An Exploration of In-service EFL Teachers' Views Toward Mentoring in Indonesia

by Asri Purnamasiri

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Abstract: Mentoring helps teachers experience, learn and apply their knowledge as well as sharing their knowledge and experiences to their colleagues. Although mentoring for ELT in-service teachers has not been implemented formally in Indonesia, it has become popular in Europe, America, Australia and many other countries. In the United Kingdom for instance, mentoring has become one of the required ways for teachers to learn from each other and support other teachers. By using a qualitative exploratory study, an exploration towards mentoring as a term amongst EFL teachers in Indonesia was done. The data was collected by using questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to investigate 12 educational practitioners' views toward mentoring. The educational practitioners consist of three trainers of in-service teachers, five lecturers of EFL pre-service teachers and four EFL secondary in-service teachers in Indonesia. The findings showed different participants' understandings on the term mentoring. Furthermore, the result of this study may impact further research related to the implementation of mentoring scheme as the collaborative CPD in Indonesia.

Introduction

Mentoring has been widely acknowledged as a good practice in language teaching and education. As Bailey *et al* (2001, p. 207) state, mentoring is a relatively new approach for language teachers, which serves a long-established way of imparting knowledge, skills and understanding with origins of the apprenticeship system in crafts and trades.

Mentoring provides a way for in-service teachers to have discussions and reflections with other teachers or more professional educational practitioners. By doing mentoring, teachers become good facilitators to help other teachers who become mentees by supporting and encouraging them – as less experienced or novice teachers – to meet students' needs.

It has been proven that successful mentoring is positive, whether for pre-service or for in-service teachers (Franke and Dahlgren, 1996; Hobson, 2002; Marable and Raimondi, 2007; Su, 1992). This is because through mentoring, experienced teachers who have developed some skills through experience could extend their knowledge by scaffolding the novice teachers' knowledge (Pitton, 2006). The mutual benefits between both mentor and mentee can therefore create sustainable development along their practices.

Research background

The roles of English in Indonesia

There are many factors in Indonesia, which affect the use and development of English. Lauder (2008) states that historical, political, socio-cultural and linguistics factors have shaped English's status and functions over the last century in Indonesia. In state education for example, English has developed in the context of post-colonial education to the current status of English as an international or global language. It could be seen from the use of English in a wide range of fields – especially in education – which keeps improving nowadays and shapes English as an important subject in schools. Moreover, the demand for the use of English in such job fields leads to education to provide qualified graduates who have English competence.

The importance of English in the educational system thereby guarantees that almost all school levels of education teach English subjects in their curriculum. Based on the national curriculum, students in elementary schools have started to learn English as a foreign language subject. English has also become more important to be taught for Junior High School and Senior High School level since it has become a national examination subject. Besides the national curriculum, the role of English in education has become more important in international schools, which implement English as a medium of teaching and learning. In these schools, English is taught based on an international curriculum.

EFL teachers in secondary schools of Indonesia

EFL teachers in secondary schools of Indonesia teach all grades of learners. For some schools, which have only one English teacher, the teacher therefore has to teach all levels, but other schools may have more than one English teacher, so the teachers work with only one level in each academic year. To some extent, this role of teaching depends on school policy.

Based on curriculum 2013, in the English subject syllabus for Senior High School Grade X, for example, there are 36 times 2 hours of time allocation to teach English in one academic year. Each hour in time allocation has duration for 45 minutes. Thus, in a semester, teachers have to teach English for about 18 to 20 weeks. When there is only one English teacher in a school, it means that the teacher has to teach for about 3 levels times 2 times 2 hours per week for 1st, 2nd and 3rd graders. The teachers working with different levels have a heavier workload, as more planning and preparation is involved. Additionally, when the teachers find some challenges, there will be no other English teachers to share with and discuss about teaching English issues in the classrooms and schools. One solution could be having sharing and discussion with other teachers from different subjects who teach the same classes. Therefore, focus of discussion might only be about classroom management and teaching methods but not about the English knowledge.

Teacher preparation (pre-service training/education)

Teacher preparation in pre-service training or education in Indonesia is held at the higher education level. After graduating from Senior High School, students who are interested to become English teachers could apply for studying in some universities, which have English Language Education study programmes. In the universities, pre-service teachers follow curricula, which are offered by the study programme. The duration for English language pre-service teacher education programmes is about 4 years. After they graduate from the university, they will have a qualification to teach English in secondary schools of Indonesia.

