people and production, and just keep the behavior of "to-go-along-to-get-along." They maintain moderate performance through balancing the necessity to get work out while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

- 9,9--*Team or Dynamic Leadership Style:* Leaders with this style have high concern for both people and production. They try to keep high team morale along with an excellent performance through leading by example and seeking to enhance the individual involvement in a concerted effort. As a result, the efficiency of work is from committed people interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose that leads to relationship of trust and respect in the organization.

Among all the five major leadership styles, the 9,9 or dynamic leadership is considered as the best and it is advocated in teaching. More specifically, the characteristics of 9,9 or dynamic style, such as high concern on both people and productions that leads to high commitment, high moral ethics, and high efficiency, are advocated by today's scholars in education. The leadership style approach helps us to understand that we need both people and task oriented leadership, and we need to assess our behaviors and to learn what we can change to improve our leadership styles. Therefore, this study used the modified model of Black and Mouton's Management Grid (see Figure 1.1) to measure the leadership styles of the English teachers of Tibetans in order to provide suggestions for improving their performances.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1.2: Conceptual Framework

Leaders of English Language Learners of Tibetans

English Teachers of Tibetans

Personal Background
Age: *< 30 years, 30-40 yrs, & >40 yrs*
Gender: *male / female*
Nationality: *Tibetan, Han, & Others*

Teaching Experience
Year: *< 5 years, 5-10 yrs, & >10 yrs*
Duty: *Instruction, Management, & Both*

Educational Background
Degree: *Doctor, Master, Bachelor, Dazhuan, & Others,*
Major: *education & others*
Location: *in Tibet / foreign areas*

Organization Background
Name: *ETP, QC of QNU, QNI, NS & Others*
Location: City, County, Town, & *Village*
Level: *University/College, Secondary, Primary, Others (U + S).*
Size: *School (Ss# < 200, 200-500, > 500, & Class (Ss# <15, 15-35, >35)*

Leadership Styles

-*Structured Leadership Style*
-*Considerate Leadership Style*
-*Possive Leadership Style*
-*Dynamic Leadership Style*
-*Accommodating Leadership Style*

Challenges

What are the common challenges?
What are the solutions for addressing the challenges?
-*Curriculum*
-*Course material*
-*Learning Environment*
-*Student Behavior*
-*Workload*
-*Others*

Implications & recommendations

Research Questions

In detail, this study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What are the following characteristics of the English teachers in Tibet?

   - Demographics: personal background (age, gender, & nationality), teaching experience (year & duty), educational background (degree, major, & location), and organization background (name, location, level, & size).

   - Levels of Practice and Leadership Styles in Teaching

2. Is there a significant relationship between the teachers' demographic variables and their leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching?

3. What are the challenges of the English teachers in their teaching?

4. What are the implications and recommendations for addressing the issues related to the English teachers' leadership styles and challenges in Tibet?

Research Objectives

The purpose of this study was to assist English teachers of Tibetans by addressing issues related to their leadership styles and challenges in teaching. More specifically, the research objectives are as follows:

1. to explore the issues related to the challenges and leadership styles of English teachers of Tibetans in teaching;

2. to identify the following English teachers' demographic variables might related to their leadership and levels of practice;

   ● Personal Background: age, gender, and nationality

   ● Teaching Experience: year and duty

   ● Educational Background: degree, major, and location

   ● Organization Background: name, location, level, and size

3. to discover the English teachers' common leadership styles and levels of practice;

4. to determine the relationship between the English teachers' demographic variables and their leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching;

5. to identify the English teachers' common challenges; and

6. to propose strategies and recommendations for addressing issues related to the English teachers' leadership styles and challenges.

Research Hypothesis

In order to answer the research questions posed, the following hypotheses was formulated. The research question number 1, 3 and 4 are hypotheses free. On the base of research question number 2, the hypothesis has to be stated in the null form below:

Ho.: There is no significant relationship between the following demographic variables and teachers' leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching

- Personal Background of Teachers: age, gender, and nationality

- Teaching Experience of Teachers: year and duty

- Educational Background of Teachers: degree, major, and location

- Organization Background of Teachers: name, location, level, and size.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study includes:

1. providing a primary study of English teachers' leadership styles and challenges in Tibet;

2. helping English teachers of Tibetans to find out their strength and weakness of their leadership and strategies of addressing their challenges in teaching in order to improve their performance and to improve the quality of English education in Tibet;

3. clarifying the relationship between teachers' demographic variables and their leadership styles and levels of practices;

4. providing suggestions and recommendation for addressing the issues related to leadership styles and challenges of English teachers in Tibet of China;

5. offering a useful primary data of English teachers' leadership styles and challenges for researchers who are interested in Tibetan education;

6. offering a useful data for planning, reforming, and developing educational policies and programs related to foreign language

teaching in Tibetan areas of China;

7. providing a useful data for planning and conducting training, workshops, and seminars for developing the teachers' leadership and practices in Tibet of China;

8. enabling government leaders, school administrators, instructors and other education personnel to understand the aspects of English teachers' leadership styles, challenges and approaches in Tibet, and to motivate them to support in developing teachers' leadership and strategies in teaching;

9. enhancing the researcher's own knowledge about leadership and challenges of English teachers in Tibet, and getting the degree.

Scope and Limitation of the Study

This study used a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods. It applied a qualitative method for assessing the teachers' challenges and a quantitative method for measuring the teachers' leadership styles in teaching. It only focused on English teachers of Tibetans in Tibet of China, and the data was gathered through emailing and

phone calls due to political constrains. Furthermore, based on the scholars'
suggestions and the researcher's interest, this research only studied the
leadership styles and challenges of English teachers in Tibet of China.
Moreover, this study has the following limitations:

1. The different culture and models of language teaching at schools in
   Tibet, which may influence the English teachers' leadership
   styles and challenges in teaching, are not included in this study.

2. It is understood a cretin proportion of English teachers in Tibet may
   be non-native speakers. The challenges they face as well as the
   opportunities they are present with will likely be different in
   nature from those of native speakers. This is a potential
   limitation of this study.

Definition of Terms

Address: Means to analyze and synthesize the challenges faced by English
teachers of Tibetans in Tibet, and to come up with solutions for the
challenges.

Age: Defined as maturation, divided into three groups: below 30 years,

between 30-40 years, and above 40 years.

Challenge: Means the problems and difficulties stated by the English teachers in teaching at schools in Tibet.

Characteristics of the Teaches: Refer to the English teachers' demographics and leadership styles in this study.

Degree: Refers to the levels of educational qualifications holding by English teachers of Tibetans, which was categorized into five: doctor, master, bachelor, *Dazhuan* (two-year college degree) and others that are lower than *Dazhuan.*

Degree of Correlation: Very high correlation and very dependable relationship are greater than 0.90, high correlation and marked relationship is from 0.70 to 0.90, moderate correlation is between 0.40 and 0.70, and slight almost negligible relationship is less than 0.20.

Demographics: Refer to the English teachers' personal background (age, gender & nationality), teaching experience (year & duty), educational background (degree, major & location), and organization background (name, location, level, &size).

Duty: Defined as job description of the English teachers, includes: instruction (a job description which assigned duties only in teaching), management (other school responsibilities such as head at the section or group), and both (both teaching and having other school responsibilities such as a head at the section/group).

English Teachers of Tibetans: Refers to teachers who teach English as a foreign language to Tibetans in Tibet of China.

Gender: Composed of two categories in this study: male and female.

Leadership: The abilities or behaviors of the English teachers to process their own responsibilities towards goal setting in order to influence the students to follow him/her in the goal to promote a positive environment and relationship for the betterment of the class and school.

Leadership Style: The behaviors of the English teachers in completing all of his/her instructional duties or responsibilities based on the degree of relationship concerning task and students. In this study, the leadership styles are classified in five styles as follow:

Accommodating Leadership Style: Teachers with this style have

moderate concern for both tasks and students. They steer a middle course between performance and needs of students in teaching. The goals are both reasonable academic outcomes and satisfactions of students.

Considerate Leadership Style: Teachers with this style maximize concern regarding relationships with students and minimizes concern with tasks. They try to satisfy the needs of students under relaxed conditions and in a pleasant work environment but ignore academic factors. Thus, students study happily with the liberty to make their own choices but the students may score lower in performance outcomes that will affect their further studies.

Dynamic Leadership Style: Teachers with this style maximize concern for both tasks and students. The goal is to enable all students to reach their greatest potential and to achieve performance excellence. They integrate the students' interests and performance excellence, and collaborate with individuals in concerted efforts. They attempt to help students to achieve

high performance excellence with creativity and to create a positive environment where they learn in an engaging environment.

Passive Leadership Style: Teachers with this style minimize concern for both tasks and students. Teachers with this style are neither interested in academics nor needs of students. They lack interest to improve their knowledge, have limited sense of responsibility and seriousness in their duties, do things without preparing, and show limited concern for the needs of students. They rarely prepare plans and do not update themselves with new knowledge of their profession. Routine activities are performed with little or no direction from them.

Structured Leadership Style: Teachers with this style maximize concern for tasks and minimize concern for people. They emphasize excellent academic factors and may ignore the needs of students. They act as the central power--emphasize only rules and principles without adapting to changes and situations of the class, and use power to control the students.

Thus, students receive the same level of teaching and learning, which often distracts from student satisfaction. As a result, teachers with this style could block the development of students' potential capacity.

Level: Refers to the levels of schools where the English teachers teach in Tibet, which was categorized into four as follow based on the government's categorization of the schools in Tibet: primary (grade 1-6), secondary (grade 7-12), universities (both universities and colleges), and others.

Location: Refers to the areas where the schools are. In the educational background, location refers to counties where the English teachers got their degree; while, in the organizational background, it refers to local areas where the English teachers teach in Tibet, categorized into four (city, county, town and village) based on the government's categorization of its territory.

Major: Refers to the field areas of the English teachers in Tibet such as TESOL, English teaching and etc.

Nationality: Status of belonging to a particular nation or ethnic group.

Size: Includes school size and class size, which is categorized based on the number of students. Based on the local government categorizations, in this research, the school size is categorized into: small (less than 200 students), medium (200-500 students), and large (over 500 students); and the class size is divided into: small (less than 15 students), medium (15-35 students) and big (over 35 students).

Student Concern: A teacher's interest in students' needs by creating a close and friendly relationship with them and giving them the freedom to do certain things in teaching.

Task Concern: A teacher's interest is focused on tasks by completion of all duties with sufficient responsibility in teaching. Academic and performance factors are emphasized, the same standards are set for all students, and rules and authority replace students' needs in teaching.

Year: Defined as the time duration during which teachers are active in performing in teaching and managing professions, divided into three intervals based on related literature review: less than 5 years, between 5-10 years, and over 10 years.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The present research, focused on the English language teachers' leadership styles and challenges in Tibet, pertained to the collective literature as follows:

- Tibet of China: *Tibetan Issues, Factors of the Tibetan Issue, Education, The Aims of Education, Social Demands in Education, & Scholars' Suggestions for Addressing Educational Issues in Tibet;*

- Education in Tibet: *Creation of Modern Secular Education, Flourishing Development of Modern Secular Education, Difficulties and Recovery, & The Steady and Healthy Development of Tibetan Education;*

- Issues in Today's Tibetan Education

- Language Education in Tibet: Bilingualism to Trilingualism: *Bilingualism, & Trilinguilism;*

- Challenges in Trilingualism: English Language Education

- Educational Leadership: *The Leadership Role of Teachers, & Teachers' Leadership Styles;*

● Studies of Leadership Styles (1930s-present): *The University of Iowa Studies, The Ohio State University Studies, The University of Michigan Studies, The Blake and Mouto's Managerial Grid, Ergene's Study (1990), Brican's Study (1993), Erku's Study (1997), ÇaFan's Study (1998), Akgün's Study (2001), Anuwatprakit's Study (2003), & Summary.*

● Leadership Styles and Culture: *Importance of Culture in Leadership, Culture, Dimensions of Culture, & Relationship between Culture and Leadership.*

Tibet of China

Tibet is located in the Southwestern China. It is composed of five Tibetan ethnographic areas including the Tibetan Autonomous Region (TAR) and all the autonomous prefectures and counties bordering on Qinghai Province, Gansu Province, Sichuan Province, and Yunan Provinces. In total, the land size of Tibet is 2,500,000 square kilometers that takes more than one fourth of China (9,596,960 sq km). Approximately, six million Tibetans live in Tibet (Lixiong, 2000; and TWFC, 2007). It is

notoriously difficult to access owing to its generally high elevation and limited means of communication and transportation, which favors cultural preservation but hinders developments of economics and modernization.

Every year many projects were implemented to develop Tibet. For instance, the Central Government earmarked more than 1.8 million RMB from 1980 to 1984, decided to aid project with a total investment of 60 million RMB during the second conference on Tibetan education in September 1987, and jointly earmarked 41 million RMB in aid of Tibetan education in 21st century (MENT, 2008). Also, in 1999, the Chinese government started the *Xibu Dakaifa* (Western Regions Development Program) in order to enhance the development of western provinces and regions including all the Tibetan areas, which a major focus on enhancing the economic growth (Shiyong, 2007). However, there are still many serious issues exist in Tibet, especially in education.

Tibetan Issues

The economy of Tibet is far behind the economy of many Chinese inland areas, which is one of the main factors to explain the Tibetan issues such as the Tibetan protests in March of 2008 (Yangzi, 2008). In 2005, based on the report of 2006 Chinese National Bureau of Statistics, the per capita GDP (Gross Domestic Product) for the Five Tibetan Ethnographic Areas are: 9114 RMB (Chinese currency *Renminbi)* in TAR, 7477 RMB in Gansu; 9060 RMB in Sichuan, 7835 RMB in Yunnan, and 10,045 RMB in Qinghai. In contrast, the GDP for coast areas of China are: 27,703 RMB in Zhejiang, 24,435 RMB in Guangdong, and 24,560 RMB in Jiangsu. Approximately, the Chinese coast area GDP is triple of the GDP in Tibetan areas. The gap, interestingly, is increasing based on the Chinese NBS, which was only about 10,000 RMB in 2002 (NBS, 2006:66; cited by Shiyong 2007:132).

The literacy rate of Tibetans is far below the average of Chinese national literacy rate. In 2005, the national literacy rate (above 15 years old) was 88.96 percent. However, in the dense areas of Tibetans, it was only 55.16 percent in TAR and 75.93 percent in Qinghai where more than 60

percent of Tibetan females are illiterate. Over all, the average literacy of Tibetans is one of the lowest ones in China (NBS, 2006).

As results, Tibetans are not doing well in today's market. As Shiyong (2007:132) sates that only about 20 percent of the businesses in Tibet were owned by Tibetans. In other words, Tibetans are even unable to compete with non-Tibetan migrants in their own home areas, and they are not being able to participate in the global markets-- almost a common sense for most people in China and even in many other countries.

In short, Tibetans are facing serious challenges and difficulties in today's society. Based on the provided information above, it is not difficult to imagine the serious challenges that have been facing by the Tibetans such as poverty, illiteracy, unemployment, and many others. So, what are major factors?

Factors of the Tibetan Issues

> *Education is among crucial factors explaining the inability*
> *of Tibetans to compete economically with [others].*
>   *Shiyong (2007:131)*

There are many factors that explain the difficulties faced by Tibetans. For instance, majority Tibetans live in mountain areas where the elevation is high. In Tibet, the soil is fragile. The weather is overly cold and dry in most months of the year. The transportation and communication are very limited. Educational qualities are poor. Some traditional and superstitious culture or ideas are strong. Policy reforms are barely reached and implemented properly. These things are obstacles for the development of Tibet. Among all those obstacles, the poor quality of education, especially the Chinese and English language education, is one of the crucial factors explaining the current phenomenon of Tibetans who are having difficulties in participating in today' markets. As Shiyong (2007:131) sates that "education is among crucial factors explaining the inability of Tibetans to compete economically with non-Tibetan immigrants." Therefore, the following section is going to exam the education and education in Tibet.

Education

Education is a long-term strategy for catalyzing economic and social development. It means the learning process of a person and society, imparting of knowledge, practice, training, transmission of culture; enhancement of academic progress, building a body of knowledge by creating a learning environment and learning society and the availability of factors conductive to continuous lifelong learning. In primitive societies, children acquired an education by observing or assisting adults in life's basic tasks. As a society became more complex, education became a formal process (Encyclopedia of Knowledge 1991). Education refers very broadly to the total social processes that bring a person into cultural life; an essentially indeterminate process; a bridge between potentiality and actuality; to help one to become that which one is only in seed form; a process of training, consisting of input, process, and output phases, or internalization resulting in the acquisition of a skill set; and a process of unfolding and developing that which has potential in the human person.

The Aims of Education

There are only a few aims that are necessary to guide education because of their global quality. As Locke (1902) divided educational aims into four major goals: *virtue*--consisting of the practice of self-denial, which inhibited impulsive behavior and resisted temptation, cultivation of virtuous habits facilitated leading a life governed by reason; *wisdom*--shrewd and practical wit that enabled a person to manage affairs and property successfully and to be prudent in human affairs; *good breeding*--guided one in fulfilling life's social obligations; and *concerned with morality and politics*--dealt with civil society, government, law, and history (Locke John, 1902:419).

For Dewey (1963), the aim of education is both intrinsic (aims arose from the problem or the tasks) and extrinsic (aims were extraneous to the person's problem, tasks, or interests). As Pestalozzi says education should develop a child's intellectual and physical powers to produce a complete and fully integrated personality (Pestalozzi cited from Encyclopedia of Knowledge 1999 vol. 6:345). According to Tyler (1968:12), educational aims as developing self-realization; making individuals literate;

encouraging social mobility; providing the skills and understanding necessary for productive employment; furnishing tools necessary for making effective choices regarding material and nonmaterial things and services, and tolls for continued learning.

Similarly, Piaget Jean (cited by Arcaro, 1995:51) points out that the goal of education contains two things. First, it is to create people who are capable of doing new things, not simply repeating what other generations have done, and people who are creative, inventive, and discoverers. Secondly, the second goal of education is to form minds which could be critical, could verify, and not accept everything that they were offered.

In conclusion, the main aim of modern education is focusing on an integral development of the person in all aspects (physical, intellectual, psychological, emotional, social, moral, and spiritual) in order to lead a desirable way of life, to live peacefully and harmoniously with other, and to help in the development of the nation and the world. At the same time, today's education tries to meet the demands of changes in society. It promotes critical thinking, analysis of problems, and planning for the future. Also, it facilitates students to adapt to various situations in a correct

and appropriate manner in modern high tech and science societies (TNEA, 1999; and TCNEA, 2006).

Social Demands in Education

Today's scientific and technological advancement has a vast impact on education. In today's world, with advances in technology, international information flows at high speed and in great quantity, creating increased economic activity and competition. One's success much depends on how successfully s/he can utilize the benefits of new technology, the ability to acquire new knowledge enabling adaptation to new obstacles. Organizations are looking for people who are capable of doing high tech and science things that are changing rapidly in today's world. Thus, in education, there are many new things are emerged such as new educational policies, new curricula, new textbooks, new methodologies, and new fields.

