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MASTER THESIS

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PLAY AND ACTUAL PLAY BEHAVIORS IN RELATION TO SCHOOL READINESS OF CHILDREN

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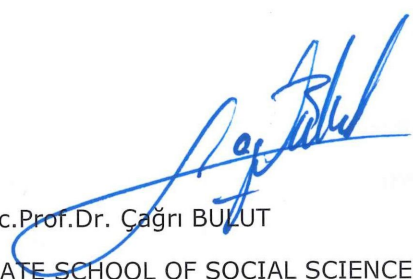
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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PLAY AND ACTUAL PLAY BEHAVIORS IN RELATION TO SCHOOL READINESS OF CHILDREN

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Msc Psychology

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Play has always been considered as a vital part of learning and child development. Recently, there is an ongoing debate on the role of play in the development of children and the contribution of play versus academics in the development of young children. Although research and theory supports the play-learning belief and research points out a clear association between parents' perceptions of play, play behaviors and children's development, there is limited data on parents' beliefs about play and its role in the development of the child. Thus, further research is needed to clarify the quality and quantity of this effect on school readiness of children. Furthermore, most of the research on child play is based on investigations of Western cultures and more research is needed to shed light on parent-child play in different cultures such as Turkey, a borderline country between the East and the West. Thus, this study aims to investigate the relationship between parents' perceptions of play and actual play behaviors of children in relation to school readiness of children in Turkey.

Based on a quantitative research design, this thesis employed a cross-sectional procedure. The target population for the present study is preschool children aged between 4 to 6 years old and their parents in Turkey. The data is gathered from 108 parents from 6 different schools in İzmir and Konya. Four different types of instruments are used in this study: (1) A demographic questionnaire was employed to investigate the demographic status of the participants. (2) The Parent Play Beliefs Scale (PPBS) was employed to assess parents' beliefs about play on the factors of

Play Support which captures parents' beliefs about play as an enjoyable activity with many developmental benefits, and Academic Focus which reflects parents' beliefs that play is not important for general development or developing academic skills such as reading (Fogle& Mendez, 2006). (3) Play Types Scale (Fisher, Hirsh-Pasek, Golinkoff, & Gryfe, 2008) was employed to investigate actual play types the children engaged in. Readiness Test (Baydar, Güroğlu & Birdinç, 2003) was used to assess mothers' perceptions of the school readiness levels of their children.

Independent Samples T-test, one-way ANOVA analysis used to analyse the data indicated the following results: (1) There was a negative significant relationship between academic focus scores of parents and unstructured play, structured play scores of children. (2) There was a positive significant relationship between school readiness scores of children and play support scores of parents. However, there was a negative significant relationship between school readiness scores of children and academic focus scores of the parents. Also there was a negative significant relationship between the parents' scores of play support and academic focus. (3) There was a positive significant relationship between school readiness scores of children and unstructured play, structured play scores of children. The frequency of actual play behaviours were found to be related to the acquisition of higher number of school readiness skills. (4) The demographic variables, mother's age, mothers' education level, mother occupation, number of family members, number of siblings, family income and gender of children, led to a difference in terms of parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children. However, the variables of father's education level and father's occupation did not lead to a difference in the same aspects.

To conclude, this study provides important insights to the understanding of the role between play, family and school readiness of children, but it also includes some limitations. However, the present study provides important implications for parents, early childhood educators, early childhood program developers and researchers.

Key words: school readiness, play perceptions, actual play behavior.

ÖZ

EBEVEYNLERİN OYUN ALGISI, ÇOCUKLARIN OYUN DAVRANIŞLARI VE ÇOCUKLARIN OKULA HAZIR BULUNUŞLUKLARI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİNİN İNCELENMESİ

Şule, Gülşeker

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Oyun çocuk gelişimi ve öğreniminin önemli bir parçası olarak kabul edilmektedir. Son yıllarda, oyunun çocuk gelişiminde oynadığı rol ve oyun ile akademik faaliyetlerin karşılaştırmalı olarak çocuk gelişimine katkısı önemli bir tartışma konusu haline gelmiştir. Ancak, araştırmalar ve teoriler oyun-öğrenme olgusunu destekler nitelikte olmasına ve çalışmalar ebeveynlerin oyun algısı, oyun davranışları ve çocuk gelişimi arasında açık bir ilişkiye işaret etmesine rağmen ebeveynlerin oyun algısı ve bunun çocuk gelişimine etkisi konusunda yapılmış sınırlı sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca çocuk oyunları ile ilgili çalışmaların çoğunun Batılı kültürler üstünde uygulandığı ve Türkiye gibi Doğu ile Batı arasında köprü görevi gören faklı kültürlerde de ebeveyn-çocuk oyunları ile çalışmaların yapılması gerektiği görülmektedir. Bu sebeple, bu çalışma Türkiye'de ebeveynlerin oyun algısı, çocukların oyun davranışları ve çocukların okula hazır bulunuşlukları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Nicel araştırma tasarımına dayalı olan bu tez bir kesit çalışmasıdır. Bu çalışmanın hedef grubunu Türkiye'deki 4-6 yaş arasında okul öncesi dönem çocukları ve onların ebeveynleri oluşturmaktadır. Veriler 108 ebeveyn ve İzmir ile Konya şehirlerinde 6 farklı okul öncesi eğitim veren okuldan toplanmıştır. Çalışmada dört farklı ölçme aracı kullanılmıştır: (1) Katılımcıların demografik özelliklerini saptamak için demografik bir anket kullanılmıştır. (2) Ebeveynlerin oyun ile ilgili düşüncülerini incelemek amacıyla Evebeyn Oyun Algısı Ölçeği (PPBS) kullanılmıştır. Oyun Desteği boyutu ebeveynlerin oyunu eğlenceli ve çocuğun gelişimi için pek çok katkıları bulunan bir aktivite olarak gördüklerini gösterirken, Akademik Odak boyutu

ebeveynlerin oyunun çocuğun genel gelişimi ve okuma becerileri gibi akademik becerilerin gelişiminde önemli bir rol oynamadığını düşündüklerini göstermektedir (Fogle&Mendez, 2006). (3) Oyun Çeşitleri Ölçeği (Fisher, Hirsh-Pasek, Golinkoff, & Gryfe, 2008) çocukların gerçekte oynadıkları oyun çeşitlerini saptamak amacıyla kullanılmıştır. (4) Okula Hazır bulunuşluk Testi (Baydar, Güroğlu ve Birdinç, 2003) bu tez içerisinde ebeveynlerin okula hazır bulunuşluk düzeyi ile ilgili algılarını saptamak amacıyla kullanılmıştır.

Bağımsız örnekleme testi, tek yönlü ANOVA analizleri ile veriler analiz edilmiştir. Yapılan analizler sonucunda şu sonuçlar elde edilmiştir: (1) Türkiye'de ebeveynlerin oyun algısı ve çocukların oyun davranışları arasında bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Ebeveynlerin akademik odak puanları ile çocukların yapılandırılmış oyun, yapılandırılmamış oyun puanları arasında anlamlı bir ilişkiye ulaşılmıştır. (2) Çocukların okula hazır bulunuşluk puanları ile ebeveynlerin oyun desteği puanları arasında pozitif anlamlı bir ilişki gözlenmiştir. Ancak, çocukların okula hazır bulunuşluk puanları ile ebeveynlerin akademik odak puanları arasında negatif anlamlı bir ilişki ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ayrıca ebeveynlerin oyun desteği puanları ile akademik odak puanları arasında negatif anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. (3) Türkiye'de ebeveynlerin oyun davranışları ve okul öncesi dönemde çocukların okula hazır bulunuşlukları arasında bir ilişki olduğu görülmektedir. Çocukların okula hazır bulunuşluk puanları ile çocukların yapılandırılmış oyun puanları ve yapılandırılmamış oyun puanları arasında pozitif anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. (4) Türkiye'de annenin yaşı, annenin medeni hali, annelerin eğitim seviyesi, annelerin mesleği; çocukların cinsiyeti, ailedeki kardeş sayısı, ailede bulunan kişi sayısı, ailenin geliri değişkenleri ile ebeveynlerin oyun algısı, oyun davranışları, çocukların okula hazır bulunuşluğu puanları arasında bir ilişkiye rastlanmıştır. Ancak babaların eğitim seviyesi, babaların mesleği ve ebeveynlerin oyun algısı, oyun davranışları, çocukların okula hazır bulunuşluğu puanları arasındaki ilişki anlamlı bulunmamaktadır.

Sonuç olarak, bu çalışma okul öncesi dönemde oyun, aile ve okula hazır bulunuşluk arasındaki ilişkinin anlaşılması için önemli katkılar sağlamaktadır. Çalışmanın bazı sınırlılıkları bulunsa da, bu çalışma ebeveynler, okul öncesi eğitmenleri, okul öncesi

program geliştiricileri ve araştırmacılar için önemli çıkarımlar içerdiği düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: okula hazır bulunuşluk, oyun algısı, oyun davranışı.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TEXT OF OATH

I declare and honestly confirm that my study, titled "AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF PLAY AND ACTUAL PLAY BEHAVIORS IN RELATION TO SCHOOL READINESS OF CHILDREN" and presented as a Master's Thesis, had been written without applying to any assistance inconsistent with scientific ethics and traditions. I declare, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that all content and ideas drawn directly or indirectly from external sources are indicated in the text and listed in the list of references.

ŞULE GÜLŞEKER

Signature

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July 13, 2019

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PPBS   : The Parent Play Beliefs Scale

PTS   : Play Types Scale

SRT   **:** School Readiness Test

SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

In the recent years, the role of play in the development of children and the debate over play versus academics has received considerable attention. Policymakers are currently interested in educating children earlier and fostering brain growth, in parallel with the new research on brain development and the crucial role of the early years on learning. Thus, teachers and families often feel obliged to support children for school readiness, but may not be sure about how to do it. Recent developments on neuroscience research have shown that ages four and five are crucial periods in the development of executive function skills (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2011). As an important period for the development of executive function skills, researchers and scholars have started to question how to best support student transitions into formal schooling in preschool and kindergarten curricula.

A growing body of research relates play to the development of specific skills and abilities in children that are important for their academic future at school. The positive outcomes of play for the cognitive development of children have been noted in different studies. Symbolic play is a significant part of the cognitive development of children. Symbolic play enhances various skills and abilities of children including retention skills (Newman, 1990), abstract thinking skills (Saltz, Dixon, & Johnson, 1977), inspirational skills (Russ, Robins, & Christiano, 1999), linguistic skills (Pellegrini & Galda, 1993), mindset skills (Youngblade & Dunn, 1995) and self-management skills (Berk, Mann, & Ogan, 2006). Through spontaneous play children can experience their immediate surroundings. Thus, spontaneous play contributes to the development of analytical skills in early childhood (Ginsburg, Cannon, Eisenband, & Pappas, 2005). Early childhood is also an important phase during which children have a chance to improve their socio emotional skills and get ready for their school years. Social play helps children to reshape their instinctual behaviors in accordance with the requirements of the society, get involved in social relationships with and behave in a manner that is accepted by the cultural norms (Berk, Mann, & Ogan, 2006). Fantasy play also contributes to the socio emotional skills of children (Connolly & Doyle, 1984).

Throughout the history, play has been a vital part of child development. However, recent studies note that play activities that enhance mental discovery and adaptability are undervalued. Pellegrini (2005) argues that free and unstructured play activities seem to be taken over by structured and didactic play activities not only in early childhood settings but also at home. Didactic and structured academic programs and endeavors have replaced free play and unstructured activities in the immediate environments of children (Raymond, 2000).

Various studies have attempted to provide a clear definition, classification of play and tried to investigate the play behaviors of children. However, scholars, practitioners and play therapists do not seem to have agreed on a common definition and classification of what constitutes play (Fisher et al, 2008). While some consider play as a vital part of child learning and development, others consider play as an unnecessary activity that needs to be replaced with academic activities (Fogle & Mendez, 2006). Among these, parents' beliefs about play, especially, is worth noting since these beliefs shape how parents interact with their children and in turn, influences the development of the child. Parents' believes about play determines how they organize the context around their children such as play objects and play structures in and outside the house daily routines and social interactions (Rheingold & Cook, 1975). If parents believe in the benefit of the play for the child, they are more likely to support child-play in quantity and quality (Sigel & McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2002). Additionally, parental perceptions of play are important to study in developmental psychology, because these perceptions and beliefs are likely to affect their encouragement of and involvement in their children's play. Past research has indicated that parental involvement in children's play enhances learning opportunities and contributes to the development of children (Roggman, Boyce, Cook, Christiansen, & Jones, 2004). Overarching research findings on the development of children have shown that there is a gap in literature in the area of parent-child play research. Interestingly, as also suggested by Cheng and Johnson (2010), other areas of parent-child relationships have attracted greater attention in the child-development literature than parent-child play per se. Additionally, a glance at play literature reveals that a plethora of studies are dedicated to describe parent-child relationship. However, as also suggested by Roopnarine and Davidson (2015),

parent-child play research needs to shift emphasis from describing parent-child play to explaining its contribution to childhood development. However, though research and theory supports the play-learning belief, there is scarce data on parents' beliefs about play and its role in the development of the child.

