



Play

Last update: June 2013

Topic Editor:

Peter K. Smith, PhD, Goldsmiths, University of London, United Kingdom

Table of content

Synthesis	5
Learning Through Play	8
¹ PETER K. SMITH, PHD, ² ANTHONY PELLEGRINI, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Play and Learning	14
INGRID PRAMLING SAMUELSSON, PHD, NIKLAS PRAMLING, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Young Children’s Play Fighting and Use of War Toys	19
JENNIFER L. HART, MED, MICHELLE T. TANNOCK, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Play and Cultural Context	25
YUMI GOSSO, PHD, ANA MARIA ALMEIDA CARVALHO, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Play and Disability	32
VICKII B. JENVEY, BA, MED, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Play’s Potential in Early Literacy Development	38
JAMES F. CHRISTIE, PHD, KATHLEEN A. ROSKOS, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Play Therapy	44
CINDY DELL CLARK, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Play Pedagogy and Playworlds	49
SONJA BAUMER, PHD, JUNE 2013	
Play: Commenting on Smith & Pellegrini, Christie & Roskos, Samuelsson & Pramling, Baumer, Hart & Tannock, Gosso & Carvalho, Clark, and Jenvey	54

Topic funded by:



Margaret & Wallace McCain
Family Foundation

Synthesis

How important is it?

Play is a spontaneous, voluntary, pleasurable and flexible activity involving a combination of body, object, symbol use and relationships. In contrast to games, play behaviour is more disorganized, and is typically done for its own sake (i.e., the process is more important than any goals or end points). Recognized as a universal phenomenon, play is a legitimate right of childhood and should be part of all children's life. Between 3% to 20% of young children's time and energy is spent in play, and more so in non-impooverished environment. Although play is an important arena in children's life associated with immediate, short-term and long-term term benefits, cultural factors influence children's opportunities for free play in different ways. Over the last decade, there has been on-going reduction of playtime in favour of educational instructions, especially in modern and urban societies. Furthermore, parental concerns about safety sometimes limit children's opportunities to engage in playful and creative activities. Along the same lines, the increase of commercial toys and technological developments by the toy industry has fostered more sedentary and less healthy play behaviours in children. Yet, play is essential to young children's education and should not be abruptly minimized and segregated from learning. Not only play helps children develop pre-literacy skills, problem solving skills and concentration, but it also generates social learning experiences, and helps children to express possible stresses and problems.

What do we know?

Throughout the preschool years, young children engage in different forms of play, including social, parallel, object, sociodramatic and locomotor play. The frequency and type of play vary according to children's age, cognitive maturity, physical development, as well as the cultural context. For example, children with physical, intellectual, and/or language disabilities engage in play behaviours, yet they may experience delays in some forms of play and require more parental supervision than typically developing children.

Social play is usually the first form of play observed in young children. Social play is characterized by playful interactions with parents (up to age 2) and/or other children (from two years onwards).

In spite of being around other children of their age, children between 2 to 3 years old commonly play next to each other without much interaction (i.e., parallel play). As their cognitive skills develop, including their ability to imagine, imitate and understand other's beliefs and intents, children start to engage in sociodramatic play. While interacting with with same-age peers, children develops narrative thinking, problem-solving skills (e.g., when negotiating roles), and a general understanding of the building blocks of story. Around the same time, physical/locomotor play also increases in frequency. Although locomotor play typically includes running and climbing, play fighting is common, especially amongst boys age three to six. In contrast to the popular belief, play fighting lacks intent to harm either emotionally or physically even though it can look like real fighting. In fact, during the primary school years, only about 1% of play-fighting turn into serious physical aggressions. Nevertheless, the effects of such play are of special concern among children who display antisocial behaviour and less empathic understanding, and therefore supervision is warranted.

In addition, to vary according to child's factors, the frequency, type and play area are influenced by the cultural context. While there are universal features of play across cultures (e.g., traditional games and activities and gender-based play preferences), differences also exist. For instance, children who live in rural areas typically engage in more free play and have access to larger spaces for playing. In contrast, adult supervision in children's play is more frequent in urban areas due to safety concerns. Along the same lines, cultures value and react differently to play. Some adults refrain from engaging in play as it represents a spontaneous activity for children while others promote the importance of structuring play to foster children's cognitive, social and emotional development.

According to proponents of play pedagogy, there are specific skills and knowledge children should be supported in developing, and therefore play needs to be goal directed to some extent. Playworlds is an example of educational practice in which children and adults interpret a text from children's literature through visual and plastic arts, pretend play, and oral narration. These highly engaging activities foster children's literacy skills and interests in books and reading without imposing adult authority and hierarchy.

What can be done?

If play is associated with children's academic and social development, teachers, parents and therapists are encouraged to develop knowledge about the different techniques to help children

develop their play-related skills. However, in order to come up with best practices, further research on the examination of high-quality play is warranted.

From the available literature on play, it is recommended to create play environments to stimulate and foster children's learning. Depending on the type of play, researchers suggest providing toys that enhance children's:

- motor coordination (e.g., challenging forms of climbing structure);
- creativity (e.g., building blocks, paint, clay, play dough);
- mathematic skills (e.g., board games "Chutes and Ladders" - estimation, counting and numeral identification);
- language and reading skills (e.g., plastic letters, rhyming games, making shopping lists, bedtime story books, toys for pretending).

Other recommendations have been suggested in order to enhance literacy skills in children. Researchers suggest that setting up literacy-rich environments, such as a "real restaurant" with tables, menus, name-tags, pencils and notepads, are effective to increase children's potential in early literacy development. Educators are also encouraged to adopt a whole child approach that targets not only literacy learning but also the child's creativity, imagination, persistence and positive attitudes in reading. Teachers and educators should also make a parallel between what can be learned from playful activities and academic curriculum in order for children to understand that play allows them to practice and reinforce what is learned in class. However, educators should ensure that a curriculum based on playful learning includes activities that are perceived as playful by children themselves rather than only by the teachers. Most experts agree that a balanced approach consisting of periods of free play and structured/guided play should be favoured. Indeed, adults are encouraged to give children space during playtime to enable the development of self-expression and independence in children with and without disabilities. Lastly, parents of children with socio-emotional difficulties are encouraged to receive play therapy training (filial play therapy) to develop empathic understanding and responsive involvement during playtime.

Learning Through Play

¹Peter K. Smith, PhD, ²Anthony Pellegrini, PhD

¹Goldsmiths, University of London, United Kingdom, ²University of Minnesota, USA

June 2013, Éd. rév.

Introduction

We define play, review the main types of play and their developmental benefits in various areas.

Subject: What is Play?

Play is often defined as activity done for its own sake, characterized by means rather than ends (the process is more important than any end point or goal), flexibility (objects are put in new combinations or roles are acted out in new ways), and positive affect (children often smile, laugh, and say they enjoy it). These criteria contrast play with exploration (focused investigation as a child gets more familiar with a new toy or environment, that may then lead into play), work (which has a definite goal), and games (more organized activities in which there is some goal, typically winning the game). Developmentally, games with rules tend to be common after about 6 years of age, whereas play is very frequent for 2- to 6-year-olds.

The Research Context

Almost all children play, except those who are malnourished, deprived, or have severe disabilities. Between 3% and 20% of young children's time and energy is typically spent in play,¹ more so in richly provisioned niches.² If young children are temporarily deprived of play opportunities, for example being kept in a classroom, they play for longer and more vigorously afterwards.¹

As children invest time and energy in play, and there are opportunities for learning when they do play, there seems to be a need for play. This is true of young mammals generally, although other mammals show much less variety of play forms than human children. These findings suggest that play has developmental benefits. Benefits might be immediate, long-term, or both. However, the exact role of play in learning is still debated. A prevailing "play ethos"^{3,4} has tended to exaggerate the evidence for the essential role of play. Nevertheless, correlational and experimental evidence

suggest important benefits of play, even if some benefits can also be obtained in other ways.

Locomotor play, including exercise play (running, climbing, etc.), involves large body activity and is generally thought to support physical training of muscles, for strength, endurance, and skill. Exercise play increases from toddlers to preschool and peaks at early primary school ages, when the neural and muscular basis of physical coordination and healthy growth is important, and vigorous play obviously provides good opportunities for this;⁵ later, it declines. There is evidence that active, playground-type breaks can help young children concentrate better at subsequent sedentary tasks,¹ consistent with the cognitive immaturity hypothesis that the “need to exercise helps young children to space out cognitive demands for which they have less mature capacities.”⁶

Social play refers to playful interactions between children and parents or caregivers in children up to 2 years old, but increasingly with other children as social play increases dramatically from 2 to 6 years of age. At first, playing with one partner is complex enough, but by 3 or 4 years old a play group can consist of three or more participants, as children acquire social coordination skills and social scripts.

Parallel play, common in 2- and 3-year-olds, is when children play next to others without much interaction. Some play is solitary.⁷ This type of play can be physical, incorporate objects or language, be pretend, or include all of these aspects. Rough-and-tumble play, including play fighting and chasing, can look like real fighting, but in play fighting children are often laughing, kicks and blows are not hard or do not make contact, and it is usually done with friends.

Object play refers to playful use of objects such as building blocks, jigsaw puzzles, cars, dolls, etc. With babies, this play is mouthing objects and dropping them. With toddlers, this is sometimes just manipulating the objects (e.g., assembling blocks), but sometimes involves pretend play (e.g., building a house, feeding a doll). Play with objects allows children to try out new combinations of actions, free of external constraint, and may help develop problem solving skills. Any benefits of object play need to be balanced against those of instruction, bearing in mind the ages of the children, the nature of the task, and whether learning is for specific skills, or a more general inquisitive and creative attitude. The more marked benefits may be for independent and creative thought,⁸ though the evidence is equivocal.⁹

Language play -- At around 2 years old, toddlers often talk to themselves before going to sleep or upon waking up. This is playful, with repetition and sometimes laughter. Children use language

humorously at 3 and 4 years old. (“I’m a whale. This is my tail.” “I’m a flamingo. Look at my wingo.”) Language skills--phonology (speech sounds), vocabulary and meaning (semantics), grammar (syntax), and pragmatics (using language appropriately in social situations)--are rapidly developing in the preschool years. Some phonological skills can be developed in the solitary monologues when children babble to themselves in their cot, but most benefits of language learning probably come in sociodramatic play.

Pretend play involves pretending an object or an action is something else than it really is. A banana is a telephone, for example. This play develops from 15 months of age with simple actions, such as pretending to sleep or putting dolly to bed, developing into longer story sequences and role play. Sociodramatic play, common from around 3 years of age, is pretend play with others, sustained role taking, and a narrative line. It can involve understanding others’ intent, sophisticated language constructions, and development of (sometimes) novel and intricate story lines. Children negotiate meanings and roles (“You be daddy, right?”) and argue about appropriate behavior (“No, you don’t feed the baby like that!”).

Many learning functions have been advanced for pretend and especially sociodramatic play.¹⁰ One hypothesis is that it is useful for developing preliteracy skills, such as awareness of letters and print, and the purpose of books.^{11,12,13} The narrative structure of sociodramatic play sequences mirrors the narratives of story books. For these benefits, some structuring by adults is helpful (in maintaining a story line, having suitable materials including plastic letters, books, etc.).

Another hypothesis is that pretend play enhances emotional security. A child who is emotionally upset, for example, by parents arguing or the illness or death of someone in the family, can work through the anxieties by acting out such themes in pretend play, with dolls for example. Play therapists use such techniques to help understand children’s anxieties; and most therapists believe that it helps the child work towards a resolution of them.¹⁴

A relatively recent hypothesis is that pretend play enhances theory of mind development. Theory of mind ability means being able to understand (represent) the knowledge and beliefs of others; that is, that someone else can have a different belief or state of knowledge from yourself. This does not happen until the age of late 3 or 4 years old. Social interaction with age-mates seems to be important for this, and social pretend play (with siblings or with other age-mates) may be especially helpful, as children negotiate different roles and realize that different roles entail different behaviors.¹⁵ While these benefits are plausible, there is little experimental evidence; the

correlational evidence suggests that social pretend play is helpful but is only one route to acquiring theory of mind.¹⁶ A recent review suggests that more high-quality studies and evidence are needed before we can be confident of what benefits pretend play has.¹⁷

Key Research Questions and Gaps

We lack descriptive information on the time and energy spent in various forms of play. Without this we cannot understand the putative benefits of play. Further, while play may have many positive benefits, this is not always so. Play fighting is viewed ambivalently by nursery staff as many staff find it noisy and disruptive, and believe it often leads to real fights. In fact, research suggests that during the primary school years, only about 1% of rough-and-tumble play bouts turn into real fighting. However, this is more frequent for some children who lack social skills and are rejected by playmates. These children often respond to rough-and-tumble play aggressively.¹⁸⁻¹⁹

A related area of concern has been war play (play with toy guns, weapons, or combat superhero figures).²⁰ Carlsson-Paige and Levin²¹ contrasted a developmental view that play including war play is a primary vehicle for children to express themselves, with a sociopolitical view that children learn militaristic political concepts and values through war play. There is not a large research base on which to make informed judgments about whether the concerns are justified. Dunn and Hughes²² found that 4-year-old, hard-to-manage children showed frequent violent fantasy and the extent of this was related to poorer language and play skills, more antisocial behaviour, and less empathic understanding at the age of 6 years. This does suggest concerns for the effects of such play on disturbed children.