On the other hand, education plays a significant role in a nation's development. As Berend (1990:174) finds out that countries with higher educational background people became the pioneers of, or bets adapted to,

the Industrial Revolution. Also, Andersson (1986:26) states schools with high and consistent educational standard are among the most important means of achieving full employment. (Shiyong, 2007:133)

These entwined forces of a changing business world, new technologies, new policies and new methodologies, boosted by governments support in the form of new curricula, and widespread acceptance of the new technologies by students at home and schools, help education start catching up in may urban areas in the words. However, there are a lot of things need to be done in education, especially in rural areas such as Tibet.

Scholars' Suggestions for Addressing Educational Issues in Tibet

Modern scholars suggest Tibetans to focus on improving the quality of second and foreign language education. As Stuart (2003), Shiyong (2007) and Yangzi (2008) state that although Tibetans have had their own language for well over a thousand years, today Chinese is the major official language dominating business activities across Tibet while English is dominating in the world. Thus, the Chinese and English language education is crucial for the successes of Tibetans. They play the important

role in promoting Tibetans' economic development and people's participation in the market. The Chinese and English language education is crucial in obtaining the skills needed for individual Tibetans to be able to compete and obtain jobs. For Tibetans in China, Chinese and English languages are the super keys that unlock doors of modern technology and knowledge.

In short, many research findings show that there is a great need of addressing the issues of language education in Tibet in order to help Tibetans. Therefore, it is worthwhile to explore education of Tibet and address one of the major issues in order to help Tibetans. Thus, this study focused on English teachers of Tibetans in Tibet. The following sections of literature review starts with a brief review of the development of modern education in Tibet of China, and recent educational issues in Tibet. Bilingualism and trilingualism in education are discussed in detail, with a focus on the education quality of current practices. Finally, it concludes that it is essential to improve the quality of English education by addressing the issues related to English teachers' leadership and challenges in Tibet.

Education in Tibet

> *[Improving] the quality of education and to develop a*
> *vigorous vocational and business education as a key*
> *mechanism to assist Tibetan market participation and allow*
> *Tibetans to compete effectively with non-Tibetan migrants.*
> *This involves taking measures towards solving such serious*
> *problems as implementing Tibetan-language education,*
> *developing good Tibetan-language teaching materials, and*
> *training excellent Tibetan teachers.*
>
> *Shiyong (2007:147)*

Tibetan education was shifted from monastic education to modern

secular education in the mid-twenty centuries. Until late 1950s, the

monastic education was dominant in Tibetan areas. No modern secular

education systems or schools were existed except monasteries and temples

where people perceive all levels of education from primary level to

graduate level in Tibet. Most educated people, in past, generally were

monks in Tibet. In 1951, based on the Chinese official sources, the

illiteracy rate was at 90 percent in Tibet (Bass, 1998:2).

Creation of Modern Secular Education (1951- 1958)

The modern secular education was only introduced in Tibet in 1951. In

the year, the first primary school, Qamdo Primary School, was set up to

introduce modern education in Tibetan history; the Seventeen Point

Agreement, signed by the Central Government of PR China and the local Tibetan government, stated that "The spoken and written languages and the school education of the Tibetan nationality shall be developed step by step in accordance with the actual conditions of Tibet" (Shiyong, 2007:135). The First National Conference on Minority Education, took place in Beijing, emphasized that training minority cadres for government administration was the main task of minority education, which also made clear the importance of strengthening primary education and adult education. In April 1956, the Preparatory Committee for the Founding of the TAR was established, under which was the Cultural Education Department in charge of educational work for the whole of Tibet (MENT, 2008).

By June 1957, in TAR, there were 98 public primary schools (with 6,360 pupils), and one junior middle school. In addition, two middle school classes were set up in a primary school (with a total enrollment of 700 students) in TAR. There was no age limitation nor basic educational requirement, with the eldest pupil aged 50 and the youngest 12. Unfortunately, by the end of 1957, the 98 primary schools were reduced to

13 (with 3,460 pupils) due to political constrains and cultural conflicts. The majority of Tibetans were lack of enthusiasm for modern secular education. They started rejecting the modern secular education threatening the deeply rooted Tibetan traditional monastic education and culture. The Central Government decided that Tibet was not ready for the 'socialist transformation' taking place elsewhere in China.

Therefore, the monasteries continued to be the main educational institutions in Tibet (Bass, 1998: 29). However, gradually the Central Government was able to set up the Tibetan Cadre College, the Xianyan Public College and the Tibetan Communist Youth League School, and trained about 10,000 cadres of Tibetan and other ethnic groups, greatly promoting the development of work in all circles (MENT, 2008). Several education institutes were established from 1951 to 1958, namely the Central Nationalities Institute in Beijing; the Southwest Nationalities Institute in Chengdu; the Northwest Nationalities Institute in Lanzhou; the Yunnan Nationalities Institute in Kunming and the Tibetan Nationalities Institute in Xianyang (Shiyong, 2007:135). Apart from the Yunnan Nationalities Institute, all these institutes established Tibetan classes.

Students were recruited from Tibetan areas of China, but included some Han Chinese. After training, the majority of students worked in government administration (Shiyong, 2007; TCUN, 2008; & SWUN, 2008).

Flourishing Development of Modern Secular Education (1959-1965)

The modern secular education was flourished after the Tibetan Uprising in 1959 when the Tibetan government fled to India (Postiglione et al., 2004; and MENT, 2008). The Preparatory of Committee for the Founding of the TAR reopened the public schools suspended in 1957 and worked out the principle to encourage the development mainly of no-governmental schools while running public schools and subsidizing those run by the collective. By 1965, in TAR, there were approximately 87 public primary schools and 1,735 non-governmental schools, with 66,781 pupils in total (MENT, 2008). As Gasang Caidan et al. (1998:140) note there were 1,822 primary schools with 66,781 students in the TAR by 1965. Additionally, there were four middle schools with enrollment of 1,059, one secondary teacher's school (the Lhasa Teacher's School), and one institution of higher learning (the Tibetan Nationality College) in TAR.

Furthermore, according to Shiyong (2007), by 1965, there were 537 primary and middle schools in the Tibetan areas of Sichuan Province based on information provided by the Sichuan Education Bureau.

Approximately, by 1956, a basic education system (composed of primary ad middle schools, technical secondary schools, colleges and universities, adult colleges and local-cadre training courses) took its initial shape based on the local conditions in Tibetan areas. Normally, the schools were small in size, very flexible and varied from full-time, half-day, every other day, off-season, winter, evening, and moving forms. The local educated people were invited to teach at the schools. Students were taught mainly languages (Tibetan as a first language and Chinese as a supplementary language), politics (Marxism and other ideas of communist leaders), and arithmetic. However, the educational quality was low and school conditions were poor. Thus, in 1962, the government defined targeted on improving conditions of existing schools and training more teachers, especially those of Tibetan nationality. In 1965, the first conference on education was held in Tibet to sum up experience for further improvement in the quality of school education (MENT, 2008).

Difficulties and Recovery (1966-1990s)

Unfortunately, during the ten-year Culture Revolution (1966-76), Tibetan education suffered great damage as others did in China. All schools were suspended, and students were urged to criticize and repudiate teachers and other educated people with traditional thoughts and to destroy culture heritages which led the destruction of the monasteries that once dominated Tibetan education.

Fortunately, primary schools reopened in 1969, and university entrance examinations were reinstated only after 11 years. In 1974, the State Education Commission sent many inland teachers to Tibet to join Tibetan teachers in making contributions to modern secular educational development. In 1977, the examinations for enrollment in colleges and middle schools were first time introduced in Tibetan education. In 1978, the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party was held, and the government's work shifted from emphasizing politics to focusing on economic development and education. The education consequently started focusing on training of specialized personnel to prepare the needed manpower in China except the

border areas. Since the most areas of Tibet are border areas, the focus of Tibetan education remained to 'maintain social stability' and to train cadres for socialist modernization (Bass, 1998:50).

However, the enrolment in primary schools was increased dramatically in 1970s in Tibet. The enrolment increase in rural areas was achieved through the widespread expansion of community (*minban*) schools many of which were eventually closed because of their poor quality. By 1979, the number of primary school had increased to 6,000 (about 1,822 in 1965) and secondary schools had increased to 78 (approximately one in 1965) in TAR. Similar progress was observed in other Tibetan areas. For instance, by 1983, the number of primary schools increased from four (in 1949) to 300 in Yushu and Guoluo Tibetan Autonomous Prefectures, and the primary and middle schools increased to 2568 from 537 (in 1965) in Sichuan Tibetan areas (Gasang Caidan et al., 1998:141; and Shiyong, 2007:135).

In 1980s, many readjustments and reforms revitalized Tibetan education after several important meetings on Tibetan education. In March 1980, the First Tibetan Work Forum was held in Beijing. In regard to

Tibetan education, the meeting determined gradually to popularize primary education, to eliminate illiteracy, to make Tibetan language a compulsory subject for students of Han and Tibetan nationalities, to compile and print textbooks in Tibetan, to transform all non-government primary schools into state-run ones, and to establish more junior and senior middle schools. In 1984, the Second Tibetan Work Forum was held, which called for an understanding of the specific characteristics of Tibetan educational work. It put forward the notion that all work should start from the reality of the situation in Tibet. Also, it concluded that Tibetan-medium education would be implemented in all primary schools in the TAR (Bass, 1998:53; and Postiglione et al., 2004:203). In general, both the First and the Second Forums emphasized the policy of 'intellectual support for Tibet' (*Zhili Yuan Zang*). The support projects under the policy focused on sending teachers from other provinces in China to work in schools in Tibetan areas; linking certain schools in the TAR with similar institutions in other provinces in China; and sending selected Tibetan primary graduates for secondary education in Inland China. The implementation of the policy was accelerated after 1985 through establishing 'Inland Secondary Schools

or Classes' in many provinces and municipalities such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Tianjin.

In September 1987, the conference on aiding Tibetan education was held. It concluded that the major reason behind why Tibetan education developed at a rate lower than that of China's inland areas lied in the shortage of talented people. Thus, Inland Aid to Tibetan Education plan was adopted. In November of the same year, the third conference on Tibetan education was held, which aimed at: accelerating the pace of Tibetan education, promoting Tibetan economic development, and preparing talented people for the economic flourishing expected in the early 21st century. In detail, the conference adopted principles such as: stressing primary education, giving priority to priority to the training of teachers, consolidating and enhancing college and university education, actively developing vocational and adult education, absorbing the experiences of other nationalities' running school as well as advanced science and technology, and thus creating a new way of running schools with distinct Tibetan characteristics (MENT, 2008).

As results, from 1980 to 1984, the Central Government earmarked more than 1.8 million RMB for the training of 2,224 teachers and 218 management carders. Thousands of selected Tibetan students were sent to study in inland schools. Many schools (especially secondary schools) and institutes and universities were setup to mainly absorbed students of Tibetan and other ethnic groups. And the Tibetan language, history, medicine and arts were added to the curriculum in 1980s.

For instance, from 1985 to 2001, more than 23,560 primary school graduates were selected in TAR and sent to study in inland schools in at least 16 provinces and municipalities in China. The similar student recruitment began in other Tibetan areas at the beginning of the 21st century through the 'Paired Support Project' on a small scale (Postiglione et al., 2004:204). During the 1980s, the secondary education fully embarked in Tibetan areas of China. Many secondary schools were established. Thus, nearly every county has at least one junior secondary school and each prefecture has at least one senior secondary school. Also, the specialized secondary schools, many of which were established earlier, were also functioning in Tibetan areas during the 1980s (Shiyong, 2007).

Additionally, in the 1980s, several Tibetan higher education institutions were established because of an increasing need of teachers for the increasing number of primary and secondary schools in Tibet. For instance, in 1981, the Nationalities Department of Qinghai Education College was established. It aimed to train Tibetan-medium science teachers for primary and secondary schools, which was the first such program in China's history.

Subsequently, several Tibetan-medium colleges were established in the 1980s, such as: the Hezuo Nationalities Teachers' College in Gannan Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture, Gansu Province; the Ganzi Nationalities Teachers' College, Sichuan Province; the Aba Nationalities Teachers' College, Sichuan Province; and the Hainan Nationalities Teachers' College, Qinghai Province (Shiyong, 2007; and HMTC, 2008). In 1985, the TAR Teachers' College (established in 1975 in Lhasa) was upgraded to university level, becoming the only university in the TAR under the name of Tibet University.

Therefore, more schools in Tibet were able to offer subjects and courses, especially science (mathematics, physics, and chemistry), taught

in Tibetan or both Tibetan and Chinese languages. Tibetans had more chances of attending higher education after accomplishing the secondary schools.

However, the quality of education in Tibet was and still is far lower than those of China's inland education, which hinders Tibetans for having quality higher education. As Shiyong (2007:137) states, as a result of poor Tibetan education quality "Tibetan students face difficulty getting into top universities in inland China, in spite of the preferential government policy that adds points to Tibetan students' examination results. This situation limits Tibetan students' choice of study areas when they enter college and university. As most Tibetan colleges are designed as teachers' training schools, with only limited course offerings, students who do enter nationalities institutes usually major in Tibetan language and literature. Therefore, in attempting to enter the already competitive job market, many Tibetan graduates must compete among themselves with limited and identical qualifications."

The Steady and Healthy Development of Tibetan Education (1990s-present)

The reform principles adopted during the two 1987 conferences mentioned above proved to be correct and conformed with the actual conditions in Tibet. Therefore, in 1993 and 1994, the fourth and fifth conferences on aid to Tibetan education were held, which focused on ways and means for further development of Tibetan education. The conferences worked out the principles that strenuous efforts should be made to help develop Tibetan education for a considerable period of time and in a gradual way. They affirmed a systematized approach for inland areas to contract to aid Tibet, and called for efforts to do a good job of Tibetan classes in the hinterland. As results, there was dramatic improvement and change in Tibetan education.

By the end of 1995, Tibet had 3,950 primary schools with 258,651 pupils (70 % of the school-aged children in formal education); 89 middle schools, with 33,009 students; 16 technical secondary schools, with 5,730 students; four colleges and universities, with 3,736 students. Besides, there were 10,222 Tibetans attending schools in inland areas. To finish, the total work force engaged in education totaled 21,000 among which 80% were

Tibetans and other ethnic people. School conditions were greatly improved. Each school had basic teaching equipment and facilities, and every student had a chair and a desk. Also, there were 100 educational satellite ground stations in various prefectures and counties of Tibet. Computers, TV sets and audio-videos have made way into classrooms (MENT, 2008).

In the late 1990s, China updated qualifications for primary and secondary school teachers. It required primary school teachers to hold a two to three year college certificate and not the diplomas fro the specialized normal schools. Thus, the specialized secondary normal schools were adapted to be regular secondary schools or vocational schools at the beginning of the 21st century. Additionally, the "two basics," basically popularize nine-year compulsory education and basically eliminate illiteracy for people under age of 50 years old, became the priority in Tibetan education.

The "two basics" were aimed to achieve completely by 2010 in Tibet. According to "Decision on Deepening Reform and Developing Minority Education" (a policy document issued by the State Council in 2002), by 2006 the rate of counties achieving 'the two basics' should be increased to

above 70 percent from 51 percent in 2001 (the Tenth Five-Year Plan);
ninety-five percent of these regions were expected to have largely
implemented compulsory education in primary school during the Tenth
Five-Year Plan; and the minority areas should achieve 'the two basics'
completely by 2010 (Ministry of Education, 2002).

As a result, Tibetan education progressed greatly. According to
Shiyong (2007), by 2003 there were a total of 1,008 schools in the TAR,
including three colleges and universities with 6,793 students, 11 secondary
vocational schools with 6,819 students (including 1244 normal school
students), 100 secondary schools with 15,366 students in senior and with
56,344 students in junior (eight senior secondary schools, seven schools
with both junior and senior levels) and 894 primary schools with 311,993
students. Consequently, in TAR, by 2003 the enrolment rates: in primary
school reached 87.2 per cent (60 percent in 1991), in junior secondary
school reached 39 percent, and in senior secondary schools reached 16
percent (Postiglione et al., 2004:202; and Shiyong, 2007:137-8). Also, in
TAR, by 2005 the percentage of Tibetans had a primary school education
had increased to 42.3 from less than 20 percent in 1990, and the illiteracy

rate went down to 44.84 percent (Postiglione et al., 2006; and Shiyong, 2007).

Furthermore, in Ganzi and Aba Prefectures, by 2003 there were 2,377 primary schools and 229 village-level primary school outposts (jiaoxue dian) with 202,386 students and 94.5 enrolment, 52 junior secondary schools with 41,249 students and 51 senior secondary schools with 9,893 students. In addition, in Ganzi and Aba prefectures, among 32 counties, 29 had implemented six-year compulsory education and eight counties had successfully implemented nine-year compulsory education. Moreover, in Huangnan Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture, the primary-school enrolment rate had reached 97.5 percent by 2005, where two counties had successfully implemented nine-year compulsory education and one county had implemented six year compulsory education (Shiyong, 2007:138).

Issues in Today's Tibetan Education

From the above information we can see that the modern secular education has flourished in Tibet after it replaced the Tibetan traditional monastic education in second half of 20th century. There have been huge

progresses in Tibetan modern secular education since 1978. However, a large gap exists between the educational attainments of Tibetans and other ethnics in China.

For example, by 2005, the Chinese national illiteracy rate was 11.04 percent, while the Tibetan illiteracy rate was 44.84 percent in the largest Tibetan areas, TAR. Also, by 2005, at the national level, 38.3 percent of PRC citizens had a junior secondary education and 12.4 per cent had a senior secondary education; while in TAR these numbers were only 8.4 percent and 2.1 percent (see NBS, 2006:112–14). More than 60 percent of Tibetan females are illiterate in Tibetan areas of Qinghai (Shiyong, 2007:132). Over all, respectively, Tibetans have the lowest educational level and the highest illiteracy rate in all China (NBS, 2006:112 –4).

Additionally, a skills-oriented education was neglected in Tibetan education since the government's initial goal of minority educational policy was mainly to train cadres to strengthen its political power and recent good policies were vaguely implemented. Thus, most graduates of Tibetan or minority schools are still only compatible to jobs mainly requiring Tibetan or both Tibetan and Chinese language skills such as

Tibetan cadres or teachers. These jobs are overly limited since today Chinese is dominating business activities across Tibet and English is dominating in the world. Unfortunately, the few Tibetan graduates who had received some skills-oriented and English language educations by any means are flooded by the competitive peoples from others areas of China where those educations are far better than that of Tibet. Therefore, there have been a little market opportunities for Tibetan graduates since most jobs require high skills of technology and English language in markets.