Although the importance and utility of play for the development of children has been underlined in literature, there has been little research investigating the relationship between parents' perceptions of play, play behaviors and children's school readiness. Parents' perceptions of play will affect the interaction of parents with their children, which in turn, will affect developmental outcomes. Research has shown that parents' perception of play can influence developmental outcomes of children both directly and indirectly. For example, Musun-Miller and Blevins-Knabe (1999) have concluded that parents' beliefs about how children learn math influenced their participation in math-related activities with their children. In the same way, Donahue, Pearl, and Hertzog (1997) have reported that mothers' beliefs about oral language development have a direct effect on maternal behavior concerning communication tasks with children. On an indirect level, parental beliefs can also affect the organization of children's everyday living contexts, daily routines and social interactions by parents (Palacios, Gonzalez, & Moreno, 1992). Parker, Boak, Griffin, Ripple, and Peay (1999) also found that parents who had a greater understanding of play at the end of the Head Start year had children who had better school readiness skills than peers whose parents had not gained greater knowledge of play. Thus, research points out a clear association between parents' perceptions of play, play behaviors and children's development but further research is needed to clarify the quality and quantity of this effect on school readiness of children.

Moreover, most of the research on child play is based on investigations of Western cultures. However, definitions and norms of play used in Western cultures may fall short in explaining the parent-child play activities interactions in different cultures around the world. Since play is culturally situated, as also suggested by Göncü and Gaskins (2011), parents are involved in child-play in various ways across cultures and time (Roopnarine & Davidson, 2015). Sigel and McGillicuddy-De Lisi (2002) have also reported that beliefs of parents about children's learning appear in relation to nomothetic and idiosyncratic cultural experiences. For instance, if a mother thinks

that direct instruction will help children learn the best she is probably influenced by cultural dogmas that give importance to didactic instruction, her own childhood learning experiences, and observation of the learning of her child. Thus, more research is needed to shed light on parent-child play in different cultures such as Turkey, a borderline country between the East and the West.

As a response to these gaps in literature, this study aims to investigate the relationship between parents' perceptions of play and actual play behaviors in relation to school readiness of children in Turkey. To my knowledge, no study has investigated the relationship between them all together to shed light on their role on school readiness. I believe this study will further contribute to the understanding of play and the relationship between parents' perceptions, play and school development of children. As also underlined by Fisher et al (2008), "To fully understand what constitutes play, we must go beyond experts to parents' implicit beliefs of play and how these beliefs are fostered not only by the individual, but by culture and society" Thus, we can "create a generation of creative and emotionally healthy children who love to learn" (p.314-315).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. School Readiness

2.1.1. What is school readiness?

School readiness is considered as a crucial goal of early childhood education by early childhood educators and policy makers (School Readiness Indicators Initiative, 2005). As also stated in the Convention on the Rights of the Child; each child has the right to access the appropriate education that is suitable for his age and his developmental milestones (Fabian & Dunlop, 2006). It is important to promote children's development in early ages for their future education. The National Education Goals Panel (NEGP) (1995) declared that "all children will have access to high quality and developmentally appropriate preschool programs that help prepare children for school (p.8). Though there is a consensus on the importance of school reading as a necessary part of early childhood education, it is less agreed upon how to describe and assess school readiness. (Daily, Burkhauser, & Halle, 2012).

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In broad terms, school readiness can be described as "the state of child competencies at the time of school entry that are important for later success" (Snow, 2006, p. 9). Similarly, Graue (2006) has described school readiness as a "set of skills and dispositions that are loosely coupled with success in school" (47). Clark and Zygmunt-Fillwalk (2008) conceptualize school readiness as the interaction among various related contexts and supports rather than as discrete skills. Social, attitudinal, and affective learning are considered to be important in children's potential for long-term learning and future schooling (Bertram & Pascal, 2002). Copple and Bredekamp (2009) list the factors related to school success as math skills, vocabulary development, social-emotional skills, and eagerness to learn.

The National Education Goals Panel (1997) describes school readiness as readiness in five domains: (1) physical well-being and motor development, (2) social and emotional development, (3) approaches to learning, (4) language development, and (5) cognition and general knowledge. Wynn (2002) explains how important each domain is and guides parents to develop their children's skills and abilities within each domain. Concerning physical well-being and motor development, Wynn (2002) suggests that it is important since it helps children concentrate on school. Halle, Hair, Wandner, & Chien (2012) have listed the necessary elements of school readiness as physical development, physical abilities, background and contextual conditions of children's physical development, which are important for children's future academic success. According to Wynn (2002), a healthy diet, regular sleep and physical check-up, effective immunization, and an environment that develops fine and gross motor skills can contribute to the development of physical well-being and motor development. Social and emotional development of children plays an important role in school readiness, as well. Children who can spend time with people around them, who are happy about themselves and have good level of self-confidence, are expected to be more successful and happier at school. Spending time with children in groups or one to one, practicing effective communication skills, giving children tasks to be succeeded and providing them with the essential encouragement and praise for the completed task are some of the means of promoting social and emotional development of children. Third, approaching learning positively is also important in terms of school readiness. Children who have

more opportunities to explore, play creatively, develop problem solving skills and express their feelings about what they are doing are more likely to develop more positive approaches to learning. Next, language development is another crucial part of school readiness. Some of the ways to enhance language development in children include listening to children and teaching them to listen to others, telling stories to children and encouraging them to create their own stories, providing children with opportunities to write. Finally, cognition and general knowledge are fundamental parts of school readiness. Organising trips to surrounding areas, engaging children in thought-provoking games will contribute to the cognitive and knowledge development of children (Wynn, 2002).

2.1.2. Theories for School Readiness

A number of educational theories have been used to explain children's development of school readiness. Piaget's theory of cognitive development was the first influential theory at the onset of the concept of school readiness (Piaget, 1936). If children have enough cognitive ability to learn at school, then they were deemed to be ready for school (Carlton & Winsler, 1999). Today, the starting age for kindergarten is determined based on Piaget's theory of cognitive development. Recently, Vygotsky's social development theory has influenced the development of school readiness concept. According to Vygotsky (1978), social environment is the key factor for the development of children. In line Vygotsky's social development theory, providing children with a learning environment that is suitable for their level is likely to contribute to a child's early school success. Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory is another influential recent theory in the development of the concept of school readiness. In parallel with Vygotsky's social development theory, Brofenbrenner's ecological systems theory underline the importance of environmental systems and the interaction between these systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Within this context, a child's development is assessed from all aspects to get a healthy measurement of school readiness level.

Additionally, neurobiological model has also been proposed to explain school readiness among children. Based on the neurobiological model, self-regulatory skills of children are important for the development of their present and future academic

skills (Blair & Raver, 2015). Thus, assessment of school readiness includes the assessment of both academic and developmental skills. Furthermore, another model proposed to explain school readiness focuses on the relationship between academic and social skills. Cunha and Heckman (2008) have suggested that school readiness includes cognitive and non-cognitive skills. Within this approach, children's dependence on cognitive and non-cognitive skills changes depending on the developmental stage they are going through. All theories proposed to explain school readiness have their own strengths and weaknesses, but they all suggest that in order to measure school readiness in a valid way one needs to take into consideration both academic and developmental skills.

2.1.3. Factors Influencing School Readiness

Within a nature vs. nurture factors that affect school readiness not only the environmental factors and resources but also the interaction between them. Ethnicity and social class influences are among the most influential factors that affect school readiness of children. Children coming from poor families with little access to educational resources (Ramey & Ramey, 2004), and children that belong to certain ethnicity groups such as American Indian, Black, and Hispanic children, have been found to have lower levels of school readiness (Brooks-Gunn & Markman, 2005) Vandivere, Pitzer, Halle and Hair (2004) also investigated school readiness among children from different socioeconomic and demographic backgrounds. The results revealed that environmental factors such as SES, ethnicity and parental characteristics affect school readiness levels of pre-school children.

Parental influences are also important in the development of school readiness. Brooks- Gunn and Markman (2005) investigated how parenting practices of nurturance, discipline, teaching, language, monitoring, management, and materials affected school readiness of children. The authors concluded that although parental influences affect the development of school reading among children, they interact with ethnicity. However, the study also suggests that the ethnic and SES gap among school readiness could be explained by parental characteristics. Additionally, parental perceptions and attitudes concerning school readiness have been found to affect parent behaviours and interactions with their children and affect the level of

school readiness in return. Thus, according to McLeod (2008) understanding parent perceptions will help to understand parent practices and underlying factors of school readiness better. Finally, parent perceptions and practices play an important role in the development of school readiness among preschool children. Parents' beliefs about the needs of their children have also been found to correlate with parental behaviours and developmental outcomes for the children (Landry & Smith, 2008).

The relationship between play and school readiness has also been noted by several authors in literature (Fogle & Mendez, 2006; Gilbert, Harte, & Patrick, 2011; Lamb-Parker, Boak, Griffin, Ripple, & Peay 1999). Gilbert et al (2011) suggest that as children are involved in purposeful play, they develop social, affective, attitudinal, and behavioural skills beside subject content knowledge. Lamp-Parker et al (1999) investigated the relationship between parent-child relationship, home learning environment and school readiness in their study. Children of parents who had a good understanding of concept of play had higher scores on school readiness in the domains of cognitive competencies and classroom behaviour outcomes. Parents' understanding of play was related to the acquisition of higher number of skills including greater sensory concept activation, greater creativity and greater and greater independence. Roopnarine and Mounts (1985) also found that when parents consider play as an important part of the development process, there will be positive outcomes for the school readiness of children. Despite the emphasis on the link between play and school readiness of children in literature, there are hardly any studies that investigate the relationship between parents' perception of play and school readiness of children. This gap in literature is also highlighted by Fogle and Mendez (2006). Importantly, as also noted by Hughes, 2008, p. 195) "parents often articulate beliefs that contradict their practices". Therefore, an investigation of how parents' beliefs correlate with their behaviors is also important to understand the factors underlying school readiness of children.

2.1.4. Research on School Readiness in Turkey

School readiness has also attracted attention in Turkey. A glance at literature reveals that there are several thesis studies that focus on school readiness in Turkey. More specifically, a database search on YÖKSİS reveals that there are 72 masters and PhD

thesis on school readiness that are conducted in Turkey. These studies mostly focus on the factors that affect the development of school readiness among children or investigate perceptions about school readiness of children. The relationship between school readiness and other developmental outcomes and the effect of different applications such as Montessori on school readiness of children has also been researched in Turkey.

Baştürk (2013), for example, investigated the influence of family factors on children's school readiness in Turkish culture. The results revealed that (i) family factors were related to children's composite readiness scores directly or indirectly; (ii) maternal and paternal level of education was directly and indirectly related to children's domain specific readiness and composite readiness for school; (iii) family economic status and stimulating parenting were the most significant factors in terms of children's school readiness; (iv) support resources of mothers directly predicted only the outcome measures during year prior to school entry; (v) economic status of families moderated the relationship between spousal support and children's readiness outcomes and (vi) stimulating parenting partially mediated the relationship between mothers' level of education and children's language skills. Dilcioğlu (2016) also investigated school readiness levels of 5-6 year old children, and concluded that age, pre-school education, regular continuing of schooling, the age of parents, the level of education of parents and the income level of the family, and the socio-cultural levels influenced school readiness levels of children. More recently, Özgünlü (2017) investigated the factors associated with children's school readiness and the relationships between those factors in her thesis. She found that children's age, gender, length of experience in formal early childhood education and the quality of interactions in early childhood education classrooms were the strongest predictors of children's readiness for school. The results revealed that older children, female children, children who had longer experience in formal early childhood education, and children who were in classrooms which had better interactions quality between the class teachers and the children has higher levels of school readiness. The author also found positive relations between parents' socioeconomic factors and the quality of early childhood education classrooms. To sum up, school readiness has been the focus of several studies in Turkey as well, but an investigation of the relationship

between school readiness and parental perceptions of play and actual play behaviours seem still an uninvestigated area.

