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PEDAGOGY

An Interdivision Mentoring Program: Doctoral Students as Mentors for Preservice Teachers

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Abstract

A recent surge in scholarship related to doctoral education in physical education teacher education has raised questions about the effectiveness of doctoral programs in preparing students to fill the role of teacher educator. Given that most doctoral program graduates seek positions as teacher educators, they are responsible for educating the next generation of preservice physical educators and need to be adequately prepared for the role. Inviting doctoral students to serve as mentors for small groups of preservice teachers during methods courses and early field experiences taught by experienced faculty members represent one way doctoral students can practice the role of teacher educator in a supervised environment. Further, in these arrangements, preservice teachers get attention and feedback beyond what is possible when a single instructor teaches the course. This paper provides practical guidance for implementing a mentoring program, including potential benefits and challenges, and gives recommendations for research and practice.

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There is a rich tradition of research related to doctoral student socialization in higher education (e.g., Gardner, 2008a, 2010b; Golde & Walker, 2006). While Lawson (1991) advocated similar research in physical education teacher education (PETE) over 25 years ago, only recently have scholars begun examining the socialization experiences of PETE doctoral (D-PETE) students (Casey & Fletcher, 2012; Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011; Richards, Eberline, & Templin, 2016; Richards, McLoughlin, Gaudreault, & Shiver, in press). Building upon the work of Lee and Curtner-Smith (2011), Russell, Gaudreault, and Richards (2016) developed a model of D-PETE socialization that expands upon occupational socialization theory (OST). The model recognizes five phases of socialization beginning with acculturation and culminating in socialization through the faculty role.

Understanding the ways in which D-PETE students are socialized into faculty roles is critical to the viability of the physical education (PE) profession. As scholars, they study teaching and learning, and as teacher educators, they prepare the next generation of physical educators and provide professional development to inservice teachers. For this reason, both in the extant literature (Golde & Walker, 2006) and in PETE (Lawson, 2016; Russell et al., 2016), faculty members have been referred to as stewards of their respective disciplines. The notion of stewardship encompasses both a set of technical skills required to advance the discipline, and principles, which relates to a moral compass and caring disposition that embraces the importance of making those advancements. We, therefore, conceptualize D-PETE preparation and socialization as a process through which prospective faculty members are prepared for disciplinary stewardship, and this stewardship must encompass the multiple roles that faculty members play related to research, teaching, and service (Richards & Levesque-Bristol, 2016).

While some attention has been given to the ways individuals learn to be teacher educators (Casey & Fletcher, 2012; T. Fletcher & Casey, 2014), comparatively little has been directed toward conceptualizing how the process of learning to be a teacher educator can be made more intentional. Prior teaching experiences as an inservice professional may be viewed as important to an individual's identity as a teacher educator (M. Woods, Goc Karp, & Judd, 2011), but not everyone who pursues D-PETE education is an effective inservice teacher and some practices learned to be effective with children do

not transfer to college students (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). We propose that D-PETE students should be exposed to formal opportunities to experience and practice the role of teacher educator while receiving support and feedback.

This conceptual manuscript provides an overview of how D-PETE students can better prepare for their future roles as teacher educators through engagement in a mentoring program whereby they serve as mentors for preservice teachers in methods courses and early field experiences. We draw upon the literature related to mentoring in educational contexts to examine an interdivision mentoring program in which D-PETE students serve as mentors to preservice teachers completing methods courses and early field experiences. These arrangements, we argue, create a mutually beneficial relationship in which the D-PETE students practice the role of teacher educator in a supportive environment, while the preservice service teachers get additional attention and feedback. Our arguments are grounded in OST (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017; Templin & Schempp, 1989), focusing primarily on doctoral education, which has been referred to as secondary professional socialization (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011).

Occupational Socialization Theory

Lawson (1986) defined occupational socialization into the PE profession as "all kinds of socialization that initially influence persons to enter the field of PE and later are responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers" (p. 107). Those with this perspective embrace a dialectical approach to understanding socialization by acknowledging that individuals have the ability to covertly or overtly resist the influences of those who wish to socialize them (Schempp & Graber, 1992). Traditionally, OST has been used for examining the ways individuals are recruited into, prepared for, and socialized through careers as inservice physical educators. These processes are typically viewed through the three phases of acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization (Richards, Templin, & Graber, 2014). Lawson (1991), however, noted that OST could be extended to examining the experiences of PETE faculty, and Lee and Curtner-Smith (2011) proposed secondary professional socialization as the process of D-PETE education for faculty roles.