Implications

In contemporary societies, adults are usually involved in children's play, providing play environments and toys. Preliteracy benefits of play can be enhanced by providing paper, crayons, and plastic letters. Exercise benefits of play can be enhanced by providing challenging forms of climbing apparatus. Creative play can be enhanced by providing lego-type bricks to stimulate creative construction activities.

Nursery staff can work with children to structure their play and give it more educational value by including activities such as jigsaw puzzles, color and pattern matching games, and materials like water, sand, and clay that children can manipulate and by enhancing sociodramatic play.¹⁰ Such

play tutoring involves providing suitable props (play house, clothes for role play, hospital equipment, etc.), taking children on visits to stimulate their imagination (to a hospital, zoo, etc.), and suggesting play themes and helping children to develop them. Play training can be one enjoyable and effective way of improving skills in language development, cognitive development, creativity, and role-taking.²³

Most experts in play research believe that a balanced approach is best.^{4,18,19} There should be good opportunities for genuine free play. Also, there should be some active involvement of adults in structuring some play, as in play tutoring. And, increasingly, as children get older, there is a need for direct instruction. The balance between types of play is a matter of continuing debate. As all types of play provide different opportunities, a blended program in preschool, with plenty of opportunities for free and structured play, is likely to be best for children and to provide them with a happy and stimulating environment in which they can flourish.

References

1. Pellegrini AD, Smith PK. Physical activity play: The nature and function of a neglected aspect of play. *Child Development* 1998;69(3):577-598.
2. Burghardt GM. *The genesis of animal play: Testing the limits*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press; 2005.
3. Smith PK. Children's play and its role in early development: A re-evaluation of the 'Play Ethos'. In: Pellegrini AD, ed. *Psychological bases for early education*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.; 1988: 207-226.
4. Smith PK. *Children and Play*. New York, NY: J. Wiley; 2010.
5. Byers JA, Walker C. Refining the motor training hypothesis for the evolution of play. *American Naturalist* 1995;146(1):25-40.
6. Bjorklund D, Green B. The adaptive nature of cognitive immaturity. *American Psychologist* 1992;47(1):46-54.
7. Parten M. Social participation among preschool children. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 1932;27:243-269.
8. Bruner JS. The nature and uses of immaturity. *American Psychologist* 1972; 27(8):687-708.
9. Pellegrini AD, Gustafson K. Boys' and girls' uses of objects for exploration, play, and tools in early childhood. In: Pellegrini AD, Smith PK, eds. *The Nature of Play: Great Apes and Humans*. New York, NY: Guilford Press; 2005: 113-138.
10. Smilansky S. *The effects of Sociodramatic play on disadvantaged preschool children*. New York: Wiley; 1968.
11. Pellegrini A, Galda L. Ten years after: A reexamination of symbolic play and literacy research. *Reading Research Quarterly* 1993;28(2):163-175.
12. Roskos K, Christie J, eds. *Play and literacy: Research from multiple perspectives*. 2nd ed. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; 2007.
13. Zigler EF, Singer DG, Bishop-Josef S.J, eds. *Children's play: The roots of reading*. Washington, DC: Zero to Three Press; 2004.
14. Porter ML, Hernandez-Reif M, Jessee P. Play therapy: A review. *Early Child Development and Care*, 2009;179(8):1025-1040.
15. Dunn J, Cutting AL. Understanding others, and individual differences in friendship interactions in young children. *Social Development* 1999;8(2):201-219.
16. Smith PK. Social and pretend play in children. In: Pellegrini AD, Smith PK, eds. *The Nature of Play: Great Apes and Humans*.

New York, NY: Guilford Publications; 2005:173-209.

17. Lillard AS, Lerner MD, Hopkins EJ, Dore RA, Smith ED & Palmquist CM. The impact of pretend play on children's development: A review of the evidence. *Psychological Bulletin*. In press.
18. Pellegrini AD. *The role of play in human development*. Oxford, UK and New York: Oxford University Press; 2009.
19. Pellegrini AD, ed. *The Oxford handbook of the development of play*. Oxford, UK and New York: Oxford University Press; 2011.
20. Holland P. *We don't play with guns here: War, weapon and superhero play in the early years*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press; 2003.
21. Carlsson-Paige N, Levin DE. *The war play dilemma*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press; 1987.
22. Dunn J, Hughes C. "I got some swords and you're dead!": Violent fantasy, antisocial behavior, friendship, and moral sensibility in young children. *Child Development* 2001;72(2):491-505.
23. Smith PK, Dalgleish M, Herzmark G. A comparison of the effects of fantasy play tutoring and skills tutoring in nursery classes. *International Journal of Behavioural Development* 1981;4(4):421-441.

Play and Learning

Ingrid Pramling Samuelsson, PhD, Niklas Pramling, PhD

Department of Education, Communication and Learning, University of Gothenburg, Sweden

June 2013

Introduction

This article discusses historical and present day notions of play and learning in the context of early childhood education (ECE).

The beginning of ECE

Early childhood education has two sources: the Froebel Kindergarten tradition¹ in Germany and the Infant School in Britain.² ECE learning has traditionally been considered different from learning in primary school, and play has had an important role in both traditions, but in different ways.³

In Kindergarten, the focus has been on developing the whole child rather than teaching specific subjects. The idea is that children should first develop social, emotional, motor and cognitive skills in order to be ready to later begin learning knowledge contents in primary school. At the same time learning materials have been developed for young children that focus their interest and attentions towards early mathematics learning.⁴

Further, according to the Kindergarten tradition, children should be active in their early learning, supported by the teacher who should organise tasks that what will help the child develop various skills and attitudes, which in turn will create knowledge. For example, activities based on the theme of sheep could have children learning songs about sheep, making sheep drawings, listening to stories about sheep and learning about how the sheep's wool is made into fabric for clothing.⁵ The idea with this type of learning is that the teacher plans activities or organises tasks for the children so that they learn by doing.⁶ Play was introduced, by Froebel as a means for learning.¹ He used the notions of play, learning and work as three aspects of the child's experiences in kindergarten. Play was strongly related to solving mathematical problems by dealing with various materials and tasks. However, children could also play with other materials and organise role-play.

In the British Infant School tradition,⁷ the educational approach was slightly different: Children were taught traditional school subjects during shorter lessons, and play became a form of relaxation in between the lessons. But here also play was considered important – given that children were not supposed to be able to concentrate other than for a short time – play was a way to recuperate before a new lesson.

Play and Learning in the Field of ECE

In both the Kindergarten and Infant School traditions, play had and continues to have an important role in young children’s education. Currently, in all ECE frameworks or curricula, play continues to have an aspect of importance.^{8,9,10,11} However, even though there are many books that discuss play and learning on an academic level,^{12,13} research seldom studies how play and learning are related, or what function play should have in the ECE system. In practice, it seems it is taken for granted that play is the children’s world and is crucial to their education. Further, the United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child,¹⁴ states that all children have the right to play. On one hand, it is hard not to view play as central to young children’s lives. On the other hand, play is not part of all children’s life, either in their neighborhood or in ECE,¹⁵ even if all humans at heart could be argued to be playing individuals, as suggested by Huizinga.¹⁶

One can claim that ECE generally involves structured activities, for learning or pleasure, but also less structured activities, often called “free play.” The notion of free play is generally understood as being the opposite of teacher-organized activities. In free play, children lead their activity and use their imagination, as opposed to learning, where specific skills or knowledge are expected to be learned. Montessori¹⁷ even talked about not letting young children read stories and fantasies (play with reality) before they first learn about reality. In an international comparison of young children’s experiences in ECE in seven countries, it was obvious that play is central to the lives of all young children.¹⁸ Also, in some countries it was not even a question of talking about the youngest children in terms of learning, but that children learn when they play. Participants from most countries expressed the intention of finding a more up-to-date approach to early years education, and play was always considered an important part of the approach.

There is also a kind of rhetoric and belief in ECE that play is always positive, which is, actually, not always the case.¹⁹ The romantic view of young children’s play is built on the idea that children learn when they play. However in the context of ECE, there are specific skills and knowledge children should be supported in developing and, therefore, activities to some extent have to be

goal-directed.²⁰

The Playing-Learning Child

In a meta-analysis of praxis-oriented research, Pramling Samuelsson and Asplund Carlsson²¹ formulated the concept of the playing-learning child. This is a child who does not separate between play and learning, and instead relates to the world around him or her in a playful manner. They create ideas, fantasize and talk about reality simultaneously. For example, when a teacher asks a child to draw a tree they studied during an excursion to the forest, the child may challenge the teacher by adding Winnie-the-Pooh to the drawing of the tree.³ According to many teachers, the child should draw the tree from the forest first – then he could play!

Children, particularly young children, in ECE have not yet learned to decipher what is to be considered learning and what is to be considered play, but they do allow themselves to be creative if the teacher gives them communicative space.²² This means that the teacher also has to take the child's approach as a base for arranging a preschool approach built on the playing-learning child.

Integrating Play and Learning in Early Years Pedagogy

What does the playing-learning child mean in everyday life in ECE? What does it take for a teacher to work according to this theoretical notion of children as playing-learning individuals in ECE? As we can see, it puts demands on the teachers to adopt specific theoretical approaches, that is, theories built on communication and interaction. It also requires the teacher to look at knowledge in terms of the meaning children create, how they make sense of the world around them.

Looking at current ECE practices, there are generally three forms of early childhood curricula: the "traditional" social pedagogy based on Froebel, the "academic" pedagogy based on school subjects and skills, and innovations such as "developmental pedagogy" in which play and learning are integrated through an investigative pedagogy. Sylva et al.²³ found that differences in pedagogy (linked to curricula) led to wide differences in children's developmental outcomes. Thus, curriculum and pedagogy make a difference to children's development as well as contribute to the success and well-being of society.

The concept of pedagogy/didactics (from a European perspective) is central in some countries,

especially in the Nordic preschools. Based on the German/European idea of “bildung,” curriculum and pedagogy become integrated. Didactics focuses on the ways the teacher “points something out to children,” that is, directing children’s attention towards specific areas of knowledge, skills or attitudes that will enhance their development. Didactics is the crossroad between the learning object (what children should be supported in creating meaning about) and the act of learning (how children play-learn). Shared meaning-making depends on the teacher’s capacity to relate her/himself to the child within the learning situation. This approach is centred on children’s meaning-making.²⁰ This didactic approach is based on “variation as a fundamental aspect of learning,” framing the learning situation, social encounters and coordinating the child’s and the teacher’s perspectives. This means that there will be a space for each child to be involved in learning and to also use play and fantasy to try to make sense of the world around them. It is through communicative didactics that children can begin with a context-bound language and move towards an expansive language and knowledge of what it means to know something deeply, and finally to also become aware of knowledge patterns.²⁴

Research Gaps, Conclusions and Policy Implications

By tradition, researchers study play or learning, while there is a need for studies of how play and learning can be integrated in a goal-related practice, but also what it means for the child to be in an ECE where children’s worlds are appreciated and valued. Countries could consider their curriculum in the light of others, and considered how play and learning are talked about and planned for/supported, and see how a new approach could build on a more child-centred communicative approach in early years. Since we know today that the early years are fundamental for the child’s future learning, as well as for the development of society,²⁵ every country should review their curriculum and approaches to ECE.