Language Education in Tibet: Bilingualism to Trilingualism

Language education is vital importance because it builds a foundation for education of students in all aspects, which is mostly done at the primary and secondary levels. The language education in schools is the key factor directly affecting the results of schooling--not just in teaching and learning languages but also other fields as the children develop. Therefore, providing highly effective language education has many benefits. It will allow students to achieve excellent results not only in languages but also other fields, and to be good and useful people for the society.

Bilingualism (1950s-1990s)

In its long history of Tibetan modern secular education, China has engaged the Tibetan ethnic group in bilingual education with an officially proclaimed aim to produce bilinguals with a strong competence in Mandarin Chinese and Tibetan. The stated outcome of this bilingual policy is for Tibetans to be able to communicate with, and ideally assimilate into, mainstream society. The Tibetan bilingual education has undergone its course of trials, disasters and hopes reflecting the political realities of the country.

The language education, in Tibet, has been reformed three times because of changes in minorities' policy and minority langue policy in China. The three times of language education reforms, according to Tian (1998) and Zhou (2001), can be categorized into three stages: the *first pluralistic stage* (1949-1957), the *monopolistic stage* (1958-1977), and the *second pluralistic stage* (1978-present).

In Tibetan schools, during the *first pluralistic stage* (1949–1957), Tibetan was L1 (the main teaching medium) with Chinese as L2 (supplementary language course) whereas, during the *monopolistic stage*

(1958–1977), Chinese became L1 with Tibetan as a supplement in many schools. During the *second pluralistic stage* (1978–present), bilingual education has developed slowly in Tibet. In some primary schools, Tibetan is L1 with Chinese as L2, while in some primary schools Chinese is still the L1 with Tibetan as L2. Thus, in today's Tibetan areas of China, these two different bilingual models are called 'the first model' and 'the second model'. Using Tibetan as the main teaching medium but teaching Chinese as a required course is called 'the first model;' while using Chinese as the main teaching medium but teaching Tibetan as one required course is referred to as 'the second model.'

There were no specific policies on which model should be practiced in which schools and the decisions are made locally and haphazardly in Tibet. According to Shiyong (2007), the first model was used more than the second model in Qinghai and Gansu Tibetan areas and in a few secondary schools in Sichuan Tibetan areas. In Yunan Tibetan areas, no first model was available at the secondary level. In TAR, a few junior secondary schools use the first model, several junior secondary schools have both models, but not a single senior secondary schools uses the first model.

In general, with the exception of a few Tibetan autonomous prefectures and counties, the language of instruction in most primary schools in the Tibetan areas of China is Tibetan. Conversely, with only a few exceptions, secondary schools are Chinese medium schools in the same area. Therefore, recent reports of Tibetan education reveal an issue that need addressing. It is the transition Tibetan students go through from early schooling in their mother tongue (Tibetan) to learning subjects in Mandarin Chinese later in their school careers. The transition was reported as being unsmooth, with some children dropping out of school.

Many Tibetan educators criticize using Chinese as the main teaching medium (the second model) since Tibetan is the mother tongue of majority Tibetan students and they learn concepts faster and/or better in Tibetan than in Chinese, which are also supported by research findings. For instance, based on a research done by the Teaching Material Coordination Office of Five Provinces and One Region at 102 schools (49 primary & 53 secondary) in Tibetan areas and based on a research conducted at Lhasa Linzhu County Middle School in 2003, students in the first model performed far better than those in the second model (Wu Xie Ban,

2005:27-41; cited by Shiyong, 2007:140-1). These studies' results show that the first model is appropriate one for Tibetan education. However, according to Shiyong (2007:140), the first model will only be implemented by more local government and school leaders if the college entrance examinations are available in the Tibetan language; otherwise, they will probably implement the second model, since Chinese is the official language and its scope of use is much broader than Tibetan.

Trilinguilism (1990s-present)

No matter which language is the main instructional language, both Tibetan and Chinese are explicitly taught at the primary and secondary levels in schools for Tibetans. The bilingual education has become part of the everyday vocabulary not only of educationists but also ordinary people in Tibet. In addition, English language has also been started teaching at schools in Tibet from the late 1990s and early 21st century.

Therefore, the language education is moving from the bilingualism (Tibetan and Mandarin Chinese) to the trilingualism (English, Chinese and Tibetan) in Tibet. Catalytic factors, such as China's firm belief in its

"open-door" policy, membership of the World Trade Organisation in 2001, the successful bid for the 2008 Olympic Games and the rapid development of English language education in inland cities of China, have played a key role in promoting Tibetan, Chinese and English trilingualism in Tibet, which looks certain to reshape Tibetan education system as a whole. It is defined as the development of talents in mastering three languages (*sanyu jiantong*).

Trilingualism in Tibet formally has only started in late 1990s. In 1997, the English Training Program (ETP) in Qinghai Normal University was set up and first time recruited students of the five Tibetan regions (able to speak and write both Tibetan and Chinese) to major in English (Stuart & Shiyong, 2003; and Caixiangduojie, 2006). According to Shiyong (2007), ETP has demonstrated Tibetan students' ability to learn language well, that after three to four years many ETP students score above 500 on TOFEL and able to study abroad for undergraduate, MA and Ph.D. degrees. The key reason students succeed is that ETP possesses a group of dedicated teachers with a solid understanding of the local situation. Each year new foreign teachers join the program, but several teachers have taught in the

program for many years. More similar programs, subsequently, were set up in Tibetan areas such as the Three-Year English Language Training Program in Northwest Nationalities University, ETP in Qiabuqia Nationalities' Institution and etc. Also, many primary and secondary schools have started offering English classes besides Tibetan and Chinese classes.

Challenges in Trilingualism: English Language Education

Although English language education has started almost a decade ago, there are still a large percentage of Tibetan pupils, many of whom live in remote areas, rarely or never have a chance to study English in primary or even secondary schools. It is usually due to lack of resources. Schools where Tibetan students do get access to English language teaching they have additional hurdles to face.

For instance, in most cases, the available English textbooks in Tibet are mostly the ones that are standardized nationwide. These textbooks carry explanations or translations in Mandarin Chinese. This increases considerably the difficulty of learning the English language because the

"intermediary language," Mandarin Chinese, they rely on is in fact a language of which they are not native speakers and they are taught poorly. Many of them have to mentally retranslate it into their mother tongue in the learning process. Additionally, they have to struggle with two new languages, and thus two new cultures (the Han majority culture and a distant foreign culture). Also, no standard EFL curricula exist in schools in Tibet.

As a result, the EFL teachers face tremendous challenges in improving the English language proficiency of Tibetans in Tibet of China. As the nation embraces globalization and enters the information economy in the twenty-first century, the EFL teachers of Tibetans play a crucial role in enabling Tibetans to succeed in the markets. They have to innovate and take bold steps in teaching English to Tibetans in the vacuum of Tibetan trilingual education. In short, the English Teachers of Tibetans have to play the leadership role in their teaching in order to help their students effectively.

Educational Leadership

In schools, the task of teachers in Tibet is not only instructing. It includes a more splendorous range of actions such as advising, counseling, organizing, assessing, guiding, managing, modeling, coaching, disciplining, persuading, listening, interacting, nursing, inspiring, motivating, and many others, especially at schools of Tibetans--where students live for twenty-four hours everyday and more than six months every year due to remoteness of their homes and limited means of transportation.

The Leadership Role of Teachers

Therefore, teachers have to play a leadership role in teaching. Their leadership role include being a facilitator, a guide, a resource of knowledge, and counselor and manager who encourages their students to acquire critical thinking skills in order to choose what is right and avoid what is evil. Also, it includes facilitating their students to use the power of reason in analyzing everyday events, motivating them to be good people by being moral and ethical, and helping them to reach their full potential with loving kindness.

Effective teacher leadership entails planning activities, setting ground rules, and knowing how to enforce the rules to establish a good learning environment. In well-managed groups of students, students know what is expected, feel fulfilled, and are well-motivated to learn. An 'outstanding' teacher, on the other hand, maintains a no-nonsense but pleasant atmosphere for students to learn. In general, the goal of effective teacher leadership is to: maximize teaching and learning time; improve the quality of time used by keeping students actively engaged; make sure participation structures are clear, straightforward, and consistently signaled; and encourage students in self-management in learning.

However, it is very rare to find teachers who are professional in education with appropriate leadership styles at schools of Tibetans. There are many teachers of Tibetans practice ineffective and inappropriate leadership styles. For instance, most teachers only seek for material goods and ignore students in all aspects as long as they can have their jobs. Some teachers emphasize only academics and teach for tests, but ignore promoting students' skills of critical thinking, teambuilding, and addressing social issues. Also, some teachers act as the "dictator" in the

rote teaching-learning and leading process. They largely emphasize lecturing and ordering rather than guiding and promoting learning what is good and right in teaching. As results, students are coerced to follow the rules, they do not have many opportunities to show their capacity and understanding, and they study without experiencing the creativity and joy of learning. Thus, the quality of Tibetan education fell below desired level in China, which is due to teachers' poor leadership in Tibetan areas. Majority teachers of Tibetans are not appropriately trained in leadership, so they are unable to manage and teach students effectively. They adhere to inappropriate leadership styles affecting the students' dynamics of learning, creating a negative environment for learning, and blocking the capacity of students striving for achievement. (Meng, 2003; Rose, 2006; &Shiyong, 2007).

Teachers' Leadership Styles

Every institute educates students with one main objective that is for their success. The success of students is the success of their teachers and schools. Successful schools often have affective teachers good at using appropriate leadership styles in different situations (Owen, 2001). Each

teacher has his/her own leadership style that may not be known by her/himself.

The leadership styles of teachers are directed at leading students to achievement in all aspects. Teachers with appropriate leadership styles make classrooms and schools as a place of love and joy where students experience integral development (Auwatprakit, 2003). If a teacher has an appropriate leadership style e.g. knowing how to manage the class well, understanding the differences that exist among students, giving integrated formation, combining knowledge and virtue, leading and teaching students to work in harmony, encouraging critical thinking in communications, then the students will enjoy learning and learn who to adjust to environment.

In conclusion, teachers play a leadership role in teaching. Their leadership role includes a broad range of behaviors such as facilitating instruction, maximizing teaching and learning time, handling disciplinary problems, and developing and maintaining a pleasant atmosphere. Based on the studies of leadership, teachers' leadership styles, in general, can be categorized into two: student academic performance oriented and teacher-student relationship oriented.

Studies of Leadership Styles (1930s - present)

Studies of leadership style approach focuses on the leaders' behaviors. The starting point for studies of leadership styles was to analyze how individuals behave in leading a group. Researchers gave subordinates questionnaires to identify the number of times that their leader engaged in certain behaviors. The earliest leadership style studies were done by researches from Iowa University, University of Michigan, and Ohio State University. The following parts of this chapter examines those earliest leadership style studies and some recent leadership style studies relevant to education.

The University of Iowa Studies (1930s)

Back in the 1930s, Kurt Lewin and associates at the University of Iowa conducted studies focused on the leadership style of managers. Their studies identified two styles of leadership: autocratic and democratic.

- *Autocratic Leadership Style:* A leader with this style makes the decisions, gives orders to employees, and is constantly supervising his subordinates.

- *Democratic Leadership Style:* A leader, who exhibits this style, promotes shared decisions, team work, and does not supervise his subordinates closely.

Figure 2.1: University of Iowa Leadership Styles

Autocratic ⸺⸺⸺⸺⸺Democratic

(Source: www.bealeader.net on March 2, 2008).
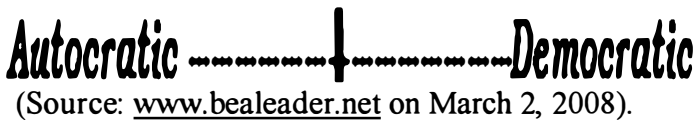
The two leadership styles are opposite ends of a continuum (Figure 2.1). Thus, a leader's leadership style follows between the two ends. The studies led the shift from a "traits perspective" to a "behavioral perspective" on leadership.

The Ohio State University Studies (1957)

By 1957 the Ohio State University researchers developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) a short version of which, LBDQ-XII, was published by Stogdill in 1963. The LBDQ-XII was widely used in many studies of leadership styles for collecting data from military, educational and industrial settings. The results of their studies show that leaders' behaviors are clustered around two types:

Initiating Structure Behavior and *Consideration Structure Behavior* (see Figure 2.1).

- *Initiating Structure Behavior:* focuses on getting the job done, which is clearly task oriented. Organizing work, giving structure and scheduling the work are among the activities of this type of behavior.

- *Consideration Structure Behavior:* focuses on meeting people's needs and developing relationships, building camaraderie, trust and liking between leaders and followers.

Figure 2.2: The Ohio State University Leadership Styles
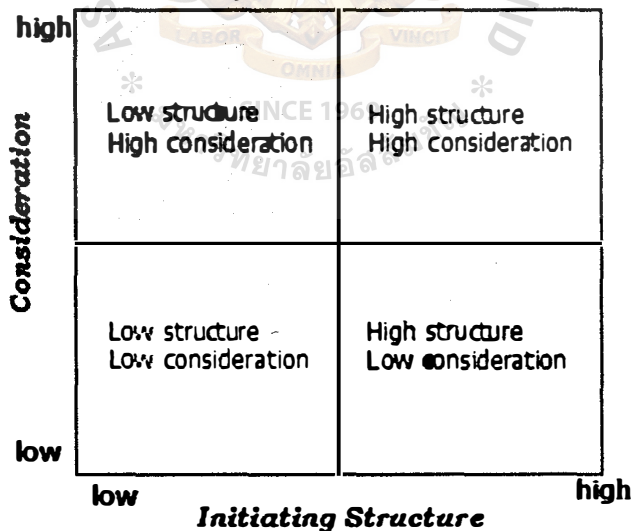
(Source: www.bealeader.net on March 2, 2008).

Ohio State researchers view these behaviors as independent and two dimensional approach (see Figure 2.2). Those two styles were not seen as opposites, like the autocratic or democratic styles in the University of Iowa studies.

The University of Michigan Studies

The researchers at Michigan placed special attention to the impact of leader's behaviors on performances of small groups (Northouse, 2004). Just like their Ohio State counterparts, the researchers at Michigan identified two types of behavior: *employee orientation* and *production orientation.*

- *Employee Centered Behavior:* like the consideration structure behavior of the Ohio Studies, focuses on people or relationships.

- *Production Centered Behavior:* like the Initiating structure behavior of the Ohio studies, focuses on the task.

Figure 2.3: The University of Michigan Leadership Styles

Job Centered ------------------|------------------ **Employee Centered**

(Source: www.bealeader.net on March 2, 2008).

Although the leadership styles identified by the Ohio and Michigan studies are similar, there is a difference between them. Unlike the Ohio Studies, the Michigan researchers see the *employee* and *production* centered behaviors as opposites of the same continuum (see Figure 2.3). Thus, leaders will not be able to have an employee centered behavior and production centered behavior at the same time. As more studies were completed, eventually the researchers reconceptualized their approach as two independent behaviors, just like Ohio State did before.

The Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton from the University of Texas, developed the Managerial Grid. It was first published in 1964, since then it has been updated in 1975, 1985, and 1991 when it became the Leadership Grid. The Leadership Grid is not only a summary of the previous leadership styles studies such as the Ohio and Michigan studies, but it is also a comprehensive leadership style model. It is based on the same dimensions of the previous study findings which were named as "concern for production" and "concern for people".

The both "concerns" are measured on a scale from 1 to 9. The grid can represent 81 different combinations of leadership styles. However, the Leadership Grid identifies five different major styles (see Figure 2.4). Leaders with each of the five major styles are described as follow:

- *Impoverished Leader (1,1):* has low concern for production and for people, and does just what it takes to stay in position.

- *Authority Compliance Leader (9,1):* has high concern for production and low concern for people, only looks for getting the job done, and followers are treated like tools or machines.

- *Country Club Leader (1,9):* has high concern for people and low concern for production, makes every possible effort to keep a good working environment, and a friendly atmosphere, with little o no concern for production.

- *Middle of the Road Leader (5,5):* has a "balanced" concern for people and production, and tries to keep a good team morale and a good performance.

- *Team Leader (9,9):*has high concern for people and high concern for production, and tries to keep a high team morale along with an excellent performance.

Figure 2.4: The Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid
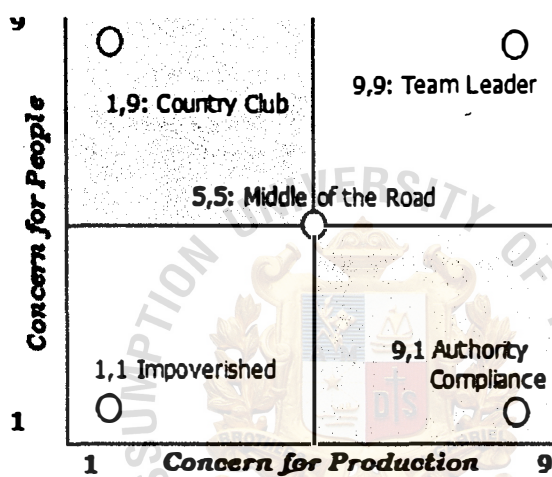
(Source: www.bealeader.net on March 2, 2008).

Along these styles, Blake and Mouton also identified two other styles:

- *Paternalism / Maternalism:* A leader with this style uses the 1,9 and 9,1 styles but does not integrate them, who is the "benevolent dictator" and behaves gratuitously to get the job done only.

- *Oportunism:* A leader with this style uses any of the five basic styles for the purpose of personal advancement.

To finish, Blake and Mouton sustain that a person typically has two styles of leadership. S/he has one dominant style that is used commonly and a backup style that is used when the dominant is not working or s/he is under pressure and the main style has not worked.

Ergene's Study (1990)

Ergene (1990) examined the relationship between public and private high school principals' leadership styles and their Type A or Type B Behavior Pattern. A total of 117 public high school administrators, 117 teachers, 39 private high school administrators and 39 teachers participated in the study. In order to determine the leadership styles, the LBDQ was administered to the teachers. The collected data was classified according to the mean scores of the administrators on initiating structure and consideration dimensions. Two way-ANOVA and t-Test were used to analyze the day.

The results show no significant difference between the percentage distributions of public and private high school administrators' leadership

styles. However, the private high school administrators scored significantly higher in initiating structure dimension than the public high school administrators did, but no significant difference was found between the mean consideration dimension scores of private and public high school administrators.

<u>Brican's Study (1993)</u>

Brican (1993) did a research focusing on investigating the leadership styles of Turkish educational and industrial administrators. A total of 232 public high school teachers (who have been working with the same administrators for at least one year) were given the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) in order to determine their school administrators' leadership styles. The data was classified according to the mean scores of administrators on initiating structure and consideration dimensions. The possible differences between the two dimensions of the LBDQ scores of the educational and industrial administrators were also investigated by employing separate t-tests.