Initial Socialization Into Physical Education

While our arguments are most concerned with secondary professional socialization as it relates to preparation for the teaching facet of the faculty role, this process cannot be understood without attention to antecedent socialization that initially draws individuals into PE and eventually D-PETE programs (Russell et al., 2016). During *acculturation*, individuals are recruited into PE based on their experiences in PE and youth sport as children during what Lortie (1975) referred to as the apprenticeship of observation. This anticipatory socialization leads to the development of subjective theories related to the purpose and goals of PE that become rather stable and difficult to change (Grotjahn, 1991). In countries such as the United States where physical educators often serve as coaches, acculturation also leads to the development of role orientations that lay on a spectrum ranging from preference for teaching PE to preference for coaching extracurricular sport (Richards & Templin, 2012).

Individuals advance to *professional socialization* when they make the decision to purpose a career in PE and enter a PETE program (Curtner-Smith, Hastie, & Kinchin, 2008). Preservice teachers are taught the knowledge, skills, and dispositions PETE faculty members believe to be important to teaching PE. When recruits' subjective theories do not align with those espoused by faculty members, however, they are likely to resist formal teacher education (Richards et al., 2014). This may be particularly true of students with a coaching orientation who entered into the teaching field as a contingency to coaching (Curtner-Smith, 1997).

When individuals move into their first teaching position, they begin *organizational socialization*. This phase of socialization emphasizes the role played by the sociopolitical environment present in a school setting, which has a significant impact on physical educators' careers through experiences such as isolation (Richards et al., 2014) and marginalization (Kougioumtzis, Patriksson, & Stråhlman, 2011). Many beginning teachers work in environments that encourage a custodial orientation emphasizing traditional teaching methods, which perpetuates the status quo rather than challenging it (Richards, Templin, & Gaudreault, 2013). Over time, this can lead to the "washout effect" in which beginning teachers abandon teaching

strategies learned during PETE in favor of those that prevail in their school context (Blankenship & Coleman, 2009).

Secondary Professional Socialization

While some individuals remain physical educators in schools for long careers (e.g., A. Woods & Lynn, 2014), some transition out of teaching to pursue careers as PETE faculty members. It should also be noted that not all recruits teach in school environments before pursuing doctoral education as some move directly from professional socialization into D-PETE programs (Richards, McLoughlin, et al., in press). Regardless of the specific path taken, when individuals begin formal D-PETE education, they enter *secondary professional socialization* (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). Golde (1998) defined the doctoral student socialization process as one "in which a newcomer is made a member of a community – in the case of doctoral students, the community of an academic department in a particular discipline" (p. 56). In much the same way that professional socialization seeks to prepare preservice teachers with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to teach, secondary professional socialization can be conceptualized as a series of formal and informal learning experiences intended to prepare doctoral students for careers in academia (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

An important part of the doctoral student socialization process is learning what it means to be a faculty member—both within their specific discipline and academia more generally (Reich & Reich, 2006). This culture includes explicitly communicated expectations as well as unwritten rules that must be learned through interactions with others (Golde, 1998). As such, relationships are particularly important to successful socialization experiences (Austin & McDaniels, 2006). Without strong relationships, doctoral education can be an isolating experience (Baker & Pifer, 2011). Faculty members play an important role in secondary professional socialization by providing a variety of support and guidance through the doctoral education process (Gardner, 2010b; Nettles & Millett, 2006). Doctoral students' orientations toward teaching and research, for example, are highly influenced by those of faculty mentors, and they are more likely to focus on research if they are encouraged to do so (Weidman & Stein, 2003). Beyond the advisor, individuals often seek guidance from other faculty members and their peers, as well as

family members and friends outside of academia (Gardner, 2010a). Students within the same program often engage in informal peer mentoring, as veteran students serve an important role in inducting newcomers to a program (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2000).

