PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ IDENTITY CHARACTERISTICS: AN INVESTIGATION OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ DECISION-MAKING AND FACILITATION PROCESSES WITHIN A CLINICAL SIMULATION

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ABSTRACT

This study explores how pre-service teachers’ identity characteristics affected their decision-making and facilitation skills during a clinically simulated parent-teacher conference. Standardized individuals (SIs) were hired and trained to perform as parents in a parent-teacher conference and to implement specific triggers to create a controlled environment during the clinical simulations. The findings indicate that although pre-service teachers used their personal experience to make decisions and facilitate the discussion, their lack of professional experience impaired their decision-making and facilitation skills. Additionally, the pre-service teachers’ beliefs, values, and former experiences in regard to their career choices affected their actions and reflections. The findings also reveal that the pre-service teachers felt stressed when they encountered an unexpected situation and they weren’t shy about changing their decisions when they encountered with parental pressure.

Keywords: pre-service teachers, decision-making, facilitation, clinical simulations, parent-teacher interac
1. INTRODUCTION

Exposure to increasingly diverse communities, recent political amendments regarding parental involvement, and research on the positive effects of parental involvement on student achievement and wellbeing are prompting teachers to establish effective interactions with the parents. Although teacher training programs are including parental involvement in their curricula, many offer traditional courses based on lectures and readings, which can hinder the ability of pre-service teachers to transform their theoretical knowledge into practice. The use of alternative methods that provide professional experience around parental involvement could help pre-service teachers to explore their dispositions regarding parental involvement, to internalize the theoretical knowledge they are getting, and to put this knowledge and experience into practice. Thus, an exploration of pre-service dispositions and the factors that affect pre-service teachers’ decision-making and facilitation process during parent-teacher interactions could help teacher training programs to better prepare pre-service teachers.

This study aimed to acquire a better understanding of how pre-service teachers’ dispositions affected their decision-making and facilitation processes during parent-teacher interactions. The pre-service teachers’ actions were observed via clinical simulations of parent-teacher interactions that were as authentic as possible, and group discussions and semi-structured interviews were utilized to explore pre-service teachers’ reflections regarding their experiences throughout the clinical simulations. The findings shed light on the potential influence of pre-service teachers’ identity characteristics on their decision-making and facilitation processes.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on student achievement and educational policy changes suggests that parent-school collaboration and effective communication will increase student achievement and wellbeing (Fan & Chen, 2001; Jeynes, 2007). As scholars such as Epstein (2010), Jeynes (2003), and Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, and Hoover-Dempsey (2005) indicate, parental involvement results in more positive experiences for children, increases students’ wellbeing, and helps them excel in their scholastic activities. Research on parental involvement, furthermore, suggests that family involvement improves 8th grade students’ reading and writing skills, positively affects middle and high school students’ math and English grades, encourages middle and high school students to complete more credits and set higher goals, enhances attendance, and decreases behavioral problems (Epstein, 2007; Miedel & Reynolds, 1999). Additionally, while parental involvement positively affects students’ attitudes towards school (Fantuzzo, McWayne, Perry, & Childs, 2004; Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, & Holbein, 2005), it also positively affects parents’ opinions about school and teachers (Graue, 2005).

As indicated previously, the positive effects of parental involvement on student achievement and development are stressed in the literature (Dearing, Kreider, Simpkins, & Weiss, 2006; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001; Grolnick, Kurowski, Dunlap, & Hevey, 2000; Zdzinski, 1996). In addition, it has also been found that a majority of principals, teachers (Chavkin & Williams, 1988), and student-teachers (Tichenor, 1998) emphasize the
importance of parental involvement and believe that teachers should receive training in interacting with parents. However, many scholars believe that pre-service teachers are not acquiring adequate methods or a sufficient amount of education in their teacher training programs (Chavkin & Williams, 1988; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Ferrara & Ferrara, 2005; Greenwood & Hickman, 1991; Tichenor, 1998). While traditional teacher training programs educate pre-service teachers on issues regarding parental involvement through the use of lectures, readings, and discussions (Becker & Epstein, 1982; Chavkin & Williams, 1988), recent research proposes alternative methods that can provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to be exposed to (Walker & Dotger, 2012) or to experience (Dotger & Smith, 2009; Dotger, Harris, Maher, & Hansel, 2011) parent-teacher interactions before they enter the profession.

Almost three decades ago, the findings of Chavkin and Williams (1988) demonstrated that teacher training programs provide an insufficient amount of educational content on parental involvement by noting that only 4% of teachers in their study had completed a course on supporting parental involvement. Chavkin and Williams claimed that 15% of teachers were provided with only one section on parental involvement in a course, and 37% of teachers were provided with only one class period devoted to the topic (Chavkin & Williams, 1988). In their recent findings, Epstein and Sanders (2006) reported that 59.6% of schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDE) offered a course, and 91.8% of SCDEs offered one section of a course on parental involvement. Even though teacher training programs have been adjusting their curricula and increasing the course content on parental involvement, these advancements still do not adequately prepare school personnel to create effective interactions with families and communities, since only 7.2% of the SCDE leaders believed that recently graduated teachers were adequately prepared to establish effective relationships with parents and the community in which they will be working (Epstein & Sanders, 2006).

Even though Epstein and Sanders (2006) recognize that improvements have been made in the number of the courses offered, in the quality of the content in teacher training programs, and in the number of research papers graduate students generate on school-community partnership, they claim that the education pre-service teachers acquire from teacher training programs is not adequate to prepare them to establish effective community partnerships. This lack of adequate preparation for parental involvement (Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Greenwood & Hickman, 1991) and calls from principals, teachers, and pre-service teachers for more educational opportunities for pre-service teachers (Chavkin & Williams, 1988; Tichenor, 1998) have encouraged researchers to explore ways to improve teacher training in this area.