2.2. Play

2.2.1. What is play? A Vague Definition

A review of literature on child play reveals ambiguities and diversity in the exact definition and categorization of play. As also suggested by Fisher et al (2008), "many diverse behaviours are considered playful, making it notoriously difficult to articulate an allen compassing definition of play" (p.306). Scholars who hold different views concerning the essence of play have put forward different descriptions of play. Some researchers such as Fromberg (2002) and Rubin, Fein and Vandenberg (1983) base their definitions of play on the content of the activity. On the other hand, some researchers such as Lazarus (1885) relate the definition of play to the outcomes for the child. Thus, beliefs about play seem to shape the definition of play.

According to Stuart Brown, play is "the basis of all art, games, books, sports, movies, fashion, fun, and wonder" (2009, p.13). Brown (2009) also suggests that play consists of the basis of civilizations. Fromberg (1992) describes play as "an activity that is symbolic, meaningful, active, pleasurable, voluntary, rule-governed and episodic" (p. 43 as cited in Nowak, Nichols, and Coutts, 2009). Elkind (2007) defines play as an instinctive propensity through which children can comprehend, conceptualize, and investigate their intuitive interest in their surrounding environment. Wood (2009) suggests that the essential characteristics of play include "intrinsic motivation, engagement; dependence on internal rather than external rules, control and autonomy, and attention to means rather than ends" (p. 167). Csikszentmihalyi (1981), on the other hand, suggests that play is a subdivision of the actual life and adds that children can have trials and errors during play on real life experiences without any risks. Stallibrass's definition of play defines play as nearly everything a child is involved in without any other obligation (1977, p. 17). According to Gordon (2009), play is the willing action between different boundaries starting with a complete intake into a quite adjustable domain, preventing stress in enjoyable means, creating the possibility of the surprising change (p. 8). Zeece and Graul (1990) have suggested that play includes the following criteria: (1) it is driven

by an innate motivation; (2) it is interested in the process rather than the target itself; (3) it is child-governed; (4) it is mainly driven by instrumental actions; (5) it is shaped by informal laws; (6) it is based on the child as the main actor. According to Scales, Almy, Nicolopoulou, Ervin-Tripp, Scales, Almy, & Ervin-Tripp, S. (1991), play is a captivating enterprise in which children are included with free will (p. 15). Finally, Garvey (1977) suggests that play is an enterprise that is valuable for the involved individuals, it is self-driven, enjoyable, systematically related to the actions which are not regarded as play and it is initiated willingly (p. 5).

On the other hand, some scholars such as Moyles (1989), Garvey (1991) and Power (2000) suggest that it is not possible to provide a precise definition of play. Brian, Sutton, & Smith (1997) note that scholars cannot provide an exact definition of play within a framework of cosmogenetics and physics. As an alternative, Gordon (2008) suggests that scholars should be seeking for alternative analogies that will add to our conceptualization and latitude of what constitutes play.

2.2.2. Types of Play

Play has been classified in different ways by several authors. According to Piaget (1951) has play consists of the categories of practice play, symbolic play and games with rules. Practice play is defined as the uncomplicated, recurring, enjoyable actions that include instruments and people. Symbolic play, on the other hand, includes activities in which children are involved in role play (Isenberg, 1997). Smilansky's (1968) categorization of play includes constructive play as an additional category. Zeece and Graul (1990) argue that play can be divided into three categories namely as functional play, constructive play and dramatic play. Functional consists of physical actions and the aim to investigate the immediate environment. Constructive play provides an opportunity for children to be engaged in creative play through role play and different instruments. Dramatic play enables to foster pretence actions carried out by children.

2.2.2.1. Structured play

Play has also been classified as structured and unstructured. According to Murata and Maeda (2002) structured play is based on the participation of adults and rules that are

defined beforehand. However, the way adults are involved in the structured play can change to a great extent. Lying on a teaching ground mainly, structured play consists of teaching techniques that are not direct or direct and negotiation techniques which are rendered according to the time and place (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1992).

The participation of an adult figure and the rules that are defined beforehand is what differentiates structured and unstructured play. According to Murata and Maeda (2002) the enterprise to be involved in is chosen and organised by the parents in structured play. Elkind (2007) suggests that parents control the structured play in the same way a teacher controls the activities in a classroom. However, Bredekamp and Rosegrant (1992) note that adults may prefer to be involved in the controlling and organisation of structured play in different levels. Some may choose to use techniques that are not directive and instead prefers to exemplify the action. Some, on the other hand, may prefer to use techniques of negotiation and provides guidance for the child when necessary. Some, however, may choose to employ techniques that aim at controlling the action of the child in a direct manner.

2.2.2.2. Unstructured Play

In simplistic terms, unstructured play is known as free play. Canning (2007) suggests that unstructured play is not directed and started by an adult. Instead, it is started and governed by a child. Gerber (2002) notes that during unstructured play, children can investigate their immediate surroundings without any interruption and that they can get new experiences in the end. Ruebke (2009) argues that unstructured play provides an environment for children where they can learn freely through exploration and their self-choices, a specific period to be involved the play process and enhance inspirational skills, a secure environment to be involved in playful activities without adult guidance, presence of several instruments that enhance inspiration. Adults are responsible for providing a rich play environment and adequate uninterrupted time (Hewes, 2006).

Several scholars such as Canning (2007) and Oldfield (2001) have underlined the contribution of unstructured play to the development of children. According to Canning (2007) also states Unstructured play helps children be an active part of the learning process through their involvement in activities that require analytic thinking,

self-exploration and inventiveness. Canning (2007) adds that unstructured play provides an internal source of motivation for children that paves the way for autonomous learning and helps to prepare the children for a better future. Unstructured play is specifically necessary for the development of children in the first three years of their life since physical action is a vital part of learning for children. Through unstructured play, children conceptualize their immediate surroundings in their own manners (Oldfield ,2001).

Additionally, unstructured play contributes to the cognitive development of children. Especially pretend play has been found to contribute to the development of perspective taking and abstract thought in children (Gimtrova & Gimtrov, 2003). Gimtrova and Gimtrov (2003) investigated the influence of teacher directed and child directed play on preschool children's cognitive development. They found that unstructured play contributed to the development of children's cognitive skills more than structured play. Similarly, Siraj Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002) examined childcare settings in England through a longitudinal study, and concluded that childcare settings which enabled children be engaged in unstructured play for at least half of their time in the setting were the most beneficial for their cognitive development. From a theoretical perspective, John Dewey, has also underlined the importance of unstructured play in the development of children and has added that children need freedom and autonomy to explore the world and interact with the people around them (Dewey et al, 1988).

Although there is a great deal of research that underline the contribution of unstructured play to the development of young children, Elkind (2007) and Zigler and Bishop-Josef (2006) have noted that children have limited opportunity to be involved in unstructured play activities and continue their development in a more natural way, and unstructured play is gradually replaced by structured play.

2.2.3. Play and Development of Children

Throughout human history, play has always been recognised as a legitimate and important trait of early childhood throughout the world (May, 2004). Today, also, play is a crucial part of early childhood education curricula around the world (Bertram & Pascal, 2002). Play and learning are regarded as two interrelated words

in play literature. Pre-school level is the period when play becomes the most vital part of learning for children. Play provides an environment for children through which they can investigate their immediate surroundings and seek replies to the infinite questions they have about the world (Kieff & Casbergue , 2000).

Different theories have been put forward on the role of play in teaching and learning. A great deal of research on work on the role of play on the development of children within the scope of developmental psychology is based on theories of Lev Vygotsky. According to Vygotsky (1978), play consists of a vital part of school engagement for children and notes that role-playing specifically contributes to the development of children to a great deal. Play has positive outcomes on the cognitive and emotional development of children through the promotion of self-discipline (Vygotsky, 1978). Whitebread (2011) also underlines the contribution of play to the development of self-regulatory and verbal skills of children, which are deemed to be necessary for school success. Rogers (2011) suggests that there is enough evidence in literature to prove the crucial role of play for the development of children. According to neo-Vygotskian scholars, on the other hand, different play types have different outcomes for the cognitive, linguistic and emotional development of children. Manuilenko (1948, as cited in Karpov, 2005) investigated children between the ages of three and seven and concluded that play enabled children to use linguistic resources with more ease to control others' action, which is an important factor for the development of self-regulatory skills. As noted by Fisher, Kelly, Hirsh-Pasek, Golinkoff, Singer and Berk (2011) also play is regarded as a substitute to instructive teaching techniques in a constructivist framework.

In addition to the contributions of play to the emotional development of children, the positive outcomes of play in terms of the cognitive and physical development of children have also been noted by different scholars such as Pellis, Pellis and Bell (2010). Research has shown that play contributes to the socio-emotional, cognitive and physical development of children which is nearly impossible to be replaced by formal classroom instruction (Ministry of Education Science and Sports, 2007). Bruner (1972) also argues that play provides an effective environment for children to gain knowledge, get new experiences and improve social skills. Play   also contributes to the development of abstract skills through the promotion of

inspirational thinking in an environment that is under the control of children themselves (Bergen, 2002).

Different types of play have been linked to different developmental outcomes in literature. Ginsburg, Cannon, Eisenband and Pappas (2005) have noted the contributions of spontaneous play to analytical thinking and cognitive skills. Fantasy play relates to social skills as well (Connolly & Doyle, 1984). In another study, Berk, Mann and Ogan (2006) investigated the effect of pretend play on the stress management skills of children and they found that children who are involved in pretend play can manage stress better. Symbolic play, on the other hand, contributes to the cognitive development of children through the promotion of abstract thinking skills (Saltz, Dixon, & Johnson, 1977). According to Pellegrini and Galda (1993), symbolic play also creates positive cognitive outcomes for children through the enhancement of linguistic skills. Newman (1990) has also underlined the contribution of symbolic play to the cognitive development of children through the enhancement of memory. Finally, Berk et al. (2006) argue that social play contributes to the socio-emotional development of children by teaching them to manage their instincts in accordance with the requirements of the society, to engage in cooperative action with other individuals and to comply with the social norms.

2.2.4. Parental Beliefs about Play

Though play is an important contributor to child development as established in research, parents may have different perceptions of play. Roopnarine (2011), for example, classified the parents according to their beliefs about the benefits of play into three. On the one hand, there are parents (e.g., European Americans) who believe in the scholastic benefits of play. In the middle are parents who perceive play as beneficial but prefer academic activities for their children like African Americans and Latina mothers. At the other end are parents, who consider play as something children are naturally fond of like East Indian and Yucatec Mayans (Gaskins & Miller 2009).

Fogle and Mendez (2006) developed Parent Play Beliefs Scale (PPBS) to measure the play beliefs of African American lower class mothers with preschool children. They found that two factors, "Play Support" and "Academic Focus" capture parent

attitudes regarding the developmental significance of play. Play Support consists of items which assess parents' positive beliefs about the developmental significance of play and their own involvement in children's play. Parents who are found to have high levels of Play Support enjoy play, view play as a priority, and see play as a teaching opportunity. On the other hand, Academic Focus consists of items which focus on academic skills, such as learning numbers or letters, and the belief that play does not contribute to the development of these skills. While maternal ratings of Play Support correlated positively with ratings of children's interactive peer play and were positively associated with parent education, maternal ratings of Academic Focus were in negative correlation with pro-social peer play ratings and in positively correlation with ratings of disruptive and disconnected play in children. The authors also found that parents who consider play as instrumental in the development of child are less likely to perceive structured activities as the optimal method to promote development. However, although some parents had generally positive attitudes towards play, they thought play may not be the best method to promote the development of academic skills.

In another study, Fisher et al (2008) investigated 1130 U.S. mothers' and 99 child development professionals' beliefs concerning the relationship between play and learning. In the first part of the study, they examined the link between maternal conceptualizations of play, perceived learning value, and frequency of children's play behaviours. All Play mothers described unstructured, imaginary and structured, goal-oriented activities as play. Traditional mothers, on the other hand, considered unstructured activities as playful. Finally, uncertain did not have clear ideas about what constituted play. The results also indicated that mothers ascribed more learning value to structured activities and that there was a relationship between the amount of value and their conceptualizations of play. Frequency in which children are engaged in these activities also varied in relation to mother's beliefs about play-learning. In the second part of the study, the authors found out that professionals and mothers had different ideas about play. Professionals considered structured activities as nonplay and ascribed less learning value to unstructured activities.