Research specifically related to the socialization of D-PETE students is limited; however, emerging evidence highlights the potency of the experience. Lee and Curtner-Smith (2011) comment specifically on the strength of secondary professional socialization, particularly in relation to initial teacher education, and note the importance of influential faculty mentors and undergraduate teaching opportunities. Related to the teaching aspect of the faculty role, there appears to be an implicit assumption that prior socialization and experience teaching K–12 PE will transfer to working with preservice teachers (Murray & Male, 2005), which may help to explain why more emphasis is placed on research than teaching in D-PETE programs. However, in considering their own socialization experiences, Casey and Fletcher (2012) describe differences between teaching PE and teaching at the higher education level and emphasize the need to "unlearn" practices that work with school-age children but not college students.

The changing landscape of PE, which now emphasizes health-related fitness activities, may also be problematic for some D-PETE students learning to teach at the college level (M. Parker, Sutherland, Sinclair, & Ward, 2011). This may be particularly the case for individuals who worked as inservice physical educators for long periods before returning to pursue a doctoral degree (Richards, McLoughlin, et al., in press). For these reasons, it is important that D-PETE students be given formalized opportunities to practice the role of teacher educator in authentic settings, preferably under the supervision of experienced PETE faculty members (Dodds, 2005)

In interpreting the secondary professional socialization process, it is important that we note that prior socialization plays an important role in framing one's induction into the faculty role (Austin, 2002; Russell et al., 2016). Individuals who initially enter PE because they want to coach and who maintain that coaching orientation through initial teacher education may espouse more conservative orientations when entering D-PETE than those whose acculturation results in a teaching orientation strengthened through PETE (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). Further, although often presented in a

temporal sequence, the phases of socialization are not linear (Russell et al., 2016).

While most individuals experience initial acculturation as children through their own PE and sport experiences, the remaining phases may not be experienced in lock-step fashion, and D-PETE recruits may skip phases. Not all D-PETE recruits, for example, experience initial teacher education, and not all are licensed teachers. Further, some recruits experience initial teacher education, but forgo teaching in school settings to move directly into D-PETE (Richards, McLoughlin, et al., in press). Others still spend decades teaching PE in school settings before deciding to pursue a second career as a PETE faculty member. In short, recruits come into D-PETE programming with a variety of background experiences, which must be considered when interpreting their readiness for different elements of D-PETE. In an effort to better meet the needs of D-PETE students in their journeys toward becoming teacher educators, we now turn to the mentoring literature, which provides insights into how prospective PETE faculty members can practice the role of teacher educator in a supportive environment.

Overview of Mentoring

The term *mentor* describes a relationship between two individuals in which the mentor has expertise gained through experience and education relative to the protégé, or individual being mentored (Allen, Eby, Peteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004). Traditionally, mentor and protégé relationships were informal, and the two parties were left to serendipitously find one another (Kram, 1985). However, as organizations realized the potential for mentoring relationships to positively impact both mentor and protégé, more formal arrangements were developed (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999; Ehrich, Hansford, & Tennent, 2004). Mentoring now serves an important informal and/or formal socialization function as one of the ways the norms and culture of a profession broadly and an organization more specifically are transmitted to the next generation.

Key characteristics of mentoring include significant assistance offered to the protégé in a warm and nurturing environment by a skilled mentor, and continuous reflection, which is an important part of professional growth involved in the process (Jones, Harris, & Miles, 2009; Long, 1997). It is best conceptualized as a reciprocal

process in which both mentor and protégé benefit from the relationship by exploring and sharing their own thinking through cooperation and community connectedness (Awaya et al., 2003). Long (1997) indicates that the functions of a mentoring relationships should at least include "(1) emotional and psychological support, (2) direct assistance with career and professional development, and (3) role modeling which is focused on achievement of skills and knowledge within the organizational context" (p. 116). These elements, it has been argued, help to focus the relationship on further developing the practice of both the mentor and protégé (Awaya et al., 2003; Long, 1997).