References

1. Froebel F. Education of man. USA: Authorhouse; 2004, original 1825.
2. Whitbread N. The evolution of the nursery-infant school: A history of infant and nursery education in Britain, 1800-1970. London: Routledge and K. Paul; 1972.
3. Pramling Samuelsson I, Pramling N. Winnie the Pooh sat in a tree, or did he? A contemporary notion of early childhood education beyond teaching and free play. In O. F. Lillemyr, S. Docket & B. Perry, eds. *Varied perspectives of play and learning: Theory and research on early years’ education*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age. In press.
4. Leeb-Lundberg K. Friedrich Froebel's Mathematics for the kindergarten. Philosophy, program and implementation in the United States. New York: School of Education of New York University; 1972.
5. Doverborg E, Pramling I, Qvarsell B. *Inläring och utveckling. Barnet, förskolan och skolan* [Learning and development: The child, preschool and school]. Stockholm: Liber; 1987.

6. Dewey J. *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*. New York: Free Press; 1916.
7. Owen R. Education in Robert Owen's new society: The New Lanark institute and schools. Available at : <http://www.infed.org/thinkers/et-owen.htm>. Accessed June 3, 2013.
8. Oberhuemer P. International perspectives on early childhood education curricula. *International Journal of Early Childhood* 2005 37(1), 27-37.
9. Skolverket. Curriculum for preschool, 1 to 5 year. (revised 2010). Stockholm: Skolverket; 2010.
10. OECD. Building Strong Foundation. Paris: OECD; 2010.
11. OECD. Starting Strong: Early childhood education and care: Education and skills. Paris: OECD; 2001.
12. Johnson JE, Christie JF, Wardle F. *Play, development and early education*. New York: Pearson; 2005
13. Wood E, Broadhead P. *Developing a pedagogy of play*. London: Sage; 2010.
14. UN. Convention of the Rights of the Child. 1989.
15. Pramling Samuelsson I., Kultti A. Children and their play: Looking at the world's cultural diversity. Report from the OMEP conference, Campo Grande, Brazil, July 2013. In press.
16. Huizinga J. *Homo ludens: A study of the play element in culture*. Boston, MA: Beacon Press; 1950
17. Montessori M. *The formation of man*. Oxford: Clio; 1989, original 1955.
18. Pramling Samuelsson I, Fleer M, eds. *Play and learning in early childhood settings: International perspectives, Vol. 1*. New York: Springer; 2009.
19. Johansson E. *Etik i små barns värld. Om värden och normer bland de yngsta barnen i förskolan*. Göteborg: Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis; 1999.
20. Pramling N., Pramling Samuelsson I, eds. *Educational encounters: Nordic studies in early childhood didactics*. Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer; 2011.
21. Pramling Samuelsson I, Asplund Carlsson M. The playing learning child: Towards a pedagogy of early childhood. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research* 2008;52(6):623-641.
22. Johansson E, Pramling Samuelsson I. *Lek och läroplan. Möten mellan barn och lärare i förskola och skola* (Göteborg Studies in Educational Sciences, 249.) Göteborg: Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis; 2006.
23. Sylva K, Melhuish E, Sammons P, Siraj-Blatchford I., Taggartm B. *Early Childhood Matters*. London, Routledge; 2010.
24. Doverborg E, Pramling N, Pramling Samuelson I. *Undervisning i förskolan* [Teaching in preschool]. Stockholm: Liber; 2013.
25. Pramling Samuelsson I, Wagner J. Open appeal to local, national, regional and global leaders. Secure the World's Future: Prioritize Early Childhood Development, Education, and Care. *International Journal of Early Childhood* 2012;44(3):341-346.

Young Children's Play Fighting and Use of War Toys

Jennifer L. Hart, MEd, Michelle T. Tannock, PhD

University of Nevada, Las Vegas, USA

June 2013

Introduction

Adults often perceive young children's play fighting and use of war toys as violent or aggressive behaviour rather than beneficial to their development. Movies (e.g., Star Wars), books (e.g., Harry Potter), national figures (e.g. military forces), community helpers (e.g., police officers), professional sports (e.g., rugby) and commercial toys (e.g., Nerf guns) influence young children's desire to engage in such play. In spite of that, educational programs often either discourage or ban this controversial form of play resulting in contrasting societal messaging for young children related to the appropriateness of play fighting and war toys. For example, fencing, an international sport, where those who excel are awarded medals, features three types of bladed weapons maneuvered in actions representative of fighting. Further, police officers use stun guns, firearms, and tear gas, yet are often recognized as instrumental for any society seeking to protect citizens. A closer look at the characteristics of children's play fighting and use of war toys will indicate that the behaviour is voluntary, choreographed, enjoyable and usually proceeds with caution and care.

Subject

Parents and educators struggle with the appropriateness of young children's play fighting,¹ and interest in war toys (e.g., guns, swords, bombs, light sabers and blasters) in home and school settings. Play fighting with symbolic weapons or war toys is a form of socio-dramatic play predominantly observed amongst boys ages three to six years. Play fighting is defined as verbally and physically cooperative play behaviour involving at least two children, where all participants enjoyably and voluntarily engage in reciprocal role-playing that includes aggressive make-believe themes, actions, and words; yet lacks intent to harm either emotionally or physically. Play fighting encompasses superhero play,² "bad guy" play,³ active pretend play,⁴ physically active and imaginative play,⁵ rough-and-tumble play,^{6,7,8} and war play.

Problems

Educators are pressured to disregard the benefits of aggressive socio-dramatic play resulting in prohibition of various forms of the play, particularly play fighting^{4,9} and engagement with war toys. However, the elimination of play fighting and war toys by parents and educators may have a significant impact on young children's development. Research suggests that the optimal education and development of young children, particularly boys, is not being met when playful aggressive tendencies are forbidden.^{4,6,7,10} Further, educational programs that restrict play types may foster play deficits, which inadvertently will leave children unprepared for future experiences.¹¹ While educators are often uncomfortable with play fighting and with war toys, it can be argued that the omission of these forms of play in early childhood programs limits opportunities for development of social, emotional, physical, cognitive and communicative abilities in young children.

Research Context

Play fighting generates central social learning experiences which support children as they practice controlled and motivated competitive and cooperative behaviour among peers.⁶ Understandably, this form of play is controversial. Carlsson-Paige suggest that war play is detrimental to child development due to its imitative nature rather than the creation of novel play experiences.¹² Nevertheless, research supports dramatic and sociodramatic play as important to child development^{2,5} with two key elements of sociodramatic play being imitation and make-believe.¹

Professional organizations have influenced early childhood practice when considering exposure to fighting and war toys. For example, developmentally appropriate practice, the initiative by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), supports and encourages the presence of certain forms of uniforms and images in the classroom, yet bans weapons and actions symbolic of, or believed to glorify, violence. Educator training and development often does not delineate playful aggression from serious aggression perpetuated by the aspiration to decrease violence in all forms¹³ and promote legislative efforts for the standardization of manufacturing physically and psychologically safe commercial toys.¹⁴ For example, Watson and Peng¹⁵ suggest that toy gun play is not associated with many positive behaviours, while Fry¹⁶ noted that play fighting and serious fighting can be categorized into separate types of behaviour in young children. Hellendoorn and Harinck¹⁷ differentiated play fighting as make-believe-

aggression and rough-and-tumble since playful aggression should not be considered real aggression. Educators may discourage or ban play fighting and war toys because they perceive the play fighting as detrimental to child development rather than beneficial^{3,4,8} and the war toys as symbols of violence.

It is important to recognize that play fighting and play with war toys lack intent to harm. Participants may sustain injuries, but such injuries are due to the nature of play, and not the purpose. This is an important distinction when identifying serious aggression, where the manifestation of behaviour holds the purpose of explicitly intending to injure or destroy and such behaviour is directed towards another with the intent to harm.^{18,19} However, children who exhibit significantly higher rates of antisocial behaviour and negative emotion display more violent actions during pretend play and engage in more frequent antisocial behaviour outside the context of their play.²⁰ Additional support is needed for young children who lack age-appropriate prosocial skills and emotional regulation.

Key Research Questions

Smilansky²¹ suggests socio-dramatic play involves the cooperative interaction of at least two children, who act out roles both verbally and physically, with two key elements: imitation and make-believe. The acceptance or suppression of socio-dramatic play is determined by the knowledge and perceptions of early childhood educators. For greater understanding researchers should consider to what extent play fighting and war toys are accepted in the home and educational settings along with the contextual components that influence acceptance or suppression.

Recent Research Results

Parents and educators often misinterpret or are uncomfortable with play fighting due to its resemblance to serious aggression and difficulty recognizing subtle differences between the two.^{3,7} Playful aggression is a common component in socio-dramatic play — typically among boys.^{6,10,22,23} If playful aggression is supported, it is highly beneficial to child development.³ The act of pretending to be aggressive is not equivalent to being aggressive.³ Role reversal, cooperation, voluntary engagement, chasing and fleeing, restrained physical contact, smiling and laughing are common characteristics of playful aggression.¹⁶ Within this framework of understanding, play fighting and war toys can be considered components of socio-dramatic play.³ This suggests that

early childhood educators need opportunities to enhance their understanding of the benefits of pretend play, including aggressive dramatic play themes such as fighting and war, in order to more effectively support play.

Research Gaps

Although there is abundant literature supporting forms of socio-dramatic play commonly perceived as appropriate (i.e., house keeping, community helpers), little is known of how to support aggressive socio-dramatic play such as play fighting¹ and the use of war toys in the classroom. Research is needed to develop a cohesive terminology that clearly identifies various types of aggressive socio-dramatic play, targets the developmental benefits of each type, and distinguishes various toys and actions characteristic of aggressively representative play. Research findings to date have supported the inclusion of aggressive socio-dramatic play in early childhood education, yet minimal practical guidance for educators is offered to aid in the development of strategies and clear tactics for supervising play fighting and war toy play.

Conclusion

Research demonstrates distinct differences between serious aggressive behaviour and playful aggressive behaviour, with intent to harm being the major factor of serious aggression. Research further demonstrates playful aggressive behaviour as a neglected, yet important element of socio-dramatic play, especially for young boys. Children who engage in play fighting are simply pretending to be aggressive as they develop a fighting theme that commonly involves symbolic weapons or war toys. They frequently exchange roles, collaboratively develop storylines, and repeat sequences in an effort to perfect their physical movements and the social dynamics of their play. Participants enjoyably and voluntarily engage in reciprocal role-playing that includes aggressive make-believe themes, actions, words and weapons; yet lacks intent to harm either emotionally or physically. However, educators must be cognizant of supervision, a key component for supporting play fighting. As with learning to cut with scissors, writing with a sharp pencil, and climbing on playground equipment, young children need the establishment of clear guidelines and reinforcement or redirection from educators to ensure their safety is assured within developmentally appropriate play.

Implications for Parents, Services and Policy

Without a full understanding of the distinct difference between serious and symbolic aggression

educators may react with conflicting messages to young children regarding the appropriateness of engaging in socio-dramatic play involving play fighting and war toys. This confusion often results in educators who are pressured to disregard the benefits of aggressive socio-dramatic play by banning play fighting^{4,9} and war toys.

Inconsistent rules and guidelines relating to the role of play fighting and war toys in early childhood education contribute to the struggle to recognize benefits and support children's engagement. Educators who hold a foundation of understanding will be better able to communicate the importance of not only allowing playful aggression but also supporting it with the inclusion of war toys in early childhood programs.