In Turkish context, Ivrendi and Isıkoglu (2010) investigated fathers' participation in and views concerning play. The authors collected data from 97 fathers living in the

south-western part of Turkey. All fathers had a child who attended preschool. The authors employed "Parents' Participation and Views on Play" instrument to analyse the effect of independent variables on the fathers' participation in and views about play. They concluded that fathers frequently participated in their children's play, and they had positive ideas about play. Also some socio-demographic features including income, working status, family type and children's gender had an effect on fathers' participation in and views about play.

Additionally, O'Gorman and Ailwood (2012) focused on parents' views about play in their study and investigated perceptions of parents of Preparatory Year children in Queensland, Australia. Parents have different explanations for what constitutes play, and complex and contradictory notions of the value of play. The authors found that positive views of play were mostly associated with learning without knowing it, engaging in hands-on activities, and preparation for the first school year which includes a rigorous academic study. While some parents thought that preschool year was based on play, some did not share the same opinion. The authors have concluded that the complexities and diversity of parental views in their study is in parallel with the ongoing debate on the definition of play and that early childhood educators are required to review the role of play in light of broader curricular and socio-political agendas. In the same year, Roopnarine and Jin (2012) employed psycho-cultural models of ethnic parental theories and acculturation to investigate Indo Caribbean immigrant beliefs about the relationship between the amount of time children play and their early academic performance. The authors gathered information from fifty-seven Indo Caribbean couples through home interviews and specifically focused on their ideas about the importance of play for childhood development and the amount of time their children spent playing and studying at home. Academic performance of the children was also assessed using the Kaufman Survey of Early Academic and Language Skills. The results revealed that mothers and fathers had different ideas beliefs about the value of play, and maternal beliefs about the cognitive benefit of play had an effect on the link between the amount of time children play and their cognitive performance.

2.2.5. Parental Beliefs about Play across Different Cultures

Within a cultural–ecological model of parenting, culture shapes the development of parents' beliefs about raising children and parental beliefs about play may change depending on the culture. Roopnarine and Davidson (2015) has suggested that there is a strong correlation between play and culture, which include the variables within cultural settings such as the relative importance attached to different family values and goals for children. According to Roopnarine and Davidson (2015), Western parents are likely to be more involved in their children's play practices as they believe in the contribution of play to the cognitive and social development of the child. In traditional societies, however, parents regard play as incidental to childhood development. Dutch mothers (Van der Kooj & Slaats-van den Hurk 1991), European American mothers in the Midwestern (Haight, Parke, & Black 1997) and mothers in the northeastern United States (Parmar, Harkness, & Super 2004) reported that they found play beneficial for the social and cognitive development of their children. However, Latina mothers in Boston (Holloway, Rambaud, Fuller, & Eggers-Piérola, 1995), Puerto Rican mothers in U.S. mainland (Soto & Negron 1994), and African American mothers (Fogle & Mendez, 2006) did not attach a learning and developmental value to play. Thus, culture may lead to differences in parental beliefs about play and parents' participation in play practices.

Research has shown that local cultural belief system is an important determiner of parenting behaviours and beliefs. Garcia Coll and Pachter (2002) describe the relationship between culture and parenting practices in the following way: "Cultural traditions can influence parenting through the influence of family structure, residency patterns, childrearing practices, and beliefs and attitudes about the roles of children at different ages and stages" (p. 6). The meaning attached to involvement in child play is mostly determined by cultural beliefs and practices formed within the ethos of parental socialization goals and expectations for children (Göncü & Gaskins 2011). For instance, Gray (2009) has found that child play may include humour, shaming, status levelling, or work-based activities, as in some hunting and gathering societies. In this context, Farver and Howes (1993) focused on mother–child pretend play in Caucasian families in the United States and Mexican families. The authors concluded that although Caucasian mothers reported that play was very important and provided

educational benefits to children, Mexican parents viewed play simply a source of amusement. They also found that Mexican parent–child play interaction occurred in the form of shared and unstructured work activity, as opposed to structured parent–child play interaction occurring often in child-centered play situations in American culture. Parental believes about play are also often closely related to their local culture or how much the parents themselves were encouraged to play in their own childhood (Johnson, Christie, & Wardle, 2005). Singer and Singer (2005) have found that parents who had limited opportunities for play in their childhood are likely to offer limited play environments to their children.

2.2.6. Research on Parents' Perceptions of Play and Play Behaviours in Turkey

There are different studies in Turkey that focus on parents' perceptions of play and play behaviours in Turkey. Oksal (2005), for example, investigated Turkish parents' perceptions of play. Results revealed that Turkish parents were directive and controlling playmates, and they mostly took a traditional stance and believed that play is for child not for adults and adults may involve in as a master. Similarly, Erbay and Saltali (2012) aimed to find out the place of play in six-year-olds' daily life who are attending to a kindergarten and their mothers' perceptions regarding play. Mothers were interviewed about their role in their children's daily life; who their children's playmates are; where their children play; how they attach meaning to their children's play activities and the difficulties they experience in playing with their own children. They concluded that children spend most of out of their school time on games and tv and that they mostly play with their parents and peers in lounge and in their own rooms at the home. Kahyaoglu (2014) also investigated the perceptions of play from the perspective of both children and their teachers within Turkish culture. The author recruited children aged between 3 and 6 years, and kindergarten teachers, and gathered data though a modified 'Activity Apperception Story Procedure. The results indicated that both teachers and children have very similar perceptions of play. In a more recent study, Babuc (2015) investigated preschool parents' thoughts, feelings and concerns about play. The author conducted semi structural interviews with 21 preschool parents living in Erzurum province of Turkey who have children between 1 and 5 years old. Parents reported values of

intensive parenting such as child centeredness, increased parental anxiety and feelings of inadequacy in relation to play.

In addition to perceptions about play, play behaviours among children has also attracted attention among Turkish researchers. Artar, Çelen, & Onur, (2004) for instance, conducted interviews with children, parents and grandparents about play behaviours among children. They concluded that children play group games less, and play with plastic toys more today as a result of urbanization, economic growth and schooling. Ahioğlu (2012) also interviewed children and their grandparents and found that whereas individual play with computer games and adult participation in plays increased, large group outdoor free play decreased.

Research on play behaviours among children in Turkey has also revealed that economic structure renders the activities of children in Turkey. In families with agricultural occupations or low socioeconomic status, the amount of time parents devote to child play is limited (Göncü, 2001). Additionally, level of education and income has also been reported to influence parents' perceptions of play and their participation into play (İvrendi & Isıkoglu, 2008). In a similar vein, İvrendi and Isıkoglu (2010) found that high income fathers participated in child play more frequently. They also found that fathers who believed in the role of play in terms of child development participated in child play more often.

Overall, as also suggested by İvrendi and Isıkoglu (2015), although Turkish play research is still in early stages, there have been significant attempts to understand the role of play in the development of children. In line with research findings in Western countries, research conducted in Turkey also reveals that play is important for the development of children. However, there are differences between Western parents and Turkish parents as to how they participate in and promote play.

2.3. Theoretical Framework

2.3.1. Piaget's theory of cognitive development and other recent theories

A number of educational theories have been used to explain children's development of school readiness. Piaget's theory of cognitive development was the first influential theory at the onset of the concept of school readiness (Piaget, 1936). If children have

enough cognitive ability to learn at school, then they were deemed to be ready for school (Carlton & Winsler, 1999). Today, the starting age for kindergarten is determined based on Piaget's theory of cognitive development. Additionally, neurobiological model has also been proposed to explain school readiness among children. Based on the neurobiological model, self-regulatory skills of children are important for the development of their present and future academic skills (Blair & Raver, 2015). Thus, assessment of school readiness includes the assessment of both academic and developmental skills. Furthermore, another model proposed to explain school readiness focuses on the relationship between academic and social skills. Cunha and Heckman (2008) have suggested that school readiness includes cognitive and non-cognitive skills. Within this approach, children's dependence on cognitive and non-cognitive skills changes depending on the developmental stage they are going through. In this context, the present study focuses on the relationship between parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children.

2.3.2. Vygotsky's social development theory

One way to conceptualize the relationship between parental perceptions of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children is through Vygotsky's social development theory. Vygotsky's social development theory is a recent theory that explains the development of school readiness. According to Vygotsky (1978), social environment is the essence of the development of children. Within this framework, providing children with a learning environment which is appropriate for their developmental standing will have a more positive outcome for their future school success. Vygotsky (1978) explains this relationship in the following way: "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals." (p.57). Vygotsky's social development theory also underlines the importance of "zone of proximal development" in the learning and development of children. According to Vygotsky, all individuals have a potential for cognitive development, which is known as "zone of proximal development". Within this zone, the learner gets ready for the cognitive exploration,

but need support and social interaction to develop thoroughly (Briner, 1999). In order to support the learner, a teacher or a more experienced peer is needed, who could provide the learner with "scaffolding". Modelling, discourse, scaffolding and collaborative learning are some of the key strategies to promote the development of the learner (Vygotsky, 1978).

2.3.3. Brofenbrenner's ecological systems theory

Another way to conceptualize the relationship between parental perceptions of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children is through an ecological systems approach (Bronfenbrenner, 1976). In parallel with Vygotsky's social development theory, ecological systems theory out forward by Brofenbrenner is based on the relationship between environmental systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Thus, in order to evaluate the school readiness of a child in an effective way one needs to make a multi-sided assessment. The effect of various influential factors on the development of children is emphasized in ecological systems theory and the influence of chosen characteristics of these environments on the development of children is also discussed. (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). In the context of ecological systems theory, not only biological factors but also family-related factors, neighbourhood community and school environment are also important factors that shape the development of children.

The ecological systems theory consists of mainly five different subsystems. These subsystems are arranged in a social order and they aim at making the environment of an individual who is in the development process more clear: (1) microsystem is the closest environment where the person can deal with various activities, take on different social roles and is involved in relations with others; (2) mesosystem is situated between different microsystems that also include the person; (3) exosystem stands as a phase process between several environments (4) macrosystem consists of a wider cultural grounding; (5) chronosystems involve important alterations about the person and his surroundings throughout his life. According to Bronfenbrenner (1986), children do not have adequate practice with other systems around them and thus the most significant system in terms of child development is microsystem. Bronfenbrenner's (2001) ecological system model provides a useful framework to

investigate the effect of parents' perceptions of play on the school readiness of children. In the present study, parents' perceptions of play and play behaviours are considered as the influential environments for children's school readiness.

2.3.4. Bandura's social cognitive learning theory

Finally, the social cognitive learning theory put forward by Albert Bandura (1977) also provides a theoretical framework for the relationship between parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and children's school readiness. According to Bandura, constant reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors renders individual behaviour. Bandura argues 1) the attentional processes; 2) the retention processes; 3) the reproduction processes; 4) the motivational processes are necessary for the development of effective individual behaviour through modelling. All these domains have an influence on observational learning. In line with social learning theory, observation is the primary source of learning. However, as a prerequisite attention to the model is required. Additionally, there are various factors that determine the source of attention for observational learning to happen. In other words, to what extend the observer attends to the model is determined by different factors such as individual characteristics, sensory capabilities or attentional factors.

In the context of this research, social cognitive theory of Bandura and especially observational learning has important implications for the relationship between school readiness of children, parents' perceptions of play and actual play behaviours. Since social learning theory is based on the essence of learning through social experience, learning and the modelling of some behaviours happen in the end of continuous and reciprocal interaction between a child and the social environment. More specifically, parents' perception of play and actual play behaviours may act as important attentional factors that determine the source of attention for observational learning to happen. Through determining to what extend the observer child attends to the model parents, these attentional factors may have an effect on children's school readiness. In this framework, the relationship between parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and children's school readiness is investigated in the present study.

2.4. The aim of the study

2.4.1. The purpose of the study

This study aims to investigate the relationship between parents' perceptions of play and actual play behaviors in relation to school readiness of children in Turkey. Play behaviors among children, parents' perception of play and their participation into play, the role of play in child development and school readiness will be analyzed in this context. In line with literature review, parents' perceptions of play and play behaviors are expected to provide an environment for children's school readiness.

2.4.2. Operational definitions

School readiness: In this study, "school readiness" will be considered as "the state of child competencies at the time of school entry that are important for later success" as defined by Snow (2006, p. 9).