The match between mentors and protégés has been described as one of the most important elements of a mentoring relationship (C. Campbell, 2007), and the literature outlines numerous strategies for pairing mentors and mentees. For example, Bernier, Larose, and Soucy (2005) emphasize the importance of pairing mentors and mentees based on the relational styles of both groups. Mentors hold styles that range from valuing dependency to valuing self-reliance, whereas mentees range from attachment to self-reliance. While relational styles are better thought of in terms of continuums rather than dichotomies, pairing mentors and mentees with differing styles was more effective than pairing those with similar approaches (Bernier et al., 2005). Regardless of the approach, evidence indicates that intentional matching could optimize program success (C. Campbell, 2007; Jones et al., 2009).

Mentoring in Higher Education

While mentoring relationships originated in the business sector, they can be readily transferred into other settings, such as nursing and collegiate education (Jacobi, 1991; Jones et al., 2009). On-campus programs for mentoring undergraduate students include faculty–student mentoring (C. Campbell, 2007) and peer mentoring (Sanchez, Baur, & Paronto, 2006). Faculty mentoring programs have become increasingly popular on college campuses. Peer mentoring programs range in scope and purpose from those run informally, to those that go through extensive matching protocols and provide personal, significant, and lengthy mentoring relationships between faculty and students (C. Campbell, 2007).

Faculty/undergraduate-student mentoring relationships have been found to increase study skills, motivation, academic adjustment, and personal adjustment, and to reinforce the message that faculty care about student success (Jacobi, 1991). T. Campbell and Campbell (1997) found that students who received mentoring had a higher GPA, more units completed per semester, and a lower dropout rate than students who did not participate in the mentoring program. These programs also help students develop greater confidence in their research skill (Kardash, 2000). Faculty members report enjoying the opportunity to mentor, and note that it helps them to create greater synergies between teaching and scholarship (Elgren & Hensel, 2006).

Peer mentoring refers to a relationship in which an older or more advanced students (e.g., upperclass student) mentors a younger or beginning student (e.g., underclass student; Sanchez et al., 2006). Similar to faculty mentors, peer mentors provide protégés with career guidance that aids in learning and provide encouragement and social support (Holland, Major, & Orvis, 2011). However, students are often more comfortable approaching someone who is similar in age for mentoring needs, and the mentors are able to draw up on more recent and relatable experiences (P. Parker, Hall, & Kram, 2008). A peer approach also removes the status difference between faculty and students, increasing the likelihood that protégés will trust and invest in their mentors (Hall & Jaugietis, 2011). One approach to peer mentoring that is common in university settings is to pair first-year students with upperclass students to reduce the trauma related to transitioning into university life (Hall & Jaugietis, 2011). This arrangement has been found to increase college students' satisfaction, commitment, and retention to graduation (Sanchez et al., 2006). In addition to the support provided to protégés, peer mentoring programs have been found to benefit the mentors by enhancing leadership, communication, and organization skills (Hall & Jaugietis, 2011).

An extension of student peer-mentoring programs is graduate students mentoring undergraduates. While many universities advertise opportunities for graduate students to mentor undergraduates outside of traditional teaching assistant roles, evidence related to these interdivision student-mentoring programs is limited. It has been suggested that graduate-level and postdoctoral

students may also be able to serve as mentors to undergraduate students engaging in early scholarship (Dooley, Mahon, & Oshiro, 2004). The National Academy of the Sciences (1995) supports such an arrangement. Dooley et al. (2004) provided such opportunities by pairing undergraduate students with graduate student mentors in the context of a research partnership. The positive outcomes of such graduate–undergraduate mentoring partnerships included learning to work collaboratively, gaining a better understanding of field research, and completing the research projects. While mentoring students through research opportunities is important, it is also important that graduate students in teacher education are provided opportunities to practice the role of teacher educator and mentor preservice teachers through the development of teaching skills and competencies (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). To date, however, no such mentoring arrangements have been articulated in the literature. Toward this end, we outline an interdivision mentoring program that provides doctoral students opportunities to practice the role of teacher educator by mentoring preservice teachers.