References

1. Pellis SM, Pellis VC. Rough-and-tumble play and the development of the social brain. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*. 2007;16:95-98. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007.00483.x.
2. Bauer KL, Dettore E. Superhero play: What's a teacher to do? *Early Childhood Education Journal*. 1997;25(1):17-21. doi:10.1023/A:1025677730004.
3. Logue ME, Detour A. "You be the bad guy": A new role for teachers in supporting children's dramatic play. *Early Childhood Research & Practice*. 2011;13(1):1-16.
4. Logue ME, Harvey H. Preschool teachers' views of active play. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*. 2010;24(1):32-49. doi:10.1080/02568540903439375.
5. Parsons A, Howe N. Superhero toys and boys' physically active and imaginative play. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*. 2006;20:802-806. doi:10.1080/02568540609594568.
6. Jarvis P. Monsters, magic and mr psycho: A biocultural approach to rough and tumble play in the early years of primary school. *Early Years: An International Journal of Research and Development*. 2007;27(2):171-188. doi:10.1080/09575140701425324.
7. Pellegrini AD. Rough-and-tumble play: Developmental and educational significance. *Educational Psychologist*. 1987;22:23-43. doi:10.1207/s15326985ep2201_2.
8. Tannock MT. Rough and tumble play: An investigation of the perceptions of educators and young children. *Early Childhood Education Journal*. 2008;35:357-361. doi:10.1007/s10643-007-0196-1.
9. Carlson FM. Rough play: One of the most challenging behaviours. *Young Children*. 2011:18-25.
10. DiPietro JA. Rough and tumble play: A function of gender. *Developmental Psychology*. 1981;17(1):50-58. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.17.1.50.
11. Sutton-Smith B. Play as adaptive potentiation. *Sportwissenschaft*. 1975;5:103-118.
12. Carlsson-Paige N. Young children and war play. *Educational Leadership*. 1987;45:80-84.
13. Violence in children's Lives; A Position Statement of the National Association for the Education of Young Children; <http://www.naeyc.org/files/naeyc/file/positions/PSMEVI98.PDF>; Adopted July 1993.
14. Media Violence in Children's Lives; A Position Statement of the National Association for the Education of Young Children; <http://www.naeyc.org/files/naeyc/file/positions/PSMEVI98.PDF>; Adopted April 1990; Reaffirmed July 1994.

15. Watson MW, Peng Y. The relation between toy gun play and childrens' aggressive behavior. *Early Education and Development*. 1994;3:370-389.
16. Fry DP. Differences between playfighting and serious fighting among Zapotec children. *Ethology and Sociobiology*. 1987;(8)4:285-306. doi:10.1016/0162-3095(87)90020-X.
17. Hellendoorn J, Harinck, FJH. War toy play and aggression in Dutch kindergarten children. *Social Development*. 1997;6(3):340-354. doi:10.1111/j.
18. Bandura A. Social learning theory of aggression. *The Journal of Communication*. 1978; 28(3):12-29. doi:10.1111/j.1460-2466.1978.tb01621.x.
19. Robertson T, Daffern M, Bucks RS. Emotion regulation and aggression. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*. 2011;17:72-82. doi:10.1016/j.avb.2011.09.006.
20. Dunn J, Hughes C. "I got some swords and you're dead!": Violent fantasy, antisocial behavior, friendship, and moral sensibility in young children. *Child Development*. 2001;72:491-505. doi:10.1111/1467-8624.00292.
21. Smilansky S. Sociodramatic play: Its relevance to behaviour and achievement in school. In: Klugman E, Smilansky S, ed. *Children's play and learning: Perspectives and policy implications*. Columbia University: Teachers College Press; 1990:18-42.
22. Humphreys AP, Smith PK. Rough-and-tumble play friendship and dominance in school children: Evidence for continuity and change with age. *Child Development*. 1987;58: 201-212. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.1987.tb03500.x.
23. Pellegrini AD. Elementary-school children's rough-and-tumble play. *Early Childhood Quarterly*. 1989;4:245-260. doi:10.1016/S0885-2006(89)80006-7.

Play and Cultural Context

Yumi Gosso, PhD, Ana Maria Almeida Carvalho, PhD

Universidade de São Paulo, Brazil

June 2013

Introduction

Human beings are biologically sociocultural.¹ Every human activity is, thus, permeated with and affected by culture, and reciprocally affects culture's dynamics and historical transformations. Play is no exception. Culture permeates and is affected by children's play in two major ways: creative assimilation, or interpretive reproduction² of meso- and macro-cultural aspects of the social environment (routines, rules, values); and construction of shared meanings and routines that constitute the microculture of peer groups.^{2,3}

Subject

Understanding play as a basic human motivation and a locus of individual development and of culture assimilation and construction leads to a particular view on childhood and early education. Play should not be opposed to learning activities or to "serious" work, but rather seen as an important arena of children's lives, a condition for children's welfare and a legitimate right of childhood.

Problems

Many studies on play are guided by a futuristic perspective, looking for correlates between play activities and developmental outcomes in near or remote future, and often missing the relevance of play during childhood. Furthermore, and as a consequence of this perspective, studies are often performed in controlled, laboratory conditions, where the potential of free play in displaying children's creativity and agency may be obscured.

Research Context

In this paper priority will be given to field studies in natural settings, with an ethnographic and observational approach.

Key Research Questions

- Identifying culture in play activities: universality and variability.
- Main factors affecting the frequency, duration and nature of play activities.
- Gender differences.
- Environmental contexts and cultural conceptions and practices affecting the availability of time, space, materials and play partners.

Recent Research Results

Play has been observed in every society where children were studied. It can be considered a universal trait of human psychology. However, like every human activity, it is affected by our cultural context. Different cultures value and react differently to play: play can be recognized by adults as having important consequences for cognitive, social and emotional development, and adults can engage as playmates; play can be seen as a spontaneous activity of children, which adults do not structure or participate in; or else play can be seen as a spontaneous activity, but the amount of play is limited because other activities are considered more important.⁴ Children at play reproduce and also recreate the specificities of their cultural environment.^{2,5}

Studies on play in different cultural contexts enlighten the various ways in which culture flows throughout play activities. The availability of time and space, of objects and playmates; adult role models and attitudes toward play are some of the contextual aspects that affect the frequency, duration and nature of children's play. In a South American Indian community, boys often play bow-and-arrows; boys and girls of varied ages dive and swim in the river and play chase around the village, with little or no adult supervision. They use primarily natural objects in their pretend play (i.e., sand, water, stone, plants). Urban children in large towns play more often with manufactured toys, at home, at school or playgroups, playgrounds or parks, usually with some adult supervision, especially when they are younger; locomotor play and chase play tend to occur in protected spaces.⁶

Many common play activities, such as marbles, kite-flying, dolls, houses, hopscotch and so forth, reappear with their deep structure preserved in different cultural contexts, but are modified in varied ways, creating local versions, using local resources and called by different names (even within a single language). In different regions of Brazil, for instance, marbles are called *búrica*,

búlica, papão, peteca or gude, and are practiced with local rules, with glass balls, mud balls or even cashew nuts.⁶

Besides the deep structure of many play activities, gender differences regarding choice of partners and the nature of play activities are another very recurrent cross-cultural similarity. Preference for companions of the same gender appears to arise around age 3.⁷ It is usually attributed to processes of social identification, of which gender identity is one of the main aspects, and tends to increase as children deepen their understanding of gender differences.⁸ Gender preferences, as expressed in the imitation of same gender activities, are resistant to adult encouragement to inter-gender imitation.⁹ These preferences tend to occur even when there are few available same age partners and it implies interacting with varied age companions. In larger groups, children of the same gender and age similarity tend to be drawn together to form play subgroups.⁵

Gender differences can also be explained by similar preferences for play activities, regardless of cultural contexts. Boys tend to occupy larger spaces, play in larger groups and farther away from home, and engage in activities that involve gross movements. Girls occupy internal or more restricted spaces, play in smaller groups, near their houses and with themes related to social and domestic activities. Pretend play themes are more varied among girls than among boys, which may be due to lack of male models in some cultural contexts: even when mothers work out of home, they still offer female models of domestic chores.^{6,8,10,11,12,13}

There is evidence that sexual hormones may contribute to gender differences in play behaviour,^{12,14,15,16} but also of strong cultural influences regarding the appropriateness of certain types of play for boys and girls. These perceptions vary in different cultural contexts: in some societies, gender roles are well defined and children's choice of play activities¹⁷ closely mirror adult practices.^{6,8,18}

Structural aspects of the immediate environment (time and space availability, social environment, etc.) are easily identifiable factors affecting the frequency, duration and nature of play activities.

The time allowed for play activities varies widely in different contexts. In rural societies, in low-income families and in isolated communities such as African-Brazilian “quilombos” and South-American Indian groups, children (particularly girls) are often required to help adults in varied chores, which leaves less free time to play – although they often insert play activities into their

tasks.^{5,8,13,19,20,21}

The amount of proximity with adult activities in different ways of life affects the degree of realism in their representation of these activities in pretend play. In hunter-gatherer societies, children are in close contact with adults as they perform their daily chores. In urban contexts, where fathers work out of home, boys tend to represent male activities in vague, poorly-specified manners, such as “Daddy is driving to work.” The representation of female activities, especially domestic chores, tends to be richer. The influence of media characters (superheroes, space travellers) is more noticeable in boys' pretend play.^{18,22,23,24,25}

Most modern societies limit children’s play due to safety concerns. Young children are not allowed to play freely because parents are afraid of accidents or do not have time to take them to a playground. Parents prefer to keep their children safely at home, for example, playing videogame or watching TV. When television is not available, children spend more time playing²⁶: the time spent in play by Japanese boys outside the house is inversely proportional to the time spent in video games.²⁷ South American Indian children and those who live in rural areas, even with some access to the media, often have more freedom, little adult intervention, large spaces and many available companions, factors which favour the occurrence of play.⁵

The availability of play partners, particularly partners of different ages, reflects cultural conceptions and practices regarding childhood, as well as the varied social networks in which the child takes part. Families with several children and/or extended families, either living together or in close proximity, usually provide a large multi-age group of siblings and/or cousins of both genders. The same may happen in small communities, in rural contexts or in small towns where children are allowed to play in the streets with their siblings and neighbours. By contrast, urban children living in large towns are often restricted to interactions with same age partners in day care centers and have less access to safe areas for free and active play.^{28,29}

Research Gaps

Studies in different socioeconomic and cultural contexts highlight both universal and particular features of play activities and traditions. Despite the increasing communication between researchers around the world, our knowledge about play is still marked by the prevalence of studies conducted in the Western developed world.

Themes that deserve more attention:

- Processes of appropriation, transmission, innovation and creation of culture: how and through which communication processes, do children construct play activities and cultural facts such as peer cultures? Which research procedures and perspectives highlight children's agency in play?
- Studies with multi-age free play groups, with little adult intervention, can highlight interactional abilities that are not easily observable in same-age groups, such as caregiving, creation of different play rules and expectations regarding younger partners, transmission of knowledge between older/more experienced partners and younger/less experienced ones and so forth.

Conclusions

Playing is a universal phenomenon, a basic motivation and a legitimate right of children. Studies in different cultural contexts highlight both universal features of play (such as the deep structure of traditional games/play activities and gender differences regarding play preferences and performance) and cultural variability, either introduced by the children themselves or constrained by the availability of time, space, objects and partners, reflecting the conceptions of each context about childhood and play.

Implications for Parents, Services and Policy

Modern urban life tends to limit children's opportunities for free play in several ways. Due to mothers' engagement in the labor market or to other factors, since the early years children increasingly attend pre-school centers where time for free play is often reduced to breaks between educational tasks intended to enhance precociousness and competitive future competence. Parental concerns about safety or other factors, such as dwelling conditions, limit their access to open places where active play with varied aged partners would be possible, thus favoring more sedentary and less healthy play activities: the availability of parks and other neighbourhood safe play areas should be as much a concern of child-oriented policies as the provision of educational and health services. The toy industry and technological developments respond to these conditions by offering an increasing variety of sedentary and often individualized and highly-structured toys and games which allow little space for children's creativity in the exploration and collective construction of play objects and materials. The psychological literature depicts the child as an active agent of his/her development since an early age; this conception seems to be often mis-translated in cultural practices and attitudes

regarding the availability of time, space, choice of play partners and of play activities by the children.