In the early nineties, Greenwood and Hickman (1991) offer several suggestions for increasing the effectiveness of teacher training programs: equipping teachers with methods and skills to increase parental involvement, arranging the content of parental involvement courses according to the ages and grade levels of pre-service teachers, providing opportunities for pre-service teachers to experience parent-teacher interactions in their practicums and tutoring, supporting administrators and in-service teachers in establishing robust communication between school personnel and parents in school districts, and increasing the numbers of items...
related to parental involvement on state certification exams. In a more recent example, Epstein’s (2010) “overlapping spheres” framework recommends building connections among external contexts, such as home, school, and community, and concentrates on the interpersonal relationships among members of the school, families, and community. As an alternative teaching methodology and innovative approach, Dotger and colleagues adopted the practice of clinical simulations used in medical science (Barrows, 1993) and implemented simulations to help pre-service teachers establish a link between their theoretical knowledge and practice (Dotger & Smith, 2009) and to prepare them to cope with the needs of diverse scholastic environments (Dotger, 2010).

2.1. Teacher Identity Development

As suggested earlier, effective parental involvement activities encouraged by policy leaders (U.S. Department of Education, 2001), principals, teachers (Chavkin & Williams, 1988) and researchers (Epstein & Sanders, 2006), and establishing healthy relationships between parents and teachers can support parental involvement. Investigating teachers’ actions during parent-teacher interactions can provide valuable information that will help prospective teachers establish effective interactions with parents. Moreover, as Walkington (2005) suggests, the actions of teachers are influenced by beliefs and values; thus, exploring pre-service teachers’ identities would help teacher educators better understand these actions. As some researchers point to identity as one of the elements that trigger behavioral changes (Bullough, 1997; Korthagen, 2004; O’Connor, 2008), the researchers in this study explored teacher identity, to enable them to further explore individuals’ decision-making and facilitation skills in a clinically simulated interaction.

Even though identity and identity development are widely studied topics, the literature does not agree on a single definition of identity. Beijaard et al.’s (2004) literature review on professional identify found that identity has been described as an ongoing process and a changing entity that individuals keep defining and re-defining through experience (Coldron & Smith, 1999; Dillabough, 1999; Goodson & Cole, 1994; Sugrue, 1997). Identity has also been identified as the equilibrium or disequilibrium between individuals’ self-image and their role in society (Volkmann & Anderson, 1998) or between social and professional norms (Samuel & Stephens, 2000).

In his research on the significance of emotion in identity construction, Zembylas (2003) provides detailed information about Eriksonian, Vygotskian, and poststructuralist perspectives on identity. Zembylas (2003) stresses the importance of the individual and social-contextual aspects of identity, while highlighting Erikson’s (1968) definition of identity as a “subjective sense of an invigorating sameness and continuity” (p. 19). The Eriksonian approach to identity fosters the notion that individuals adapt to various “person-oriented situations” in a “concurrent developmental manner” (Haviland & Kahlbaugh, 1993). The Eriksonian approach has been criticized for its reliance on classification (Haviland & Kahlbaugh, 1993; Zembylas, 2003) and its focus on individual identity development without adequately addressing sociocultural aspects (Cô & Levine, 1988). As an alternative perspective, the Vygotskian view of development shifts the focus from individual to social contexts that affect individual development and suggests that human actions and language are tools for
achieving this development (Zembylas, 2003). Zembylas (2003) also introduces the poststructuralist view, which defines identity development as a process that not only results in constant changes in individuals’ construction of social meanings according to individual subjectivity and “social and historical contexts” (Bhaba, 1987), but also continually redefines itself (Deleuze & Guattari, 1987; Zembylas, 2005).

Beginning teachers’ definitions of teaching, and how they perceive themselves as teachers, affect their meaning-making and decision-making processes (Bullough, 1997; O’Connor, 2008). In other words, teacher identity will affect teachers’ perceptions and actions in a particular situation. Mead (1934) connects identity with self and suggests that individual identity development occurs through social interaction and communication. Others factors that affect identity are the environment individuals live in, the social expectations they face, and their interpretations of their experiences (Gee, 2000). Identity is multifaceted (Cooper & Olson, 1996), structured by various sub-identities, and it can be affected by historical, sociological, or psychological factors (Gee, 2000; Mishler, 1999). These sub-identities cannot easily be separated from each other. For example, as Nias (1996) suggests, teachers might personally invest in their work by merging their professional and personal identities. Goodson and Cole (1994) support this notion, indicating that teachers’ professional identities might be constructed by integrating the personal and professional aspects of being a teacher.

The researchers used Beijaard et al. (2004), Sutherland, Howard, Markauskaite, (2010), and Timoštšuk, and Ugaste (2010) to highlight several tenets of teacher identity for the purpose of this study. As Coldron and Smith (1999) and Kerby (1991) suggest, identity development is not a constant; it is a life-long process that is shaped not only by individual and personal traits, but also by social context. As Beijaard et al. (2004) claim, identity is constructed of various sub-identities, and as Coldron and Smith (1999) indicate, identity development requires individuals to consider and re-consider the meaning of their identity via socially legitimated norms.

2.2. Clinical Simulations

In 1963, at the University of Southern California, Howard Barrows designed a problem-based methodology that used standardized patients to evaluate a clinical clerkship in neurology (Barrows, 1993; Barrows, 1996; Barrows, 2000). He defined a standardized patient as an individual who is an individual trained to exhibit the symptoms of a particular illness (Barrows, 1993). Barrows used these standardized patients to create clinical simulations for performance evaluations of future physicians (Barrows, 2000; Vu & Barrows, 1994). These clinical simulations were based on actual patient histories and conducted in an environment similar to real hospital examination rooms, creating authentic opportunities for learners (i.e., physicians in training) to develop clinical reasoning (Barrows, 2000). Barrows’ clinical simulations followed the tenets of cognitive and problem-based learning methodologies: learning is a student-centered activity that can take place with carefully planned and challenging simulations in authentic environments; instructors perform as facilitators to create discussions that foster metacognitive thinking; learning activities should present authentic and challenging problems that enhance students’ reasoning process (Barrows, 2000; Vu & Barrows, 1994).
Following Barrows’ work on the use of clinical simulations for teaching and performance evaluation in medical science (Barrows, 1996; Barrows, 1993; Barrows, 2000; Vu & Barrows, 1994), Dotger and colleagues began to design simulations with standardized individuals to expose pre-service teachers to problematic or controversial issues (Dotger, Harris & Hansel, 2008). Dotger published a series of papers focusing on the use of standardized individuals to educate teachers and administrators, outlining a teaching model and describing and implementing clinical simulations to prepare teachers and administrators to cope with various school-related issues.