The results show no significant differences between the Initiating Structure scores of the educational and industrial administrators. However, the results show some significant differences between the consideration dimension scores of the two groups, which indicate that educational administrators emphasize consideration more than industrial administrators do. Finally, the study found no significant differences between the mean total scores of the two groups in terms of the effectiveness criteria.

Erku's Study (1997)

Erku (1997) investigated the leadership behaviors of the primary school principals and the differences between Level I and Level II primary school teachers' perceptions of their principals' styles. The data was collected by using the LBDQ at 17 primary schools in Ankara. More specifically, the research sample includes 17 primary school principals and 269 teacher of which 129 were Level I and 160 were Level II participated in the study.

The results show that nine primary school principals (out of 17) perceived themselves as belonging to initiating structure behavior and others (8) perceived themselves as belong to the consideration behavior. All Level I teachers have agreed with the perceptions of those nine principals who regard themselves as representing initiating structure behavior. Only Level I female teachers have agreed with the perceptions of those eight principals who regard themselves as representatives of consideration behavior. However, Level I male teachers and Level II teachers haven't agreed with the perceptions of the principals who see themselves as representatives of consideration behavior.

ÇaFan's Study (1998)

ÇaFan' study (1998) focused on determining the perceptions and expectations of primary school teachers towards the leadership and supervision skills of their principals. The study was conducted at 17 primary schools which differ in terms of socio-economic level. The researcher used the cluster sampling technique so as to form the sample out

of the population. The sample includes 124 male and 212 female Level I teachers, 162 male and 245 female Level II teachers. The LBDQ and the Administrators Supervisory Assessment Questionnaire were used in the study. The alpha level for overall questionnaire was between 0.9128 and 0.9858 which render the questionnaire a highly reliable measure.

The results show that the expectation levels of the primary school teachers related to their principals' supervisory skills are higher than their perception levels. The expectation levels of primary school teachers related to their principals' leadership skills have been found higher than their perception levels. Furthermore, the perception levels of primary school teachers related to their principals' leadership skills are higher than their perceptions towards supervisory skills. Moreover, the expectation levels of primary school teachers related to their principals' supervisory skills are higher than their expectations towards leadership skills.

Akgün's Study (2001)

Akgün's study (2001) investigated the instructional leadership behaviors of primary school principals. It examined both perceptions of teachers and principals. Data were collected through interviews held with 10 primary school principals and 10 primary school teachers. The snowball and criterion sampling techniques and content analysis methods were used.

The result shows that the primary school principals generally fulfill their duties in relation to their instructional leadership behaviors. Differences were found between the primary school principals and primary school teachers' perceptions in the following areas: feeling his existence, providing opportunities and means for teachers to develop themselves professionally, and developing and enforcing academic standards.

Anuwatprakit's Study (2003)

Anuwatprakit's study (2003) investigated the teachers' leadership styles at seven primary schools administered by the Daughters of Mary

Help of Christians in Thailand. The population was 250 (composed of 24 administrators and 226 teachers), from which 150 samples were computed by using multi-stage random sampling based on the sampling scale of Krejcie and Morgan (1970;608). In detail, purposive sampling was used by selecting two administrators from each school: the principal and a manager. Stratified random sampling was used---each level teacher represent the entire group of teachers from grade 1 to 6, and each level was divided into two groups: classroom advisory teachers and extracurricular teachers.

The results show that a predominant dynamic leadership style was practiced by the teachers at primary schools administrated by Daughters of Mary Help of Christians. No significant differences were found, at an 0.05 level of significance, among leadership styles relative to age, experience, duty and school location. Additionally, the study identified teachers' problems relative to task and student concerns. For instance, in terms of problems related to task concern, some teachers were unable to use new technology; and regarding problems related to student concern, some students were less expressive and impolite in speaking. Therefore, the study suggests that there should an intensive program pertaining to

teaching aids, close coordinated efforts directed at each individual student's learning, providing students with proper assistance, and ask for collaboration on the part of students' parents.

Summary

Teachers' leadership styles affect the quality of students both positively and negatively. The early studies looking for leader behaviors, date from 1930s with the Iowa State Universtity studies. After that, in Ohio State, and Michigan studies the approach is brought up again. Later on, Blake and Mouton sum up the previous works and conceived the Managerial Grid. From the point of view of the leadership style approach, teachers exhibit two types of behaviors: task oriented and student oriented.

Many educational leadership studies (mentioned above) suggested that an affective leadership style should maximize concern both on task and on student. An affective teacher understands the needs of students, who is an expert in his/her work, provides education that responds to the different teaching and learning needs of the students, and promotes a balanced and

holistic development of students' personalities. Thus, leadership styles are considered nowadays vital for success in one's career although there might many other factors. The studies of educational leadership styles help teachers to understand that they need to assess their own behaviors to learn what they can change to improve their leadership styles. The studies also indicate that an effective teacher leadership style should be a process through which all students are able to reach their greatest potential with happiness and achieve academic excellence. In other words, the dynamic leadership style is advocated in contemporary education. Therefore, this study aims to assess English teachers' leadership styles and challenges in teaching in order to contribute suggestions to English language education in Tibet.

Leadership Styles and Culture

According to Williams (1997), Beach (2000), Owen (2001), and Earley & Weindling (2004), a successful school often has affective teachers who are good at applying appropriate leadership styles based on the specific culture. As Leithwood and Riehl (2003) state, "Scratch the surface

of an excellent school and you are likely to find excellent [teachers]" who are highly aware of their school culture and leadership. Also, Lawlor and Sills (1999) state, that an affective leader has high levels of culture awareness and leadership skills. Thus, in order to be effective, teachers have to know: what culture is in the school, and what leadership is appropriate within the specific culture.

Culture

There is no standard definition of culture. Historically the concept of culture in Chinese (*wenhua*) and Tibetan (*rig-gnas*) is linked to literacy and knowledge. The Chinese term *wen*, translated as 'literature, writing, inscription,' is a central part of the idea of culture. To be "cultured" is to possess 'literateness' and to be transformed by such knowledge of *wen* (Postiglione, 1999: 60; and *Xinhua Zidian*, 1997: 488). The Tibetan term *rig-gnas*, translated as 'knowledge, culture' (*Dag-yig-gsar-bsgrigs*, 2003: 744). Therefore, to many Tibetans and Han Chinese the only way to civilize or acculturate themselves is to have them become more literate in skills or more knowledgeable.

According to western authors, culture has been used synonymously with a variety of concepts such as 'climate', 'ethos', and 'saga' (Deal, 1993). It represents a "historically transmitted pattern of meaning" that are expressed (explicitly) through symbols and (implicitly) in our beliefs (Geertz, 1973). Also, culture includes "deep patterns of values, beliefs, and traditions formed over the course of history" (Stolp, 2006:1). Schein (1992) and Marks (2002) note that culture is a body of solutions to problems that have worked consistently and are taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think about, and feel in relation to those problems. Therefore, culture is socially constructed and it is difficult to change.

When culture came to education from the corporate workplace with the nation, it provides direction for a more efficient and stable learning environment. School culture lies in "the commonly held beliefs of school" members (Heckman, 1993), which focuses on the core values necessary to teach and influence young minds (Stolp, 1994). In short, school culture is the historically transmitted patters of meaning (norms, values, beliefs, ceremonies, rituals, traditions, and myths) understood (maybe in varying degrees) by members of the school. It shapes what we think and how we act (Stolp& Smith, 1994).

Dimensions of Culture

Some people see culture is something an organization has and some see it is something the organization is, thus, there are many ways of categorizing the culture (Smircich, 1983). According to Hofstede (1997), there are several layers of culture. For instance, national level culture, regional and/or linguistic and/or ethnic and/or religious affiliation level culture, gender level culture, generational level, social class level culture, and organizational level culture. Each of them is different in certain perspectives. The national level culture is based on one's country or countries for people who migrated during their lifetime, which is associated with cultural differences of cross-national. The regional and/or linguistic and/or ethnic and/or religious affiliation level culture is based the different regions and/or ethnic and/or religious and/or language groups. The gender level culture is based on whether a person was born as a girl or as a boy, which is associated with the culture difference of cross-gender. The generation level culture separates grandparents from parents from children, which is associated with the culture difference of cross-generation. The social class level associated with educational opportunities and with person's occupation or profession. The organizational level culture (including schools culture) is based on the way employees have been socialized by their work organization, which is

associated with cultural difference of cross-organizational (Hofstede, 1997).

Also, each layer of culture can be categorized into several dimensions.

A. Dimensions of National Level Culture

According to Hofstede (1997 & 2005), comparing the cultural difference in many countries, there are five dimensions such as: power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long vs. short term orientation. By *power distance*, Hofstede means that the degree to which the *less powerful* members of society expect there to be differences in the levels of power. A society with high power distance suggests that there is an expectation that some individuals wield larger amounts of power than others. A society with low power distance views that all people should have equal rights. *Individualism* is contrasted with collectivism. It refers to the extent to which people are expected to stand up for themselves, or alternatively act predominantly as a member of the group or organization. *Masculinity vs. femininity* refers to the values placed on traditionally male or female values that cause the differences among gender roles in the society. Masculine cultures value competitiveness, assertiveness, ambition, and the accumulation of wealth and material possessions, whereas feminine cultures place more value on relationships and quality of life. Additionally,

in masculinity culture, people prefer to think 'live for work', 'big and fast are beautiful' and 'solve problems by a good fight'. *Uncertainty avoidance* refers the extent to which a society attempts to cope with anxiety by minimizing uncertainty. People feel that 'What is different is dangerous.' In high uncertainty avoidance culture, people prefer rules and structured circumstances, and employees tend to remain longer with their present employer. *Long vs. short term orientation* descries a society's "time horizon," or the importance attached to the future versus the past and present. In long term oriented societies, thrift and perseverance are valued more. In short term oriented societies, respect for tradition and reciprocation of gifts and favors are valued more.

B. Dimensions of Organizational Level Culture

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), organizational culture is based on the way employees have been socialized by their work organization. It is associated with cultural difference of cross-organizational, and it can be categorized into four profiles: *tough-person, work hard/play hard, bet your company,* and *process, according*. In *tough-person* culture, people prefer high risks and fast feedback in works. They have a tough attitude and they are individualistic. They can tolerate all-or-nothing risks (low uncertainty avoidance), get

things done in short order, and do not concern much about consequences. As a result, they do not learn from past mistakes; everything tends to be short-term in orientation; and the virtues of cooperation are ignored because of the fastness and individualism. In work *hard/play hard* culture, people prefer low risks and fast feedback in works. They are often friendly, and use team approaches to problem solving. Thus, they can produce a high volume of work quickly, they look for quick-fix solutions, they have a short-term time perspective, and they are more committed to action than to problem solving. In *bet your company* culture, people prefer high risk taking and slow feedback in works, where people can endure long term ambiguity (very low uncertainty avoidance). People are technically competent, double-check decisions, and they have a strong respect for authority. Thus, they can generate high-quality inventions and major scientific break-through, and they are extremely slow in getting things done. In *process* culture, people prefer low risk taking and slow feedback in work. They are very cautious and protective of their own flank. They are orderly and punctual. They are good at attending to detail and follow established procedures. However, there is lots of red tape that are for secure in their work, thus, initiative is down-played and they face long house and boring work.

Furthermore, according to Hofstede (1997), comparing the cultural differences in many organizations in one country, there are six dimensions of organizational culture. The six dimensions are: *process vs. results oriented, employee vs. job oriented, open vs. closed system, loose vs. tight control, normative vs. pragmatic,* and *parochial vs. professional*, which differed only slightly with respect to the cultural-values of other members but they varied considerably in practices of members in different organizations.

In *process* oriented culture, people concern with means, avoid risks and make only a limited effort in their jobs, and each day is pretty much the same; while, in *results* oriented culture, people concern with goals, feel comfortable in unfamiliar situations and put in a maximal effort, and each day is felt to bring new challenges. In *employee* oriented culture, people concern relationships or people to a concern for completing the job, feel their personal problems are taken account by the organization, and prefer group decision making; while, in *job* oriented culture, people feel a strong pressure to complete the job, think organizations are only interested in the works employees do and not interested in their personal things such as

family welfare, and prefer individual decision making, which correspond
to Black and Mouton's Managerial Grid. In *parochial* system or culture,
people derive their identity largely from the organization to units, feel
organization's norms cover their behaviors at home and on the job, feel that
organization take their social and family background into account as much
as their job competence when they were hired, do not look far into the
future because they assume the organization will do it for them, and have
less formal education; while, in *professional* culture, people identify with
their type of job in the units, consider their private lives as their own
business, feel the organizations hire on the basis of job competence only,
and do think far ahead. In *open* culture, people are open to new comers
who need only a few days to feel at home, while in *closed* culture, people
are closed and secretive, accept only very special people who can fit into
the organization where people need years to feel at home. In *loose* control
culture, people feel no one thinks of cost, keep meeting time approximately,
and frequently jokes about the organization and jobs; while in *tight* control
culture, people think their work environment as cost-conscious, keep
meeting time punctually, and rarely joke about the organization and jobs.

In *normative* culture, people perceive their task towards the outside worlds as the implementation of inviolable rules, follow procedures, and emphasize ethics and honesty, while in *pragmatic* culture, people are marked driven, emphasis on meeting the customer's needs, care results more than procedures, and pragmatic rather than a dogmatic.

Relationship between Culture and Leadership

Leadership styles and culture in organizations are correlated. A review of the professional literature indicates that culture is the key factor of success or failure of any organizations and a positive organization culture is related to the accomplishment of the organization. Leadership styles involve the skill to begin, continue and/or change the organizational culture that exists in each school building. Productive and effective leaders must have a clear understanding of the existing organization culture to determine the leadership style necessary for a positive organization culture to develop and be maintained. Without expectation, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an essential quality of the excellent organizations (Deal & Peterson, 1999; Firestone & Louis, 1999; and Sergiovanni, 2000).

According to Peter and Waterman (1982), the stronger the culture is and the less need was there for policy manuals and rules in organizations. People way down the line know what they are supposed to do in most situations because the handful of guiding values is crystal clear in the strong culture organization. For instance, nothing in Chinese history could be called a constitution, but culture force was able to hold China together and everyone from way down the child to leader of family practice the culture of *Wulun* respect elders and care for younger ones in the circle of family, village, and society or nation, in large (Fernandez, 2004: 24).

Moreover, according to Marks (2002:112), one difference between schools is the character of their organizational "culture" that can be understood by shared culture norms and values of members of the community. Marks's study mainly investigated the relationship between the leadership styles and school cultural norms. He used Bass and Avolio's (1996) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to measure the leadership styles, and school culture norms was measured by using Sagor's (1996) School Culture Survey. The findings show that middle school principals and their teachers perceived that the following 14 school cultural norms

were generally present in their positive school cultures (Marks, 2002:33):

1. Collegiality (professional collaboration on educational issues);
2. Experimentation (interest in exploring new, not yet proven techniques);
3. High Expectations (a pervasive push for high performance for students and teachers);
4. Trust & Confidence (a pervasive feeling that people will do what's right);
5. Tangible Support (financial and material assistance that supports teaching or learning);
6. Reaching Out to the Knowledge Base (using research, reading professional journals, attending workshops, etc.);
7. Appreciation & Recognition (acknowledgement of quality student or faculty work and effort);
8. Caring, Celebration Humor;
9. Appreciation of Leadership (specifically leadership provided by teachers, principals, and other staff);
10. Clarity of Goals;
11. Protection of What's Important;
12. Involvement of Stakeholders in Decision Making (those who will be affected by decisions are involved in making them);
13. Traditions (rituals and events that celebrate and support core school values);
14. Honest, Open Communication.

Furthermore, Marks' study found out that transformational leadership style, as perceived by the teachers in regards to their principals, has a positive correlation with the school culture norm number 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, and 14 at the .05 level of significance. Thus, a relationship exists between a

positive school culture and a principal that exhibits behaviors more associated with transformational leadership styles than with transformational leadership style behaviors.

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to address issues related to English teachers' leadership styles and challenges in teaching. This chapter represents the research design and methodology of this study. It consists of the research design, population, data collection, samples, research instrument, validity, reliability, and methods of data analysis. The parameters of this investigation include the following:

Research Design

This study was designed as a nonexperimental descriptive research that is appropriate when the independent variable is not manipulated and the subjects did not receive a treatment. It used a combination of both qualitative and quantitative questionnaires to address the following research questions:

(1) What are the following characteristics of the English teachers in Tibet?

- Demographics: personal background (age, gender, & nationality), teaching experience (year & duty), educational background (degree, major, & location), and organization background (name, location, level, & size).

- Levels of Practice and Leadership Styles in Teaching

(2) Is there a significant relationship between the teachers' demographic variables and their leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching?

(3) What are the challenges of the English teachers in their teaching?

(4) What are the implications and recommendations for addressing the issues related to the English teachers' leadership styles and challenges in Tibet?

Population and Data Collection

This study aimed to gather data from English teaches at each of the following three level schools of Tibetans in all over Tibetan areas of People's Republic of China (see Map 3.1):

- primary level schools--composed of grade 1 to 6,

- secondary level schools--consisted of grade 7 to 12,

- and universities--including colleges.

Map 3.1: Research Area--Tibet of China

(Source: http://www.ciolek.com/ WWWVLPages/TibPages/Map/tibet-map3.gif.).
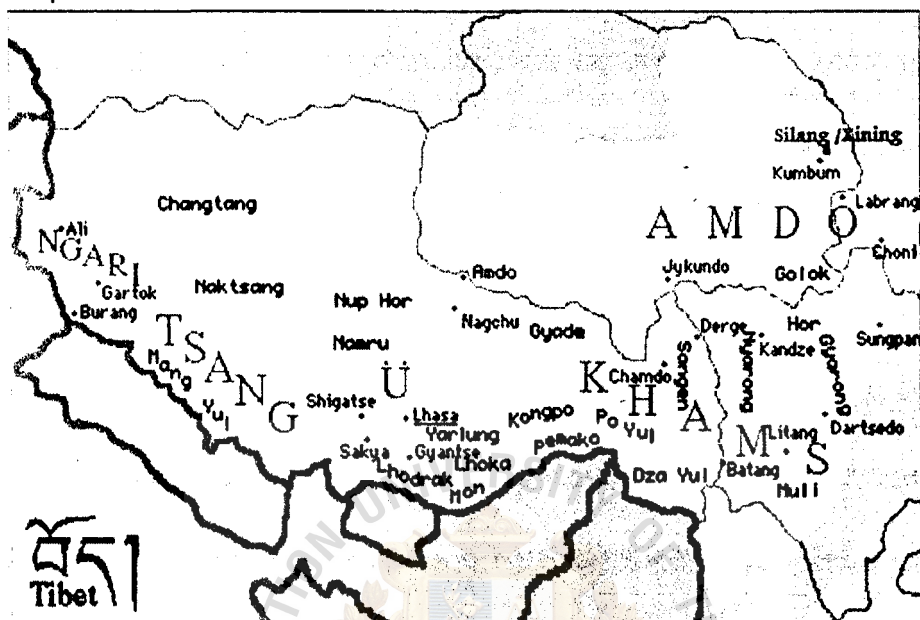
In two months of given time (from June 1st to August 1st of 2008), the researcher used snowball rolling method. He was able to contact with 190 English teachers teaching at all three levels of schools in all over Tibet through emails and phone calls. Among the 190 English teachers, 61 of them were teaching at primary level schools, another 76 teachers were teaching at secondary levels schools, and the rest of the 53 teachers were teaching at colleges and universities.