The curriculum for English Language Education in Indonesia consists of a number of modules, which have to be passed in order to attain the qualification. The curriculum also involves a teaching practice programme for all pre-service teachers called micro teaching in around 6th semester and a teaching practicum in some secondary schools usually in 7th semester. For microteaching, the pre-service teachers will be guided by their lecturers and when they do the teaching practicum in schools, they will have English teachers in their schools as their supervisors.

Mentoring in Indonesia

In Indonesia, mentoring for EFL teachers has not yet been implemented since many schools still focus on the examination results and school ranks rather than the process of developing teachers. Mentoring has become popular in Indonesia in some other areas such as business, sports, religion, health and Psychology but not yet in educational. According to Barret (2000), mentoring new staff is important for the operation of a corporation - business. In sports, many successful athletes in Indonesia shared their success stories, which are supported by their coaches as mentors. In religion, many people find their right ways to live this precious lives with guidance of mentors.

Therefore, in this research, I would like to find out teachers' perceptions on mentoring, their opinions about the implementation of mentoring and their critical views on how mentoring could be implemented in their practice. The next section will now move on to consider a peer dialogue model for mentoring alongside some of its possible benefits and constraints in the context.

Literature review

The concept of mentoring

Mentoring comes from the word mentor as a name of a wise captain who offers guidance to Odysseus's son. According to Eisenman and Thornton (1999, pp. 80-81) mentoring means a 'situation in which a knowledgeable person aids a less knowledgeable person'. Jeffrey and Ferguson (1992) state that 'mentoring is a process by which an older and more experienced person takes a younger person under his or her wing freely offering advice and encouragement.' Thus mentoring concept and principles can be seen through socio-cultural perspectives (Edwards & Collison, 1996; Rogoff, 1995; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Wertsch, 1991) since by doing mentoring both mentor and mentee builds their socialisation and acculturation into local (school) and broader educational contexts (Bullough & Draper, 2004; Edwards, 1998; Feiman-Nemser and Parker, 1992).

The process of mentoring implies an extended relationship involving additional behaviour such as counselling and professional friendship (Gardiner, 1998). This kind of relationship needs deeper interaction to know one another as mentoring is a complex activity deeply associated with the support of individual learning (Rhodes & Beneicke, 2002) in broader counselling and support (Langsberg, 1996). Finally, the mentoring relationship is described by Hobson & Malderez (2013 p. 90) as "... one-to-one relationship between a relatively inexperienced teacher (the mentee) and a relatively experienced one (the mentor) which aims to support the mentee's learning and development as a teacher, and their integration into and acceptance by the cultures of the school and the profession".

Mentoring has been known as a way to support teacher trainees in doing their teaching practice and develop their teaching skills and knowledge (Eisenman and Thornton, 1999; Glover and Mardle, 1995; Wilkin and Sankey, 1994). However, Randall and Thornton (2001) highlight that mentoring on pre-service teacher education programme in the present system gives mentor responsibility to not only help professional or developmental growth of the mentee, but also give training and assessment for the

mentee. Thus, Glover and Law (1996) state that increasing use of mentoring is a way to give general and peer support for Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) during an induction period, or support more experienced teachers for undertaking new or different responsibilities (p. 38). To develop a mentoring 'culture', teachers use a mutual support system to build reflection and 'a boost of morale' within a climate of 'entitlement' (*ibid*).

Related to teachers' practices, mentoring helps teachers to learn and develop their reflective practice (Dewey, 1993; Schon, 1983; Zeichner, 1994) since through the mentoring process, both mentor and mentee reflect more on their practice and find out the appropriate way to proceed. Thus, mentoring keeps teachers reflecting on their practices as well as learning from others' practices.

The aims and benefits of mentoring

Mentoring is designed to provide non-evaluative, non-threatening source of support and development to practising teachers (Bailey *et al*., 2001). It aims to generate a positive impact on mentees' emotional wellbeing (e.g. Bullough & Draper, 2004; Marable & Raimondi, 2007) since mentoring processes aim to shape teachers' beliefs and values in a positive way. It is often considered as a longer-term career relationship from someone who has 'done it before' and a mentor is an experienced and trusted adviser who takes a custodial interest in the progress of another. A mentor will help to assess performance, to obtain confidential feedback in individual strengths and weaknesses, and to learn new skills and behaviours in a positive way as well. The mentor will help build a valuable network and might also introduce the mentee to their contexts. In many cases, mentors take a long-term approach and are likely to be older and more experienced. Thus 'mentoring appears to be a preferred support mechanism as it draws upon the expertise of existing school staff who can provide immediate benefits to the beginning teachers' (Hudson, 2012).