Clinical simulations in teaching build from the same theoretical frameworks and teaching strategies as the medical ones. Dotger et al. (2008) designed clinical simulations based on the tenets of situated cognitive development and social role-taking methodologies (Kohlberg, 1969; Mead, 1934; Vygotsky, 1978), including the following ideas: (a) cognitive growth requires a suitable physical environment and a social context for specific learning content; (b) meaning-making occurs when individuals are exposed to a problem in an authentic environment; (c) individuals acquire and form knowledge through experience; (d) there should be “an emphasis on cognition and skill development, as persons’ organizing principles, interpretations, and reasoning become more complex, integrated, and principled over time (Von Glaserfeld, 1989)” (Dotger & Smith, 2009, p. 338); (e) individuals’ identities gradually grow when they encounter unexpected or surprising experiences, conditions, and events; and (f) individuals grow in supportive but challenging social contexts (Lebow, 1993).

Dotger et al. also (2008) stress the relationship between these theoretical tenets and the tenets of problem-based learning: encouraging learners to confront a given problem, assess their problem solving skills, and revise them if necessary (Barrows & Tamblyn, 1980; Hmelo-Silver, 2004); and providing meaningful learning objectives that help learners transfer theoretical knowledge to practice (Barrows, 2000; Torp & Sage, 2002).

3. METHODOLOGY

This study uses a clinical simulation as a tool to investigate how pre-service teachers, as facilitators or decision-makers, manage and reflect on the challenges faced during a simulated parent-teacher interaction. It is also imperative to point out the phenomenological aspect of this exploratory study since it closely examines the interactions between the pre-service teachers and the standardized parents to acquire a better understanding of pre-service teachers’ actions.

3.1. Sample

The participants in this study were recruited from EDU 304: Study of Teaching, an undergraduate course in a teacher education program at a private university in the United States. Students taking this course are required to participate in four clinical simulations throughout the semester. From a list of simulations, one, consisting of prompted and unprompted versions of the Goss simulation, was chosen and adapted by the researchers to explore the pre-service teachers’ actions. In this study, 28 pre-service teachers—four males and 24 females—agreed to provide the researchers with access to their simulation materials, while three declined. These
materials included their answers to the pre-simulation questions, the video of their simulation and their post-simulation debriefing video. Additionally, six out of ten randomly selected pre-service teachers—one male and five females—agreed to participate in one additional post-simulation interview, while four refused. Table 1 provides information on which of pre-service teachers participated in the prompted and unprompted versions of the Goss simulation. It is imperative to point out that both versions involved the same triggers, but the prompted version contained an extra prompt. The prompted and unprompted versions of the Goss simulations will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

Table 1. Pseudonyms and demographic data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonyms</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Prompted /Unprompted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pania</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanna</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gloria</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elise</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gina</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caitlyn</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annie</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalie</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becky</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellen</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oscar</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kara</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olivia</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaby</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamara</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maggie</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carin</td>
<td>Latina</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delia</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amelia</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daisy</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbei</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ted</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joe</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Unprompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marshal</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laura</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicole</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sam</td>
<td>Caucasian/White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Prompted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2. Instrumentation

3.2.1. Clinical Simulations as Research Tools

The work of Barrows and colleagues focuses on how medical education institutions use standardized individuals for teaching (Barrows, 1993), curriculum design (Barrows, 1996), and the performance evaluation of future doctors, nurses, and physical therapists (Barrows, 2000; Vu & Barrows, 1994). Dotger and his colleagues design clinical simulations and use standardized individuals in simulations to create an authentic learning environment to help pre-service teachers and school leaders transfer their theoretical knowledge into practice (Dotger & Ashby, 2010; Dotger, Dotger & Maher, 2010; Walker & Dotger, 2012). Although other researchers have utilized clinical simulations for performance evaluation (Barrows, 2000; Vu & Barrows, 1994) and teaching (Barrows, 1993; Dotger & Ashby, 2010; Dotger, et al., 2010), the researchers in the current study utilized a clinical simulation, the Goss simulation, as a tool to gather data on pre-service teachers’ actions and decisions in a simulated parent-teacher conference.

3.2.2. The Goss Simulation

All of the pre-service teachers were given the academic profile of Melissa Goss, supposedly one of their students, and received the same information regarding the hypothetical school they were working in, the parents’ and students’ reactions to their teaching methodologies, and their teaching responsibilities. All of the pre-service teachers were informed that they were 11th grade teachers who taught regular and AP classes in their subject areas. They also were told that while some parents criticized them, their principal supported them and encouraged them to set high expectations for their students. The information the pre-service teachers acquired from the academic profile of Melissa Goss before their encounter with the Goss simulation was carefully adjusted for the needs of this study. The researchers were also sensitive to not script any of the pre-service teachers’ actions, so that all of the pre-service teachers had the opportunity to act on their own accord during the simulation process.

The pre-service teachers were informed that as the semester progressed, they realized that the grades of one of their students, Melissa Goss, were falling. They knew that Melissa was a successful athlete, playing on both the tennis and basketball teams of her school, and had a 3.6 GPA. Since they knew Melissa’s grades were slipping, they tried to communicate with her by asking how she was doing and whether everything was okay. The pre-service teachers were notified that during this conversation Melissa snapped at them, saying, “I can’t! I have got to go! I have got way too much going on to be worrying about this now.” After this incident, the pre-service teachers requested a meeting with Melissa’s mother, Lisa, to talk about changes in Melissa’s grades and behavior.

Both versions of the Goss simulation involve a couple, David and Lisa Goss, who are Melissa’s parents. During the standardized interactions, David and Lisa Goss are portrayed as an estranged couple; there is space
between their chairs, they sit with crossed arms and show slight smirks or facial expressions when the other partner talks. It seems that there is discontentment between them.