Samples

The designed questionnaires (see the following section 3.3 and Appendix I) were used for gathering the data. For two months, the researcher repeatedly requested the English teachers to return the questionnaires with answers though emails and phone calls. Until the last day of data collection, August 1st, 2008, eighty three English teachers responded to the questionnaires. It was mainly due to the political obstacles and limited means of communication that has been exacerbated after the March 2008 Tibetan uprisings in Tibetan area of China. Until now Tibetan areas are still notoriously difficult to access owing to their generally high elevation, limited means of communication and transportation, and political concerns. Therefore, the sample size of this study was eighty three English teachers in Tibet. The detailed demographics of the samples were presented in the following chapter four.

Research Instrument

To collect empirical data, the researcher mainly asked two pages of questions in the questionnaire (see Appendix I) to the English teachers. The

instrument items were based on the literature review, related research, personal experiences, and real situation of the schools in Tibet. The items were divided into three sections:

I. *Demographics:* questions regarding the respondent's personal background (age, gender, and nationality), teaching experience (year and duty), educational background (degree, major, and location), and organization background (name, location, level, and size) that might affect the respondent's leadership style and level of practice in teaching (see Appendix I: Part I).

II. *Teachers' Leadership Styles:* questions concern with the teachers' leadership styles in teaching, which contains 20 items with a rating scale of 1 (never practice) to 5 (always practice) in order to determine the respondents' levels of practice and to identify their teaching leadership styles (see Appendix I: Part II). In detail, the rating scale is follow:

1. means not at all or never practices
2. means once in a while or rarely practices
3. means sometimes or occasionally practices
4. means fairly often
5. means frequently or always practices

This second part of questionnaire is composed of five things: direction, an example table, an explanation of the example table, an actual questionnaire table, and an explanation table of inapplicable items.

A. The direction, the example table, and the explanation of example table clarify respondents how they should answer each item in the actual questionnaire table and what each scale means.

B. The actual questionnaire table contains 20 items that were divided into two subsets: task concern and student concern. Each subset contained 10 questions. The average of each subset was divided into six groups according to the analysis of Best & Kahn (2003) and Northouse (2004) as follow:

10-24 meant very low on task or student concern

25-29 meant low on task or student concern

30-34 meant moderate low on task or student concern

35-39 meant moderate high on task or student concern

40-44 meant high on task or student concern

45-50 meant very high on task or student concern

Each subset was adjusted based the following criteria shown in

Table 3.1 in order to identify the respondents' leadership styles.

Table 3.1: Criteria for Rating Scales for Each Leadership Styles under Conditions for Each Subset.

Leadership Styles	Task Concern	Student Concern
	Rating Scales	*Rating Scales*
Structural Leadership Style	31-50	10-24
	37-50	10-30
Considerate Leadership Style	10-24	31-50
	10-30	37-50
Passive Leadership Style	10-30	10-24
	10-24	10-30
Dynamic Leadership Style	31-50	37-50
	37-50	31-50
Accommodating Leadership Style	24-36	24-36

In addition, each respondent's total score of task concern was

put on the x-axis and his/her total score of student concern was

placed on the y-axis (see Figure 3.1). His/her leadership style

was determined by the meeting point of the two straight lines

from the two scores placed on x-axis and on y-axis.

Figure 3.1: Criteria for Rating Each Leadership Style
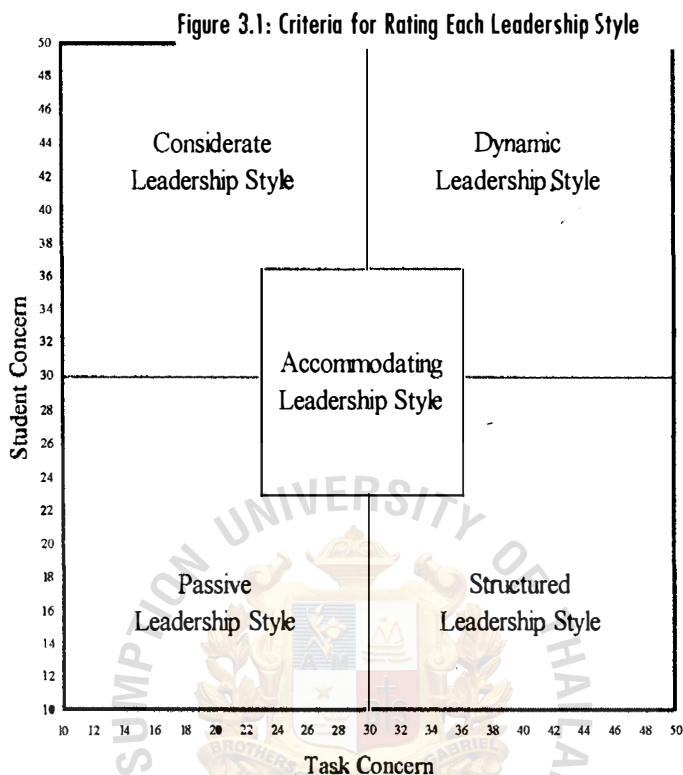
C. The explanation table is for explaining the items that the respondents left blank with any reasons.

III. *Teachers' Challenges in Teaching:* contains open-ended questions regarding challenges that have been faced by the English teachers and their approaches and alternative solutions toward the challenges (see Appendix I: Part III).

Validity and Reliability

In order to have a high validity and reliability, the instrument items were adapted from researches that have been done successfully such as Marks (2002), Northouse (2004), and Kitja (2005). They were revised based on the literature review, theoretical framework, and conceptual framework of this research. Also, all instrument items were under gone several revisions.

First, instrument items were reviewed by local expert, Dr. Kevin Stuart, who has over 20 years of teaching and managing experiences in Tibetan areas, from the Tibetan Department, Qinghai Normal University in PR China. The researcher revised instrument items based on the expert's comments. After that, the revised research questionnaire was checked by research experts, Dr. Pornchulee Achava-Amrung and Dr. Felicito P. Salvacion Jr., from the Graduate School of Education, Assumption University in Thailand; and the researcher edited the research questionnaire based on their comments. Furthermore, the revised research questionnaire was trailed on nine English teachers of Tibetans, and the researcher revised the research questionnaire based on feedbacks from the pre-test.

Furthermore, the revised research questionnaire was edited based on feedbacks from outside experts, Dr. Malee Dhamasiri and Dr. Payungsak Jantasurin, and others during proposal defense of this research. Moreover, eighty-eight percent of the respondents were evaluated by more than one person aside from him/herself, and the average scores were computed and used for identifying their leadership styles in teaching. In addition, research data and findings were reviewed by an English teacher, who has several educational credentials in English language teaching and has over 10 years of teaching and managing experiences in Tibetan areas. Base on his suggestions and comments, the researcher further analyzed the data and revised the findings.

Methods of Data Analysis

After the data were gathered, the researcher summarized and categorized the data based on the research questionnaires, objectives, and conceptual framework. Exile and SPSS software (V. 14) were used in the process of analyzing the date. Data related to leadership were scored and interpreted according to the scoring rubric (see 3.3 Research Instrument).

All collected data were statistically analyzed by using the following formulas:

■ The content analysis were used to determine the patterns and to compute the frequency and percentage of each finding in order to answer the research question number one, three and four;

■ The Person correlation was used to determine the correlation among the respondents' demographic variables, leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching in order to answer the research question number two.

Finally, all the findings were analyzed and summarized in order to answer the research question four.

CHAPTER IV: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter, the gathered data was thoroughly analyzed and the findings were presented based on research objectives as follows:

- Demographics of the Teachers

- Leadership Styles of the Teachers in Teaching

  - Levels of the Teachers' Practice in Teaching

  - Styles of the Teachers' Leadership in Teaching

- Relationship between the Demographic Variables and Leadership Styles

  - Demographic Differences between Two Extreme Groups of Teachers

  - Relationships: Demographic Variables vs. Leadership Variables

- Challenges of Teachers in Teaching

Demographics of the Teachers

Based on the research objectives, the demographics of respondents were categorized into four sets of variables such as follow:

1) Personal Background,

2) Teaching Experience,

3) Educational Background,

4) and Organization Background.

Each of the four sets of variables included two to eight variables as shown

in the following Table 4.1 (on page 78 and 79).

Table 4.1: Percentages of Teachers' Demographic Variables

Variables					Total	
					Frequency	Percentage
Personal Background	Age	Below 30			51	61.4
		30-40			20	24.1
		Above 40			12	14.5
	Gender	Male			53	63.9
		Female			30	36.1
	Nationality	Tibetan	60	72.3	Local	70	84.3
		Han Chinese	10	12.0			
		American	5	6.0	Foreign	13	15.7
		Australian	7	8.4			
		English	1	1.2			
Teaching Experience	Year	under 5 years			56	67.5
		5-10 years			8	9.6
		over 10 years			19	22.9
	Duty	Instruction			63	75.9
		Management			0	0.0
		Both			20	24.1
Educational Background	Degree	Doctor			2	2.4
		Master			16	19.3
		Bachelor			22	26.5
		Dazhuan (two-year college degree)			40	48.2

		Others (*no degree*)		3		3.6	
	Major	Teaching English (ESL/EFL)		6		7.2	
		English, Tibetan & Other Languages		20		24.1	
		Applied Linguistics		1		1.2	
		Economics& Education		1		1.2	
		Anthropology & Sociology		10		12.0	
		Art(Photography)		1		1.2	
		Others		41		49.4	
		None		3		3.6	
	Location	China		52		62.7	
		Australia		7		8.4	
		America		6		7.2	
		Philippines		10		12.0	
		New Zealand		1		1.2	
		South Africa		1		1.2	
		Others		6		7.2	
Organization Background	Name	XQNU	11	13.3	Qinghai	74	89.2
		XQNI	2	2.4			
		HanQQNU	22	26.5			
		HanGNMS	7	8.4			
		HanTNMS	12	14.5			
		HunTTS	2	2.4			
		Hun#2NMS	2	2.4			
		HunJMS	2	2.4			
		GZKNMS	12	14.5			
		YMS	2	2.4			
		LMS.	2	2.4	TAR	4	4.8
		RPS	2	2.4			
		GZKBHS	2	2.4	Sichuan	2	2.4
		DQXGLLT	1	1.2	Yunnan	1	1.2
		GNPS	2	2.4	Gonsu	2	2.4
	Location	City		13		15.7	
		County		61		73.5	
		Town		9		10.8	
	Level	University		21		28.9	

	Secondary	44	53.0
	Primary	7	8.4
	Others (*Both=University +* *Secondary*)	8	9.6
Organization Size (# of students)	Small (<200)	1	1.2
	Medium (200-500)	21	25.3
	Large (>500)	61	73.5
Classroom Size (# of students/class)	Small (<15)	0	0.0
	Medium (15-35)	8	9.6
	Large (>35)	75	90.4

Table 4.1 shows a total frequency and percentage of each of the
respondents' demographic variables. The following things about the
respondents' demographics were found (also see Appendix II):

A. Personal Background--including age, gender, and nationality.

● In terms of age, the mode percentage was below 30 years (61.4%)

and the lowest percentage was above 40 years (14.5%).

● Regarding gender, there were more males (63.9%) than females

(36.1%).

● In terms of nationality, the mode percentage was Tibetan (72.3%)

and the lowest percentage was English (1.2%). In addition, among

all the eighty-three respondents, 84.3% of them were local

teachers and the rest (15.7%) of them were foreign teachers.

B. Teaching Experience--including year and duty.

- Regarding years of teaching experience, the mode percentage was under 5 years (67.5%) and the lowest percentage was over 5 to 10 years (9.6).

- In terms of duty, the majority respondents (75.9%) were instructors and others (24.1%) were both instructors and managers at their schools.

C. Educational Background--including degree, major, and location.

- In terms of educational degree, the mode percentage *Dazhuan* two-year college degree (48.2%), and the lowest percentage was doctor (2.4%) and none degree (3.6%).

- Regarding major, the mode percentage was English-Tibetan& other languages (24.1%) and the lowest percentage were applied linguistics (1.2%) and economics& education (1.2%), and art (1.2%). In addition, among all the respondents, only 7.2% of them were major in English language teaching and all others (92.8%) were major in fields that are not related to English teaching.

- In terms of location, the mode percentage was China (62.7%), and the lowest percentage was New Zealand (1.2%) and South Africa (1.2%).

D. Organization Background--including name, location, level, & size.

- Regarding working organization name, the mode percentage was HanQQNU (26.5%) located in Qinghai, and the lowest percentage was DQXGLLT (1.2%) in Yunnan. In addition, 89.2% of the respondents were from Tibetan areas in Qinghai, 4.8% of the respondents were from TAR, and equally 2.4% of the respondents were from Tibetan areas in Yunnan and Gansu provinces.

- In terms of organization location, the mode percentage was county (73.5%) and the lowest percentage was town (10.8%).

- Regarding organization level, the mode percentage was secondary (53%), and the lowest percentage was primary (8.4%).

- In terms of organization size, the mode percentage was large (73.5%) and the lowest percentage was small (1.2%).

- Regarding classroom size, the mode percentage was large (90.4%), and the lowest percentage was medium (9.6%).

Leadership Styles of the Teachers in Teaching

Descriptive statistics were used in this study to determine English teachers' leadership styles and levels of practice. In detail, Exile and SPSS software were used to compute a total score and mean for each aspect of leadership styles and levels of the concern on task and students. The overall results are contained in the following tables and figures.

Levels of the Teachers' Practice in Teaching

The five types of leadership styles, defined in this study, were categorized based on teachers' levels of concern on task and students. Thus, before determining teachers' leadership styles, this section examined levels of the teachers' concern on task and students based on the following criteria:

10-24 meant very low on task or student concern

25-29 meant low on task or student concern

30-34 meant moderate low on task or student concern

35-39 meant moderate high on task or student concern

40-44 meant high on task or student concern

45-50 meant very high on task or student concern

Table 4.2: Percentage Relative to Levels of Concern on Task and Students

Concern	Level		Frequency	Percent (%)
Task	Very high	45-50	3	3.6
	High	40-44	12	14.5
	Moderate high	35-39	27	32.5
	Moderate low	30-34	20	24.1
	Low	25-29	11	13.3
	Very low	10-24	10	12.0
Student	Very high	45-50	3	3.6
	High	40-44	12	14.5
	Moderate high	35-39	32	38.6
	Moderate low	30-34	11	13.3
	Low	25-29	14	16.9
	Very low	10-24	11	13.3

From Table 4.2, it was observed that, regarding levels of teachers' task concern and student concern, the mode percentages were "moderate high" (32.5-38.6%) and the lowest percentages were 'very high' (3.6%). In other words, the majority of the teachers (32.5-38.6%) had moderate high levels of concern on both task and student. There were only a few teachers (3.6%) had very high levels of concern on both task and student among respondents. In addition, when the levels of teaching practice were analyzed separately between the local and foreign teachers, there were significant differences were found between the two group's levels of teaching practice. The results were shown in the following Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Percentage Relative to Levels of Concern on Task and Students

Concern	Level		Percentage within Task/Student Concern		Percentage within Nationality	
			Local Teachers	Foreign Teachers	Local Teachers	Foreign Teachers
Task	Very high	45-50	0.0	100.0	0.0	23.1
	High	40-44	83.3	16.7	14.3 (42.9)	15.4 (92.3)
	Moderate high	35-39	74.1	25.9	28.6	53.8
	Moderate low	30-34	100.0	0.0	28.6	0.0
	Low	25-29	90.9	9.1	14.3 (57.2)	7.7 (7.7)
	Very low	10-24	100.0	0.0	14.3	0.0
Student	Very high	45-50	0.0	100	0.0	23.1
	High	40-44	66.7	33.3	11.4 (51.3)	30.8 (84.7)
	Moderate high	35-39	87.5	12.5	40.0	30.8
	Moderate low	30-34	90.9	9.1	14.3	7.7
	Low	25-29	100	0.0	20.0 (48.6)	0.0 (15.4)
	Very low	10-24	90.9	9.1	14.3	7.7

Table 4.3 shows the differences between the local and foreign teachers in terms of their levels of practice in percentages. It was observed that there were no local teachers scored on very high levels of teaching practice (0.0% on both very high levels of task and student concerns). In other words, the respondents who scored very high on levels of teaching practice were all foreign teachers (100% on both very high levels of task and student concerns). Furthermore, the respondents who scored very low on

levels of practice were almost all local teachers (100.0% on task concern and 90.9% on student concern). In addition, more than half (57.2%) of the local teachers scored in the lower range of task concern such as: "moderate low" (28.6%), "low" (14.3%) and "very low" (14.3%). Also, almost half (48.6%) of the local teachers scored in the lower range of student concern such as "moderate low" (14.3%), "low" (20.0%) and "very low" (14.3%). Regarding to the foreign teachers, majority of them (84.7-92.3%) scored in the higher ranges of both task and student concerns such as "very high" (23.1% on both task and student concerns), "high" (15.4% on task concern and 30.8% student concern), and "moderate high" (53.8% on task concern and 30.8% student concern). Therefore, as a conclusion, the foreign teachers had higher levels of teaching practice (on both task and students) than the local teachers.