For EFL teachers where English is not used in daily life conversation, having the chance to implement English and used professionally is needed. This way can be acquired through mentoring which improves professional knowledge and skills base (e.g. Mcintyre & Hagger 1996; Lindgren 2005), including subject and curriculum knowledge, ability to manage time and workload, classroom management, informed reflection and noticing. As the mentee could have professional improvement, the result of their practice will benefit learners, schools, government and the country.

However, it should be remembered that mentor-teachers do not aim to create clones of the mentors but to help mentees develop into the best teachers they can be (Pitton, 2006, p. 1). Thus, mentors could share best practices that they have achieved in their teaching to mentees but there is no rule that mentees should follow the same way to fix some problems in their practices. Mentees could absorb the values of the sharing and decide the best way to teach and meet their students' needs based on their competencies.

Related to collegiality collaboration, Gillmore (2016) proves that mentoring helps mentors and mentees become better teachers, as experienced teachers tend to keep doing the same things in their teaching practices, while new teachers expose themselves to current research and technology. By working together in mentoring, experienced teachers develop resources to use in the future and help with classroom management by providing a different perspective on students' behaviour. Thus, mentoring not only benefits the mentees but also the experienced teachers who are the mentors.

The needs for mentoring

Mentoring is needed as mentees need a guide, a supporter, a friend, an advocate, and a role model (Chapel, 2003; Tatum el al., 1999) to help them develop their professionalism. Mentoring helps teachers acquire teacher knowledge which consists of 'know about' as the head of teaching, 'know how' as the hand of teaching and 'know intuitively' to use that knowledge appropriately in action as the heart of teaching (Hobson, Malderez *et al.*, 2009). The 'know about' and 'know how' can be learnt in school and classroom, however for 'know to', this can only be learnt through experiences of planning, teaching, reviewing and learning from actual teaching which integrates knowledge-base, a personal practical knowledge, development (Malderez & Wedell 2007). Thus, when new teachers start their practices in schools, they need to convert their knowledge about theories of learning from university into practice and experiences in school. In this condition, the teachers need mentors to help them implement teaching practice based on some theories they have learned.

Roles and responsibility of mentors

Smith and West-Burnham (1993) state that 'the role of mentor is to act as a "wise counsellor", guide, and adviser to younger or newer colleagues'. Thus, mentors are experienced teachers who have received appropriate Initial Mentor Preparation through training programmes or short courses. This process shape mentors as peers for the mentees, not as line managers or assessors or someone who reports on the mentees' performances. If the mentors perform their roles in a wrong way, the results of the mentoring will not be in positive impacts but on the contrary. As Hobson & Malderez (2013) stated, someone who is called 'a mentor' may not, in fact, be supporting learning, and in the worst cases may be impeding a mentee's learning.

By having mentors in 'support', 'sponsor' and 'acculturator' roles, teachers are helped with issues related to emotions, relationships and identity, while in their 'model' and 'educator' roles teachers are enabled to see the practical, contextualised relevance to them of what they learn formally elsewhere (Hobson, Malderez *et al.*, 2009). These refer to the importance of experiences in teaching as valuable sources of learning for teachers. Teachers may have some views on teacher knowledge and learning, which proves ineffectiveness of 'theory-application' models in their practice. Thus, many perspectives on teachers learning emphasise the centrality of experience. For instance, constructivist views of learning, which refer to individual biographies and past experience influencing present meaning making and socio-cultural views, refer to participation in and experiences of communities of practice (Hobson, Malderez *et al.*, 2009). For teachers themselves, the experience of being in schools and actually teaching is being the most valuable single source of their learning. Additionally, mentors could help mentees through 'educator' role to support the on-going learning from the experiences of teaching. In 'acculturator' and 'sponsor' roles, mentors support a teacher's progress towards full participation in the communities (e.g. school, profession) they are joining - as only they are full practising members of such communities.

Fullerton and Malderez (1998) in Malderez & Bodoczky (1999) and Malderez & Wedell (2007) also present roles of mentors as a 'model' who are modelling how to be, rather than how to do and making some values visible to the mentees. They refer to 'support' as being a 'shoulder to cry on' and a listening ear and 'educator', scaffolding the learning of the skills of noticing, of learning from their own and others' experiences to develop an integrated knowledge-base. Supporters respond contingently to a range of emerging needs.