3.2.3. Triggers in the Prompted and Unprompted Versions of the Goss Simulation

In the EDU 304 course, the Goss simulation was used as an experiential teaching tool, while in this study, it was used as a data-gathering methodology. Throughout this study, all of the pre-service teachers were assured that their performances during the Goss simulation were not being graded. For the purpose of this study, the Goss simulation was slightly altered, and two versions—prompted and unprompted—were created. Both versions were built around four specific triggers that would provide opportunities for the pre-service teachers to exercise facilitation and decision-making skills. The only difference between the prompted and the unprompted versions was a single prompt, whereby Lisa directly requests the pre-service teacher’s opinion about the parents’ argument. Figure 1 outlines the triggers implemented in the prompted and unprompted versions of the simulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prompted Version of the Goss Simulation</th>
<th>Unprompted Version of the Goss Simulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Attendance of second parent</td>
<td>1. Attendance of second parent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Request of extra time for missing assignment</td>
<td>2. Request of extra time for missing assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Standardized parents’ request of action plan</td>
<td>4. Standardized parents’ request of action plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lisa requests PSTs’ direct opinion about the SPs’ positions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Triggers in the prompted and unprompted versions of the Goss simulation.

The first trigger that the pre-service teachers encounter in both versions of the Goss simulations is the attendance of both parents at the conference. The academic profile of Melissa Goss—the only informative document pre-service teachers received prior to the simulation—did not provide any information about David and indicated only that the pre-service teacher should contact Lisa via phone to set up this parent-teacher interaction; therefore, the pre-service teachers do not expect to see both parents show up for the conference. When the pre-service teachers introduce the problematic situation and mention that Melissa did not turn in a major assignment, Lisa implements the second trigger by asking, “What can Melissa do to make up the missing assignment?” The third trigger is the standardized parents’ argument about Melissa’s allocation of time to academic and athletic activities. While David proposes that Melissa should focus on both athletics and academics to get a scholarship from a Division II school, Lisa suggests that Melissa should focus solely on her academics, so she can get accepted to an Ivy League school. The last trigger concerns the pre-service teachers’ ability to generate a plan to help Melissa eliminate the problematic behavior and improve her grades. At the end of the simulation, David requests a plan from the pre-service teacher by asking, “Where do we go from here?”

As noted earlier, two versions of the Goss simulation were used in this research and a specific prompt was the only difference between them. In the unprompted version, the standardized parents carried out the argument...
without any request for the pre-service teacher’s opinion on this issue. In the prompted version, Lisa says to the teacher: “I’d like your input on this. Should Melissa play basketball or work on her grades?”

### 3.3. Implementation of the Prompted and Unprompted Versions of the Goss Simulation

#### 3.3.1. Simulation Setting

The simulations were conducted at Central Medical University (CMU)’s Clinical Skills Center, which is used to implement simulations for future physicians, nurses, and physical therapists. The simulation complex is designed to prevent any contact between learners (i.e., future physicians, nurses, teachers, etc.) and standardized individuals before they start the simulations. The complex consists of 22 simulation rooms that allow for video and audio recording, as well as standardized individual training rooms, participant and moderator digital observation rooms, and a classroom space. The facility has a closed-loop server to generate, store, and distribute simulation recordings, debriefing session recordings and the pre-service teachers’ answers to the pre-simulation questions.

#### 3.3.2. Training of Standardized Parents

For the purpose of this project, seven professionally trained actors, whose demographic information matched the parents in the Goss simulation, were hired. The researchers provided two hours of training to the actors, giving them general information about the simulation process, explaining the purpose of the Goss simulation, and demonstrating the verbal triggers and nonverbal mannerisms. Training occurred in strict adherence to the guidelines for the prompted and unprompted versions of SP protocols and included a detailed description of the parents (portrayed by the actors), the desired nonverbal triggers (such as facial expressions and body posture), and the verbal triggers (such as distinct phrases or comments and questions).

During the training process, actors were given certain instructions to follow, depending upon the actions of the pre-service teachers. For instance, actors were instructed, “If a pre-service teacher does not intervene to stop an argument between you and your partner, pursue the argument for a few minutes and then allow it to gradually diminish.” Certain verbal phrases or sentences were also provided to the actors. For example, actors were told, “If the argument is allowed to continue and you are (acting) angry enough, blurt out quite plainly: ‘Look, I want her to go to college so she can have opportunities. I didn’t go, but I wish I had!’”

#### 3.3.3. Implementation of Clinical Simulations

The EDU 304: Study of Teaching is one of the first education courses that pre-service teachers take when they enter the teacher training program. Thus, many of the pre-service students were freshmen or sophomores. During EDU 304: Study of Teaching, the pre-service teachers participated in three clinical simulations, sequenced according to their difficulty. Overall, the pre-service teachers participated in two clinical simulations, which acclimatized them to the clinical simulation process before they participated in the Goss
simulation. It is also imperative to point out that Dr. Cil was introduced by Dr. Dotger to the participants, assisted Dr. Dotger in six class sessions and supported the implementation of the clinical simulations, in order to develop some familiarity with the participants before conducting the Goss simulation process.

Over the course of two weeks, the researchers facilitated 31 the Goss simulations with the EDU 304 students. On the simulation day, the researchers provided the pre-service teachers with a brief orientation on the implementation of a clinical simulation process. The researchers also separately discussed the implementation of the Goss simulation with standardized parents. When the implementation time came, four of the pre-service teachers were placed in front of four different simulation rooms and asked to log in and answer pre-simulation questions on the computers located outside of the rooms. After the pre-service teachers logged in and answered the pre-simulation questions, they were prompted to enter the simulation rooms. As soon as they entered, cameras and voice recorders were activated. Then the director of the CMUs’ clinical skill center cued the standardized parents to enter the simulation rooms. Immediately after the simulations ended, the researcher and the pre-service teachers went all together into another simulation room for a 10-15 minute group-debriefing session, which was also recorded and catalogued on CMU’s sever.