Styles of the Teachers' Leadership in Teaching

Teachers' leadership styles were defined based on their total scores of task concern and student concern. In this study, the following criteria were used in identifying teachers' leadership styles:

Leadership Styles	Task Concern Rating Scales	Student Concern Rating Scales
Structural Leadership Style	31-50	10-24
	37-50	10-30
Considerate Leadership Style	10-24	31-50
	10-30	-37-50
Passive Leadership Style	10-30	10-24
	10-24	10-30
Dynamic Leadership Style	31-50	37-50
	37-50	31-50
Accommodating Leadership Style	24-36	24-36

Based on the criteria, there were only three types of leadership styles were

reported being practiced by the teachers (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Teachers' Leadership Styles in Teaching at Schools in Tibet
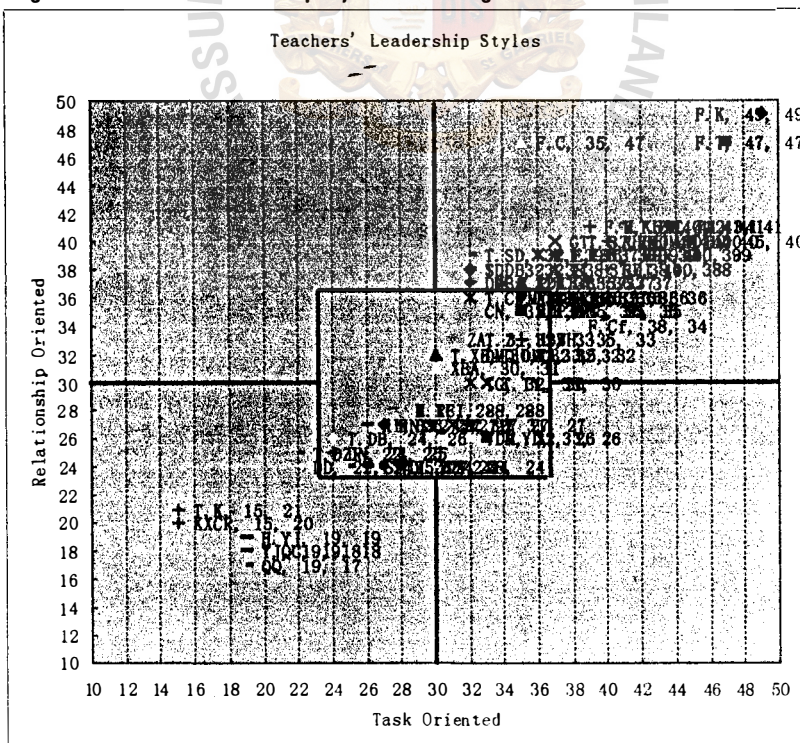
Figure 4.1 shows a scattergram of the teachers' leadership styles. From the figure, it was observed that dynamic and accommodating leadership styles were commonly practiced, passive leadership style was rarely practiced, and the other following two leadership styles were not reported being practiced by the teachers:

- Considerate Leadership Style,

- and Structured Leadership Style.

Additionally, similar results were shown by the following Table 4.4. Aong all the respondents, 51.8% of them practiced dynamic leadership style, 31.3% of them practiced accommodating leadership styles, and rest of them (16.9%) practiced accommodating leadership style. None of the other leadership styles were practiced by any of the respondents (English teachers in Tibet).

Table 4.4: Percentage Relative to Leadership Styles

Leadership Style	Percentage
Passive Leadership Style	16.9
Accommodating Leadership Style	31.3
Dynamic Leadership Style	51.8
Considerate Leadership Style	0
Structured Leadership Style	0
Total	100

Relationship between the Demographic Variables and Leadership Styles

The above findings show that five levels and three styles of leadership were practiced by the English teachers in Tibet. In order to determine if there is any significant relationship between the respondents' demographic variable and leadership styles, Exile and SPSS were used in this study. First of all, a comparison was done between teachers scored highest on levels of practice and teachers scored lowest on the levels of practice in this study. Then Person correlation was used to determine the relationship between the two groups of variables (demographic variables vs. leadership styles and levels).

Differences between the Two Extreme Groups of Teachers

In this section, the two following extreme groups of teachers were compared to identify any differences exit between them in terms of their demographic variables in order to determine the correlations between demographic variables and leadership styles. The two extreme groups of teachers are defined as follow:

A. H group teachers: teachers who scored highest on the both task and student concerns,

B. L group teachers: teachers who scored lowest on the both task and student concerns.

The results of comparisons are shown in the following Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Comparison of H Group Teaches and L Group Teachers in Terms of Demographic Variables

Variables			Percentage of Teachers Scored		Percentage of Teachers Scored	
			Highest (very high range)	Lowest (very low range)	Highest (very high range)	Lowest (very low range)
			On Task Concern		On Student Concern	
Personal Background	Age	Below 30		80.0%		72.7%
		30-40	66.7%		33.3%	9.1%
		Above 40	33.3%	20%	66.7%	18.2%
	Gender	Male	~100	80%	66.7%	63.6%
		Female		20%	33.3%	36.4%
	Nationality	Tibetan		80.0%		72.7%
		Han Chinese		20.0%		18.2%
		American	66.7%		33.3%	9.1%
		Australian	33.3%		33.3%	
		English			33.3%	
		Local		100.0%		90.9%
		Foreign	100.0%		100.0%	9.1%
Teaching Experience	Year	Under 5 yrs		60.0%		63.6%
		5-10 yrs	33.3%		33.3%	
		Over 10 yrs	66.7%	40.0%	66.7%	36.4%
	Duty	Instruction	33.3%	80.0%	33.3%	81.8%
		Management				
		Both (I+M)	66.7%	20.0%	66.7%	18.2%
Educational Background	Degree	Doctor	66.7%		66.7%	
		Master	33.3%		33.3%	

		Bachelor				
		Dazhuan		80.0%		72.7%
		None		20.0%		27.3%
	Major	TE	33.3%		33.3%	
		ET&OL		40.0%		
		AL				
		E&E.				
		A&S.	33.3%		33.3%	
		Art.				
		Others	33.3%	40.0%	33.3%	72.7%
		None		20.0%		27.3%
	Location	China		100.0%		72.7%
		Australia	33.3%		33.3%	
		America	33.3%		33.3%	9.1%
		Philippines				
		New Zealand	33.3%			
		South Africa			33.3%	
		Others				18.2%
Organization Background	Name	XQNU	100.0%		66.7%	9.1%
		XQNI				
		HanQQNU				18.2%
		HanGNMS		40.0%		
		HanTNMS				
		HunTTS			33.3%	
		Hun#2NMS				
		HunJMS				18.2%
		GZKNMS		40.0%		36.4%
		YMS				
		LMS.				
		RPS		20.0%		18.2%
		GZKBHS				
		DQXGLLT				
		GNPS				
	Location	City	100.0%		66.7%	9.1%

	County		100.0%	33.3%	90.9%
	Town				
Level	University	33.3%		33.3%	18.2%
	Secondary		80.0%	33.3%	54.5%
	Primary		20.0%		18.2%
	Others (U+S)	66.7%		33.3%	9.1%
Orgna. Size	Small (<200)				
	Medium (200-500)	100.0%	20.0%	66.7%	27.3%
	Large (>500)		80.0%	33.3%	72.7%
Class. Size	Small (<15)				
	Medium (15-35)		20.0%	100.0%	18.2%
	Large (>35)	100.0%	80.0%		81.8%

Table 4.5 shows differences between the H group teachers (who scored highest on the task and student concerns) and the L group teachers (who scored lowest on the task and student concerns) in terms of demographic variables. From the table 4.4, it was observed that:

- The H group has the following five common characteristics that the L group does not have.

  ■ Regarding personal background:

  1. nationality—Foreign (Australian & English)

  ■ In terms of teaching experience:

  2. year—5 to 10,

- Regarding educational background:

  3. degree—Doctor and Master,

  4. major—Teaching English, and Anthropology & Sociology,

  5. location—Foreign Countries (Australia & New Zealand)

- While, the L group has the following eight common characteristics

  that the H group does not have.

  - In terms of personal background:

    1. age--below 30,

    2. nationality—Local People (Tibetan & Han Chinese)

  - Regarding teaching experience:

    3. year--under 5,

  - In terms of educational background:

    4. degree—lower than Bachelor (*Dazhua* & none)

    5. major—None (no major)

    6. location--China,

  - Regarding working organization background:

    7. names—GZKNMS and RPS.

    8. and level--primary.

In conclusion, comparing H group teachers (scored highest on the task and student concerns) with L group teachers (scored lowest on the task and student concerns), it was observed that the H teachers:

- were more senior than L teachers in terms of age,

- were foreigners (Australian) and L teachers were local people (Tibetan and Han Chinese),

- had more years of teaching and managing experiences than L teachers,

- had higher degrees than the L teachers.

- and were major in Teaching English, and Anthropology & Sociology.

These findings indicate a positive correlation between the demographic variables (age, nationality, teaching experience, degree and major) and the leadership variables (styles and levels). The correlation was further examined with some statistical tools in the following two sections.

Relationship: Demographic Variables vs. Leadership Variables

In this section, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients

were computed in order to determine if there is any meaningful

relationships existed:

- between the demographics variables and the leadership styles,

- between the demographics and the levels of task concern,

- and between the demographics and levels of student concern,

The results of those analyses are shown in the following Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Relationship between the Demographic Variables vs. the Leadership Styles & Levels of Practice

Variables			Levels of Practice		Leadership Styles
			Task Concern	Student Concern	
Personal Background	Age	Pearson Correlation	-.158	-.140	.017
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.15	.21	.88
	Gender	Pearson Correlation	.009	-.028	.029
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.93	.80	.80
	Nationality (L/F)	Pearson Correlation	-.365	-.351	.252
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.00	.02
Teaching Experience	Year	Pearson Correlation	-.010	.011	-.146
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.93	.92	.19
	Duty	Pearson Correlation	-.172	-.145	-.123
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.12	.29	.27
Educational Background	Degree	Pearson Correlation	.824	.781	-.545

		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.00	.00
	Major	Pearson Correlation	.257	.350	-.340
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.02	.00	.00
	Location	Pearson Correlation	-.316	-.259	.251
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.02	.02
	Name (province)	Pearson Correlation	.104	.076	-.234
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.35	.49	.03
	Location (City-Town)	Pearson Correlation	.244	.217	-.296
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.03	.05	.01
Organization Background	Level	Pearson Correlation	.123	.108	-.203
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.27	.33	.07
	Organization Size	Pearson Correlation	.135	.111	.058
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.22	.32	.60
	Classroom Size	Pearson Correlation	-.211	-.263	.461
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.06	.02	.00

$p < .05$ for significance

The Table 4.6 shows three sets of relationships. The numbers in the leadership style column show relationships between the demographic variables and the leadership styles. The numbers in the student column show relationships between the demographics and the levels of students concern. Finally, the numbers in the task column reveal relationships between the demographic variables and levels of task concern. From the table, it was observed the following things.

There was statistically significant relationship or correlation among the following variables at the 0.05 level of significance:

- the respondents' leadership styles were related to their nationality (sig.=.02), degree of education (sig.=.00), major of education (sig.=.00), location of education (sig.=.02), the location of their organizations (sig.=.01), and their classroom sizes (sig.=.00).

- the respondents' levels of practice were related to their nationality (sig.=.00 for both task and student concerns), degree of education (sig.=.00 for both task and student concerns), major of education (sig.=.02 for task concern, & sig.=.00 for student concern), location of education (sig.=.00 for task concern, & sig.= .02 for student concern), the location of their organizations (sig.=.03 for task concern), and their classroom size (sig.=.02 for student concern).

Therefore, the null-hypothesis, "There is no significant relationship between the [teachers'] demographic variables and [their] leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching" was rejected.

Challenges of the Teachers in Teaching

This study used open-ended questions (see Appendix I: Part III) to

assess the challenges faced by English teachers in Tibet. The answers were

categorized and some of the results were shown in Table 4.7 as follow (see

more information in Appendix IV).

Table 4.7: Percentages of Teachers' Challenges in Teaching

Challenges			Per cent.
Category	Description	Respondents' Answers & Suggestions	
1. Curriculum	No standard curriculum Lack of curriculum guide	"Curriculum…are often self-determined.… lead to lack of continuity between teachers' methodologies, and overlapping content between teachers" "…our program's curriculum depends on our teachers' areas of expertise, rather than the students' needs"	"More consultation and collaboration between teaching staff. Also a general guide to curriculum management for each teaching level would be useful"	22
2. Course Material	Lack of adequate textbooks	"[Does not match with] students' needs… ineffective" "often self-determined…lead to [content]overlapping between teachers" "English Grammar with no games but full of Exercises" "Boring"	"Better understand students' English levels, their interests, and the design an effective and relevant textbook and materials for the students" "find other materials"	100
	Lack of adequate activities	"Lack of variety in activities." "Student get bored with old games they expect new game every day." "hard to apply" "No various of activities"	"Ask advice from teachers… students." "Need to learn verious activities"	
	Lack of govern.	"political considerations of using materials from outside the country"	"I do not see solutions"	

	support--political			
	Inadequate classroom design	"severe limitations on having activities outside the classroom"	"I do not see solutions"	89
		"Set-up of learning environment inflexible (i.e., desks fixed)"	"Encourage student movement." -	
	Lack of facilities	"I teach basic English; lack of access to listening labs and video facilities."		
3. Learning Environment	Too many students	"too many student"		
		"In a class of 50 students. to start activities means students get out of control."		
	Lack of practical environment	"[No] English speaking environment [aside from the classes]"	"English corner and only speaking english in class"	
	Lack of teacher collaboration	"...overlapping content between teachers...lack of continuity between teachers' methodologies..."	"[encourage] More consultation ond colloborotion [among] staffs [and students]"	
		"Different methods"		
4. Student Behavior	Late for classes	"few [students] being late for class"	"Being late for class take 2 points"	22
	No confidence	"Shy , not confident and unmotivated"		
5. Workload	Overload duties	"I rarely have enough time to prepare adequately for the extra curricular activities that I am part of - study groups, photography project, development project editing, etc. Most of my time is taken by preparing scheduled classes and associated materials."	"With a general curriculum or class plan set up for some classes - for example, writing — I feel that I would have a little more time to assist students on other projects. I can't really give much more of a solution to this problem though. I guess most teachers feel like they never have enough time!"	33
		"limited institutional support"		
		"Still have to learn new things"		
6. Funds	Lack of stable funds	"[My school] receives funding from foreign NGO's for students and teachers. I do not know from one year to the next if there will be sufficient funding to keep me here."		22
	Low-payment	"...As an administrator depending largely on poorly-paid teachers and volunteers"		
7. Visa	Difficulty in getting visa	"I must renew my visa every year and do not know from one year to the next if I will be granted a visa."		11

From Table 4.7, it was observed that English teachers were facing challenges related to curriculum, course material, learning environment, student behavior, workload, funding, and visas. The most common challenges faced by the teachers were related to course material (100% of the respondents) and learning environment (89% of the respondents). Then, challenges related to workload were reported by 33% of the respondents. Furthermore, challenges related to curriculum, student behavior, and funding were equally reported by 22% of the teachers. In addition, 11 percent of the teachers mentioned challenges of getting visas for further teaching in Tibetan areas of China.

1. Regarding curriculum, 22% of the teachers reported there were some challenges. The reported challenges are as follow:

   ◆ "Curriculum...are often self-determined.... lead to lack of continuity between teachers' methodologies, and overlapping content between teachers"

   ◆ "...curriculum depends on ...teachers' areas of expertise, rather than the students' needs".

A suggestion from one of the teachers was:

   ● "More consultation and collaboration between teaching staff. Also a general guide to curriculum management for each teaching level would be useful"

In general, they reported a lack of standard curricula and general guides in English teaching at schools in Tibet. As results, there were inconsistency and lack of continuity among teachers' inputs. Also, there were content overlaps and unsmooth transitions of methods in teaching.

In order to address the curriculum challenges, there should be more consultations and collaboration among English teachers. A general guide to English curriculum for each teaching level should be developed at schools in Tibet.

2. In terms of course materials, all teachers (100%) reported there were some challenges. The reported challenges are:

    ◆ "[course materials does not match with] students' needs… and [they were] ineffective"

    ◆ "[course materials are] often self-determined…lead to [content]overlapping between teachers"

    ◆ "[the course materials are only] full of… English grammar [and] Exercises… [and] no games"

    ◆ "[the course materials are]…Boring"

- "[the course materials are] Lack of variety in activities."

- "[the available materials are] lack of games... student get bored with old games [and] they

    expect new game every day."

- "[the course content are] hard to apply"

- "No various of activities [in the course materials]"

- "political considerations of using materials from outside the country"

The following suggestions were given by some of the teachers:

- "Better understand students' English levels, their interests, and the design an   effective and

    relevant textbook and materials for the students"

- "find other materials"

- "Ask advice from teachers... students."

- "Need to learn verious activities"

- "...find materials from Internet... schools have to provide free Internet and computers to

    teachers"

In general, they were saying that there was a lack of adequate English teaching materials in Tibet. The existing teaching materials were inadequate to use for Tibetan students. Contents of the available materials were not meeting needs of students. In the

available teaching materials, there were lack of adequate and interesting activities and games. Therefore, the teachers and students found the available English materials or textbooks were boring and hard to apply. In addition, there was lack of government supports in using varieties of outside materials aside from government textbooks. As one of the English teachers states, "[There were] political considerations of using materials from outside the country."

In order to address the course materials challenges, schools and educational bureaus should provide adequate Internet and computers for teachers for teaching. They also should provide more teaching materials based on the needs of their teachers and students. Teachers should find other materials aside from government textbooks. They should develop materials based on their students' needs by using the available materials creatively. Also, they should ask advises from other teachers and students. In other words, they should share their materials and experiences in teaching. Most importantly, they should learn more about

developing variety of activities, games, and other teaching materials since it is not easy to find materials that are perfect and interesting to any students all the time.

3. Regarding learning environment, 89% of the teachers reported there were some challenges. The reported challenges are:

    ◆ "[inadequate design of school or classrooms, thus, there ore] severe limitations on having activities outside the classroom"

    ◆ "Set-up of learning environment inflexible (i.e., desks fixed)"

    ◆ "lack of access to listening labs and video facilities."

    ◆ "too many student [in the classroom]"

    ◆ "In a class of 50 students, to start activities means students get out of control."

    ◆ "[No] English speaking environment [aside from English classes]"

    ◆ "[lack of collaboration or lack of collaborative environment/culture in the school, thus, there are]...overlapping content between teachers... [and] lack of continuity between teachers' methodologies..."

    ◆ and "Different methods"

The following suggestions were given by some of the teachers:

- "Encourage student movement [in teaching]"

- "[set up] English corner and [allow students] only speaking english in class"

- "[encourage] more consultation and collaboration [among] staffs [and students]."

In general, they were saying that there were lack of English speaking environment and there were lack of collaboration among school staffs. School and classroom designs were inadequate for hands on activities and games. There were too many students in the classrooms. Also, there was a lack of modern teaching facilities such as listening labs and video. In other words, classroom designs, class sizes, and teaching facilities were inadequate for using the widely advocated student-centered teaching methods in contemporary education.

In order to address the learning environment challenges, the teachers should communicate with their leaders or administrators. The school leaders should visit and observe English teachers' classes. They should communicate with each other more often in order to understand and address each other's challenges. The

school leaders should understand the needs of students and teachers relative to the modern teaching methods and contemporary educational trends. In short, more English speaking environments and more collaborative culture should be developed, and more suitable teaching facilities should be provided to the teachers at schools.

4.   Regarding student behavior, 22% of the teachers reported that they had some challenges. Their challenges are:

◆   "few [students] being late for class"

◆   "[students are] shy , not confident and unmotivated"

One of the teachers suggested that late students should be punished by reducing grades as follow:

●   "Being late for class take 2 points"

In general, the teachers were saying that students were shy and lack of self confidence. In other words, students were lack of self-esteem, and they were inactive in classes. Also, the teachers were saying that some students were not punctual for classes.

Therefore, one of them suggested that some score reducing punishment should be used in teaching for misbehaving students.