Play: In this study, "play" will be considered as "an activity that is symbolic, meaningful, active, pleasurable, voluntary, rule-governed and episodic" as defined by Fromberg (1992, p. 43 as cited in Nowak, Nichols, & Coutts, 2009).

Actual play behaviours: In this study, "actual play behaviour" will be considered regarding the frequency of play types parents are involved in with their children in reality as defined by Fisher et al (2008, p.305).

Structural play: In this study, "structural play" will be regarded as the play that includes adult engagement and frequently has predefined rules or outcomes as defined by Murata and Maeda (2002, p.237).

Unstructured play: In this study, "unstructured play" will be regarded as the play that is initiated and controlled by the child instead of an adult as defined by Canning (2007, p.227).

Play Support: In this study, "play support" will be regarded as a factor of Parent Play Beliefs Scale that assesses parents' positive beliefs about the developmental significance of play and their own involvement in children's play as defined by Fogle and Mendez (2006, p.507). Parents who are found to have high levels of Play

Support enjoy play, view play as a priority, and see play as a teaching opportunity (Fogle & Mendez, 2006).

Academic Focus: In this study, "academic focus" will be regarded as a factor of Parent Play Beliefs Scale that assesses parents' capture parent attitudes regarding the developmental significance of play as defined by Fogle and Mendez (2006, p.507). It consists of items which focus on academic skills, such as learning numbers or letters, and the belief that play does not contribute to the development of these skills (Fogle & Mendez, 2006).

2.4.3. Abbreviations

The Parent Play Beliefs Scale: In this study, "The Parent Play Beliefs Scale" was abbreviated as PPBS.

Play Types Scale: In this study, "Play Types Scale" was abbreviated as PTS.

School Readiness Test: In this study, "School Readiness Test" was abbreviated SRT.

2.4.4. The research hypothesis

In order to clarify the aim of the study, following related hypotheses have been formulated:

Hypothesis 1: It is expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours.

I expect to find that frequency of play behaviour would be related to parents' perception of play. Play Support Parents would likely be more engaged in unstructured play activities more frequently compared to Academic Focus Parents. This hypothesis is based on the findings of Fogle and Mendez (2006) and İvrendi and Isıkoglu (2010).

Hypothesis 2: It is expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and school readiness of preschool children.

I expect to find that parents' understanding of play would be related to the acquisition of higher number of school readiness skills. Children of Play Support

Parents would be more likely develop more school readiness skills compared to Academic Focus Parents. This hypothesis is based on the findings of Roopnarine and Jin (2012) and Lamb-Parker et al (1999).

Hypothesis 3: It is expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children.

I expect to find that frequency of actual play behaviours would be related to the acquisition of higher number of school readiness skills. Children who are engaged in more unstructured play would likely develop more school readiness skills compared to children who are engaged in more structured play. This hypothesis is based on the findings of Kieff and Casbergue (2000), Whitebread (2011) and Karpov (2005).

Hypothesis 4: It is expected to find a relationship between demographic characteristics of the family and Turkish parents' perception of child's play; parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children.

I expect to find that demographic characteristics of the family would be related to Turkish parents' perception of child's play; parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children. This hypothesis is based on the findings of Dilcioğlu (2016), Fogle and Mendez (2006), Göncü (2001), İvrendi and Isıkoglu (2010), Özgünlü (2017) Ramey and Ramey (2004), Brooks-Gunn and Markman (2005), Vandivere et al. (2004) and Hughes (2008).

<div align="center">**SECTION II**</div>

<div align="center">**1. METHOD**</div>

1.1. Research Design

A quantitative research design was employed in the present study. Mainly, surveys were used to investigate Turkish parents' perceptions of play and its relationship to school readiness of children. Additionally, since data was collected only once, the present study was based on a cross-sectional design.

1.2. Participants

The target population for the present study was preschool children aged 4 to 6 years old and their parents, in Turkey. The data was collected from 205 parents, but only 108 were included into the analysis due to incomplete data or withdraw from the study. Demographics of the participants can be seen in Table 1. Most of the mothers were aged between 31 and 35 (M=32, 37, SD=5,152). Mothers had different levels of education, but 41% of mothers were high school graduates. Out of 108 parents, 105 were still married. 62% of the mothers were unemployed. Unlike the mothers, 92% of fathers were fulltime workers. Additionally, %55 of the families had 4 family members. When it comes to children, the percentages of boys and girls were nearly equal and a majority of the children had only one sibling. 64% of the families had a monthly income between 1000 and 4000 Turkish Liras.

Table 1. *Demographics of Participants (N=108)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Mothers' Age	20-30	31	28,7	29,2	29,2
	31-35	40	37,0	37,7	67,0
	36+	35	32,4	33,0	100,0
Mother's Education	Elemantary S.	26	24,1	24,1	24,1
	High school	44	40,7	40,7	64,8
	university	33	30,6	30,6	95,4
	MA	5	4,6	4,6	100,0
Mothers' Marital Status	Not married	3	2,8	2,8	2,8
	married	105	97,2	97,2	100,0
Mother's Occupation	unemployed	67	62,0	62,0	62,0
	Part time	5	4,6	4,6	66,7
	Full time	36	33,3	33,3	100,0
Fathers' Education	Elemantary S.	31	28,7	29,0	29,0
	High school	36	33,3	33,6	62,6
	University	35	32,4	32,7	95,3
	MA	5	4,6	4,7	100,0
Fathers' Occupation	unemployed	2	1,9	1,9	1,9
	Part time	5	4,6	4,7	6,6
	Full time	99	91,7	93,4	100,0
Gender of Children	male	53	49,1	49,1	49,1
	female	55	50,9	50,9	100,0
Number of family members	3	18	16,7	16,7	16,7
	4	59	54,6	54,6	71,3
	5+	31	28,7	28,7	100,0
Number of siblings	0	22	20,4	20,4	20,4
	1	62	57,4	57,4	77,8
	2	18	16,7	16,7	94,4
	3+	6	5,6	5,6	100,0
Monthly income of the family	1000-4000 TL	69	63,9	64,5	64,5
	4000-10000 TL	37	34,3	34,6	99,1
	10000+TL	1	0,9	0,9	100,0

1.3. Instruments

1.3.1. Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was employed to investigate the demographic characteristics of the participants (Appendix A). The questionnaire prepared by the researcher contained questions about mother's age, mother's marital status, mother's education level and mother's primary occupation; father's education level and father's primary occupation; the child's gender and number of siblings; number of house residents and total household income.

1.3.2. The Parent Play Beliefs Scale (PPBS)

The Parent Play Beliefs Scale (PPBS) was employed to assess parents' beliefs about play in the present study (Fogle & Mendez, 2006) (Appendix B). The PPBS was designed and validated by Mendez, Fantuzzo and Cicchetti (2002) on a sample of African American mothers and other female caregivers and children with a mean age of 53 months. The PPBS is a 30-item parent questionnaire with a 5-point likert scale ranging from 1 (disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). It focuses on two factors. The factor of Play Support captures parents' beliefs about play as an enjoyable activity with many developmental benefits. Secondly, the factor of Academic Focus reflects parents' beliefs that play is not important for general development or developing academic skills such as reading (Fogle & Mendez, 2006). The two factors were found to have adequate reliability, with Cronbach's alphas of .90 and .73, respectively. Play Support subscale focuses on parents' beliefs pertaining to whether play is an enjoyable and valuable activity with many developmental benefits to children. Play Support subscale consists of 16 items with statements such as "play can help my child develop better thinking abilities, playing at home will help my child get ready for kindergarten, and I can teach my child social skills during play (Fogle & Mendez, 2006). High scores on this factor indicate positive beliefs about the value of play and its many developmental benefits for children. Academic Focus subscale includes focus on parents' beliefs pertaining to academically oriented activities which are more important than play itself regarding children's development. Academic Focus subscale, on the other hand, consists of 8 items with statements such as "I do not think my child learns important skills by playing, and

reading to my child is more worthwhile than playing with him or her" (Fogle & Mendez, 2006). High scores on this factor indicate negative beliefs about the value of play. Turkish version of the scale has been translated and adapted by Fogle and Mendez (2006) and this version was employed for this study.

1.3.3. Play Types Scale (PTS)

Play Types Scale (Fisher et al, 2008) was employed to investigate actual play types the children engaged in. The original scale was developed by Fisher et al (2008) and applied among a group of U.S. mothers who had children up to 5 years old in order to investigate "relationships among maternal conceptualizations of play, perceived learning value, and frequency of children's play behaviours" (p.305). It is a 26-item check list constructed to examine parental beliefs about the nature of play (Appendix C). The parents are expected to identify the frequency with which the referent child engaged in each activity ("How often does your [baby/child] do each of the following things? Please select one answer only for each statement") Whereas first 14 items relate to free unstructured play activities, following 12 items relate to structured play activities. Parents were asked to rate the frequency (1 = less often/never; 2 = once/month; 3 = a few times a month; 4 = about once a week; 5 = 2–4 times a week; 6 = every day/almost every day) of all 26 activities. The scale was translated and back-translated by English language experts and bilingual linguists in the field. In this study the scale overall was found to have adequate reliability with Cronbach's alpha of .79.

1.3.4. School Readiness Test (SRT)

This instrument has been developed by Baydar, Güroğlu and Birdinç (2003 cited in Baydar et al., 2010) to assess mothers' perceptions of the school readiness levels of their 4-year-old children (Appendix D). A shorter version of the original instrument which consists of 106 items and 7 sub-scales has been employed by Koç University, in the study of "Early Childhood Development Ecologies in Turkey", (TEÇGE). The shorter version consists of 15 items. Internal consistency of the scale has been found to be 0,88. The shorter version of the scale could differentiate the students who experienced more problems at school from the others who has fewer problems at school. While the students who had high levels of school readiness had high school

adaptation, the ones who had low levels of school readiness had low school adaptation.

1.4. Procedure

Data collection procedure started in October, 2017, and lasted 3 months. The data was collected from 6 different preschools in İzmir and Konya, Turkey. The preschools in İzmir were located in Gaziemir and Halkapınar districts, while the preschools in Konya were located in Selçuklu district of Konya. Two state preschools and one private preschool were chosen for data collection from each city. Initially, ethical approvals were taken from the school principles to start data collection. A consent letter explaining the purpose of the study was given to the mothers by the researcher. The Parent Play Beliefs Scale, Play Types Scale and School Readiness Test were conducted by the researcher herself at schools on the day of "Parent Meetings". The class teachers also assisted the researcher in data collection.

1.5. Data Analysis

The Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS.25.0) was used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviations, percentage and frequencies were calculated for all items on the questionnaires. Normality assumptions were calculated using means, medians, skewness, kurtosis values for further analysis. Independent Samples T-test and one-way ANOVA analysis were conducted to examine the relationship between demographic factors and parent's perception of play, actual play activities and school readiness of children. Additionally, for each item Cronbach Alpha values were calculated to check reliability.

2. RESULTS

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between parents' perceptions of play and actual play behaviors in relation to school readiness of children in Turkey. This chapter provides the results of normality assumption tests, samples T-test and one-way ANOVA analysis which were carried out to examine the relationship between demographic factors and parent's perception of play, actual play activities and school readiness of children.

2.1 Preliminary Analyses

Before data analysis, the assumptions were tested for the regression analysis. For the normality assumption, the skewness and kurtosis values were found out, and the values were in an acceptable range for a normal distribution. The presence of outliers was also analyzed for and no outliers were found. Kline (2011) pointed out that skewness values should be lower than 3 and kurtosis values should be lower than 10 for each item.

The play support scores of participants ranged from 52 to 105 (M = 69.8, SD = 8.82). Play support scores were normally distributed, with skewness of 0.381 (SE = 0.26) and kurtosis of 1.642 (SE = 0.51). The academic focus scores of participants ranged from 8 to 30 (M = 16.8, SD = 5.1). Academic focus scores were normally distributed, with skewness of 2.65 (SE = 0.244) and kurtosis of − 0.397 (SE = 0.483). The unstructured play scores of participants ranged from 29 to 67 (M = 52.35, SD = 8.05). Unstructured play scores were normally distributed, with skewness of -0.511 (SE = 0.27) and kurtosis of 0.181 (SE = 0.529). The structured play scores of participants ranged from 24 to 59 (M =44.34, SD = 7.41). Structured play scores were normally distributed, with skewness of -0.389 (SE = 0.249) and kurtosis of - 0.198 (SE = 0.493). The school readiness scores of participants ranged from 34 to 75 (M = 65.35, SD =7.24). The school readiness scores were normally distributed, with skewness of -1.20 (SE =0.24) and kurtosis of 2.21 (SE =0.481).