Recordings of the clinical simulations were distributed to the pre-service teachers so that they could watch and reflect upon their performance. One week after the simulations, Dr. Cil, Dr. Dotger, and the pre-service teachers met to discuss their performance. Three weeks after the simulations, Dr. Cil contacted ten randomly selected pre-service teachers, five prompted and five unprompted, to conduct semi-structured interviews. Six of them—four prompted, two unprompted—participated in short, 15-20 minute, semi-structured interviews to explore their perspectives on their experiences.

3.4. Data Collection and Analysis

The Goss simulation was built on pre-determined protocols inspired by the research questions to create opportunities for the pre-service teachers to make decisions or facilitate situations. Verbal triggers provide opportunities for the pre-service teachers to practice their decision-making and facilitation skills. Thus, the concepts of facilitation and decision-making were included in a preliminary code list. The researchers used the preliminary code list to analyze 20% of the pre-simulation questions and the simulated interactions to create the simulation codebook. Later, the researchers used the simulation codebook to analyze 30% of the debriefing sessions and semi-structured interviews to create the debriefing codebook. The creation of the debriefing codebook was necessary to analyze the data gathered from the debriefing sessions and the semi-structured interviews, since the debriefing codebook was focused on the pre-service teachers’ reflections on the simulation process, while the simulation codebook focused on their actions.

Through the data analysis process, it is likely that new codes emerge or some pre-determined codes lose their value. Therefore, the researchers used Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) coding methods to ensure that the codebooks addressed the data: (a) filling in, adding new codes to code schemes for addressing emerging
concepts; (b) extension, reviewing pre-determined codes or code schemes for possible emerging concepts; (c) bridging, identifying new or not previously understood relationships between pre-determined codes or coding schemes; and (d) surfacing, creating new code categories.

4. FINDINGS and DISCUSSION

4.1. Effects of Identity Characteristics

James-Wilson (as cited in Day, Kington, Stobart, & Sammons, 2006) proposes that pre-service teachers’ perceptions of themselves and their students affect their professional identity construction, which might influence their decision-making process while interacting with their students. In keeping with this observation, the pre-service teachers in this study relied on their opinions about their students and their students’, parents, and on their belief systems, when making decisions and facilitating the discussions during the simulated interactions.

Although all of the pre-service teachers were given the same information about the Goss simulation, their hypotheses about why Melissa’s behaviors changed and why her grades dropped varied. While some speculated that Melissa might be having trouble balancing her academics and athletics, others proposed that Melissa might have problems at home. Abbie’s statement is an example: “I think that Melissa might be struggling with her grades based on something personal or something going on at home.” Yet others suspected that Melissa might be feeling burned-out under the eleventh-grade workload. Overall, even though the pre-service teachers had the same information, they reached different conclusions, perhaps reflecting their varied personalities and experiences. For instance, Ted suggested that when he was in high school, he wasn’t seriously concerned about his AP courses, and he believed that the standardized parents shouldn’t be putting so much pressure on Melissa about her GPA. Conversely, Annie recalled her process of applying to an esteemed university and explained how she had balanced both academics and extracurricular activities, and she suggested that since this was Melissa’s junior year, Melissa needed to focus on both academics and athletics.

The pre-service teachers also made varied decisions regarding the standardized parents’ request for extra time for the assignment Melissa had missed. Maggie’s answer to the standardized parents’ request is an example, “All she has to do is just do the assignment. She can stay after any time and make it up. It just has to be completed, and it will be a 10% penalty for every day that it is not made up.” Some of the pre-service teachers agreed to accept the assignment late, but preferred to establish conditions for their compromising. For instance, Carin responded to the standardized parents’ request by saying, “I can, I will allow her to turn it in, umm, if she keeps her assignments going and makes sure she studies for tests, for exams and stuff and that would pull her grade up.” Some accepted the missing assignment late and offered extra support:

Hanna: It’s just been this recent project and I can absolutely work with her closely. Maybe she is confused about the project or maybe she just didn’t understand, but it is a big project.
It is worth a lot of her grade, so I can definitely work with her to get that going, get her grade up.

Although all of the pre-service teachers were provided with the same information and encountered the same emotional response from the standardized parents, some of them provided extra time and offered help with completing the assignment, while others implemented penalties for late submission of the assignment. The pre-service teachers’ experiences with their own teachers and with how those teachers dealt with missing assignments, and their moral codes and perceptions about treating students equally, might have led some of them to levy penalties for the missing assignment. In another example, Elise explains the pressure she felt from her parents when she was a high school student and elaborates on how her earlier perspectives regarding a problematic issue had affected her actions during the simulation:

Elise: I experienced similar pull from my dad; he wanted me to focus on my extracurricular activities. My mom wanted me to focus on just school and grades, and I sided with my mom 'cause I didn't wanna do all those extracurricular activities. I just wanted to do school, I was sorta lazy, so I didn't want sports. And I think that that made me take sides with the mom (Lisa) and essentially now I am turning to be a teacher, I think that schools are really important and I think that extracurriculars can get in the way.

The pre-service teachers' beliefs about protecting their students’ rights might also affected the way they facilitated the parent-teacher interactions. Many of the pre-service teachers highlighted the possible negative physical and psychological effects of the parents’ disagreement over Melissa’s allocation of time and called attention to Melissa’s recent and unexpected behavioral changes. Laura’s statement is an example:

Laura: Also, I think she needs to understand that there needs to be a happy medium because she needs to be a healthy person in general. I know that she has not been the healthy normal Melissa; she has been tired, she has been distracted. I think once you get to find her happy medium, making sure she has eight hours rest, making sure that she is getting her school work done and then we can focus on basketball.

The pre-service teachers were also sensitive to advocate on Melissa’s behalf regarding her allocation of time to academic and athletic activities. Many of them were ensuring that the standardized parents include Melissa in the decision-making process. Kalie’s conversation with the standardized parent exemplifies some of the pre-service teachers’ concerns.