References

1. Bussab VSR, Ribeiro FJL. Biologicamente cultural [Biologically cultural]. In: Souza L, Freitas MFQ & Rodrigues MMP, eds. *Psicologia: Reflexões (im)pertinentes* [Psychology: (im)pertinent reflections]. São Paulo, Brazil: Casa do Psicólogo; 1998:175-193.
2. Corsaro WA. Interpretive reproduction in children's role play. *Childhood* 1993;3: 64-74.
3. Roopnarine JL, Johnson JE. The need to look at play in diverse cultural settings. In: Roopnarine JL, Johnson JE & Hooper FH, eds. *Children's play in diverse cultures*. Albany: State University of New York Press; 1994: 1-8.
4. Gaskins S, Haight W, Lancy D. The cultural construction of play. In Goncu A & Gaskins S, eds. *Play and development: Evolutionary, sociocultural and functional perspectives*. Erlbaum Press; 2007: 179-202.
5. Gosso Y. Play in different cultures. In Smith PK. *Children and play*. New York, NY: J. Wiley; 2010: 80-98.
6. Carvalho AMA, Magalhães CMC, Pontes FAR, Bichara, ID, eds. *Brincadeira e cultura: Viajando pelo Brasil que brinca* [Play and Culture: a Travel through Brazil at Play]. São Paulo, SP: Casa do Psicólogo; 2003.
7. Maccoby EE. Gender and relationships. *American Psychologist* 1990;45(4):513-520.
8. Bichara ID. Play and gender issues in rural and urban Brazilian contexts. In: Bastos AC, Uriko K & Valsiner J, eds. *Cultural dynamics of women's lives*. Charlotte, NC; 2012: 197-208.
9. Eibl-Eibesfeldt I. *Human ethology*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter: 1989.
10. Goldstein J. Aggressive toy play. In: Pellegrini AD, ed. *The future of play theory*. New York; 1995: 127-147.
11. Humphreys AP, Smith PK. Rough and tumble, friendship and dominance in schoolchildren: evidence for continuity and change with age. *Child Development* 1987;58:201-212.
12. Pellegrini AD, Smith PK. Physical activity play: the nature and function of a neglected aspect of play. *Child Development* 1998;69(3):577-598.
13. Edwards CP. Children's play in cross-cultural perspective: a new look at the six cultures study. *Cross Cultural Research* 2000;34:318-338.
14. Bjorklund DF, Pellegrini AD. Child development and evolutionary psychology. *Child Development* 2000;71:1687-1708.
15. Humphreys AP, Smith PK. Rough-and-tumble in preschool and playground. In: Smith PK, ed. *Play in animals and humans*. New York: Basil Blackwell; 1984:241-269.
16. Smith PK. Social and pretend play in children. In: Pellegrini AD & Smith PK, eds. *The nature of play: Great apes and humans*. New York: Guilford Press; 2005:173-209.
17. Carvalho AMA, Smith PK, Hunter T, Costabile A. Playground activities for boys and girls: some developmental and cultural trends in children's perception of gender differences. *Play and Culture* 1990;3(4):343-347.
18. Leacock E. At play in African villages. In: Bruner JS, Jolly A & Sylva K, eds. *Play - Its role in development and evolution*. London: Penguin Books; 1978:466-473.
19. Gaskins S. Children's daily activities in a Mayan village: A culturally grounded description. *Cross-Cultural Research* 2000;34(4):375-389.
20. Göncü A, Mistry J., Mosier C. Cultural variations in the play of toddlers. *International Journal of Behavioral Development* 2000;24(3):321-329.

21. Larson RW, Verma S How children and adolescents spend time across the world: work, play, and developmental opportunities. *Psychological Bulletin* 1999;125(6): 701-736.
22. Gosso Y, Otta E, Morais MLS, Ribeiro FJL, Bussab VSR. Play in hunter-gatherer society. In: Pellegrini AD & Smith PK, eds. *The nature of play: Great apes and humans*. New York: Guilford; 2005: 213-253.
23. Kamei N. Play among Baka children in Cameroon. In: Hewlett BS & Lamb ME, eds. *Hunter-gatherer childhoods: evolutionary, developmental and cultural perspectives*. New Jersey: Transaction Publishers; 2005:342-359.
24. Lancy, D.F. *Playing on the mother ground: Cultural routines for children's development*. New York: Guilford Press; 1996.
25. Shostak M. *Nisa: the life and words of a !Kung woman*. Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1981.
26. Van der Voort THA, Valkenburg PM. Television's impact on fantasy play: a review of research. *Developmental Review* 1994; 14: 27-51.
27. Takeuchi M. Children's play in Japan. In J. L. Roopnaire, J. E. Johnson, & F. H. Hooper, eds. *Children's play in diverse cultures* . Albany: State University of New York Press; 1994: 51-72.
28. Veitch J, Salmon J & Ball K. Children's active free play on local neighborhoods: a behavioral mappint study. *Health education research* 2008;23 (5):870-879.
29. Handt S, Cao X, Mokhtarian P. Neighborhood design and children's outdoor play: Evidence from Northern California. *Children, youth and environment* 2008;18(2):160-179.

Play and Disability

Vickii B. Jenvey, BA, MEd, PhD

Monash University, Australia

June 2013

Introduction and Subject

This article identifies the main groups of disabilities present in early childhood and considers how those disabilities affect children's development and engagement in play.

Disabilities refer to impairments, limitations or restrictions to one or more of children's physical, cognitive, sensory, language, speech, communication, behavioural and/or social functions.^{1,2,3}

Disabilities can be mild to severe, according to how much core mobility, communication and self-care activities are affected.¹ Between 3.65% and 4% of 0- to 5-year-old children in developed countries are disabled, with higher prevalence among boys.^{1,2,3}

Typically developing children engage in solitary and social play and find play pleasurable.^{4,5} Play has different forms – locomotor, object, language, pretence and sociodramatic⁵ – readily recognised by children and adults.⁶ For some children, disabilities affect how often and what they play or whether they play at all.

Studying play in disabled children is challenging, because of existing debates in play and disability research.⁷ In play research, debate focuses on potential developmental functions of different play forms.⁶ In disability research, inconsistencies exist in classifying disabilities, and in recruiting disabled research participants.^{7,8} Studying play in multiply disabled children is especially challenging, because of difficulty in understanding the unique or interactive affect each disability has on children's play. Knowledge of disabled children's play has accrued incidentally from studying other aspects of disabled children's behaviour.⁹

Research Context and Results

Disabilities in language, speech and communication disorders are the most common types of disabilities in early childhood.¹⁰ This is not surprising given that language, speech and communication delays are often comorbid with other disabilities.^{11,12} Some language, speech or communication disabilities result from acquired brain injuries to language, speech and

communication regions.¹³ Insights into the effects of injuries to these areas suggest that, the more severe the injury, the more delayed children's play, especially pretence and sociodramatic play.¹⁰

Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is one of the most widely investigated disabilities to affect children's language, speech and communication. ASD children, besides language and communication delays, have significant impairments to social functioning and many have repetitive and stereotyped behaviours. Others have anomalies in posture and gait.¹⁴ Symptoms, skill deficits and impairment severity vary enormously among ASD children.¹⁴

Posture and gait anomalies in ASD children impair locomotor play.¹⁴ Restricted and repetitive behaviours, either self-focussed (e.g., finger flipping) or with a preferred object (e.g. stroking a favourite toy), affect most functionality in all or most play forms: locomotor, object, language and even pretend play.¹⁴ ASD children have significant delays in eye gaze, facial expression, gesture, imitation and turn taking, which form the substratum of sociability and facilitate sociodramatic play. When observed in social classroom settings, ASD children are more often unoccupied onlookers and engage less in pretend and sociodramatic play than typically developing peers.¹⁵

Children with physical disabilities, for example, cerebral palsy (CP), have mild-severe motor delays affecting mobility, posture and strength¹⁶ needed for locomotion and exploration of their surroundings. Locomotion helps to develop spatial understanding.¹¹ Severely disabled children with CP need assistance with mobility, restricting exploration¹⁶ and affecting the development of locomotor and object play. Many children with CP also have impairments in sensory and language functions,¹⁶ restricting social play. For some of them, opportunities to play are restricted to playful contexts set up and controlled by adults for instruction.⁹ Their opportunities to develop play skills are incidental to learning in these interventions. Children with CP are usually time poor, because of time spent in adult-structured activities that preclude opportunity for play or leisure activities.¹⁶ Severe forms of CP affect children's development of gestures and emotional expression, limiting or even precluding pretence and sociodramatic play.¹⁷

Children with intellectual disabilities (ID) have delays in intellectual functioning (learning, reasoning, problem solving) and adaptive behaviours needed for everyday living.¹² Such children develop play forms more slowly than typically developing children, and spend less time playing with others,¹⁸ perhaps because many of them have language delays and/or sensory impairments.¹² When adults modelled play, children with ID engaged less in locomotor play, less toy play and

less play with children than typically developing children.⁷ However, when given opportunities to initiate their own play without adults, they played more with other children, used more complex language and engaged more in pretend and sociodramatic play than when adults structured activities.⁷

Visually impaired and blind children have concomitant delays in motor development, which impact upon mobility and spatial understanding.¹⁹ Looking, reaching for and grasping objects promotes exploration and object play and contributes to spatial development.¹⁹ Visually impaired children use tactile and auditory cues to locate, reach for and grasp objects. This develops later in visually impaired children, resulting in locomotor, object and social play delays.¹⁹ Motion sensors that emit audible signals in response to sensors attached to children have been adapted to assist blind children to navigate their environments safely and develop spatial awareness.²⁰ Visually impaired children may develop idiosyncratic gesture and facial expressions, because they cannot observe the gestures and expressions that others use in communication.²¹ It has been asserted that visually impaired children have delays in pretence and social play comparable to play delays of autistic children.²¹ Yet there is evidence that blind children's level of symbol play can be comparable to age and IQ matched non-handicapped peers.²¹ Social skills of children, not vision, predicted the level of symbolic play.²¹

Hearing impaired and deaf children experience delayed language acquisition, if their hearing impairment remains undetected and there is no intervention to teach oral or sign language.²² Hearing impaired children maintain joint attention and lip read to sustain social play with playmates using oral language, which are challenging tasks for young children.²² Deaf children can have delays in gesture and vocalisations compared with hearing children, because they do not hear oral cues that place the gestures in its social context.²² Signing and oral language used proficiently by young bilingual deaf children enabled conversations with others and led to *Theory of Mind (ToM)* performance comparable to hearing children.²³ Implications of these findings for the role of ToM in hearing impaired children's play development is speculative, because we do not yet understand the role of ToM in play, especially pretend and sociodramatic play.²⁴

Research Gaps

There are inconsistencies in classification of the same disability in different studies affecting generalisability of research findings. Diagnostic criteria of different categories of disability (e.g., CP, ASD, ID) encompass broad symptoms of varying severity. Many children thus classified have

additional delays characteristic of other disabilities. There is a need to develop rigorous classification of disability in early childhood.⁸

Many children have multiple disabilities making it difficult for play researchers to design research that informs them about how each disability uniquely or interactively affects children's play. Disabled children can have similar delays in play, associated with distinct disabilities that have different aetiologies and life courses.

Comparison studies within disability groups are needed, because individual differences, for example, in blind children's social skilfulness,²² and ID children's temperament,^{25,26} affect play behaviours but are rarely controlled for in disability and play research.

Information about disabled children's play is often reported incidentally to main findings of adult modelled interventions designed to teach disabled children many different skills within playful contexts using toys.^{22,24} There is a need to focus on disabled children's play behaviours per se to understand how disability affects play development.

Conclusion

There is evidence that even children with severe and multiple disabilities can engage in some or all play forms during early childhood. There are, however, conflicting findings about the level of play development achieved by children with different disabilities. Methodological shortfalls in both play and disability research have contributed to this uncertainty. Information about play elicited during training and intervention studies provide only incidental evidence about the effect of particular disability on children's play development, yet have the potential to provide valuable insights into the role of play in development.

Implications

All signatory nations are obliged to ensure that all the rights of their children are protected, as enshrined in United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child.²⁷ Disabled children have the right to receive special care and support to ensure they reach their full developmental potential (Article 21) and all children have the right to play, rest, recreation and leisure (Article 31). The goal should be to foster self-initiated play in an adequately provisioned and physically safe environment for disabled children. It is important to encourage play while remaining realistic about limitations and restrictions of children's disabilities. Children with multiple disabilities

present special challenges when structuring environments appropriately and safely, selecting appropriate toys and adapting emerging technologies that might serve these goals. It is also important to make sure that adults are not overly controlling during play interventions to enable the development of self-expression and independence in disabled children's play.