Serving as a Mentor Through Doctoral Education

Scholars agree that doctoral students need opportunities to practice the role of teacher educator so to develop skills necessary for becoming effective PETE faculty members (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). However, concerns related to early career PETE faculty members' teaching preparedness are abundant (e.g., Boyce, Lund, & O'Neil, 2015; van der Mars, 2011; M. Woods et al., 2011). Some scholars have specifically noted that preparation for the teacher education role is generally lacking (Ward, 2016) and inconsistent across institutions (M. Parker et al., 2011). We recognize these concerns and agree that D-PETE programs have a responsibility to prepare graduates for future teaching responsibilities. In this vein, we advance mentoring relationships that pair aspiring teacher educators with preservice teachers as one way to further develop the teacher educator role. We draw from our experiences with such a program and note the success we have experienced and challenges faced.

Mentoring Program Overview

At the University of Alabama, we developed an interdivision mentoring program with the goal of fostering authentic opportunities

for D-PETE students to engage with preservice PE teachers. Grounded in best practices suggested through the literature related to initial PETE (Curtner-Smith & Sofo, 2004; Richards et al., 2014), preservice teachers are enrolled in a secondary methods course and a corresponding field experience in which they learn about and then implement models-based pedagogies (e.g., Lund & Tannehill, 2010; Metzler, 2011) with children in local schools' PE classes (see Richards, Lynch, & Sinelnikov, in press). The doctoral students enroll in a credit-bearing course focused on teaching PETE (see Table 1). As part of this course, D-PETE students learn about best practices in PETE education and serve as mentors for small groups of PETE students throughout the methods course and field experience. The same PETE faculty member teaches both the undergraduate and doctoral-level course, which provides consistency across the experience. While we have developed a formal D-PETE course related to the experience, doctoral student participation could also be facilitated through teaching assistantships, or doctoral students who want more PETE teaching experience could be recruited on a voluntary basis. In our program, for example, some doctoral students repeat the experience on a voluntary basis to gain more higher education teaching experience.

Regardless of the recruitment method for D-PETE students, Figure 1 illustrates the relationships that we seek to develop among the PETE faculty member, D-PETE students, and preservice teachers in the mentoring program. The PETE faculty develops the content for both the undergraduate- and doctoral-level course and develops and monitors the mentoring relationships. The D-PETE students learn about best practices in PETE through seminar-style discussions at the beginning of the semester, and are then paired with small groups of PETE students (a ratio of 1 D-PETE student to 3–4 preservice teachers works best in our experience) with whom they work throughout the semester. In line with the mentoring literature (Bernier et al., 2005; C. Campbell, 2007), mentors and protégés are paired intentionally based on the instructor's perceptions of the relational styles of both groups and responses on the value orientations inventory (Chen, Ennis, & Loftus, 1997). Our goal is to connect D-PETE students with preservice teachers they will relate well to and who have similar value orientations.

Table 1
Overview of Teaching Physical Education in Higher Education Courses

Week	Content covered	Mentoring responsibilities
1	Introduction to the goals and purposes of PETE with a focus on the connection between methods courses and field experiences.	Methods course begins for the preservice teachers.
2	Discussion of constructivist PETE and helping PSTs question subjective theories (e.g., Betourne & Richards, 2015; Richards et al., 2013).	Doctoral students introduced in the methods course for the first time.
3	OST readings on developing effective field experiences (e.g., Curtner-Smith & Sofo, 2004; Stran & Curtner-Smith, 2009).	Doctoral students give presentations related to PE teaching styles (Mosston & Ashworth, 2008).
4	Discussion related to developing and coordinating field-based learning experiences, including the selection of placement sites and coordinating with cooperating teachers.	Doctoral students lead group discussions related to models-based practice (e.g., Metzler, 2011).
5	Develop mentoring teams based on perceived working relationships and VOI scores of mentors and protégés (Ennis & Chen, 1993).	PSTs are introduced to their doctoral student mentors and talk in small groups.
6	Overview of how to evaluate PSTs' lesson plans using a rubric. This includes a grade norming session (Holmes & Oakleaf, 2013).	Final preparations for the field experience; PSTs have time to meet with their mentors.
7–8	Brief prior to and debrief following field experiences. Focus on challenges in the field experience and mentoring. Specific discussion about effective teaching and observational strategies.	Observe and provide feedback at field placement, evaluate PSTs' lesson plans.
9	Brief prior to and debrief following early field experiences. Includes conversations about challenges in the field experience and mentoring. Specific discussion about evaluating lesson plans.	Observe and provide feedback at field placement, evaluate PSTs' lesson plans. Lesson planning workshop for PSTs who need extra help.
10–11	Brief prior to and debrief following early field experiences. Includes conversations about challenges in the field experience and mentoring.	Observe and provide feedback at field placement, evaluate PSTs' lesson plans.
12	A second grade norming meeting (Holmes & Oakleaf, 2013) to check on doctoral students' consistency in applying the evaluation rubric.	Observe and provide feedback at field placement, evaluate PSTs' lesson plans.
13–15	Meet to debrief and discuss the field experience. Includes conversations about challenges in the field experience and mentoring relationship.	Observe and provide feedback at field placement, evaluate PSTs' lesson plans.
16	Final meeting to debrief doctoral students' experiences in the mentoring role, and to connect the experience to the role of teacher educator.	Final meeting to debrief the field experience. Doctoral students meet with mentoring groups.