Kalie: Has she voiced to you individually what schools she would like to go to?
Lisa: No, we haven’t sat down and specifically done it, but I think we had a conversation and she said that she wants to do as well as she can do and go to a good school.
Kalie: No, no, I understand that is you, but maybe if you guys had a joint discussion with Melissa, asking what she truly wants to do, asking, you know, what school she wants, maybe, to go to for athletics and her dream schools for academics. And then maybe see if there can be, find a blend. ‘Cause one of the hardest parts is finding the college perfect for you.
It was clear that the pre-service teachers in this study were trying to build positive and effective parent-teacher interactions with the standardized parents; however, many of them were advocating for their students. The idea of protecting the rights of their students and ensuring their physical and psychological wellness were critical concepts that affected the pre-service teachers’ decision-making and facilitation skills during their interactions with the standardized parents. Becky’s concerns about how the student’s home life might affect her overall wellbeing sheds light on some of the pre-service teachers’ protective actions during the parent-teacher interactions:

**Becky:** Well as a teacher, my primary concern is my students. I want them to be safe. I want them to come to school and feel safe and know that they can count on me. I obviously don’t go home with them, I don’t know what is happening at home, I don’t know if they have great parents or they have the worst parents in the world, I have no idea. So I need to establish a good relationship with the child so I can have better insight into that. So I can see how it might affect her performance or see if, hey, maybe I need to step in ... . They are children, you know, they can’t just stand up to the parents and be, like, “Stop! Leave me alone” and run away.

### 4.2. Influences of Personal Experience

Feiman-Nemser notes (2001) that pre-service teachers utilize their prior experience regarding their schooling to conceptualize the scholastic issues that they encounter and highlights how this pre-determining experience affects their actions and hinders their ability to develop appropriate skills for dealing with school-related issues. As Feiman-Nemser suggested, the pre-service teachers’ personal experiences with their own parents and teachers not only affected their decisions, but also their facilitation processes during the simulated parent-teacher interaction. Becky mentioned that she had problems like Melissa’s when she was a high school student, and she elaborated how her experiences with her own teachers and parents affected the way she handled this problematic situation:

**Becky:** I mean, I always had teachers looking out for me, and my teachers were, like, talking with my parents. We live a small community; all of my teachers and my parents knew each other, and my coaches, they all knew each other. So they would talk and I think that was good. Especially when I actually did go through depression, like they talked to each other. I found out later, they all conversed about it. Like we noticed something; so, at school, my teachers, like, kept a special eye on me. The ones, who knew my parents and, like, watched out for me. My coach was like, “Hey! Becky, you wanna take the day off, it is okay.” You know, they as a group helped me. So I think as a group, me and the parents can help the kids.

The pre-service teachers also drew on their personal experience to explain, exemplify, and/or suggest ideas, to better explore problematic issues, and to empathize with Melissa’s feelings. For instance, Kalie used her own experience as an example to highlight the importance of keeping a high GPA:

**Kalie:** I mean personally, I went to school, Syracuse, and I played volleyball at my first semester and now I don’t play anymore. But still my grades were important. That was what
kept me in the school. So, the grades are still very important, as much as the athletics are important.

Zembylas (2007) defines the connections between pre-service teachers’ content knowledge and experience, and their disposition and emotional understanding, as an emotional ecology and suggests that this ecology might affect teachers’ actions. It was apparent that the pre-service teachers’ knowledge about the problem at hand not only helped them to extract better information from the standardized parents, but also triggered an emotional understanding between some of the pre-service teachers and Melissa. For instance, some of the pre-service teachers—many of them student-athletes—asked the standardized parents similar questions about team dynamics or tournament stress to explore the reasons for Melissa’s sudden behavioral changes. They also emphasized that they could relate to Melissa’s situation since they, too, had been student-athletes. For instance, in the following example, Nell used her personal experience to show how pressuring Melissa might result in undesired outcomes:

**Nell:** I went to Syracuse, so I know how it is. I know how pressure feels like... I think that you don’t want anyone, whether it is coach or guidance counselor to push someone to something they don’t want to do, and I saw some of my own fellow teammates in high school that were pushed that way and ended up leaving college or maybe not even getting a degree.

Overall, the findings of this study correspond with Zembylas’ (2007) findings, in that some of the pre-service teachers’ experiences as athletes affected the way they facilitated the simulated interactions and helped them to establish an emotional understanding of Melissa’s problematic behavior. Many of the pre-service teachers effortlessly empathized with Melissa. Some said that they could understand Melissa’s struggles in school, since they had also been high school students. For instance, Nicole described the pressure she felt when she was in high school:

**Nicole:** I know, I mean, I am a young teacher. It was not that long ago, I was applying to colleges. It is a very, very stressful. Umm, there was a time when I was applying to colleges and when not only my teachers said “you need to get your grades up, you need to get your grades up, you need to do better, you need to do this, you need to that to get in colleges,” but my parents were “you need to do this, you need to do that.” College was my life, and I was not even in college yet. I didn’t get to enjoy senior year, I didn’t get to live, like, I was used to living.

While exploring the Ericksonian and neo-Ericksonian identity perspective, Schwartz (2001) defined the concept of identity synthesis as individuals’ endeavor to modify their childhood identities and/or understandings into more refined sets of identity characteristics and proposed that it is expected of these individuals that they will use their self-knowledge to cope with this transition. The participants in this study had just finished high school, and their identity construction was mostly established around the experiences they had acquired from being high school students and interacting with their peers, parents, and teachers. In keeping with Schwartz’s claims about identity synthesis, the pre-service teachers in this research study relied heavily on their own experiences and tried to build their decisions around personal experiences they had had while going through an identity
transition from being late adolescents to pre-service teachers. Overall, it is logical to make an association between the pre-service teachers’ memories of high school and adolescence and their heavy reliance on personal experience while making decisions and facilitating discussions. It is also imperative to point out that the use of clinical simulations could provide opportunities for these individuals to be exposed to school-related issues and to acquire professional experience while they are working on building their teaching identities.

4.3. Effects of Parental Pressure

As described in earlier chapters, two versions of the Goss simulation were implemented in this study; the only difference between them was one specific prompt. During the prompted version of the Goss simulation, in the course of the argument, Lisa explicitly requested the pre-service teacher’s opinion on the issue, while there was no such request in the unprompted version.