Roles and responsibilities of mentors are not easy to fulfil, thus lack of clarity regarding mentoring roles can lead to confusion and ineffective support mentees (Brooks, 2000; Chapel 2003).

For example, conducting reflective conversations are not straightforward so that to do this needs a trained mentor (Foreman, 2013). As Gillmore (2016) states mentors should have formal training about how to be good mentor as when giving feedback to mentees, it needs to be regular, thorough and constructive and focusing evaluations of specific aspects, like moving around the classroom or interacting with students.

Some issues of mentoring

Besides the benefits of implementing effective mentoring, there are some practices of 'judgementoring' and other threats which impact on mentoring (Hobson and Malderez, 2013). Some ways of 'judgementoring' according to (Hobson and Malderez, 2013) are being critical of mentees' work as novice teachers by giving negative judgements; belief that mentor's way is the right way to teach, and the use of restrictive feedback in post-lesson discussions.

However, mentoring is still a powerful tool to enhance skills in classroom management and self-reflection and to improve job satisfaction as teachers. Hobson and Malderez (2013) state that many shortcomings can be traced back to institutional and policy-level failings. Therefore, in mentoring schemes, the selection criteria for mentors should consider candidates' willingness, aptitude and expertise of being mentors. Hobson and Malderez (2013) add that ineffective or insufficient training leaves mentors ill-prepared, mentors are given insufficient time to meet procedural demands, schools task mentors with conflicting mentor or assessor roles and little effort is made to build effective partnerships with relevant higher education institutions.

Another issue is when some mentors do not have a clear idea of what mentoring is and believe in 'proceduralist-apprenticeship' rather than 'understanding-oriented' approach to professional learning and development (Hobson, 2003). Therefore, mentoring for effective teaching requires quality preparation and careful selection of mentors (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez & Tomlinson, 2009).

Methodology

In this part, the methodology and the outline of some approaches, which are used to select participants and data collection, are explored. These parts are then followed by a description of data collection procedure, which includes piloting and data analysis. At the end of this part, some issues and limitations existing in this study are addressed.

Research question

In the first part, the research question, which becomes the basis for the research aims, is presented; it consists of: What do teachers, lecturers, and trainers understand by the term mentoring?

Research approach

This study is based on a qualitative inquiry and interpretative paradigm or constructivist worldview (McKay, 2006). Qualitative inquiry seeks to understand individuals' views on the world (Bell, 2010). As this study explores and finds out what participants think and understand about mentoring, it is therefore a practitioner research, which is known as natural setting (Cohen, 2000; Robson, 1993; Wallen and Fraenkel, 2001). Therefore, the social context in which the study event appears is important (Neuman, 1994).

This qualitative study is an exploratory activity (Wellington, 2000, p. 133) and it is shaped by an interpretation process (Denscombe, 1998; Denzin and Norman, 2000). As Creswell (2014) states, qualitative research is 'the approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem' (p. 4). Allwright (2005) defines Exploratory Practice (EP) as an indefinitely sustainable way of language teaching and learning, to develop understandings of life in language. In particular, this study attempts to make sense of the collected data, question them and generate new insights from them (Wellingon, 2000) to make them understandable (Neuman, 1994). By implementing a mixed methods approach, a more complete understanding on the topic of the study can be provided as this study uses qualitative and quantitative methodology (Johnson *et al.*, 2007; cited in Creswell and Clark, 2011).

Sampling and participants

As this study is an exploratory study, non-probability sampling is used. Non-probability sampling is more feasible and more informative in a qualitative research compared with probability sampling (Wellington, 2000). In this study, the participants are educational practitioners whom I know and had professional experience with. They are from the researched context and have experienced the researched event. Furthermore, participants have the chance to give further information about the data needed in order to gain a deeper understanding (Neuman, 1997, p. 206). The sample is also identified based on a sample of convenience in which a selected group is in some way representative of the larger population (McKay, 2006, p. 37).

In this study, the participants consist of three different groups of educational practitioners. The first group consists of 4 teachers (Tc1, Tc2, Tc3 and Tc4) who have been teaching English for secondary schools in Indonesia. The second group are 5 lecturers (Lr1, Lr2, Lr3, Lr4, and Lr5) who teach EFL teacher-trainees in some universities in Indonesia. The third group are 3 educational trainers (Tr1, Tr2, & Tr3) who have dedicated themselves to give some training for EFL teachers.