5. In terms of workload, 33% of the teachers reported that they were overloaded by extra tasks aside from teaching at schools. For instance, some of them statements related to workload challenges are as follow:

- "I rarely have enough time to prepare adequately for the extra curricular activities that I am part of - study groups, photography project, development project editing, etc. Most of my time is taken by preparing schedules classes and associated materials."

- "limited institutional support"

- "Still have to learn new things"

One of the teachers provided the following suggestion for work overload challenges:

- "With a general curriculum or class plan set up for some classes - for example, writing — I feel that I would have a little more time to assist students on other projects. I can't really give much more of a solution to this problem though. I guess most teachers feel like they never have enough time!"

6. Regarding fund, 22% of the teachers were complaining that schools were lack of sustainable funds for further development, and teachers were underpaid. For instance, some of the teachers' statements are as follow:

    ● "[My school] receives funding from foreign NGO's for students and teachers. I do not know from one year to the next if there will be sufficient funding to keep me here."

    ● "...As an administrator depending largely on poorly-paid teachers and volunteers"

7. Regarding visa, 11% of the teachers were complaining about high levels of ambiguity in getting visa in Tibet. As one of the teachers stated that:

    ● "I must renew my visa every year and do not know from one year to the next if I will be granted o visa."

To finish, foreign English teachers face challenges in making long-term plans in teachings due to the high level of ambiguity of getting visas for staying in Tibet of China.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The four previous chapters aimed to explain the whole process of this study. In order to briefly review what has been mentioned in the previous chapters, this final chapter will end the study by summarizing the four previous chapters, followed by implications and recommendations.

Summary of the Chapter One, Two and Three

Many recent studies show that the Chinese and English literacy rates and the per capital GDP in Tibet was much lower than any other areas of PRC. Put simply, Tibetans are not doing well in today's thriving economy. A crucial factor used by scholars to explain this is the poor quality of second language education (Chinese and English) which, in turn, results from poor leadership and challenges teachers in Tibetan areas of China face. (Bass, 1998; Zhou, 2001; Lixiong, 2000; Ross, 2006; and Shiyong, 2007)

No studies have been done on addressing issues related to leadership and challenges teachers in Tibetan areas face, despite the obvious need for such research. Based on a review of relevant literature, the levels of

leadership styles are positively correlated with the performance of a school (including teacher and student performance). A dynamic leadership style is highly advocated in contemporary education (Ergene, 1990; Brican, 1993; and Anuwatprakit, 2003). Furthermore, English education is relatively new to Tibet and English teachers face challenges that other teachers in Tibet do not (Stuart & Wang, 2003; and Shiyong, 2007).

Therefore this study aims to assist English teachers of Tibetans by addressing issues related to their leadership styles and challenges in teaching. More specifically, this study aims to:

1. to explore the issues related to the challenges and leadership styles of English teachers of Tibetans in teaching;

2. to identify the following English teachers' demographic variables might related to their leadership and levels of practice;

   - Personal Background: age, gender, and nationality
   - Teaching Experience: year and duty
   - Educational Background: degree, major, and location
   - Organization Background: name, location, level, and size

3. to discover the English teachers' common leadership styles and levels of practice;

4. to determine the relationship between the English teachers' demographic variables and their leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching;

5. to identify the English teachers' common challenges; and

6. to propose strategies and recommendations for addressing issues related to the English teachers' leadership styles and challenges.

Based on the above objectives, a two page questionnaire was developed and used. The questionnaire was divided into three sections and reviewed by experts from both PR China and Thailand:

1. Demographics--questions regarding the respondent's personal background (age, gender, and nationality), teaching experience (year and duty), educational background (degree, major, and location), and organization background (name, location, level, and size) that might be correlated to the respondent's leadership style and level of practice in teaching.

2. Leadership style--20 items with a rating scale of 1 (never practice) to 5 (always practice) in order to determine the respondents' levels of practice and to identify their teaching leadership styles.

3. Challenges--composed of open-ended questions regarding problems and difficulties faced in teaching by respondents.

190 English teachers were asked the items on the questionnaires. The teachers were teaching at primary schools, secondary schools, and universities all over Tibetan areas, through emails and phone calls. Eighty three English teachers answered the questionnaire and others did not respond mainly due to the limited means of communication, extraneous concerns, and time constraints. The gathered data was analyzed using methods such as content analysis and Pearson correlation in order to address the four research questions as follow.

Summary of the Chapter Four

The gathered data was analyzed by using methods such as content analysis and Person correlation in order to meet the research objectives and to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the following characteristics of the English teachers in Tibet?

- Demographics: personal background (age, gender, & nationality), teaching experience (year & duty), educational background (degree, major, & location), and organization background (name, location, level, & size).

- Levels of Practice and Leadership Styles in Teaching

2. Is there a significant relationship between the teachers' demographic variables and their leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching?

3. What are the challenges of the English teachers in their teaching?

4. What are the implications and recommendations for addressing the issues related to the English teachers' leadership styles and challenges in Tibet?

Answer for Research Question Number One

Demographics

In terms of demographics, all respondents were teaching at different levels of schools in all over Tibetan areas of China. The majority of teachers (89.2%) were from Tibetan areas in Qinghai Province. The rest of

them (10.8%) were from Tibetan Autonomous Region (4.8%), and from Tibetan areas in Sichuan (2.4%), Gansu (2.4%) and Yunnan (1.2). Further information about the teachers are follow:

a) 63.9% were male, others were female;

b) 70% were local people, others were foreigners (American, Australian,& English);

c) 61.4% were below the age of 30, most of whom were local teachers (98%),

d) 67.5% had under 5 years of teaching experience, most of whom were local teachers (89.3%);

e) 75.9% did not have management experience, most of which were local teachers (85.7%);

f) 51.8% had degrees lower than a BA degree (two-year college degrees and no collage degree), more than half of which were local teachers (60%);

g) 92.8% had graduated in fields unrelated to English teaching;

h) 53% were teaching at county level secondary schools

i) 90.4% had students more than 35 in their classes

j)   and it was reported that there were no classes that had less than 15 students in English language teaching.

Levels of Practice and Leadership Styles in Teaching

Regarding the levels of practice, the majority (32.5-38.6%) of respondents practiced moderate high levels concern on both task and students. Only 3.6% of the respondents practiced very high levels of concern on both task and students, who are all foreign teachers. In addition, the respondents who scored very low on levels of practice were almost all local teachers (100.0% on task concern and 90.9% on student concern). Furthermore, in terms of levels practice (student & task concern), more than half (57.2%) of the local teachers scored in the lower range and majority of the foreign teachers (84.7-92.3%) scored in the higher ranges.

Regarding leadership styles, only three styles (dynamic, accommodating, &passive styles) were practiced by the respondents. Structured and considerate styles were not reported being practiced by the respondents. Dynamic leadership style was practiced by 51.8% of the teachers, which means that they maximized concern for both tasks and students, i.e., teachers strove to enable all students to happily attain their

greatest potential and to achieve performance excellence; they integrated students' interests and performance excellence, and collaborated with individuals in concerted efforts; and they helped students to achieve high performance excellence with creativity and to create a positive environment in which students learned in fun. The passive leadership style was practiced by 31.3% of the respondents (all of them were local teachers), which means the teachers minimize concern for both tasks and students. They had limited sense of responsibility and seriousness in their duties, did things without preparing, and show limited concern for the needs of students. Furthermore, the accommodating leadership style was practiced by 16.9% of the sample (92.3% of them were local teachers), which means the teachers had moderate concern for both tasks and students; they steered a middle course between performance and student needs in teaching.

Answer for Research Question Number Two

Relationship between Demographic and Leadership Variables

A comparison was made between the following two groups of teachers in order to determine whether the teachers' levels of practice were correlated to their demographic variables.

- H Teachers--scored highest on both task concern and student concern

- L Teachers--scored lowest on both task concern and student concern

The results showed that the H teachers were more senior than L teachers in terms of age. The H teachers were foreign teachers and L teachers were local teachers. Regarding experience, H teachers had more years of teaching and managing experiences than L teachers. Also, in terms of educational background, H teachers had higher degrees from developed counties than the L teachers.

Furthermore, analyses done using SPSS in order to determine whether the teachers' demographic variables were correlated to their leadership styles and levels of practice (Person correlation, at the 0.05 level of

significance), showed that the following variables positively correlated:

- the respondents' leadership styles were correlated to their nationality (sig.=.022), degree of education (sig.=.000), major of education (sig.=.002), location of education (sig.=.022), the location of their organizations (sig.=.007), and classroom sizes (sig.=.000).

- the respondents' levels of practice were correlated to their nationality (sig.=.001 for both task and student concerns), degree of education (sig.=.000 for both task and student concerns), major of education (sig.=.019 for task concern, & sig.=.001 for student concern), location of education (sig.=.004 for task concern, & sig.= .018 for student concern), the location of their organizations (sig.=.026 for task concern, & sig. =.049 for student concern), and their classroom size (sig.=.016 for student concern).

Therefore, we can say that there were significant relationship between some of the teachers' demographic variables and their leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching. As a result, the following null-hypothesis of this research can be rejected:

Ho.: There is no significant relationship between the following demographic variables and teachers' leadership styles and levels of practice in teaching
A. Personal Background of Teachers: age, gender, and nationality;
B. Teaching Experience of Teachers: year and duty;
C. Educational Background of Teachers: degree, major, and location;
D. Organization Background of Teachers: name, location, level, and size.

Answer for Research Question Number Three

Common Challenges of the English Teachers of Tibetans

In terms of challenges, the teachers faced problems and difficulties related to curriculum, course material, learning environment, student behavior, workload, funding, and visas. Challenges related to course material were reported by all teachers (100%). They reported a lack of adequate English teaching materials at schools in Tibet. They also noted a lack of freedom in using outside materials due to political constrains. However, certain teachers suggested teachers use outside materials regardless of political sensitivities.

The second most common challenges reported by 89% of the teachers related to the learning environment. Teachers commented that there was a

lack of an English speaking environment, modern teaching facilities, and a collaborative culture at schools. Also, some stated that the classroom design and class size were inappropriate for activities and modern student-centered teaching methods. It is suggested that teachers and school administrators better communicate in order to understand and address each others' challenges more effectively.

The third most common challenges related to workload, which was reported by 33% of the teachers. Teachers commented that they were overloaded by extra tasks aside from teaching. One suggested school administrators reduce and clarify their tasks.

Challenges related to curriculum, student behavior, and funding were equally reported by 22% of the teachers. In terms of curriculum, teachers reported the lack of a standard curriculum and general guides in English teaching at schools in Tibet, which resulted content overlap and confusion in teaching. It is therefore suggested that a general English curriculum should be developed, requiring a high degree of collaboration between teachers, school administrators and education bureau members. In terms of student behavior, teachers commented that most students were shy and

lacked of confidence and self-esteem; and some students were not punctual for classes. One teacher suggested that late students should be punished by reducing grades. Regarding funding, teachers indicated that schools lacked sustainable funds for further development and the teachers were underpaid, which negatively affected teachers' performances and the performance of students and schools.

Finally, 11% of the teachers reported challenges related to visas for staying at schools in Tibet. They noted that their teachings were unstable at schools in Tibet due to the high level of ambiguity of visa renewal and fund shortages.

Implications and Recommendations

In conclusion, the majority of teachers who scored moderately low on levels of practice were local teachers who were young, lacked teaching experience, and lacked quality education, especially in EFL teaching. The levels of practice and leadership styles were positively correlated to educational background (degree, major & location), teaching experience (year & duty), and classroom size. The lack of adequate English course

materials, curriculum and environment were reported as the most common challenges of English teachers of Tibetans. In addition, based on a review of related literature, teachers' levels of practice were positively correlated to the performances of the teachers, their students, and schools. High levels of dynamic leadership styles are advocated as the best in teaching.

To improve the quality of English language education in Tibet, the following implications and recommendations are derived from the findings, which answers the research question four.

- English teachers should improve their levels of practice, especially the local teachers; they can enhance their leadership styles by learning from teachers (especially Westerners such as EFL professionals graduated good quality schools, especially in New Zeland, America and other countries) who are senior in terms of levels of educational qualification and teaching experience. More specifically, the English teachers should maximize concern for both tasks and students in their teaching. In other words, the English teachers of Tibetans should enable all students to reach their greatest potential and to achieve performance excellence. To do so, they should integrate the students'

interests and performance excellence, and collaborate with individuals in concerted efforts. They should help all students to achieve high performance excellence with creativity and to create a positive environment where they learn in an engaging environment. Also, they should enhance the students' parents involvement in students' learning by any means such as organizing teacher-parent meetings and student's family visiting, In addition, the English teachers, especially local teachers, should continually improve their educational qualifications (especially in EFL teaching) and teaching experience in order to enhance their levels of practice and performance. They should better communicate and collaborate with other teachers, school administrators, and government leaders in order to address challenges related to course materials, curriculum, funding, visas and the learning environment. Furthermore, based on students' needs, English teachers should focus on developing adequate standard curricula and course materials by using the outside country materials without violating government laws and policies.

- School administrators and government leaders should focus on training English teachers of Tibetans in EFL teaching, EFL curriculum and course material developments, and in instructional leadership and management. They should encourage, support and do projects related to EFL curriculum, course materials and teaching development for local people in Tibet. They should also provide teachers ICT skills and recourses (such as Internet and computers). Furthermore, they should provide teachers more transparent oversight, regulations, and guides for developing curriculum and using materials from outside of the country, for which they should give more freedom and support. Additionally, they should focus on fulfilling teachers' needs in terms of classroom design, class size, workload, salary, and visa applications. Classroom design, class size and facilities should be adequate for applying such modern learner-centered methods and activities as hands on learning. More creative management of time and work-shift should be used in order to reduce the class size such as: organizing additional classes during spare times and/or when the classrooms and teachers are free. Regarding workload and salary, they should meet relevant

needs of English teachers based on local realities and available funding. In terms of visas, they should provide needed support for foreign teachers, especially those with high levels of educational qualifications and EFL experience. They need also to generate more funding for English education in order to improve the quality of local people.

- Researchers should give priority to the more important challenges of English teachers in Tibet. They should focus on addressing challenges related to English course materials, curriculum, and learning environments. More specifically, they should focus on developing EFL curricula and course materials for Tibetans. There is a great need for studies addressing the funding shortage of schools and for studies clarifying government rules and policies related to English education. Also, there is a great need for studies addressing management and leadership challenges of school teachers and administrators. Furthermore, studies similar to this one should be conducted at various schools with a larger sample size in Tibet in order to better learn how to improve the quality of Tibetan education. School staff leadership

styles and challenges should be investigated not only from a self-perspective, but also from the perspectives of administrators, parents, and students. As a final suggestion, revised questionnaires are advocated for similar studies.

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APPENDIX I

Research Questionnaire

Thank you for answering all the following questions! Your answers will be treated with confidence. I will look for the total picture of teachers' opinions processed from all the questionnaires responding to actual situations for the benefit of research. —Mr. Duojie (email: *qinghaicaihang@gmail.com* Tel.: +66-(0)851549047

Part I--Direction: *Please fill in the following blanks and select correct answers [✔]*

1. **Occupation**: **I am an** [   ] English teacher, [   ] other (*specify*)_____

2. **Age**: [   ] below 30, [   ] 30-40, [   ] above 40

3. **Gender**: [   ] male, [   ] female

4. **Nationality**: [   ] Tibetan, [   ] Han Chinese, [   ] other (*specify*)_____

5. **Teaching Experience**:
   a. Year: [   ] under 5 years, [   ] 5-10 years, [   ] over 10 years

   b. Duty (*may choose both*): [   ] instruction, [   ] management (head of section/school)

6. **Degree**: [   ] doctor, [   ] master, [   ] bachelor, [   ] other (*specify*) _____

   --*in* (field) _____ from (school) _____

7. **School/Program**: I am teaching at (*school name*)_____

   a. **Location**: [   ] city, [   ] county, [   ] town, [   ] township, [   ] village ([   ] *agricultural* / [   ] *nomadic*)

   b. **Level**: [   ] university / college, [   ] secondary, [   ] primary, [   ] other (*specify*)_____

   c. **Size of School**: number of students at my school_____ & number of staff_____

   d. **Size of Class**: number of students in each of my classes_____

Part II--Direction: *Please tick ✔ one appropriate answer for each item.* **Your responses must be based on the actual situation,** *not on expected ones. If a question does not apply to you leave it blank and explain why it does not fit your situation in the table named "ITEMS THAT DO NOT APPLY TO ME". Key: 1= Never; 2= Rarely; 3= Occasionally; 4=Often; 5= Always.*

Item	In my teaching, I...	Level of practice				
		Never 1	Rarely 2	Occasionally 3	Often 4	Always 5
1	tell all the students what they are supposed to do	1	2	3	4	5
2	Am friendly with all students	1	2	3	4	5
3	set standards of performance for all students	1	2	3	4	5
4	help students feel comfortable in class	1	2	3	4	5
5	make suggestions about how to solve problems	1	2	3	4	5
6	respond favorably to suggestions made by others	1	2	3	4	5
7	make my perspective clear to others	1	2	3	4	5
8	treat all students fairly	1	2	3	4	5
9	develop a plan of action for the class/group	1	2	3	4	5
10	Behave in a predictable manner toward students	1	2	3	4	5

11	define role responsibilities for each student	1	2	3	4	5
12	communicate actively with students	1	2	3	4	5
13	Clarify my own role within the class/group	1	2	3	4	5
14	show concern for the personal well-being of others	1	2	3	4	5
15	provide a plan for how the work is to be done	1	2	3	4	5
16	show flexibility in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
17	provide criteria for what is expected of the class/group	1	2	3	4	5
18	disclose thoughts and feelings to students	1	2	3	4	5
19	encourage students to do quality work	1	2	3	4	5
20	help students get along with each other	1	2	3	4	5

ITEMS THAT DO NOT APPLY TO ME	
Item Number	**Explanation** of why it does not fit my situation

Part III--*Please answer the following questions*

Questions	1. What are the most crucial challenges (problems & difficulties) that you're facing in your teaching? Ranking	2. What did / do you do in order to address (solve) those challenges?	3. What do you suggest others to do in order to address those challenges?
Answers			

Please **rank** your challenges by giving scores from 1 (most crucial) to 10 (least crucial challenge for you). Write the number in front (in the ·**Ranking**·) of your each challenge.