During the unprompted version of the Goss simulation, the pre-service teachers’ opinions on how Melissa should allocate her time were varied. Five of the pre-service teachers supported a balanced approach, while four encouraged the allocation of more time to extracurricular activities, and two supported more time for academics. Two of the pre-service teachers indicated that the allocation of time should be determined by Melissa. However, when the pre-service teachers were prompted—when Lisa directly requested their opinions—all of them supported a balanced allocation of time. Interestingly, when the standardized parents did not seek an opinion, the pre-service teachers were able to express their opinions with less constraints; however, when the standardized parents requested the pre-service teachers’ opinions and pressured them to choose a side in the argument, all of the pre-service teachers chose a balanced approach, in order to please both parents and decrease the tension between them. Perhaps the presence of the prompt affected the pre-service teachers’ decision-making processes, since the prompt itself highlighted a significant difference between the standardized parents’ opinions on how should Melissa allocate her time, so the pre-service teachers tried to facilitate the discussion by suggesting a balanced approach to Melissa’s allocation of time and tried to help the standardized parents reach a mutual agreement. It is also possible that the pre-service teachers felt pressure to directly interject a decision that would affect Melissa’s life, so they were ambivalent about whether they had a right to interfere with Melissa’s and/or the standardized parents’ decision-making process.

The data from this study also reveal that some of the pre-service teachers changed their decisions while they were interacting with the standardized parents. The pre-service teachers’ decision changes reflect some of the elements of Korthagen’s theoretical framework (2004) on decision changes: environment, behaviors, competencies, beliefs, identity, and mission. While interacting with the standardized parents, the pre-service teachers repeatedly had to negotiate between their beliefs and environmental factors like the standardized parents’ reactions. Three of the sixteen pre-service teachers provided statements that advocated the allocation of more time to academics. However, when their opinions were directly solicited by the standardized parents, they changed their decision and supported a balanced approach to please both standardized parents and avoid
triggering further problems, since they realized that the standardized parents strongly disagreed with each other. These pre-service teachers chose to behave in a way that was not consistent with their belief systems, in order to establish more effective parent-teacher interactions by easing the tension between standardized parents and supporting them in reaching a mutual agreement on Melissa’s allocation of time. Ted’s comments on his decision change regarding Melissa’s allocation of time best exemplify this perspective:

Ted: I did go back and say that they [academics and extracurriculars] are important, and I do not know if I made it clear at the end that I still held firm in academics to be on top. I may have ended more neutral ‘cause I didn’t want to just take sides to say “you are right, you are wrong.” But I did say what I believed and I tried to clear up some of the confusion with what the mom said. … I wanted both parties to leave happy. … I did not want more arguments to come out of it just because of me. I am trying to help, not make it worse.

The standardized parents’ reactions to the pre-service teachers’ recommendations also prompted decision changes. In the following dialogue, a pre-service teacher, Marshal, changed his decision on accepting Melissa’s late assignment, in response to the reaction of one of the standardized parents:

Lisa: ... She is getting ready to apply to colleges and this isn’t good. What can she do to make this grade up?
Marshal: Well, I can’t accept it late. I would love to...
Lisa: You cannot accept it? [Interrupts the pre-service teachers’ sentence with a surprised manner.]
Marshal: I can, I can, sorry.
Lisa: Ohh, you can accept it.
Marshal: I can accept a delay. There has to be penalty for submitting late, and I was hoping that she could pick her grade up with this project ‘cause she is lower than where she usually is.

Marshal’s response to a pre-simulation question provides insight into his uncertainty about making an exception for Melissa and about his decision change during the interaction: “I’m not sure what I should do if I need to consider making an exception for Melissa. I want to be consistent, but I don’t want to unnecessarily hurt Melissa by failing her.” As can be seen from this example, Marshal was ambivalent about bending the rules to favor one student, and despite his beliefs and values, he changed his decision to respond to the standardized parents’ request, so that he could possibly ease the tension between himself and the standardized parents. Some of the pre-service teachers’ prompt decision-changes during the Goss simulation encouraged the researchers to question the concepts of the influence of pre-service teachers’ professional experience and identity development. One can speculate that having a limited amount of professional experience interacting with parents influenced the pre-service teachers’ determination toward their decisions during the parent-teacher interactions. It also should not be forgotten that these pre-service teachers had only recently started to develop their teaching identities; therefore, they might have been ambivalent about many school-related issues, which might have hindered their decision-making and facilitation skills. Overall, it is apparent that providing opportunities for pre-service teachers to gain professional experience with school-related issues and supporting them in building their teacher identities can greatly ease pre-service teachers’ transition from
teacher training programs to schools.

4.4. Possible Implications of the Use of Clinical Simulations

The pre-service teachers’ lack of professional experience—with teaching and with student-teacher and parent-teacher interactions—impaired their decision-making and facilitation skills. For instance, throughout the simulation process, many of the pre-service teachers observed that they were able to empathize with Melissa; however, only two of the pre-service teachers—who were aware of how their parents felt when the teachers themselves were high school students—were able to empathize with the standardized parents. Graue (2005) noted that pre-service teachers build their decisions about home-school relations around their own families’ interactions with their schools when they were students. Similarly, the pre-service teachers in this study employed their personal experiences to facilitate discussions and make decisions; however, their lack of professional experience hindered their actions and decisions. Thus, providing professional experience on school-related issues—establishing effective parent-teacher interactions, coping with problematic student behaviors, interacting with colleagues and administrators, and so forth—can help pre-service teachers better manage these problems, blend in with the communities in which they work, and build effective relationships with students, parents, colleagues, and administrators.