Table 2. *Test of Homogeneity Variances*

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Play Support Total	,876	2	103	,420
Academic FocusTotal	,099	2	103	,906
Unstructured Play	2,123	2	103	,125
Structured Play	,594	2	91	,554
SRTTOTAL	,361	2	103	,698

In order to find out homogeneity of variances, Levene Statistics Test was used. As shown in Table 2, it was seen that Levene Statistics Value was insignificant ($p>0.05$). The results indicated that variances were homogenous.

Histogram analysis were carried out to find out whether the mean scores of the subscales of PPBS (academic focus subscale, unstructured play subscale, structured play subscale, school readiness subscale) were distributed equally. The data concerning had good fit for further analysis, and play support mean scores, academic focus mean scores, unstructured play mean scores, structured play mean scores, school readiness mean scores were distributed equally.

2.2. Hypothesis Testing

Table 3. *Correlations among Independent Variables and School Readiness*

	1	2	3	4	5
1.School Readiness	-				
2.Play Support	.207*	-			
3.Academic Focus	-.215*	-.302**	-		
4.Unstructured Play	.239*	.236*	-.145*	-	
5.Structured Play	.286**	.211*	-.015*	.425**	-

** $p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$

Pearson Correlation Analysis was carried out to investigate the correlation among play support, academic focus, unstructured play, structured play and school readiness. Table 3 shows that there is a positive significant correlation between

school readiness and play support, r(108) = .207, p < 0.05, unstructured play, r(108) = .239, p < 0.05, structured play, r(94) = .286, p < 0.01. However, there is a negative significant correlation between school readiness and academic focus, r(108) = -.215, p < 0.05. Secondly, there is a positive significant correlation between play support and unstructured play, r(108) = .236, p < 0.05, structured play, r(94) = .211, p < 0.05. However, there is a negative significant correlation between play support and academic focus, r(108) = -.302, p < 0.01. Thirdly, there is a negative significant correlation between academic focus and unstructured play, r(108) = -.145, p < 0.05, structured play, r(94) = .015, p < 0.05. Finally, there is a positive significant correlation between unstructured play and structured play, r(94) = .425, p < 0.01.

Table 4. *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Mother's Age*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PlaySupport	Between Groups	144,097	2	72,048	1,013
	Within Groups	7325,343	103	71,120	
	Total	7469,439	105		
AcademicFocus	Between Groups	15,057	2	7,529	,282
	Within Groups	2746,112	103	26,661	
	Total	2761,169	105		
UnstructuredPlay	Between Groups	19,743	2	9,872	,161
	Within Groups	6315,218	103	61,313	
	Total	6334,962	105		
StructuredPlay	Between Groups	49,589	2	24,795	,446
	Within Groups	5063,517	91	55,643	
	Total	5113,106	93		
SchoolReadiness	Between Groups	401,543	2	200,772	4,290*
	Within Groups	4820,761	103	46,804	
	Total	5222,305	105		

*p < 0.05

In order to investigate the relationship between independent variables (mother's age, number of siblings, mother education level, mother occupation, father's education level, father's occupation and number of family members) and dependent (play support, academic focus, unstructured play, structured play and school readiness) variables ANOVA analysis was carried out. In terms of the mother's age, there was a significant difference regarding school readiness, F (2, 103) = 4.3, p < 0.05. However, a significant difference was not found regarding play support, academic focus, unstructured play and structured play (Table 4). In order to further analysis the

difference between mother's age and school readiness, Scheffe Test was carried out, and it was found that mothers aged between 31 and 35 had higher mean scores of school readiness (M = 67.3, SD = 6.2) compared to mothers aged between 20 and 30 (M = 65.35, SD = 6.4) and mothers aged 36 and more (M = 62.7, SD = 7.8) .

Table 5. *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Number of Siblings*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PlaySupport	Between Groups	345,385	3	115,128	1,674
	Within Groups	7152,542	104	68,774	
	Total	7497,927	107		
AcademicFocus	Between Groups	134,379	3	44,793	1,751
	Within Groups	2660,979	104	25,586	
	Total	2795,357	107		
UnstructuredPlay	Between Groups	1105,321	3	368,440	7,298**
	Within Groups	5250,386	104	50,484	
	Total	6355,707	107		
StructuredPlay	Between Groups	528,397	3	176,132	3,458*
	Within Groups	4584,710	90	50,941	
	Total	5113,106	93		
SchoolReadiness	Between Groups	158,870	3	52,957	1,081
	Within Groups	5096,247	104	49,002	
	Total	5255,116	107		

** p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

In terms of the number of siblings, there is a significant difference regarding unstructured play, $F_{(3, 104)} = 7.3$, $p < 0.01$ and structured play $F_{(3, 90)} = 3.45$, $p < 0.05$. However, a significant difference was not found regarding play support, academic focus and school readiness (Table 5). In order to further analysis, the difference between number of siblings and unstructured play, structured play, Scheffe Test was carried out. It was shown that families with 0 (M = 55.6, SD = 6.5) and 1 (M = 53.6, SD = 6.4) siblings had higher mean scores of unstructured play compared to families with 2 (M = 45.8, SD = 9.4) and 3 and more siblings (M = 52.0, SD = 8.2). Additionally, it was shown that families with 0 (M = 47.7, SD = 6.4) and 1 (M = 44.5, SD = 6.8) siblings had higher mean scores of structured play compared to families with 2 (M = 41.8, SD = 8.7) and 3 and more siblings (M = 38.6, SD = 7.1).

Table 6. *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Mother's Education Level*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PlaySupportTotal	Between Groups	682,497	3	227,499	3,472*
	Within Groups	6815,430	104	65,533	
	Total	7497,927	107		
AcedmicFocusTotal	Between Groups	392,493	3	130,831	5,663**
	Within Groups	2402,865	104	23,104	
	Total	2795,357	107		
UnstructuredPlay	Between Groups	651,306	3	217,102	3,958**
	Within Groups	5704,401	104	54,850	
	Total	6355,707	107		
StructuredPlay	Between Groups	729,266	3	243,089	4,991**
	Within Groups	4383,840	90	48,709	
	Total	5113,106	93		
SchoolReadiness	Between Groups	65,154	3	21,718	,435
	Within Groups	5189,963	104	49,903	
	Total	5255,116	107		

** $p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$

In terms of the mother's education level, there is a significant difference regarding play support, $F(3, 104) = 3.47$, $p < 0.05$, academic focus, $F(3, 104) = 5.66$, $p < 0.01$, unstructured play, $F(3, 104) = 3.96$, $p < 0.01$ and structured play, $F(3, 90) = 4.99$, $p < 0.01$. A significant difference was not found regarding school readiness (Table 6). For further analysis, Scheffe Test was carried out. The results show that mothers with master's education (M = 73.8, SD = 5.9) had higher mean scores of play support than mothers with elementary education (M = 65.0, SD = 6.3), mothers with high school education (M = 69.9, SD = 9.9) and mothers with university education (M = 70.9, SD = 6.8). Mothers with master's education had lower mean scores of academic focus (M=15.0, SD = 5.6) compared to mothers with elementary education (M=19.4, SD = 4.0) and high school education (M = 16.6, SD = 5.5). Mothers with master degree education had higher mean scores of unstructured play (M =57.9, SD = 6.4) and structured play (M = 47.0, SD = 6.7) compared to mothers with elementary education (M = 48.6, SD = 9.6; M = 41.2, SD = 7.8).

Table 7. *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Mother's Occupation*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PlaySupport	Between Groups	363,242	2	181,621	2,673
	Within Groups	7134,685	105	67,949	
	Total	7497,927	107		
AcademicFocus	Between Groups	78,553	2	39,277	1,518
	Within Groups	2716,804	105	25,874	
	Total	2795,357	107		
UnstructuredPlay	Between Groups	391,689	2	195,845	3,448*
	Within Groups	5964,018	105	56,800	
	Total	6355,707	107		
StructuredPlay	Between Groups	194,424	2	97,212	1,799
	Within Groups	4918,682	91	54,051	
	Total	5113,106	93		
SchoolReadiness	Between Groups	75,207	2	37,603	,762
	Within Groups	5179,910	105	49,332	
	Total	5255,116	107		

*p < 0.05

Furthermore, in terms of the mother's occupation, there is a significant difference regarding unstructured play, F (2, 105) = 3.45, p < 0.05. However, a significant difference was not found regarding play support, academic focus, structured play and school readiness (Table 7). In order to further analysis, the difference between mother occupation and unstructured play, Scheffe Test was employed. According to Scheffe Test, mothers working fulltime had higher mean scores of unstructured play (M = 53.5, SD = 7.4) compared to unemployed mothers (M = 52.9, SD = 7.5).

However, in terms of the father's education level, a significant difference was not found regarding play support, academic focus, unstructured play, structured play and school readiness (Table 8).

Table 8. *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Father's Education Level*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PlaySupport	Between Groups	810,897	3	270,299	4,180
	Within Groups	6659,754	103	64,658	
	Total	7470,652	106		
AcademicFocus	Between Groups	435,279	3	145,093	6,335
	Within Groups	2358,967	103	22,903	
	Total	2794,246	106		
UnstructuredPlay	Between Groups	218,556	3	72,852	1,236
	Within Groups	6068,895	103	58,921	
	Total	6287,451	106		
StructuredPlay	Between Groups	178,046	3	59,349	1,075
	Within Groups	4913,115	89	55,204	
	Total	5091,161	92		
SchoolReadiness	Between Groups	39,749	3	13,250	,262
	Within Groups	5212,464	103	50,606	
	Total	5252,213	106		

p < 0.01

Additionally, in terms of the father's occupation, a significant difference was not found regarding play support, academic focus, unstructured play, structured play and school readiness (Table 9).

Table 9. *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Father's Occupation*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PlaySupport	Between Groups	20,142	2	10,071	,139
	Within Groups	7445,238	103	72,284	
	Total	7465,380	105		
AcademicFocus	Between Groups	96,489	2	48,245	1,913
	Within Groups	2597,238	103	25,216	
	Total	2693,727	105		
UnstructuredPlay	Between Groups	29,700	2	14,850	,244
	Within Groups	6256,777	103	60,745	
	Total	6286,477	105		
StructuredPlay	Between Groups	84,737	2	42,368	,754
	Within Groups	5001,122	89	56,192	
	Total	5085,859	91		
SchoolReadiness	Between Groups	3,860	2	1,930	,038
	Within Groups	5225,942	103	50,737	
	Total	5229,801	105		

p < 0.01

Finally, in terms of the number of family members, there is a significant difference regarding unstructured play, $F_{(2, 105)} = 6.7$, $p < 0.01$. However, a significant difference was not found regarding play support, academic focus, structured play and

school readiness (Table 10). In order to further analysis, the difference between number of family members and unstructured play, Scheffe Test was employed. According to Scheffe Test, participants with three family members had higher mean scores of unstructured play (M = 55.5, SD = 6.5) compared to participants with four (M = 53.9, SD = 6.5) and five and more family members (M = 48.7, SD = 9.0).

Table 10. *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Number of Family Members*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
PlaySupport	Between Groups	207,913	2	103,956	1,497
	Within Groups	7290,015	105	69,429	
	Total	7497,927	107		
AcedmicFocus	Between Groups	89,367	2	44,684	1,734
	Within Groups	2705,990	105	25,771	
	Total	2795,357	107		
UnstructuredPlay	Between Groups	719,752	2	359,876	6,705**
	Within Groups	5635,955	105	53,676	
	Total	6355,707	107		
StructuredPlay	Between Groups	279,725	2	139,863	2,633
	Within Groups	4833,381	91	53,114	
	Total	5113,106	93		
SchoolReadiness	Between Groups	99,986	2	49,993	1,018
	Within Groups	5155,131	105	49,096	
	Total	5255,116	107		

*p < 0.05

Independent Samples T-Test was carried out to investigate school readiness, play support, academic focus, unstructured play and structured play in terms of gender. It was found out that gender variable created a significant difference in terms of school readiness variable, t (97) = -2.57, p < 0.01. Female children had a higher school readiness score (M = 66.96, SD = 5.89) than male children (M = 63.58, SD = 7.69). There wasn't a significant difference in terms of play support, academic focus, unstructured play and structured play variables considering gender variable (Table 11).