APPENDIX II

Data Analysis: Tables and Charts
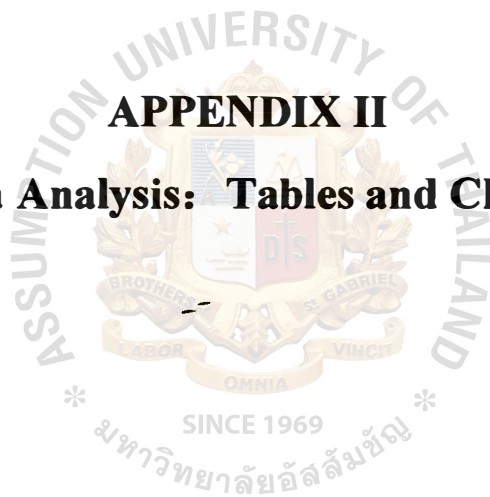
Nationality

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tibetan	60	72.3	72.3	72.3
	Han Chinese	10	12.0	12.0	84.3
	American	5	6.0	6.0	90.4
	Australian	7	8.4	8.4	98.8
	English	1	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	
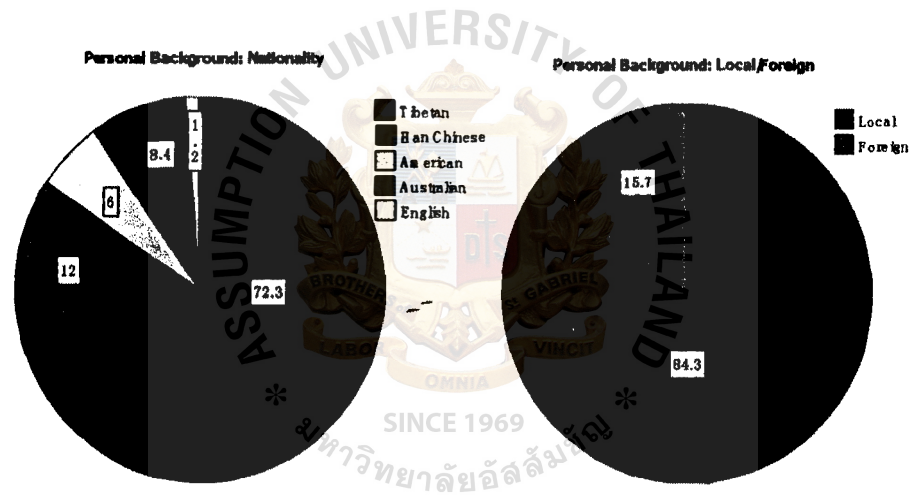
Local/Foreign

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Local	70	84.3	84.3	84.3
	Foreign	13	15.7	15.7	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

T. Year

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 5 years	56	67.5	67.5	67.5
	5-10	8	9.6	9.6	77.1
	over 10	19	22.9	22.9	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

Teaching Experience: Year

Teaching Experience: Duty
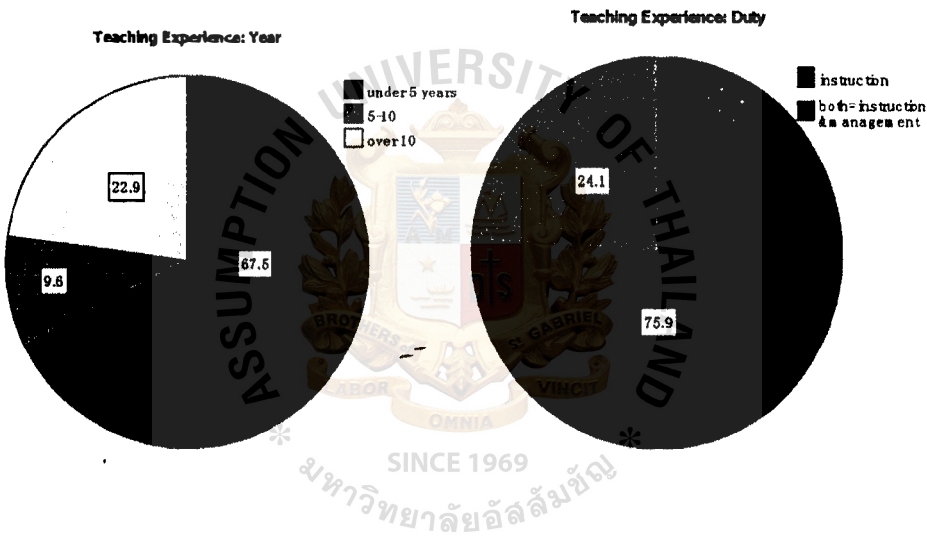
T. Duty

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	instruction	63	75.9	75.9	75.9
	both=instruction& management	20	24.1	24.1	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

E. Degree

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	doctor	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	master	16	19.3	19.3	21.7
	bachelor	22	26.5	26.5	48.2
	Dazhuan	40	48.2	48.2	96.4
	none	3	3.6	3.6	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

Educational Background: Degree   Educational Background: Major
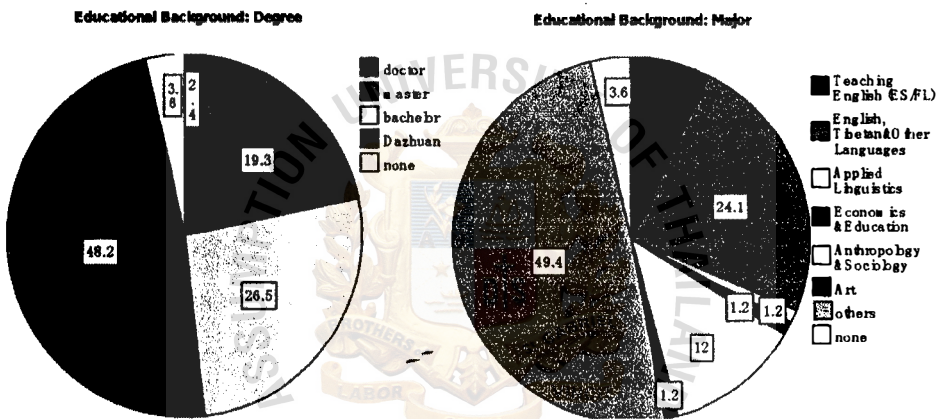
E. major

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Teaching English (ES/FL)	6	7.2	7.2	7.2
	English,Tibetan&OtherLanguages	20	24.1	24.1	31.3
	Applied Linguistics	1	1.2	1.2	32.5
	Economics &Education	1	1.2	1.2	33.7
	Anthropology &Sociology	10	12.0	12.0	45.8
	Art	1	1.2	1.2	47.0
	others	41	49.4	49.4	96.4
	none	3	3.6	3.6	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

E. **GS.Location**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	China	52	62.7	62.7	62.7
	Australia	7	8.4	8.4	71.1
	USA	6	7.2	7.2	78.3
	Philippines	10	12.0	12.0	90.4
	NewZealand	1	1.2	1.2	91.6
	South Africa	1	1.2	1.2	92.8
	Others	6	7.2	7.2	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

Educational Background: GS Location
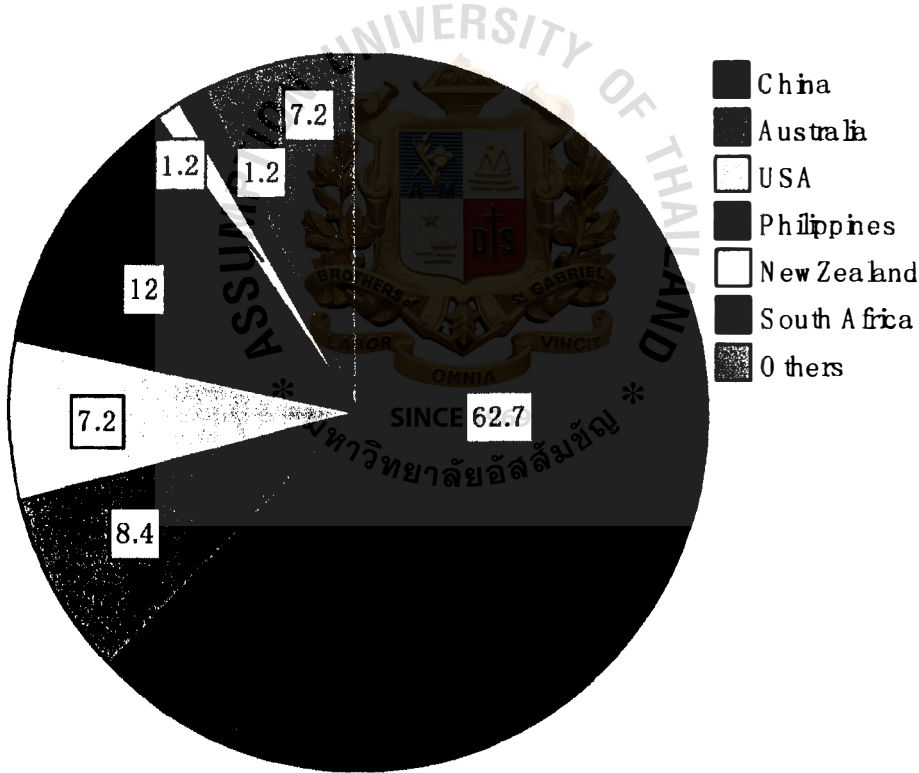
O. Name

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Qinghai,XQNU	11	13.3	13.3	13.3
	Qinghai,XQNI	2	2.4	2.4	15.7
	Qinghai,HanQQNU	22	26.5	26.5	42.2
	Qinghai,HanGMS	7	8.4	8.4	50.6
	Qinghai,HanTNMS	12	14.5	14.5	65.1
	Qinghai,HunTTS	2	2.4	2.4	67.5
	Qinghai,Hun#2NMS	2	2.4	2.4	69.9
	Qinghai,HunJMS	2	2.4	2.4	72.3
	Qinghai,GZKNMS	12	14.5	14.5	86.7
	Qinghai,YMS	2	2.4	2.4	89.2
	TAR,LMS	2	2.4	2.4	91.6
	TAR,RPS	2	2.4	2.4	94.0
	Sichuan,GZKBHS.	2	2.4	2.4	96.4
	Yunnan,DQXGLLT	1	1.2	1.2	97.6
	Gansu, GNPS	2	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

Organization Background: Name
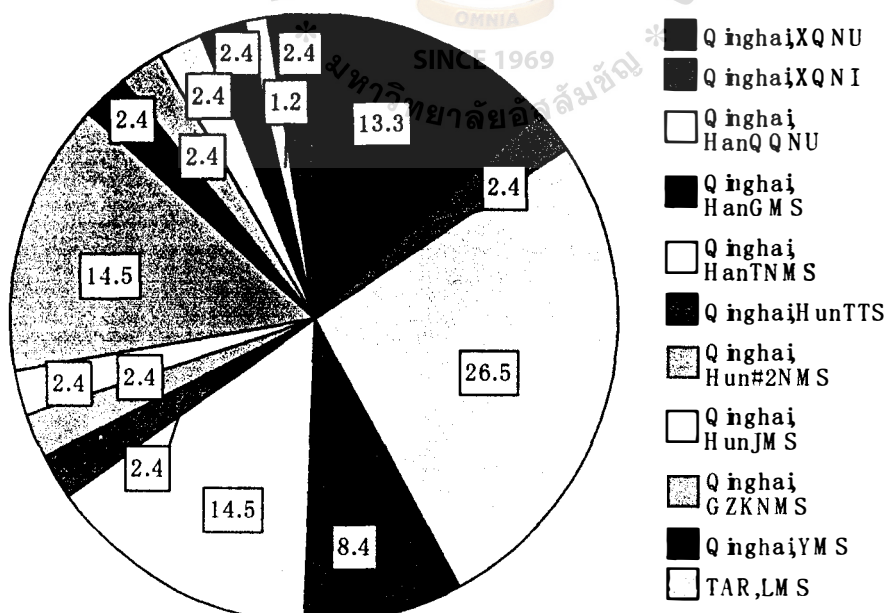
O. Province

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Qinghai	74	89.2	89.2	89.2
	TAR	4	4.8	4.8	94.0
	Sichuan	2	2.4	2.4	96.4
	Yunnan	1	1.2	1.2	97.6
	Gansu	2	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

Organization Background: Province   Organization Background: Location
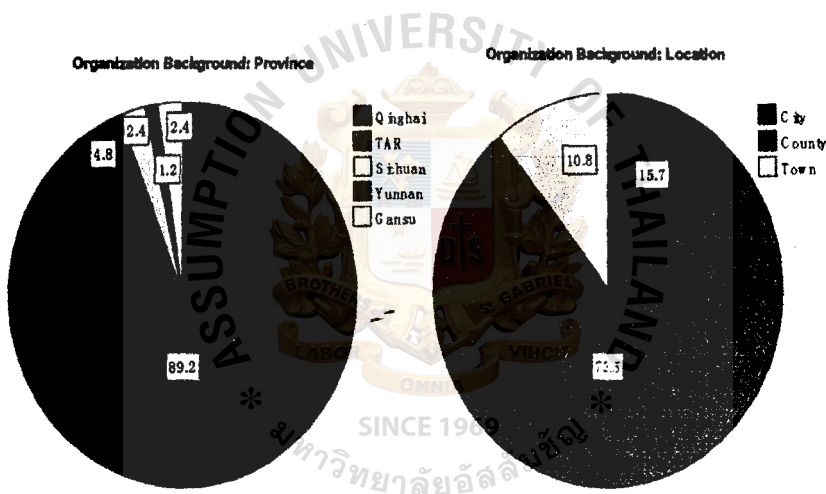
O. Location

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	City	13	15.7	15.7	15.7
	County	61	73.5	73.5	89.2
	Town	9	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

O. Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	university/college	24	28.9	28.9	28.9
	secondary	44	53.0	53.0	81.9
	primary	7	8.4	- 8.4	90.4
	u+s	8	9.6	9.6	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	
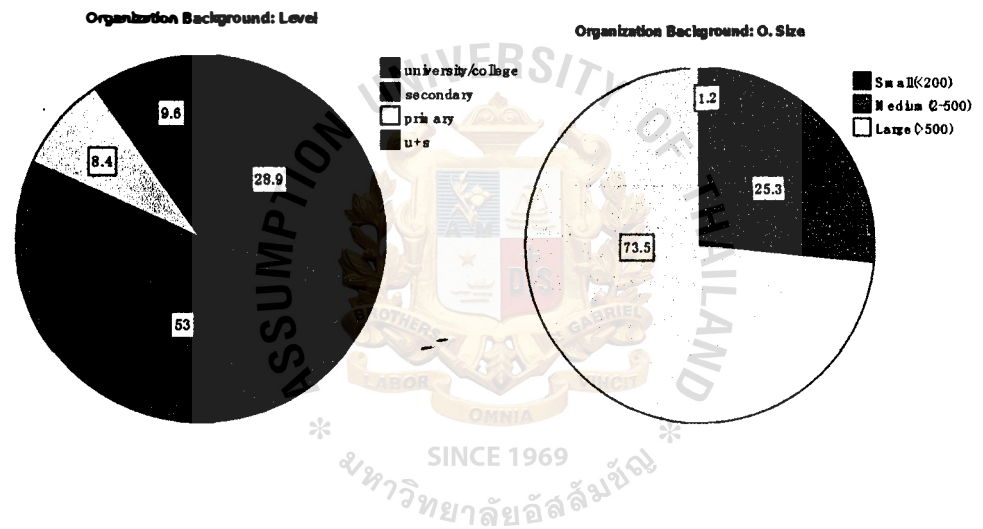
O. Size

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Small(<200)	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Medium(2-500)	21	25.3	25.3	26.5
	Large(>500)	61	73.5	73.5	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

O. C Size

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Medium(15-35)	8	9.6	9.6	9.6
	Large(>35)	75	90.4	90.4	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

Organization Background: C.size
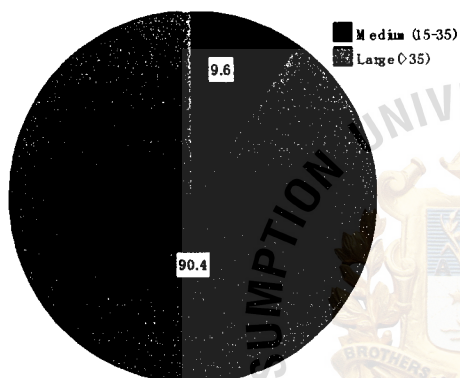
Levels of TaskConcern
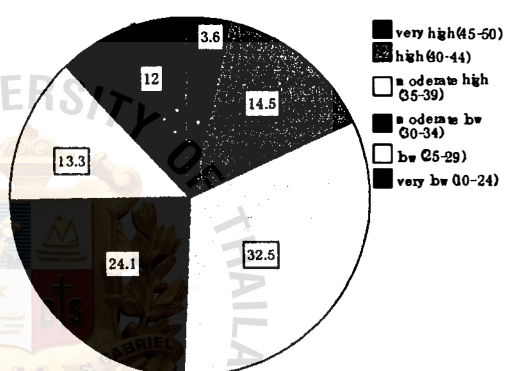
Levels of Task Concern

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very high(45-50)	3	3.6	3.6	3.6
	high(40-44)	12	14.5	14.5	18.1
	moderate high(35-39)	27	32.5	32.5	50.6
	moderate low(30-34)	20	24.1	24.1	74.7
	low(25-29)	11	13.3	13.3	88.0
	very low(10-24)	10	12.0	12.0	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	

Levels of Student Concern

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very high(45-50)	3	3.6	3.6	3.6
	high(40-44)	12	14.5	14.5	18.1
	moderate high(35-39)	32	38.6	38.6	56.6
	moderate low(30-34)	11	13.3	13.3	69.9
	low(25-29)	14	16.9	16.9	86.7
	very low(10-24)	11	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	
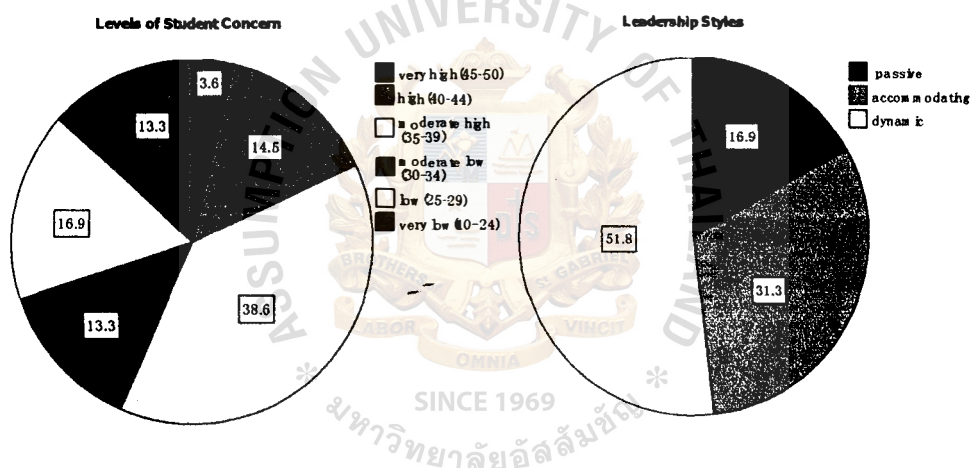
Leadership Styles

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	passive	14	16.9	16.9	16.9
	accommodating	26	31.3	31.3	48.2
	dynamic	43	51.8	51.8	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	100.0	