References

1. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Disability updates: children with disabilities*, Bulletin 42, 2009:1-14. www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=6442459930 Accessed June 3, 2013.
2. Boyle CA, Boulet S, Schieve L, Cohen RA, Blumberg SJ, Yeargin-Allsopp M, Visser S, Kogan MD. Trends in the Prevalence of Developmental Disabilities in US Children, 1997–2008. *Pediatrics* 2011; 127:1034-1042.
3. Blackburn CM, Spencer NJ, Read JM. Prevalence of childhood disability and the characteristics and circumstances of disabled children in the UK: secondary analysis of the Family Resources Survey. *BMC Pediatrics* 2010; 10:21.
4. Jenvey VB. Children and their need to play. *Journal of Royal Australasian Institute of Parks and Recreation* 1992, 28: 1-6.
5. Smith, PK, Pellegrini, A. Learning through play. In: Tremblay, RE, Bar, RG, Peters, Red, Boivin, M. eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal Quebec: Centre for Excellence for Early Childhood Development: 2012:1-6. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/Smith-PellegriniANGxp.pdf>. Accessed 1/10/12.
6. Turnbull J, Jenvey VB. Criteria used by adults and children to categorize subtypes of play. *Early Child Development and Care* 2006; 176: 539–551.
7. Jenvey VB Jenvey HL. Modelled, free play and toy type: Association with sociability, play and language usage among intellectually disabled and typically developing children. In: M.T. Maher, ed. *Special Education in the 21st Century*. Hauppauge, NY: Nova Publishers; 2010:37-66.
8. Jensen EC, Colver AF, Mackie, PC Jarvis SN. Development and validation of a tool to measure the impact of childhood disabilities on the lives of children and their families. *Child: Care Health and Development* 2003; 29:24-34.
9. Pennington L, Golbart J, Marshall J. Interaction training for conversational partners for children with cerebral palsy: a systematic review. *International Journal of Speech and Language Disorders* 2004; 39:151-170.
10. American Speech Language and Hearing Association. Incidence and prevalence of communication disorders and hearing loss in children. Washington: DC, ASLHA: 2008.
11. Adolph KE, Berger, SE. Physical and motor development. In: Damon W, Lerner R, eds. and Kuhn D, Siegler R, vol. eds, *Handbook of Child Psychology, Vol 2, Perceptual and cognitive development*, 6th ed. NY; Wiley, 2006.
12. Schalock R L, Coulter EM, Craig P, et al. *Intellectual Disability: Definition, Classification, and Systems of Support*. 11th ed. Washington, DC: American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities; 2010.
13. La Pointe L, Murdoch B, Stierwalt J. (2010). *Brain-based communication disorders: Essentials*. San Diego: CA; Plural Publishing.
14. Interagency Autism Coordinating Committee. IACC/OARC Autism Spectrum Disorder Publications Analysis: The Global Landscape of Autism Research, Washington, DC: Interagency Autism Coordinating Committee, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2012:July. <http://iacc.hhs.gov/publications-analysis/july2012/index.shtml>. Accessed June 3, 2013.
15. Leekman S, Prior M, Uljarevic M. Restricted and repetitive behaviours in autism spectrum disorders: A review of research in the last decade. *Psychological Bulletin* 2011;137: 562-593.
16. Raina P, O'Donnell M, Rosenbaum P. The health and well-being of caregivers of children with cerebral palsy. *Pediatrics* 2005; 115 e626-36.

17. Missiuna C, Pollock N. Play deprivation in children with physical disabilities: the role of the occupational therapist. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy* 1999;45:881-888.
18. Cicchetti D, Beeghly M, Weiss-Perry B. Symbolic development in children with Down syndrome and in children with autism: An organizational, developmental psychopathology perspective. In Slade A, Wolf D, eds. *Children at play*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 1994: 206-237.
19. Hatton DD, Bailey DB, Burchinal MR, Ferrell KA. Developmental growth curves of preschool children with vision impairment. *Child Development* 1997; 68:788-806.
20. Velázquez R. Wearable assistive devices for the blind. In: Lay-Ekuakille A, S.C.Mukhopadhyay, eds. *Wearable and Autonomous Biomedical Devices and Systems for Smart Environment. Issues and Characterization, LNEE 75*, Springer; 2010: 331-349.
21. Bishop M, Hobson RP, Lee A. Symbolic play in congenitally blind children. *Developmental Psychopathology* 2005; 17:447-465.
22. Goldin-Meadow S. *Hearing gesture: How our hands help us think*. Boston, MA: Harvard University Press; 2005.
23. Meristo M, Falkman KW, Hjelmquist E. Language access and theory of mind reasoning: Evidence from deaf children in bilingual environments. *Developmental Psychology* 2007; 43: 1156-1169.
24. Newton E, Jenvey VB. Play and theory of mind: associations with social competence in young children. *Early Child Development and Care* 2011; 181:761-773.25.
25. Holmes RM, Procaccino JK. Autistic children's play with objects, peers and adults in a classroom setting. In: Clark CD, ed. *Transactions at play*. Lanham: MD:University Press of America; 2009: 86-103.
26. Zion E Jenvey VB. Temperament and social behaviour at home and school among typically developing children and children with an intellectual disability. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research* 2006; 50: 445-456.
27. UN General Assembly. Convention on the Rights of the Child, 20 November 1989, United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 1577, p. 3, Available at: <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/3ae6b38f0.html>. Accessed June 3, 2013

Play's Potential in Early Literacy Development

James F. Christie, PhD, Kathleen A. Roskos, PhD

Arizona State University, USA, John Carroll University, USA

June 2013, Éd. rév.

Introduction

Play in the preschool years has the potential to provide young children with a highly engaging and meaningful context for learning essential early literacy concepts and skills. The potential exists because theoretically, dramatic play and literacy share higher order, cognitive processes such as imaging, categorizing and problem solving.^{1,2,3} Research interest in a play-literacy connection appeared as early as 1974,⁴ but surged during the 1990s – most likely inspired by new insights into the foundations of literacy before schooling.^{5,6} Play, as a developmentally-appropriate activity, meshed perfectly with emergent literacy, a new insight on literacy development, and the play-literacy connection became one of the most heavily-researched areas of early literacy learning and instruction in the late 20th century.⁷ However, this momentum was lost during the first decade of the new century, as research on the play-literacy relationship slowed dramatically.⁸

Subject

As in other areas of early childhood development, the “classic” theories of Piaget⁹ and Vygotsky¹⁰ provide strong theoretical frameworks for investigating play-literacy relationships. Observations derived from a Piagetian view emphasize the value of social pretend play for practicing and consolidating broad cognitive skills, such as symbolic representation, and emerging literacy skills, such as print awareness. This perspective also focuses on interactions between individuals and the objects in the physical environment, leading to the development of literacy-enriched play centers as an intervention strategy.^{7,11} Vygotskian theory focuses attention on the role of adults and peers in acquiring social literacy practices during play. Arguing that literacy acquisition is a social, constructive process that begins early in life, this theory posits that children develop literacy concepts and skills through everyday experiences with others, including bedtime storybook reading and pretend play.^{5,12} Although singularly these classic theories do not explain the dynamics of the play-literacy interface, i.e., how play activity influences literacy development, they do offer behavioural categories apparently shared by play and literacy, such as pretend

transformations, narrative thinking, meta-play talk, and social interaction.¹³

Key Research Questions

Research on the play-literacy connection in literacy development has generally focused on two basic relationships:

1. The relationship between play processes (language, pretense, narrative development) and early literacy skills; and
2. Relationships between the play environment – both physical and social – and early literacy activity and skills.

Research Results

Play Process. A critical cognitive connection between play and literacy is rooted in the theoretical premise that representational abilities acquired in pretend transformations (“this stands for that”) transfer to other symbolic forms, such as written language. Some research evidence supports this premise. Pellegrini,² for example, found that children’s level of pretend skill predicted their emergent writing status. In a related study Pellegrini and his associates found positive, significant relationships between three-year-old children’s symbolic play and their use of meta-linguistic verbs (i.e., verbs that deal with oral and written language activity such as talk, write, speak, read), which suggests transfer of abstract, socially defined language uses between play and literacy.¹⁴

Other researchers have pursued a narrative link between play process and literacy development. Williamson and Silvern,¹⁵ for instance, probed the benefits of thematic fantasy play (story re-enactment) on reading comprehension and found that children who engaged in more meta-play talk (out-of-role comments used to manage the play, “I’ll be the mom, and why don’t you be the baby?”) during play comprehended the stories better than those less so engaged. Other researchers have found evidence of structural parallels between play narratives and more general narrative competence. For example, Eckler and Weininger¹⁶ observed a structural correspondence between Rummelhart’s¹⁷ story grammar scheme (narrative stories have a predictable structure in which main characters set goals, encounter problems and attempt to overcome these obstacles and achieve their goals) and children’s pretend play behaviours, leading them to infer that play narratives may help children develop the building blocks of story.

Play Environment. A large body of research has focused on the literacy-enriched play center strategy in which play areas are stocked with theme-related reading and writing materials. For example, a pizza parlor play center might be equipped with wall signs (“Place Your Order Here”), menus, pizza boxes, employee name tags, discount coupons, a pencil and notepad for taking orders. Data indicate that this type of manipulation of the physical environment is effective in increasing the range and amount of literacy behaviours during play.^{22,23} Evidence also indicates that literacy-enriched play settings can result in at least short-term gains in young children’s knowledge about the functions of writing,²⁴ ability to recognize play-related print,^{25,26} and use of comprehension strategies such as self-checking and self-correction.¹¹

Research has also shown that the social environment has an impact on play-literacy connections. Several investigations have reported that teacher scaffolding increased the amount of literacy activity during play.²² Other research has focused on the peer interaction in literacy-enriched play settings.²⁷⁻²⁸ Results indicate that children use a variety of strategies such as negotiating and coaching, to help each other learn about literacy during play.

Research Gaps

Play-literacy research continues to struggle with problems of definition, particularly in defining the salient characteristics of play influential in literacy learning.³ Burghardt has made some recent progress in this regard by identifying a set of five criteria that characterizes play behaviour across species and contexts. These criteria stipulate that play behaviour is: (1) not fully functional; (2) spontaneous, voluntary, intentional, pleasurable, rewarding, reinforcing, or autotelic (“done for its own sake”); (3) incomplete, exaggerated, awkward, precocious, or involves behaviour with modified form, sequencing, or targeting; (4) performed repeatedly in a similar, but not rigidly stereotyped form; and (5) initiated when an animal (or person) is adequately fed, clothed, healthy, and not under stress.²⁹ According to Burghardt, all five of these criteria must be met in at least one respect for a behaviour to be labeled play.

Research on play and literacy also faces serious methodological issues. The line of inquiry lacks longitudinal studies, dynamic systems theoretical frameworks and modern statistical procedures for handling the complexities of play-literacy relationships.³⁰ The difficult work of controlled experimental studies to test the value-added of play in preschool language and literacy curricula is yet to be undertaken, and very little progress has been made in investigating the play-literacy connection in communities and homes. Innovative, creative studies are also needed to examine

links between play process and print concepts in multimodal, electronic texts.

Conclusions

Research has provided some evidence that play processes (e.g., the language, symbolic representation, and narratives used in play) are related to early literacy skills. In addition, research on literacy-enriched play centers indicate play environments can be engineered and enriched to enhance the literacy experiences of young children. However, we lack data on the “big” question: Does play directly contribute to literacy development? This research gap continues to widen perhaps because the science of play study has not kept pace with advances in developmental science. Most play-literacy research, for example, remains loyal to the classic theories of Piaget and Vygotsky, even though cognitive science has moved on to multidisciplinary, dynamic perspectives.^{31,32} In addition, researchers are also using outdated data collection and analysis procedures. Pellegrini and Van Rizen¹³ argue that the use of modern statistical techniques would be very helpful in teasing out causal relationships between play and development. These new theoretical and methodological approaches have the potential to regain momentum in play-literacy research.