Note. PETE = physical education teacher education; PE = physical education; OST = occupational socialization theory, PST = preservice teachers; VOI = value orientations inventory.

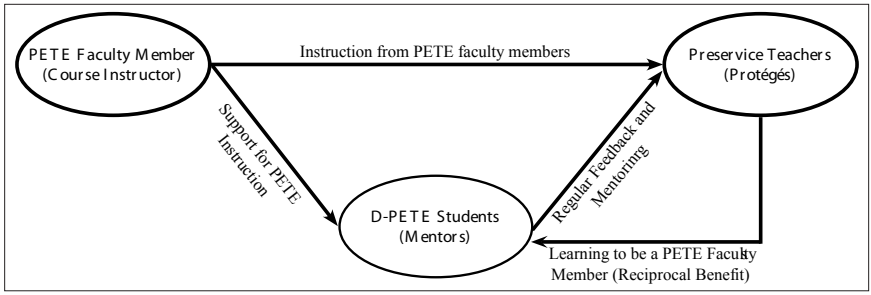

Figure 1. Model illustrating the structure of a mentoring program in which the faculty member structures and provides instruction to preservice teachers related to course content. The faculty member also provides instruction to D-PETE students related to higher education pedagogy and working with preservice teachers. The D-PETE students then provide regular mentoring and feedback to preservice teachers throughout the course and associated field experience. By engaging in the mentoring process, D-PETE students reap reciprocal benefits as they learn more about being a PETE faculty member.

In their role as mentors, the D-PETE students attend every meeting of the methods course and early field experience. They work primarily with their group of protégés through tasks such as facilitating group discussions about teaching, observing and providing feedback on teaching, and evaluating and grading course assignments. During the field experience, for example, the mentors typically hold pre- and post-teaching discussion with their protégés to prepare them for and subsequently debrief the day's activities. We also provide the D-PETE students with opportunities to teach the entire class in a lecture setting during the methods course prior to the field experience. The primary contact for the preservice teachers becomes the D-PETE student rather than the course instructor, and they only approach the instructor directly should they experience challenges in working with their mentors. In facilitating the mentoring relationship, the course instructor must strike a balance between direct and indirect approaches to working with the D-PETE students. If too much guidance is given relative to the methods for mentoring preservice teachers, D-PETE students may not have an opportunity to learn on their own and experience the challenges of teacher education. If too little guidance is provided, the D-PETE

students may stray from effective practices and the preservice teachers' learning may suffer.

Perceived Benefits of the Mentoring Relationships

We conceptualize the mentoring relationship as mutually beneficial to all parties involved (Awaya et al., 2003; Long, 1997). The D-PETE students benefit from the opportunity to practice the role of teacher educator in a safe environment under the tutelage of an experienced teacher educator. They learn vicariously by watching the instructor model best practices in PETE, and receive regular feedback related to their more active performance in the mentoring role. They learn about and how to teach using appropriate practices in PE and PETE, including models-based practice (Lund & Tannehill, 2010; Metzler, 2011), which may not have been a component of their initial teacher education (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). The authenticity of the experience is enhanced by mentoring preservice teachers in school-based field experiences, which helps D-PETE students understand the social complexities of facilitating appropriate teacher education (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). They have the opportunity, for example, to observe and participate in the processes required to set up and run field experiences (e.g., requesting placements, negotiating access, working with cooperating teachers).