Data collection tools

In this research, questionnaire and interview are used to collect data as multiple methods. Use of multiple method helps to produce deeper information on the research topic and allows the researcher to see things from different perspectives and to understand the topic in a more rounded way, so it can improve the quality of the research (Denscombe, 1998, p. 84). A variety of instruments in the data collection process can also enhance the validity and reliability of the study (Wallen and Fraenkel 2001, p. 477).

Questionnaire

Through written questionnaires a good deal of information can be gathered in a short amount of time which makes it a very effective means for researchers (McKay, 2006, p. 35). The questionnaire, which is used in this research, is the combination of structured free-response or open questions which Craft (1996) states is good at exploring attitudes with highly structured or closed questionnaires. However, Cohen and Manion (1989) warn that open-ended questions may not necessarily bring a clear response but are still useful to explore someone's views.

Therefore, some types of information including factual information about participants' experiences, and attitudinal information about their feelings and opinions are provided Dornyei, 2003, cited in McKay, 2006, p. 35). In order to explore participants' views about mentoring, both open-ended questions and closed questions were used in the questionnaire. Closed questions lend themselves nicely

to being quantified and compared (Denscombe, 1998, p. 101), while open-ended questions 'give more scope for respondents to supply answers reflecting the exact facts or true feelings on a topic'.

The questionnaire is divided into five parts. Part A is about participants' working experiences, which lead to some experiences of mentoring activities in Part B. In second and third parts, questions explore their experiences on mentoring in response to information from the literature. Part D is formulated to elicit participants' views on future implementation of mentoring in Indonesia. Finally, in part E participants respond to items related to their understanding mentoring. In this questionnaire, participants are made aware in the introduction of their rights such as confidentiality, and they are requested to give truthful answers to questions. Finally, they are asked about their willingness to take part in an interview session and to provide contact details.

Interview

In this research, a semi-structured interview (Nunan, 1992, p. 149) or an in-depth interview (Esterberg, 2002; Grix, 2004) is used to collect data. By implementing this data collection tool, rich insights into people's experience, opinions, attitudes and feelings are gained (McKay, 2006, p. 51). This type of interview consists of a list of pre-determined questions, which were asked for all participants, and it also includes some questions unique to each participants, based on their responses in the questionnaire (Nunan, 1992). It allows for follow-up questions to be asked in order to gain deeper understanding (Richards, 2003, p. 64-65) and is useful for exploring topics in detail (Esterberg, 2002, p. 87). In addition, this interview approach is useful when making comparisons between interview responses for analysis (Grix, 2004, p. 128).

The design of the study

Piloting and revision

Piloting is the process of creating, adapting, developing and trying out questionnaires or interviews (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 413). In this research, both the questionnaire and interview were piloted by three colleagues on the MEd TESOL programme and by one English teacher in Indonesia before they were administrated to the actual participants. The process of piloting identified ambiguous instruction and questions, which were difficult to answer (McKay, 2006, p. 41; Oppenheim, 1992, p. 413), so a few changes were made. Piloting interview questions helped the researcher to find out if the questions yielded the kind of data required and to eliminate any questions, which may be unclear to the interviewee (Nunan, 1992, p. 151).

Data collection procedure

The purposes of the study were explained to the participants and the ethical issues were informed to them before they took part in giving any information for the study. The questionnaires were distributed and after filling in the questionnaire, they are voluntarily interviewed. Each interview lasted about thirty minutes and was recorded by digital recorder. Subsequently, the whole data from interviews, which was conducted in Bahasa Indonesia, was transcribed and translated into transcript works for further reading and analysis. The questionnaire was conducted in English but some participants may answer the questions in Bahasa Indonesia to avoid misunderstanding. Before the data analysis process, all the data collected from the questionnaire and interview were stored securely to ensure confidentiality.

Data analysis

The data analysis process in this study is based on a manual way in which data is marked and manipulated on paper (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Richards, 2003) as an inductive analysis (Wallen and Fraenkel, 2001, p. 435). Particularly, the data collected from closed questions and open questions in the questionnaire were presented and analysed in the tables according to frequency (Creswell, 2007). The data collected from open questions in interviews were coded before they were reflected on, categorised and generated into concepts and themes (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Richards, 2003).