Implications

Credible evidence supports the claim that play can serve literacy by providing settings that promote literacy activity, skills and strategies. Therefore, we recommend that ample opportunities to engage in dramatic play and literacy-enriched play settings should be standard features in early childhood programs. However, firm evidence is lacking that play activities, with or without literacy-enrichment, make lasting contributions to literacy development. With this in mind, we recommend that print-rich play centers should be just one component of the pre-K curriculum. Effective curriculums should also include age-appropriate direct instruction in core early literacy skills and teaching strategies, such as shared reading and shared writing, which provide rich opportunities for children to learn these skills in non-play settings. We also recommend that teachers make direct connections between literacy-enriched play centers and the academic parts of the curriculum, rather than having by play experiences as a “stand alone” activity. This play/curriculum integration will increase the likelihood that play experiences offer opportunities for children to practice and perfect important literacy skills and concepts.³³

References

1. Bruner J. *Beyond the information given: Studies in the psychology of knowing*. New York, NY: Norton; 1973.
2. Pellegrini AD. Relations between preschool children's symbolic play and literate behavior. In: Galda L, Pellegrini AD, eds. *Play, language, and stories: The development of literate behavior*. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex Pub. Corp.;1985:79-97.
3. Smith PK. Pretend play and children's cognitive and literacy development: sources of evidence and some lessons from the past. In: Roskos K, Christie J, eds. *Play and literacy in early childhood: Research from multiple perspectives*. 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers; 2007:3-19.
4. Wolfgang C. An exploration of the relationship between the cognitive are of reading and selected developmental aspects of children's play. *Psychology in the Schools* 1974;11(3):338-343.
5. Ferreiro E, Teberosky A. *Los Sistemas de Escritura en el Desarrollo del Nino* [Literacy before Schooling]. Goodman Castro K, trans. Exeter, NH: Heinemann; 1982.
6. Jacob, E. Learning literacy through play: Puerto Rican kindergarten children. In: Goelman H, Oberg A, Smith F, eds. *Awakening to literacy: the University of Victoria Symposium on Children's Response to a Literate Environment: Literacy before Schooling*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann; 1984:73-86.
7. Yaden D, Rowe, D, MacGillivray, L. Emergent literacy: a matter (polyphony) of perspectives. In: Kamil M, Mosenthal P, Pearson PD, Barr R, eds. *Handbook of Reading Research*. Vol. 3. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum; 2000:425-454.
8. Roskos K, Christie J, Widman S, Holding A. Three decades in: priming for meta-analysis in play-literacy research. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy* 2010;10(1):55-96.
9. Piaget, J. *Play, dreams, and imitation in childhood*. Gattegno C, Hodgson FN, trans. New York, NY: W.W. Norton & Company; 1962.
10. Vygotsky L. Play and its role in the mental development of the child. In: Bruner, J Jolly A, Sylva K, eds. *Play: Its role in development and evolution*. New York: Basic Books; 1976:537-554.
11. Neuman S, Roskos K. Literacy knowledge in practice: contexts of participation for young writers and readers. *Reading Research Quarterly* 1997;32(1):10-32.
12. Teale W, Sulzby, E. Emergent literacy as a perspective for examining how young children become writers and readers. In: Teale W, Sulzby E, eds. *Emergent literacy: Writing and reading*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex; 1986:vii-xxv.
13. Pellegrini AD, Van Ryzin M. Commentary: cognition, play and early literacy. In: Roskos K, Christie J, eds. *Play and literacy in early childhood: Research from multiple perspectives*. 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers; 2007:65-80.
14. Pellegrini AD, Galda L, Dresden J, Cox, S. A longitudinal study of the predictive relations among symbolic play, linguistic verbs, and early literacy. *Research in the Teaching of English* 1991;25(2):215-235.
15. Williamson P, Silvern S. Thematic-fantasy play and story comprehension. In: Christie J, ed. *Play and Early Literacy Development*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press; 1991:69-90.
16. Eckler J, Weininger O. Structural parallels between pretend play and narrative. *Developmental Psychology* 1989;25(5):736-743.
17. Rummelhart D. Understanding and summarizing brief stories. In: LaBerge D, Samuels SJ, eds. *Basic processes in reading: Perception and comprehension*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates; 1977:265-303.
18. Bodrova E, Leong D. *Tools of the mind: the Vygotskian approach to early childhood education*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson; 2007.
19. Diamond A, Barnett WS, Thomas J, Munro S. Preschool program improves cognitive control. *Science* 2008;318(5855):1387-1388.

20. Rowe D. Bringing books to life: the role of book-related dramatic play in young children's literacy learning. In: Roskos K, Christie J, eds. *Play and literacy in early childhood: Research from multiple perspectives*. 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers; 2007:37-63.
21. Welsch J. Playing with and beyond the story: encouraging book-related pretend play. *The Reading Teacher* 2008;62(2):138-148.
22. Morrow L, Rand M. Preparing the classroom environment to promote literacy during play. In: Christie J, ed. *Play and early literacy development*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press; 1991:141-165.
23. Neuman S, Roskos K. Literacy objects as cultural tools: effects on children's literacy behaviors during play. *Reading Research Quarterly* 1992;27(3):203-225.
24. Vukelich C. Play: a context for exploring the functions, features, and meaning of writing with peers. *Language Arts* 1993;70(5):386-392.
25. Neuman S, Roskos K. Access to print for children of poverty: differential effects of adult mediation and literacy-enriched play settings on environmental and functional print tasks. *American Educational Research Journal* 1993;30(1):95-122.
26. Vukelich C. Effects of play interventions on young children's reading of environmental print. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly* 1994; 9:153-170.
27. Christie J, Stone S. Collaborative literacy activity in print-enriched play centers: exploring the "zone" in same-age and multi-age groupings. *Journal of Literacy Research* 1999;31(2):109-131.
28. Neuman S, Roskos K. Peers as literacy informants: a description of young children's literacy conversations in play. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly* 1991;6(2):233-248.
29. Burghardt, G. Defining and recognizing play. In: Pellegrini AD, ed. *The Oxford Handbook of the Development of Play*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2011:9-18.
30. Roskos K, Christie J. Mindbrain and play-literacy connections. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy* 2011;1(1): 73-94.
31. Bransford JD, Brown AL, Cocking RR. *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience and school*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 1999.
32. Fischer K, Bidell T. Dynamic development of psychological structures in action and thought. In: Lerner RM, ed. *Handbook of Child Psychology*. 5th ed. New York: Wiley; 1998:467-561. *Theoretical Models of Human Development*. Vol 1.
33. Roskos K, Christie J. Play in the context of the new preschool basics. In: Roskos K, Christie J, eds. *Play and literacy in early childhood: Research from multiple perspectives*, 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers; 2007:83-100.

Play Therapy

Cindy Dell Clark, PhD

Rutgers University, USA

June 2013

Introduction

Play therapy draws on the proven therapeutic power of play, using professional therapists as catalysts and support to help children with their troubles through play activity. Play therapy may also be of value beyond the clinical setting, conducted through parents as well as in preschools.

Subject

How is play therapeutic?

Lay adults often view play as a medium of happy fun unrelated to troubles. The professionals who carry out play therapy have shown that play also extends to troublesome aspects of existence, including the stresses, trauma, family dysfunction, illness and other dilemmas that abound in the real experience of children. Play therapy, in which children are encouraged to act out their feelings and dilemmas through play and fantasy, draws on the power of play to give palpable expression to children's concerns. Play therapy is consistent with children's tendencies to "play out" problems outside of clinical intervention, reenacting troubling experience as a way to come to terms with conflicted feelings. Child inmates during the Holocaust pretended to be guards and prisoners, dramatizing in play concentration camp routines and killings.¹ Following Hurricane Katrina, children who saw the hurricane on television improvised play at preschool, imagining how wind and flood waters threatened pretend characters.² In play therapy the propensity for children to express dilemmas through play is channeled as a clinical intervention, supported by an adult therapist who catalyzes, but does not explicitly direct, a child's therapeutic play.

Research Context

As a mode of clinical intervention with children, play therapy established its credibility through praxis. The clinical case study has been a prevailing means of communicating the workings of play therapy. Two pioneers of clinical play therapy were Anna Freud and Melanie Klein, who argued that play was a means to adapt psychoanalysis, used with adults, to suit children. Play,

Klein argued, could substitute for the verbal free association used in adult therapy. Freud asserted that play could reveal unconscious processes, even as it accommodated mutual relating between a child and a therapist.³ Virginia Axline authored case-based explications of play therapy still in use today.⁴ Axline influenced the idea that play should provide a secure therapist-child relationship, thereby allowing the child “freedom and room to state himself in his own terms” using play.

Psychoanalyst Donald Winnicott produced case studies exemplifying the practice of play therapy as well as influential theoretical contributions about play and imagination. Winnicott’s book *The Piggle* described the treatment of a girl troubled by the birth of her younger brother, who visited Winnicott for treatment 16 times over ages two through five. A portion of Winnicott’s account of the girl known as Piggle was written by her parents, who reported that after play therapy she functioned well; Piggle’s parents speculated that play therapy had allowed her to be “understood on a deep level” and may have instilled in her a notable degree of inner judgment and insights into others. A theory of Winnicott, deriving from his clinical work, concerned the transitional object, an object (e.g., a toy, a blanket) regarded with a special status used for soothing purposes by children. Winnicott theorized that the significance of the transitional object derived from the mother-child relationship, with broad implications for children’s capacity to suspend disbelief when engaged with cultural or religious symbolism.⁶

The plentiful case records published about play therapy established its applicability to a wide range of conditions and circumstances. Among preschool-age children, play therapy has an established track record in treating separation problems, attention deficit/hyperactivity, disruptive behaviour, mood and anxiety disorders, trauma from natural disasters or violence, the stress of terminal and chronic illness, as well as countless other conditions. Play therapists work in varied settings including social services, schools and medical settings.

Play therapists are considered central to treatment. Conveying deep empathy, genuineness, and unconditional positive regard for the child contributes to a therapeutic relationship, thereby maintaining a supportive atmosphere for the child’s self-directed play. Play therapists use toys and a plethora of playful activities, but the child is empowered to choose what to play with and how to play.⁷ Play therapists actively observe and listen. They follow the child’s lead as the play proceeds, reflecting back to the child in attunement with the child’s play. Therapists respond to the child’s requests to enact pretend roles or to assist play in other ways. Play therapists are not judgmental, although they do set limits when a play action poses possible harm.

The child-directed nature of play therapy is central to its healing dynamics. Children undergoing play therapy often choose to repeat play sequences across multiple sessions of therapy.⁸ In metaphorically representing events that were originally threatening, children are able to take an active stance to control events in the reenactment, contributing a sense of empowerment or mastery over what was once unresolved and unsettling.⁹ New associations can be made to negatively charged objects or incidents through make-believe transactions that symbolize conflicts, fears or wishes, in forms that children are able to cognitively and affectively assimilate.

Meta-analyses have assessed the effectiveness of play therapy in bringing about desirable change in children.^{10,11,12} Empirical assessment studies consistently have validated play therapy as effective.¹³ A child with emotional problems treated through play therapy, as it has been shown, does better than 75-82% of untreated children.¹⁴ Of course, play therapy does not have a monopoly on mental health interventions with children, since other methods including behavioural or cognitive interventions also play a part in current treatment.

Key Research Issues

Empirical studies support the effectiveness of parental involvement in play therapy. Filial play therapy (play therapy conducted by clinically-trained parents) has been associated with an even more pronounced effect on outcomes than play therapy using professional therapists.¹⁵ This opens the possibility for play therapy to be affordable on a large scale, by training parents to use empathic understanding and responsive involvement in therapeutic play. Historical precedents for filial therapy date to Sigmund Freud¹⁶ as well as to Carl Rogers, who guided his adult daughter's use of filial therapy with a grandchild suffering from *encopresis*.¹⁷ In filial therapy, a set of playthings are put aside to be brought out strictly for use in therapeutic play, conducted on a regular and predictable schedule.

The use of trained lay therapists has also increased the accessibility of play therapy for preschool programs.¹⁸ There is promising evidence from recent empirical research that child-centered play therapy (guided by Master's degreed counselors) can dramatically reduce disruptive behaviour and aggression among impoverished children of diverse ethnicities in Head Start programs.¹⁹

Research Gaps

While play therapy's effectiveness has been established, it is still not fully clear how play therapy compares in effectiveness to other therapies, including behavioural or cognitive approaches.

Comprehensive research tracing the relative impact of various therapies on a full range of conditions is still to be completed.

Since play is a cross-culturally variable activity, it is important for research to explore culturally related issues that might pose barriers for “standard” play therapy. Materials used, procedures followed, and interpretations made may vary according to cultural context, a topic for further research.

Another germane issue for study involves the ongoing reduction of play time in the United States, including the reduction of recess in favour of increased academic instruction. Since unstructured play has proven value to exercise affective flexibility and emotional resilience, the restriction of free play for children bears close examination with regard to children’s emotional adaptation.

The therapeutic value of play, in general, justifies giving play a more prominent place in psychological and cultural research.

Conclusions

Play therapy is a form of therapeutic renewal, guided by a therapist or a trained lay person. Therapeutic play has proven value across a wide range of childhood problems. As Brian Sutton-Smith has shown, play is a viable model of adaptive human functioning, in which adaptability is achieved by the limber use of symbols and narratives.²⁰ By age three and sometimes earlier, children play out their troubles with impressive flexibility as they manipulate meanings symbolically.