As an additional benefit, the PETE faculty member receives assistance with the design and conduct of the course and with the assessment and grading of preservice teacher work. From a utilitarian perspective, this reduced the load placed on the instructor, which can be particularly valuable in settings where faculty struggle to balance responsibilities associated with teaching, research, and service (Richards & Levesque-Bristol, 2016). Having doctoral students assist with PETE courses could also enhance accountability and fidelity to appropriate instructional practices because the student-to-teacher ratio is reduced and supervision can be enhanced. The presence of D-PETE students can also facilitate physical and emotional safety during field experiences—for the preservice teachers and the children with whom they work—because there are more supervisors in the setting.

Finally, the preservice teachers receive additional, targeted feedback and attention beyond what a single instructor can give, from a mentor who gets to know them—including their instructional

strengths and weaknesses—well throughout the semester. This feedback can also be delivered in a more personalized and immediate manner through postlesson debriefing sessions in the small mentoring groups. Ideally, the preservice teachers develop an intimate working relationship with their mentors, which can inspire openness and trust beyond that which is possible with a single course instructor. This is especially true in cases when the protégés are closer in age and peer-status to their mentors than the course instructor, and can therefore draw on more recent and relevant experiences (Hall & Jaugietis, 2011; P. Parker et al., 2008). Supervision from the D-PETE students also releases the course instructor to focus attention on the preservice teachers who are in particular need of assistance and focused feedback.

Noted Challenges in the Mentoring Relationship

While we believe that mentoring relationships can benefit all those involved, they are not without potential challenges. One of the most significant issues that we have encountered relates to mismatches in mentor–protégé relational style or personality. Per recommendations in the mentoring literature, we do our best to match mentors and protégés intentionally so that mentors work with protégés that have compatible relational styles (C. Campbell, 2007). However, not all relationships work out as intended, and issues can intensify due to the D-PETE students' lack of experience mitigating relational issues in the classroom. Most relational issues can be resolved when the instructor acts as a mediator. When the mediating process becomes unproductive, however, the pairing may be altered and another D-PETE student or course instructor may serve as a mentor.

Other challenges, albeit less severe, but inherent in the D-PETE mentoring model, include matters relative to communication, feedback, and grading. The presence of mentors—who essentially serve as mediators in the relationship between the course instructor and preservice teachers—can lead to communication issues. Sometimes information provided by the instructor to the D-PETE students can be interpreted differently when explained by different mentors to their individual protégés or misinterpreted altogether. Inconsistency can also become a challenge with respect to feedback and grading (Gopinath, 2004). Mentors may approach the grading process with

more or less rigor and provide feedback with different levels of effectiveness. To combat these challenges, we have developed a common grading rubric for all assignments and hold a grade norming meeting at the beginning of the semester and again halfway through the field experience to encourage uniformity (Holmes & Oakleaf, 2013).

Generally, we have found that the involvement of D-PETE mentors reduces some of the course instructor's instructional and evaluative responsibilities and frees the instructor to address "the big picture" and provide more individual feedback to graduate and undergraduate students. However, at times we have found that the instructor replaces those alleviated responsibilities with additional time working with the doctoral students in their journey of learning PETE faculty instructional role. One of the confounding factors for the instructor in assisting D-PETE students in their learning of PETE faculty instruction roles is that students enter D-PETE with vastly different levels of comfort and experience with teaching PE and PETE based on their prior socialization experiences (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). Furthermore, some students enter D-PETE with numerous years of teaching experience, while others come in with virtually no time spent in school settings (Russell et al., 2016). In some cases, D-PETE students even come into programs without having attended a preservice teacher education program.

Since not all D-PETE students have the same socialization experiences, some will be better prepared to serve in the mentoring role than others. As such, the course instructor needs to become familiar with each doctoral student's background and adjust his or her instructions, feedback, pairings, responsibilities, and levels of accountability accordingly (Gardner, 2008b). Students who have experience with college-level teaching during a master's program, for example, can often handle more freedom than those teaching at the college level for the first time. If appropriate adjustments are not made, the experience of the D-PETE mentor and the associated group of protégés could suffer (S. Fletcher & Mullen, 2012).