As this research implemented qualitative and quantitative data analysis, the analysis process will be differentiated into two phases. Craft (1996) explains that in qualitative data analysis, after collecting data the researcher needs to carefully examine the data and start to identify recurrent themes, issues and categories then sort the data based on the categories. In this research, the researcher noted the patterns and find groups and subgroups of the issues. Then, the researcher related the issues with the research questions that needs to be answered. Craft (1996) describes the process of analysis of data through the following figure.
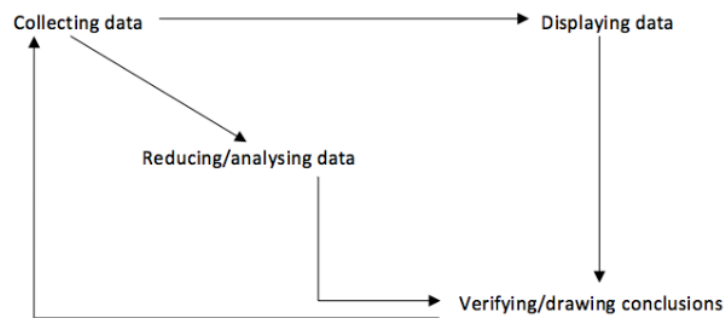
Figure 1: Components of data analysis
Source: Based on Craft (1996)

Then, the quantitative data is analysed through measuring and counting the rating scales.

In this research, the researcher implemented a Chart (1996) described as discrete variables related to the place of in-service work and continuous variables consisting length of teaching experiences. Then, based on some categories in the questionnaire, the numerical and percentage forms of data are calculated into a mean. The data is presented next through some tables and charts followed by a simplified discussion of the principle issues.

Research issues: Credibility, trustworthiness, transferability, and ethical issues

Craft (1996) states that validation of the hypotheses and categories could be done through saturation and triangulation. In this research, saturation is held when the responses are grouped into each category and triangulation exists when comparing theories of mentoring towards the data (Cohen and Manion, 1989). Then, the data is interpreted to fit a valid category into the theory and research questions.

The use of questionnaire and interview might help to see things from different perspectives, corroborate findings and established credibility (*internal validity*) (Denscombe, 1998, p. 85). Besides, participants were asked to confirm their interpretation of their responses in the interview questions which experimenter bias and increase credibility (Mertens, 1998, p. 182; Cohen, 2000, p. 121) and

dependability (*reliability*) which is regarded as a fit between what a researcher records as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched (Cohen, 2000, p. 199-120). In addition, a thick description of context and participants for this study was provided which might enable readers to determine to what extent the findings might be applicable to other contexts, which achieves the transferability of this research (*external validity*) (McKay, 2006, p. 13; Mertens, 1998, p. 183). Together with this description, a provision of all steps taken to carry out the study and a careful selection of representative examples from the data used to illustrate particular conclusions can make this research gain more dependability.

Limitations

Although mentoring is commonly implemented for pre-service teachers, this study explores in-service EFL teachers' views on mentoring in Indonesia. Therefore, the participants are from the researched context and consist of three groups of educational practitioners. The participants represent teachers', lecturers' and trainers' voices in Indonesia since they teach and do their practice in different parts of Indonesia. However, any implications of the findings into a new context still need to be taken into consideration.

Results analysis and discussion

Participants' views on the term mentoring

There are several sub-questions in the questionnaire and interview session, which are answered in order to investigate participants' views on mentoring and compare their views with the literature. The questions are about participants' understanding of mentoring, how they know about mentoring and their experiences of participating in a mentoring scheme, whether as a mentor or mentee.

Participants' understandings of mentoring

In this sub-section, the results of the participants' understanding on defining the term mentoring from filling in the questionnaire Section C number 1 and answering interview Part B are presented, analysed and discussed. There are various understandings about mentoring addressed by the participants, which are divided into three parts.

First, mentoring is understood as the way of giving motivation, empowerment, feedback, advice, and help for a mentee or less-experienced teacher to reflect on their competence and take actions and control of their own teaching to reach needed competence, knowledge and skills. This understanding is in accordance with Eisenman and Thornton (1999), Hobson & Malderez (2013), and Pitton (2006), who state mentoring is helping less knowledgeable, less experienced, or inexperienced person. As Lr4 states 'mentoring is helping less-experienced teachers in enhancing knowledge and skills in teaching'.

Second, mentoring is also understood as a way of giving training, practice and guide for experienced teachers, friends, or colleagues to have a plan on strategy needed for quality improvement. This is in line with Bailey *et al*. (2001) and Glover and Law (1996) whereby mentoring also helps experienced teachers as professional relationship for undertaking different responsibilities and collaboration. As Lr1 states 'mentoring is a part of academic collegiality to help each other develop'.