Table 11. *Independent T-Test between School Readiness, Play Support, Academic Focus, Unstructured Play and Structured Play and Gender*

		Male		Female		
	N	M	SD	M	SD	t-test
School Readiness	108	63.58	7.69	66.96	5.89	-2.57*
Play Support	108	70.02	7.26	68.46	9.32	-.97
Academic Focus	108	16.95	4.84	17.07	5.40	-.12
Unstructured Play	108	53.04	8.16	52.33	7.30	.48
Structured Play	94	43.33	7.46	45.20	7.34	-1.22

*p<.01, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Independent Samples T-Test was employed to investigate school readiness, play support, academic focus, unstructured play and structured play in terms of family income (Table 12). The results of the test indicated that family income variable created a significant difference in terms of academic focus variable, $t(94) = 2.28$, $p < 0.05$. Participants with a family income up to 4000 TL had higher scores of academic focus ($M = 17.69$, $SD = 4.60$) compared to participants with a family income that is more than 4000 TL ($M = 15.39$, $SD = 5.58$). Family income didn't create a significant difference in terms of school readiness, play support, unstructured play and structured play.

Table 12. *Independent T-Test between School Readiness, Play Support, Academic Focus, Unstructured Play and Structured Play and Family Income*

		0- 4.000TL		+4.000TL		
	N	M	SD	M	SD	t-test
School Readiness	106	65.68	7.52	64.48	6.14	.83
Play Support	106	68.97	8.69	69.51	7.92	-.32
Academic Focus	106	17.69	4.60	15.39	5.58	2.28*
Unstructured Play	106	53.03	7.73	52.05	7.94	.62
Structured Play	93	45.05	7.70	43.23	6.98	1.15

*p<.05, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

2.3. Summary of Findings

Hypothesis 1: It is expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours.

According to Hypothesis 1, it was expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours. In line with previous literature, it was expected that frequency of play behaviour would be related to parents' perception of play. It was also expected that Play Support Parents would likely be more engaged in unstructured play activities more frequently compared to Academic Focus Parents. The results showed that there was a negative significant relationship between academic focus and unstructured play, structured play. It was also found out that there was a positive significant relationship between unstructured play and structured play. Thus, the findings of this study were supportive of Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2: It is expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and school readiness of preschool children.

According to Hypothesis 2, it was expected to find that parents' understanding of play would be related to the acquisition of higher number of school readiness skills. In line with previous literature, it was also expected that children of Play Support Parents would be more likely to develop more school readiness skills compared to Academic Focus Parents. The results indicated that there was a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and school readiness of preschool children. More specifically, it was found that there was a positive significant relationship between school readiness and play support. However, it was also found out that there was a negative significant relationship between school readiness and academic focus. On the other hand, the results revealed that there was a negative significant relationship between play support and academic focus. Thus, this finding of the present study is in line with Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3: It is expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children.

According to Hypothesis 3, it was expected to find that frequency of actual play behaviours would be related to the acquisition of higher number of school readiness skills. The results of the study revealed that there was a relationship between Turkish parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children. More specifically, there was a positive significant relationship between school readiness and unstructured play, structured play. In line with Hypothesis 3, the frequency of actual play behaviours were found to be related to the acquisition of higher number of school readiness skills. Thus, this finding of the present study is consistent with Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4: It is expected to find a relationship between demographic characteristics of the family (mother's age, mother's marital status, mother's education level and mother's primary occupation; father's education level and father's primary occupation; the child's gender and number of siblings; number of house residents and total household income) and Turkish parents' perception of child's play; parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children.

According to Hypothesis 4, it was expected to find that demographic characteristics of the family (mother's age, mother's marital status, mother's education level and mother's primary occupation; father's education level and father's primary occupation; the child's gender and number of siblings; number of house residents and total household income) would be related to Turkish parents' perception of child's play; parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children.

The results indicated that mother's age did not lead to a significant difference regarding Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours. However, there was a significant difference regarding school readiness and mother's age. More specifically, mothers aged between 31 and 35 had higher mean scores of school readiness compared to other age groups (20-30 and 36 and above).

The results of the present study demonstrated that mother's education level did not create a significant difference regarding school readiness. However, mother's education level led to a significant difference regarding Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours. More specifically, mothers with higher education level had higher mean scores of both unstructured and structured play. Similarly, it was revealed that mothers with higher education level had higher mean scores of play support. However, mothers with higher education level had lower mean scores of academic focus.

The results showed that mother's occupation did not lead to a significant difference regarding parents' perception of child's play and school readiness. In terms of parents' actual play behaviours, however, it led to different results. Interestingly, while mother occupation did not lead to a significant difference regarding structured play, it was revealed that mother occupation created significant difference regarding unstructured play. More specifically, mothers working fulltime had higher mean scores of unstructured play compared to unemployed mothers.

It was found out that father's education level and father's occupation did not lead to a significant difference regarding Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness.

It was revealed that number of siblings did not lead to a significant difference regarding parents' perception of child's play and school readiness. However, the number of siblings created a significant difference regarding parents' actual play behaviours. It was found out that families with 0 and 1 siblings had higher mean scores of unstructured play compared to families with 2 and more siblings. It was also revealed that families with 0 and 1 siblings had higher mean scores of structured play compared to families with 2 and more siblings.

The findings of the present study showed that number of family members did not create a significant difference regarding Turkish parents' perception of child's play and school readiness. However, in terms of parents' actual play behaviours, number of family members led to different results. While number of family members did not create a significant difference, it created a significant difference regarding unstructured play. More specifically, participants with lower family members had

higher mean scores of unstructured play compared to participants with higher family members.

It was found out that family income didn't lead to a significant difference in terms of parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness. However, in terms of parents' perception of play, it created different results. While family income did not create a significant difference in terms of play support, it led to a significant difference in terms of academic focus. More specifically, families with an income up to 4000 TL had higher scores of academic focus compared to families with an income higher than 4000 TL.

The results demonstrated that gender did not lead to a significant difference in terms of Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours. However, gender led to a significant difference in terms of school readiness. To be more specific, female children had a higher school readiness score than male children.

Overall, the findings of this study is consistent with Hypothesis 4 concerning the variables of mother's age, mothers' education level, mother occupation, number of family members, number of siblings, family income and gender of children. However, it was not consistent with the variables of father's education level and father's occupation.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

3.1 Discussion

This study aimed at investigating the relationship between parents' perceptions of play and actual play behaviors in relation to school readiness of children in Turkey. Within this framework, play behaviours among children, parents' perception of play and their participation into play, the role of play in the development of children in context of school readiness were analysed. This chapter provides a discussion of the results as compared to previous studies on parents' perceptions of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children.

3.1.1. Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours

In the context of Hypothesis 1, it was expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and parents' actual play behaviours, and the findings of this study were supportive of Hypothesis 1. In other words, parents who focus on academic skills, such as learning numbers or letters, and believe that play does not contribute to the development of these skills as described by Fogle and Mendez (2006) were found to play with their children less, whether it is structured or unstructured play. Interestingly, it was also found out that there was a positive significant relationship between unstructured play and structured play. In a way, the findings of the present study indicate that Turkish parents who believe in the importance of play in terms of the development of their children play both types of play including structured and unstructured play with their children. This finding is partially supportive of Fogle and Mendez (2006) who found that parents who consider play as instrumental in the development of child, or Play Support Parents, were less likely to consider and engaged in structured activities as the optimal method to promote development. It is also supportive of İvrendi and Isıkoglu (2010) who found that fathers who believed in the role of play in terms of child development participated in child play more often. In other words, parents' positive beliefs about the developmental significance of play is related to their own involvement in children's play in Turkey.

3.1.2. Turkish parents' perception of child's play and school readiness of preschool children

In the context of Hypothesis 2, it was expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' perception of child's play and school readiness of preschool children, and the finding of the present study was in line with Hypothesis 2. This finding is consistent with the findings of Roopnarine and Jin (2012) who found that maternal beliefs about the cognitive benefit of play had an effect on the link between the amount of time children play and their cognitive performance. The significant relationship between school readiness and play support in the present study can also be explained by Roopnarine and Mounts (1985) who concluded that when parents consider play as an important part of the development process, there will be positive outcomes for the school readiness of children. Additionally, these findings can also be explained by the study of Lamb-Parker et al (1999) who found that children of parents who had a good understanding of concept of play had higher scores on school readiness in the domains of cognitive competencies and classroom behaviour outcomes. In brief, parents' positive beliefs about the developmental significance of play is one of the determiners of school readiness of preschool children in Turkey.

3.1.3. Turkish parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children

In the context of Hypothesis 3, it was expected to find a relationship between Turkish parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children, and the findings of the present study was consistent with Hypothesis 3. This finding is in parallel with Kieff and Casbergue (2000) who concluded that during pre-school years play has an important role in the development of children. The contributions of play to language development and self-control over cognitive and emotional processes (Vygotsky, 1978), to the academic and emotional development of children (Whitebread, 2011), to children's use of verbal tools to regulate others' behaviours (Karpov, 2005), to the socio-emotional, cognitive and physical development of children (Ministry of Education Science and Sports, 2007), to the development of abstract thinking skills of children (Bergen, 2002), to the early mathematical thinking and cognitive development (Ginsburg, Cannon, Eisenband, &

Pappas, 2005), to the development of abstract thought (Saltz, Dixon, & Johnson, 1977), creativity (Russ, Robins, & Christiano, 1999), memory (Newman,1990) and language (Pellegrini & Galda, 1993) as noted by various studies in literature provide an explanation for the relationship between parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children.

However, although the role of unstructured play in the development of early childhood learning (e.g. Canning, 2007; Gimtrova & Gimtrov, 2003; Muttock, Gilden and Bell, 2002; Oldfield, 2001) rather than structured play was emphasized in the previous literature, in the present study both types of play were found to be related to the development of school readiness. This difference could be a result of cultural difference which is considered to be an important factor in shaping the development of parents' beliefs about raising children, parental beliefs about play and parent's actual play behaviours as pointed out in previous studies (e.g. Garcia Coll & Pachter, 2002; Göncü & Gaskins 2011; Haight, Parke & Black 1997; Roopnarine & Davidson, 2015; Parmar, Harkness & Super, 2004; Van der Kooj & Slaats-van den Hurk, 1991). To conclude, parents' own involvement in children's play is one of the influential factors that determine school readiness of preschool children in Turkey.

3.1.4. Demographic characteristics of the family, Turkish parents' perception of child's play, parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children.

In the context of Hypothesis 4, it was expected to find a relationship between demographic characteristics of the family (mother's age, mother's marital status, mother's education level and mother's primary occupation; father's education level and father's primary occupation; the child's gender and number of siblings; number of house residents and total household income) and Turkish parents' perception of child's play; parents' actual play behaviours and school readiness of preschool children. It turned out to be that the finding of this study is consistent with Hypothesis 4 concerning the variables of mother's age, mothers' education level, mother occupation, number of family members, number of siblings, family income

and gender of children, while it was not consistent with the variables of father's education level and father's occupation.

In terms of the demographics of mothers, the finding that mothers' age led to a difference regarding school readiness of children is in parallel with Dilcioğlu (2016) also who found that the age of parents was an important factor influencing the school readiness levels of children. This study also found that mother's education level and mother occupation created a difference in actual play behaviours. Mothers with higher education were involved in both unstructured and structured play behaviours more compared to mothers with lower education level. Similarly, mothers working fulltime had higher mean scores of unstructured play compared to unemployed mothers. This finding is line with the findings of Fogle and Mendez (2006) who found that maternal ratings of play support were in positive correlation with ratings of children's interactive peer play and were positively associated with parent education.

Interestingly, in the present study, while the variables of mother's age, mothers' education level, mother occupation, number of family members, number of siblings, family income and gender of children were found to have a relationship with parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children, the variables of father's education level and father's occupation did not have a relationship with parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children. This can be explained with the fact that mothers are the main caregivers for preschool children in Turkish culture.

In terms of family demographics, the number of siblings and number of family members created a significant difference regarding parents' actual play behaviours. It was found out that families with fewer siblings were involved in both structured and unstructured play more compared to families with more siblings. This can be explained with the time and resources families allocate to their children and to play. It is natural to expect families with less siblings to spend more time playing with their children and to have more resources, since the families with more siblings would have more financial burden and limited time. Additionally, the finding that families with higher family income were of more academic focus compared to

families with lower income is in parallel with this explanation. This finding is partially supportive of Göncü (2001) who found that in families with agricultural occupations or low socioeconomic status, the amount of time parents devote to child play is limited and İvrendi and Isıkoglu (2010) who found that high income fathers participated in child play more frequently. Finally, the finding that gender led to a difference in terms of school readiness, and that more specifically female children had a higher school readiness score than male children is in parallel with the findings of Özgünlü (2017) who concluded that children's gender was an important predictor of children's readiness for school.