As Dotger proposes (2011a), clinical simulations can be used to provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to experience content-specific problems or to apply their theoretical knowledge to practical situations (Dotger & Ashby, 2010). For instance, previous studies explored the use of clinical simulations to prepare pre-service science teachers to communicate with parents—in one case using a scenario in which the pre-service teachers interacted with standardized parents who opposed the teaching of evolutionary biology in science and requested an alternative curriculum (Dotger, Dotger, & Tillotson, 2010)—and to prepare school leaders to communicate effectively with parents, teachers, and students (Dotger, 2011b). The use of clinical simulations designed for specific parent-teacher interaction problems could not only help pre-service teachers gain experience, but also transfer the learning from these experiences to other problematic, school-related situations (Dotger et al., 2010; Walker & Dotger, 2012). One of the pre-service teachers in this study echoed these findings and stressed how the Goss simulation could help pre-service teachers prepare for communicating with parents or students:

**Kalie:** This simulation is, kinda, a slap in the face. You are gonna actually talk to people and you are gonna have to be a human. Do you know what I am saying? I think this is really a good idea for getting people, like, used to... especially if you have never talked to a student before, you have never talked to a parent in, like, a professional way.

The use of clinical simulations can also enable both pre-service teachers and their instructors to observe and assess the pre-service teachers’ performance. Thus, through the use of clinical simulations, pre-service teachers can practice, explore, and improve their facilitation and decision-making skills before they enter their profession (Dotger, et al., 2010). Finally, clinical simulations can enable pre-service teachers to confront school-
related problems through their own perspectives and help them develop an understanding of these problems (Dotger, 2010). As one of the pre-service teachers indicates, the use of well-designed clinical simulations could help pre-service teachers acquire a better understanding of parent-teacher interactions:

**Becky:** It is a good way to be exposed to, like, what we will actually do and do it. And it is not just only observing, we kinda hide in the background. ... This shows us, like, you are front runner. It is up to you, like, your students fail—that is partially on you. There are other things, like, you have students, like, marrying, you are not only marrying that person, you marry with their family. You don’t have just students, you also have their family and their problems.

### 5. CONCLUSION

The researchers investigated the pre-service teachers’ answers to the pre-simulation questions, their clinical simulation performance, post-debriefing interview data, and semi-structured interviews regarding the Goss simulation. Thus, the researchers were able to acquire a snapshot of the pre-service teachers’ performance as data for exploring the research question. Although the data provided valuable information about how the pre-service teachers’ identity characteristic affected their decision-making and facilitation processes, the data did not provide any insights about how the use of clinical simulations could help pre-service teachers gain experience to increase their decision-making and facilitation skills or explore their dispositions to establish their teaching identity. However, the creation of a longitudinal study—with the implementation of a series of clinical simulations—could reveal how clinical simulations could be used as an experiential tool to help pre-service teachers explore and identify their dispositions towards school-related issues. Future studies can explore the use of clinical simulations for creating awareness and dispositional changes in the perspectives of pre-service teachers regarding parent-teacher and parent-school relationships.

This study uniquely employed a clinical simulation as a data-gathering methodology. More specifically, the researchers used two versions of the Goss simulation to create a clinically simulated environment, in order to gather data on pre-service teachers’ actions and reflections. The researchers adjusted the versions of the Goss simulation by including in one version a specific prompt to elicit the pre-service teachers’ input regarding the argument between the standardized parents. In sum, the use of clinical simulations provided a unique opportunity to explore pre-service teachers’ actions and reflections in a clinically designed parent-teacher interaction. The use of clinical simulations as a data-gathering methodology is an innovative approach; however, there is not much research on the trustworthiness of clinical simulations as research tools. Creating a study to explore the trustworthiness of clinical simulations and ways to improve them would be beneficial for promoting this innovative data-gathering methodology.

The findings of this study revealed that the pre-service teachers’ beliefs, values, and past experiences affected their decision-making and facilitation processes. They relied heavily on their previous experiences with their own teachers and parents when they were making decisions. It was also apparent that the pre-service teachers were having difficulty empathizing with the standardized parents, although they had a better understanding of
the student’s perspective regarding the problematic situation. The lack of professional experience was very salient in the pre-service teachers’ decision-making and facilitation processes, and in most cases, it impaired their performance. Some of the pre-service teachers chose to rapidly change their decisions when they encountered parental pressure, which might have resulted from the pre-service teachers’ lack of professional experience or from their rudimentary stage of development of a teaching identity. As others proposed, the use of clinical simulations as a teaching tool could help future pre-service teachers like these gain experience with school-related problems, explore their dispositions toward sociocultural contexts (such as race, gender, boundaries around home and school, and the power struggle between parents and teachers) and develop their teaching identities (Dotger, 2010; Dotger & Ashby, 2010). In addition, it could help pre-service or induction-stage teachers gain a better understanding of the communities in which they will be working, so they could better harmonize with the parents, students, and colleagues with whom they will be working.

REFERENCES


**GENİŞ ÖZET**

**Araştırmaın Önemi ve Amacı**

Araştırmanın Metodu


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Bu simülasyonların etkin bir şekilde uygulanabilmesi için tutulan profesyonel aktörler sergilecek duygusal tavır, fiziksel harekeler ve kullanılabilecek tetik cümleler hakkında eğitimlendirilmiştir. Yine simülasyon uygulamasının tutarlılığını koruyabilmek adına canlandırma çalışmaları araştırıcıların gözetimi altında yapılmıştır. The Goss simülasyonun versiyonlarını deneysel olarak 31 öğretmen adayından 28 tanesi araştırıcıların verileri incelmesine onay vermiş, yine rastgele seçilen 31 öğretmen adayından altısı yarı-yapilandırılmış toplantılar katılan araştırıcıların hazırladığı soruların cevaplamalarıdır. Toplanan tüm video ve ses kayıtların hepsi orijinal metine sadık kalınarak yazılı veri haline getirilmiş ve araştırıcılar tarafından analiz edilmiştir. Verilerin analizi sırasında arastırılar konu ve klinik simülasyonda kullanılan tetik cümleler dikkate alınarak geçici bir kod çizelgesi hazırlanmıştır, bu geçici kod çizelgesi kullanılarak verileri incelemek adına simülasyon ve toplantı kod...
Analiz süreci sırasında Lincoln and Guba’nın (1985) analiz metodu takip edilerek kod çizelgelerinin araştırılan verileri etkin bir şekilde temsil edebilmesi sağlanmıştır. Araştırmanın Sonucu ve Öneriler