Third, mentoring is a way of giving chances for mentors and mentees to reflect and attain positive values in their practices, share knowledge and learn together for the benefit of the mentee, the mentor and students. Dewey, (1993), Schon (1983), Zeichner (1994) relate mentoring with reflective practice, matching Tc3's response: 'mentoring is guiding, sharing, reflecting, giving feed-back, giving motivation and learning together'. In another view, Tr1 explains more: 'mentoring is a good way to enter deep reflection on professional practice as reflection plays the major roles to make meaning on the teacher's actions'. Thus, in mentoring, mentor's guidance to help mentee reflect on their actions is seen as crucial.

In the interview Part B, almost all of the teachers define mentoring same as Bailey *et al.* (2001), Craft (1996), and Glover and Law (1996), Lr4 successfully defines the term mentoring as 'a way to help less experienced teachers share as well as improve their competences. However, it is found that almost all participants see in mentoring, age is not a matter since the focus is on teacher knowledge and skills development as per Hobson, Malderez *et al.* (2009). Tr3 states 'whenever she has some difficulties or willingness to develop herself, she will open a discussion with certain people who are more professional and qualified than her, regardless of the age issue'. This finding then contradicts Jeffrey and Ferguson's (1992) ideas that in mentoring, older person takes younger person to offer advice and encouragement.

Tc1 affirms that 'mentoring happens between friends in the same profession' which specifies mentoring could be held in school community. Lr4 also explains more in the interview: 'mentoring is an expression of our love to education for the advancement of human knowledge and human education and mentoring is a matter of willingness to share with each other'. Their ideas can be related to the socio-cultural perspective as what Edwards & Collison (1996), Rogoff (1995), Tharp & Gallimore (1988), and Wertsch (1991) state in literature. This means that mentoring leads to socialisation and acculturation as stated by Bullough & Draper (2004), Edwards (1998), and Feiman-Nemser and Parker (1992). There is also something interesting from the interview session that Tr2 says 'in mentoring, mentors and mentees might not have found the way to reach their goals, therefore mentors and mentees have to work together to find the best way', which coincides with Gardiner's (1998) and Langsberg's (1996) perception that mentoring involves counselling and professional friendship to support individual learning (Rhodes & Beneicke, 2002).

Below is a table about participants' response on some statements in the questionnaire section E number 1, 6, and 14, related to their view on the term mentoring by stating 1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for agree and 4 for strongly agree.

Statements	Results (N*=12)			
	1	2	3	4
I understand the term 'mentoring'			4	8
I think knowledge and experience about mentoring would benefit teachers in their professional practice			2	10
I think having practices on mentoring would benefit pre-service teachers in their future practice.			4	8

(N*: Number of respondents = 12 participants)
Table 1: Participants' understanding on the term 'mentoring'

From the table above, it can be seen that participants state their understanding of the concept of mentoring. However, more participants strongly agree that mentoring would benefit in-service teachers. Bailey *et al.* (2001) indeed state that mentoring is designed to provide a non-evaluative, non- threatening source of support and development to practising teachers. Thus, Tr3 states in the interview session that

'mentoring will benefit in-service teachers to become mentors and mentees for each other'. The reason for this could be linked to Randall and Thornton (2001) who state that in mentoring, teaching supervisor does not exist thereby creating a more informal collegiate support network.

Participants' familiarity with mentoring

The results below show how the participants first met the term mentoring. In questionnaire Section C number 2, participants were asked where they had first met the term 'mentoring' and table below shows the results.

(N*: Number of respondents = 12 participants)
Figure 3: Participants' experiences on mentoring practices
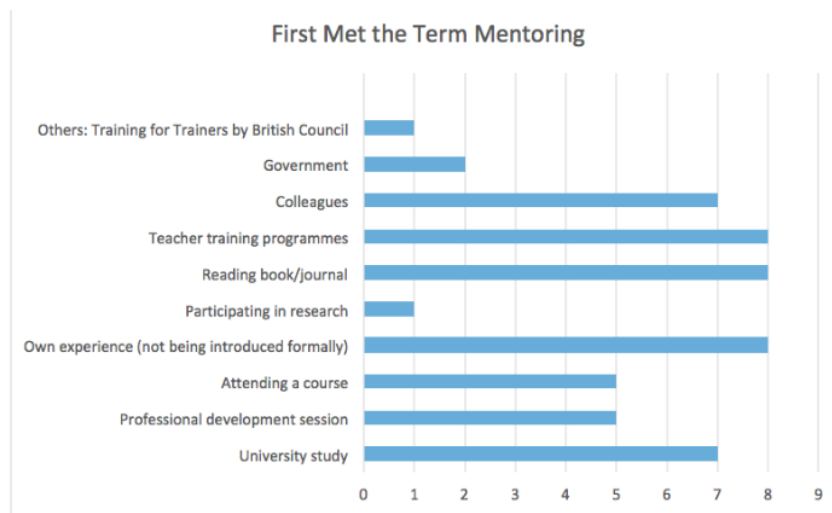
(N*: Number of respondents = 12 participants)
Figure 2: Participants first met the term 'mentoring'