Overall, this finding of the present study is in line with Ivrendi and Isıkoglu (2010), who found that some socio-demographic features including income, working status, family type and children's gender had an effect on fathers' participation in and views about play. When it comes to the relationship between demographic variables and school readiness of children, these findings are also in line with past studies which suggest that ethnicity and social class influences are among the most influential factors that affect school readiness of children (e.g. Brooks-Gunn &Markman, 2005; Ramey & Ramey, 2004; Vandivere et al., 2004). In the present study, since the majority of the participants have a monthly income between 1000 and 4000 TL, this is in line with the study of Ramey & Ramey (2004) who found that children coming from poor families with little access to educational resources. Finally, the discrepancies between the present study and the studies on school readiness and child play could be explained with the contradictions between parents' perceptions and actual play behaviours as also suggested by Hughes (2008), socio-demographic features and characteristics of ethnicity. To sum up, mother's demographics including education level, mother's occupation and family demographics including number of family members, number of siblings, family income and gender of children contribute to school readiness of preschool children in Turkey.

3.2. Conclusion

3.2.1. Limitations of the Study

The findings of the present study are limited to Turkey and to 6 different preschools in İzmir and Konya. This study was carried out on a limited number of participants. Only 108 parents were included into the analysis in the present study. Future studies can consider collecting data from broader geographical areas including more participants and cities. Additionally, the present study is concerned with the data collection method. Mainly, surveys and questionnaires were used in the present study to investigate Turkish parents' perceptions of play and its relationship to school readiness of children. Future studies can employ alternative or additional data collection methods such as interview to get a deeper understanding of parents' perceptions of play and its relationship to school readiness of children. Next, the present study was based on a cross-sectional design. In future, longitudinal studies can be employed to investigate parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children within a wider age and time range.

Finally, this study contributes to literature on school readiness of preschool children by integrating parents' perception of play and actual play behaviours. This study also adds to the existing literature on school readiness and child play by presenting data from a country between the East and the West culture, Turkey.

3.2.2. Future Implications

The present study investigated the relationship between Turkish parents' perception of play, actual play behaviours and school readiness of children, and provided important insights to the understanding of the role between play, family and school readiness of children. This study has important implications for parents, early childhood educators, early childhood program developers and researchers. In today's modern world everything is getting more structured and artificial. Similarly, heavy academic schedules are replacing play times of children even at very young ages. Moreover, structured play is taking the place of unstructured and free play with increasing academic concerns in the education of children. Hence, the time allocated for play in the life of children is becoming more limited and child play is getting

more structured and artificial day by day. This study underlines the contribution of play and especially unstructured play to the development of young children. It also shows children need to be given enough free time, and resources to be engaged in unstructured play and develop naturally and that parents' perceptions and actual behaviours play an important role in this process. The present study also shows the complexities and diversity of parental views and adds to the ongoing debate on the definition of play and its role in the development of young children. It also highlights that early childhood educators need to review the role of play in light of broader curricular and socio-political agendas. Finally, the present study contributes to understanding of parent perceptions within Turkish play research and shows that understanding parent perceptions will help to understand parent practices and underlying factors of school readiness better. Parents play an important role in the development of young children. If educators and policy makers can have a better understanding of parents' perceptions of play and the underlying factors they can help to guide parents and motivate them to organise a more effective play time with their children. An organisation of more effective play time with the parents included can also contribute to the school readiness and overall development of young children. A shared cooperation between policy makers, researchers, educators and parents is likely to come up with a better balance of play and academic activities for the development of young children.

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APPENDICES

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Değerli Anneler,

'Ebeveynlerin Oyun Algısı ve Çocukların Sosyal Gelişimi' başlıklı araştırmamıza katıldığınız için sizlere teşekkür ederiz. Yaşar Üniversitesi Psikoloji yüksek lisans tez öğrencisi Şule Gülşeker tarafından Yardımcı Doçent Elif Durgel danışmanlığında yürütülen bu araştırmanın amacı ebeveynlerin oyun algısı ve çocukların sosyal gelişimi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir.

Kişisel bilgileriniz tamamen gizli tutulacaktır ve toplanan veriler sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılıp başka herhangi bir amaçla kullanımı yapılmayacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmadan çıkma hakkında sahipsiniz. Size verilen formlardaki soruları yanıtlarken kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmayın.

Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğinizle katılmayı kabul ediyorsanız lütfen aşağıdaki bilgileri doldurup imzalayınız.

Katılımcı Annenin

Adı:…………………………………………….
Soyadı:…………………………………………

İmzası:

Araştırmacının

Adı-Soyadı:…………………………………………………….

İmzası

Annenin yaşı:

Çocuğun doğum tarihi: (gün)/ (ay)/ (yıl)

Çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti?

(0) Kız (1)Erkek

Çocuğunuzun kardeşi var mı?

(1)   (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5 ve fazlası)

Çocuğunuz kreş ya da anaokuluna gidiyor mu? Eğer gidiyorsa, ne kadar zamandır devam

ediyor? (ay olarak)

Medeni durumunuz

(1) Bekâr   (3) Evli değil ama birlikte yaşıyor

(2) Evli   (4) Boşanmış

Annenin eğitim durumu:

(1) Hiç okula gitmemiş   (3) Ortaokul   (5) Üniversite

(2) İlkokul   (4) Lise   (6) Yüksek lisans / Doktora

Annenin meslek durumu:

(0) Çalışmıyor(1) Yarı-zamanlı çalışıyor   (2)   Tam   zamanlı   çalışıyor   Anne çalışıyorsa,

•   İşyerindeki çalıştığı pozisyon:

•   Haftada kaç gün çalışıyorsunuz?

•   Yaklaşık olarak aylık kazancınız (TL) ne kadardır (sadece annenin)?

( ) 0-1000   ( ) 1000- 3000 ( ) 3000-6000 ( ) 6000 ve üzeri

Babanın eğitim durumu:

(1) Hiç okula gitmemiş   (3) Ortaokul   (5) Üniversite

(2) İlkokul   (4) Lise   (6) Yüksek lisans / Doktora

Baba toplam kaç yıl eğitim almıştır? (Anaokulu dâhil)

Babanın meslek durumu:

(0) Çalışmıyor(1) Yarı-zamanlı çalışıyor   (2) Tam zamanlı çalışıyor Baba çalışıyorsa,

- İşyerindeki çalıştığı pozisyon:

- Haftada kaç gün çalışıyor?

- Yaklaşık olarak aylık kazancı (TL) ne kadardır?

( ) 0-100   ( ) 1000- 300 ( ) 3000-6000 ( ) 6000 ve üzeri

Evde çocuklar dâhil toplam kaç kişi yaşıyor?

Evinize aylık toplam ne kadar para (TL) giriyor? (Anne, baba, birlikte yaşadığınız büyüklerin emekli maaşları vs. dâhil)

( ) 0-1000   ( ) 1000- 4000 ( )4000- 10000   ( ) 10000 ve üzeri

Sizden çocuğunuzun sizinle ve diğer çocuklarla geçirdiği oyun zamanı deneyimlerini düşünmenizi istiyoruz. Aşağıdaki her bir ifadeyi okuyunuz. Çocuğunuz için oyunu düşündüğünüzde, her birine ne kadar katılıyor ya da katılmıyorsunuz? Lütfen her bir ifade için yalnızca bir tanesini daire içine alınız.

		Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Oyun, çocuğumun birlikte çalışmak ve arkadaş edinmek gibi sosyal becerilerinin gelişimine yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Oyun, çocuğumun sayı saymak veya harfleri tanımak gibi akademik becerilerinin gelişimine yardım etmez.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Benim için çocuğumla oyun oynamak çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Çocuğumla oynarken çok keyif alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Oyun oynamak çocuğumun dil ve iletişim yeteneklerini geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Çocuğumla okuma yapmayı, oynamaya tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Çocuğuma oyun sırasında sosyal beceriler öğretebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Oyun, çocuğumun problem çözme yeteneğini geliştirmez.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Çocuğuma oyun oynarken duygularını kontrol etmeyi öğretebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Evde oyun oynamak çocuğumu ana sınıfına hazırlar.	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen aşağıda belirtilen aktiviteleri çocuğunuzun ne sıklıkta yaptığını belirtiniz. Her cümle için tek bir cevap seçiniz.

		Ayda birden az /Hiçbir zaman	Ayda bir kez	Ayda birkaç kez	Haftada bir kez	Haftada 2-4 kez
1	Çocuklar için yapılmış oyun setlerini kullanmak (mutfak setleri, doktor seti, tamir aletleri gibi)	1	2	3	4	5
2	Dışarda koşup oynamak veya oyun parkı/bahçeyi kullanmak	1	2	3	4	5
3	Top atmak veya yuvarlamak veya çocukların yaşına uygun benzer spor malzemelerini kullanmak	1	2	3	4	5
4	Oyun setleri (Barbie, hot wheels gibi) veya figürleri kullanmak (Harika kanatlar gibi)	1	2	3	4	5
5	Oyuncak taşıtlar kullanmak (Araç, kepçe)	1	2	3	4	5
6	Oyuncak bebekler veya peluş hayvanlarla evcilik oynamak	1	2	3	4	5
7	Bir süper kahraman, doktor, anne veya bir başkası gibi giyinmek ya da rol yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
8	Evdeki günlük eşyaları oyuncak gibi kullanmak (tencere/tabak, plastik torba, vb.)	1	2	3	4	5
9	İnşa blokları veya setleri kullanmak	1	2	3	4	5
10	Aynı yaştaki çocuklarla bir araya gelmek/oynamak için buluşmak	1	2	3	4	5
11	Resim çizme, boyama yapma veya başka el sanatları yapmak veya çamur/oyun hamuru ile oynamak	1	2	3	4	5
12	Evin içindeki ve etrafındaki şeyleri araştırmak ve keşfetmek	1	2	3	4	5
13	Oyun grubu, jimnastik, yüzme gibi aktivitelere katılmak	1	2	3	4	5
14	Özel bir sebebi olmadan emeklemek, yürümek veya koşmak	1	2	3	4	5
15	Çocuklara kitap okunması	1	2	3	4	5

16	Kendi kendine kitap okuması ve incelemesi	1	2	3	4	5
17	Müzik dinlemek	1	2	3	4	5
18	Kütüphane, müze, hayvanat bahçesi gibi yerlere geziye gitmek	1	2	3	4	5
19	Birlikte alışverişe çıkmak	1	2	3	4	5
20	Sizin ya da başka bir yetişkinin gözetiminde günlük ev işleri yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
21	Resimli veya yazılı veya basit matematik kavramları içeren eğitici oyun kartları kullanmak	1	2	3	4	5

Aşağıdaki maddeler okul öncesi yaşındaki çocuklar için doğru ya da yanlış olabilir. Lütfen bu maddelerin, sizin çocuğunuz için ne kadar doğru ya da ne kadar yanlış olduğunu belirtiniz.

		Çok Doğru	Doğru	Emin Değilim	Yanlış	Tamamen Yanlış
1	Çocuğum kendi adını yazmak için çaba gösterir					
2	Çocuğum elinde iki bisküvi varken eline bir tane daha aldığında üç tane olduğunu bilir.					
3	Çocuğum hangi televizyon programını seyretmek istediğini söyler.					
4	Çocuğum isminin ilk harfini yazabilir.					
5	Çocuğum ona sorulduğunda bir şeyin hangi renk olduğunu söyler.					
6	Çocuğum bir yeri ağrıdığında derdini anlatır.					
7	Çocuğum tuvaleti nasıl kullanacağını bilir. (sifon çekmek, kapağı kapatmak gibi)					
8	Çocuğum plastik şişeden su içebilir.					
9	Çocuğum yeni öğrendiği kelimeleri konuşurken kullanır.					
10	Çocuğum kitapların ne anlattığını merak eder.					
11	Çocuğum bir yerde ismi yazılıysa onu okuyabilir.					
12	Çocuğum elindeki bisküvileri sayabilir.					
13	Çocuğum kitapların sadece resimleriyle ilgilenir.					
14	Çocuğum şeker, kurabiye gibi şeyleri birkaç kişiye eşit olarak dağıtabilir.					
15	Çocuğum ona yeni şeyler öğretirken çabuk sıkılır.					