Discussion

Drawing from the OST literature, this paper provides an overview of how D-PETE students can be prepared for disciplinary stewardship (Golde & Walker, 2006; Lawson, 2016) expressly related to their function as future teacher educators. We specifically overviewed a

mentoring program in which D-PETE students practice the role of teacher educator (Casey & Fletcher, 2012) by working with small groups of preservice teachers under the supervision of a PETE faculty member.

Mentoring programs such as the one described herein have the potential to address the concern that D-PETE students are not getting enough targeted education on how to become a teacher educator (Boyce et al., 2015; Ward, 2016). Further, enhancing preparation in the teaching facet of the faculty role and continuing to teach D-PETE students how to be effective researchers may better prepare them for the realities of academic life, including how to balance the roles associated with being a teacher educator and researcher (Richards & Levesque-Bristol, 2016). Such a well-rounded doctoral education reinforces Golde and Walker's (2006) and Lawson's (2016) recommendations that emphasize doctoral education as preparation for disciplinary stewardship. Students in D-PETE programs are future teacher educators, and in many ways, the future of the PE profession depends on their preparation for taking over research and teacher education responsibilities.

We have found that OST presents a theoretical lens and a conceptual framework for understanding the preparation of D-PETE students for a variety of academic roles, including teacher educator (Richards & Ressler, 2016; Russell et al., 2016). From a theoretical perspective, studying the occupational socialization of D-PETE students could advance the knowledgevbase related to this group, including best practices for doctoral preparation. As a conceptual framework, OST presents a model for understanding physical educator teachers' and teacher educators' experiences and perspectives, which can be used in structuring more effective D-PETE programs. It is important for doctoral faculty members, for example, to remember that D-PETE students come into programs with diverse background experiences related to their prior socialization (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). Some have abundant prior teaching experience, whereas others have not taught in schools at all. This may leave some D-PETE students feeling more comfortable and prepared with PE content and the experience of practicing the role of PETE instructor than others (Casey & Fletcher, 2012).

One practical limitation of the model presented is that it was developed and field-tested in an institution that has a robust D-PETE program. In our situation, larger D-PETE program numbers allow for reduced mentor–protégé ratios in the program. Recently, for example, we had six doctoral students and 15 preservice teachers, which made for a 2.5:1 protégé-to-mentor ratio. Such arrangements may not be possible in institutions that have smaller doctoral programs or larger undergraduate programs. Nevertheless, a modified version of the mentoring program could be implemented in any D-PETE program. Rather than conceptualizing D-PETE students as mentors for small groups of preservice teacher protégés, the program could reconceptualize these students as co-instructors, if only one or two engaged in the experience. Similarly, universities without D-PETE programs could engage master's students as mentors to capitalize on the benefits of the mentoring program for PETE faculty and preservice teachers.

It should also be acknowledged that D-PETE programs are not monolithic entities. Rather, they are influenced in large part by individual program faculty members and contextual norms (Ward, 2016; Ward et al., 2011). As a result, the enactment of D-PETE in different settings will vary, as will the need for additional concentrated education in the role of teacher educator. Some settings already provide a variety of opportunities for D-PETE students to teach PETE courses, providing feedback and support through that process. Others, however, may benefit from considering the role of teacher education in their larger program structure. This may be particularly true of programs that admit students who do not have prior teaching experience, or those who did not experience initial PETE (Russell et al., 2016). The need for targeted teacher education interventions such as the one advocated in this article is, therefore, related to the prior socialization experiences of the D-PETE students.

Scholars should investigate the efficacy of mentoring relationships, while another line of research seeking to address D-PETE students' teaching preparedness and the effect of mentoring could prove fruitful. Investigations could use OST as a theoretical lens to account for the influence of D-PETE students' prior socializing experiences. This research should also consider the perspectives of D-PETE students who embark upon the journey of becoming teacher educators.

In addition to other approaches, self-study (LaBoskey, 2004) could give D-PETE students voice and agency while they explore their own learning to become teacher educators. Such research may help them develop their own practices while resulting in publishable research that carries recommendations for the larger community of aspiring teacher educators (Richards & Ressler, 2016).

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