The data gathered shows most of the participants knew the term mentoring from teachers training programmes, reading books/journals and their own experiences or in other words they are not being introduced formally. More than half of the participants also knew the term mentoring from colleagues and university study. Although there is considerable awareness of mentoring in Indonesia, clearly there are still some gaps both in terms of theory and practice.

Participants' experiences in mentoring

The diagram below shows participants' experiences of participating in a mentoring scheme in educational aspect whether as a mentor or a mentee in questionnaire Section C number 3.

In response to the question, the data shows that two thirds – 8 participants out of 12 participants – have experienced mentoring and most of them who have become mentees then became mentors for other mentees in their practice. However, most of the participants' state that the mentoring schemes they have followed constitute informal mentoring since mentoring has not been implemented in Indonesia yet.

In interview Part B, Lr4 states: 'my participating on mentoring activity is not in a particular program, but in term of sharing what I know. At that experience, I became mentor and mentee as well who did mentoring informally without any schemes'. Tr3 adds 'I have become a mentor for 3.5 years and done assessment, guidance, visit, observation and discussion related to teachers' competency in pedagogy and knowledge based on teachers' needs through interview session'. In other experiences, Lr1 shares his experience of doing mentoring when he found a role model who is inspirational, senior and expert to find his strengths in accordance with his goals (Chapel, 2003; Tatum el al., 1999). Tc2 shares her mentoring experience and concurs that an informal procedure is prevalent: 'I have done mentoring by sharing with other teachers who are more professional about class management, teaching methods, technology in teaching, teaching experiences and also for the administration in my school or other schools'.

Implications and conclusion

In this part, the implications of the study to some educational aspects will be delivered. Some recommendations on the future implementation of mentoring in Indonesia will be addressed and finally conclusions on the study will be drawn.

Implications and recommendations

Based on the findings, it seems that all participants have already understood the term mentoring with some perspectives through this exploratory study. Even though a mentoring scheme has not been implemented in the educational system, especially in EFL in-service teachers, all participants could share deep views on mentoring and some. This is because the participants informally have implemented mentoring in their lives. The mentoring they followed naturally occurred in their career as a response to their needs. However, there is a limitation since mentoring has not been implemented formally in their practice. Therefore, it is still important to explore participants' views on formal implementation of mentoring schemes in Indonesia through this research. Their views in this research become basic knowledge for the future implementation of mentoring scheme for EFL in-service teachers. Based on the discussion, there are some aspects to be considered in future including the roles of mentors and mentees, and also some issues related to previous mentoring programmes in other contexts.

First, it is essential for participants to fully understand the rationale of mentoring. It seems that all participants have understood the term mentoring, but it does not mean that all participants know the real goals of mentoring. It is proven by the findings that the participants still put mentoring skills for mentors and the goals of mentoring into their consideration to be learned through training or short courses. Therefore, in regards to the future implementation of mentoring in Indonesia, some training programmes or short courses are recommended to be held in order to prepare the mentors and mentees to be ready for the mentoring scheme. Not only the teachers, it is also important for educational department, institutions, and government to be introduced to the mentoring as well as the theory, practice, aims, strategy and nature or mentoring to ensure that mentoring can be sustainably maintained as authentic in Indonesia.

The findings of this study will contribute to further research on the implementation of mentoring scheme in Indonesia, especially for EFL in-service teacher. The implications will also contribute to the design of mentoring schemes as well as mentors and mentees training programmes which could be appropriate in Indonesian contexts.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has attempted to find out some views about conceptions and perceptions that lecturers, teacher trainers and in-service EFL teachers hold about mentoring. Even though in this study has a small group of participants which consisted of 12 participants, with limited time of conducting the research, some views on mentoring represented by the participants could give wide understanding and perceptions related to mentoring in Indonesia.

The findings may have limited generalizability as this study may offer valuable evidence on practitioners' reflections regarding mentoring and its future implementation. It is hoped that this study will help more teachers, schools, educational institutions and departments to be more aware on the importance of mentoring and persevere in finding the best way to reach individual and institutional growth in their teaching practice, especially through mentoring.

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