Play therapy, by formalizing a context for children’s self-guided play, highlights the importance of play to adaptive healing generally. Children’s intense involvements in particular play themes can be telling indicators of underlying unresolved issues, including for physically ill children.²¹ Given time to engage in pretense freely, children playfully confront difficult meanings on their own terms. Peggy Miller’s son Kurt, as early as age two, relistened and retold the story of Peter Rabbit repeatedly in a home setting, using intriguing authorial license in his retellings. His story renditions ran in parallel with his everyday emotional concerns about misbehaviour and its anxious implications.²² Play can poetically encode what is not resolved, in an approachable and confrontable framework. Play therapy in a clinical setting enables children to address even extreme disruptions, scaffolded by an empathic and supportive adult.

References

1. Eisen, G. *Children and play in the Holocaust*. Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press; 1988.
2. Paley, V. *The Boy on the Beach: Building community through play*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press; 2010.
3. Webb, N. *Social work practice with children*. New York: Guilford Press; 2011.
4. Axline, V. *Play therapy*. New York: Ballantine Books; 1947.
5. Winnicott, D.W. *The piggle: An account of the psychoanalytic treatment of a little girl*. London: Penguin; 1977.
6. Winnicott, D.W. *Transitional objects and transitional phenomena*. In: Winnicott, D.W. *Collected Papers*. London:Tavistock; 1958.
7. Cochran, N.H., Nordling, W.J., Cochran, J.L. *Child-centered play therapy: A practical guide to developing therapeutic relationships with children*. Hoboken NJ: John Wiley and Sons; 2010.
8. Campbell, M.M., Knoetze, J.J. Repetitive symbolic play as a therapeutic process in child-centered play therapy. *International Journal of Play Therapy*. 2010;19:222-234.
9. Glazer, H.R. Filial therapy for grieving preschool children. In: Schaefer, C.E. *Play therapy for preschool children*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association; 2010:89-106.
10. Bratton, S.C., Ray, D., Rhine, T., Jones, L. The efficacy of play therapy with children: a meta-analytic review of treatment outcomes. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*. 2005;36:376-390.
11. Ray, D., Bratton, S., Rhine T., Jones, L. The effectiveness of play therapy: responding to the critics. *International Journal of Play Therapy*. 2001;10:85-108.
12. Bratton, S. Ray, D. What research shows about play therapy. *International Journal of Play Therapy*. 2000;9:47-88.
13. LeBlanc, M., Ritchie, M. A meta-analysis of play therapy outcomes. *Counseling Psychology Quarterly*, 2001;14:149-163.
14. Carr, A. *What Works With Children, Adolescents And Adults?: A Review Of Research On The Effectiveness Of Psychotherapy*. London: Routledge; 2009.
15. Porter, M.L., Hernandez-Reif, M., Jessee, P. Play therapy: a review. *Early Child Development and Care*. 2009;179:1025-1040.
16. Guerney, B. Filial therapy: description and rationale. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*. 1964;28:304-310.
17. Fuchs, N.R. Play therapy at home. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*. 1957;3:89-95.
18. Koplou, L. *Unsmiling Faces: How Preschools Can Heal*. New York: Teacher's College Press; 2007.
19. Bratton, S.C., Ceballos, P.L., Sheely-Moore, A.I., Meany-Walen, K., Pronchenko, Y., Jones, L.D. Head Start early mental health intervention: effects of child-centered play therapy on disruptive behaviors. *International Journal of Play Therapy*. 2012:Advance publication.
20. Sutton-Smith, B. *The Ambiguity of Play*. Boston: Harvard University Press; 1997.
21. Clark, C.D. *In sickness and in play: Children coping with chronic illness*. New Brunswick NJ: Rutgers University Press; 2003.
22. Miller, P.J., Hoogstra, L., Mintz, J., Fung, H., Williams, K. Troubles in the garden and how they get resolved: a young child's transformation of his favorite story. In: Nelson, C.A. ed. *Minnesota Symposia on Child Psychology: Vol. 26. Memory and affect in development*. Hillsdale NJ: Erlbaum; 1993:87-114.

Play Pedagogy and Playworlds

Sonja Baumer, PhD

University of California at San Diego, USA

June 2013

Introduction

This paper introduces play pedagogy, a novel approach in early childhood education, and Playworld, an educational practice that is inspired by this approach. Play pedagogy has been developed by Swedish scholar Gunilla Lindqvist¹ and is being currently disseminated in Sweden, Finland, the United States and Japan.

Subject

Play pedagogy advocates forms of adult and child joint play involvement that are respectful of the child's culture, creativity and spontaneity, in a way that promotes her emotional, cognitive and social development.

The founder of play pedagogy, Gunilla Lindqvist, grounds her educational approach in a lesser known work of Vygotsky, entitled "Imagination and Creativity in Childhood."² Lindqvist embraces Vygotsky's cultural approach to children's play and argues for a play-based pedagogy. In a practical realization of this approach, she and her students worked together with 3- to 8-year-old children to create Playworlds, an educational practice that includes adult-child joint pretense and dramatization of texts from children's literature combined with the production of visual art. Playworlds are dramaturgical classroom interventions that focus on emotional experience and aesthetic relation to reality through involving children and adults in staged as well as spontaneous pretend play. Children and adults bring a piece of children's literature to life through scripted and improvisational acting, costume and set design, and multimodal rehearsal and reflection.³

Problem

At the end of the 20th century, in many Western societies, young children's life and play became "segregated" into specifically designated areas of nursery rooms, playgrounds, and theme-parks. At the time, many educators and parents believed that children's play needed to be spontaneous

and free from adults' guidance and influence. They recognized the developmental significance of play and assumed that play- and child-dedicated spaces would ensure that children's play was nurtured and protected and that their development was optimized. However, in the absence of parents and educators, children's play spaces became depleted of cultural resources. Commercial toys and other objects of material culture that replace adults' presence are increasingly seen as detrimental for children's creativity and imagination.

In contrast to this trend, play pedagogy advocates adult and child joint play, in which adults provide a variety of social, emotional, cognitive and communicative resources to enrich and support children's play. Children bring to this joint play their expertise in pretend play and symbolic imagination, which help adults revitalize their playfulness and improvisational competence.

A related issue that play pedagogy also addresses is the marginalization of play in early childhood education. Despite the fact that play and other representational activities are widely seen as beneficial developmentally, the major trend in public education in industrialized countries has been to focus on teaching specific academic skills and preparing children for state-wide testing. This has led to the relegation of play and art to a minor role in K-1 curricula. In contrast, play pedagogy considers play to be a vital developmental activity in early childhood and places it in the core of preschool and early elementary school curricula.

Research Context

Playworlds translate basic tenets of play pedagogy into collaborative educational interventions that include educators, students, and consultants such as academic researchers, whose participation reflects their different yet compatible interests and agendas. Educators typically seek to expand traditional venues of their professional development and to cultivate their knowledge of and experience with drama, visual and plastic arts, and literature. Children have appeared to be motivated by the opportunity to engage in the popular activities of play and artistic creation, and to make sense of their experiences through joint involvement with adults. Academic researchers use Playworlds to better understand and examine some important questions in their area of study, such as child development, early childhood education or communication. Although guided by similar basic tenets of play pedagogy, different Playworlds have been developed to meet the specific needs of teachers and children in particular schools and particular countries. They also reflect the different theoretical and methodological

orientations of participating academic researchers who come from various disciplinary backgrounds.

Key Issues and Recent Research Results

Lindqvist and her students conducted several research projects that focused on exploring how Playworlds help children to cope with intense emotional states such as fear and anger.¹ Lindqvist's work has been carried on by her students and other scholars in Sweden and elsewhere.⁴

In Finland, for example, Playworld researchers explore the intersection between play, narrative learning and school learning. The practical concern there is the transition from preschool to formal schooling, where play is abruptly minimized and segregated from learning. Finnish researchers view Playworld as an "intermediate" form of activity where the interaction occurring between children and adults promotes the development of narrative cognition that serves as an important resource when these children enter school. Currently the empirical analysis of data from various Finnish sites focuses primarily on the sense-making process in learning, and the development of initiative and subjectivity (agency) in play interaction.^{5,6}

In the United States, researchers have focused on examining the impact of Playworld activity on the development of children and adults. Four projects have been conducted so far. The 2004-2005 Playworld was based on C. S. Lewis's novel "The Lion, The Witch and The Wardrobe." This project differed from other Playworlds in several ways: all of the researchers played major roles in the dramatic performance; it was staged at a school on a military base at a time of war; and the documentation of the entire Playworld was extremely extensive, and included the use of many different media. Finally, this study combined a pre- and posttest quasi-experimental design with participant-observer ethnography. The project yielded empirical evidence that children's participation in Playworld activity led to higher levels of narrative competence in comparison with the control group.⁷ Ethnographic data were used to identify the conditions that were conducive in facilitating social and emotional development of adults and children, specifically their understanding and management of conflicts.⁸

Japanese Playworld projects have taken place at a kindergarten in a rural area. Their main purpose was to challenge the recent tendency of Japanese educational policy that marginalizes play. Japanese projects have differed from the other Playworld projects in their emphasis on artistic activity as the medium for play. A major contribution lies in illuminating the relationship

between pretend play and art activities. Another important contribution is the explication of the internal process that teachers undergo in order to be able to connect with children in Playworlds, which is closely related to the *"Kyozaikai-Kaishaku" doctrine*.⁹ According to this doctrine, teachers should be able to link their own lived-through emotional experiences to the topic being taught. Within the Playworld projects, educators' deep emotional engagement has resulted in art pieces and play that were collaboratively produced by children and adults, and that were reflective of their diverse points of view.

Conclusions

Playworld projects have successfully addressed two key issues of contemporary childhood: the segregation of play and the marginalization of play.¹⁰ Playworld projects have been conducted internationally at multiple levels of education, from preschool to K-1 and second grades classrooms. Many researchers have found that Playworlds are highly engaging activities. Both children and adults were able to retain their motivation for the duration of the project, often as long as over months and years. Although previous research has demonstrated that Playworlds can be carried out with children from various cultures and various social situations (e.g., preschoolers in a rural setting; K-1 classroom at a military base, etc.), further research may identify additional populations for which Playworlds can be beneficial (e.g., special education students, children with mental health problems, etc.).

Implications

Children necessitate and seek multiple forms of joint involvement with adults. It is not enough for parents and educators to secure children's play spaces and to provide toys and other objects of material culture. Adults can and should play together with children. Playworlds provide a venue for children and adults to creatively interpret a text from children's literature, through visual and plastic arts, pretend play and oral narration. Research has established that Playworlds promote the development of literacy skills and foster children's interest in books and reading. For this as well as for other reasons, Playworlds and similar play-based educational interventions should have a place in early childhood curricula. Although organized by adults, Playworlds are respectful of the child's culture and her expertise. Playworlds enable adults to connect with children and provide guidance, without imposing authority, fear and hierarchy. It is not surprising, therefore, that Playworlds have proved to be a useful tool in teachers' in-service professional development and in teacher preparation.

References

1. Lindqvist G. *The aesthetics of play: A didactic study of play and culture in preschools*. Göteborg: Coronet Books; 1995.
2. Vygotsky LS. Imagination and creativity in childhood. *Journal of Russian and East European Psychology* 2004;42(1):7-97.
3. Ferholt B, Lecusay R. Adult and child development in the zone of proximal development: Socratic Dialogue in a Playworld. *Mind, Culture and Activity* 2010;17(1):59-83.
4. Nilsson M. Creative pedagogy of play - The work of Gunilla Lindqvist. *Mind, Culture and Activity* 2009;17(1):14-22.
5. Hakkarainen P. The challenges and possibilities of narrative learning approach in the Finnish early childhood education system. *International Journal of Educational Research* 2008;47(5):292-300.
6. Rainio AP. From resistance to involvement: Examining agency and control in a playworld activity. *Mind, Culture, and Activity* 2008;15(2):115-140.
7. Baumer S, Ferholt B, Lecusay R. Promoting narrative competence through adult-child joint pretense: Lessons from the Scandinavian educational practice of playworld. *Cognitive Development* 2005;20: 576-590.
8. Ferholt B. A Multiperspectival analysis of creative imagining: Applying Vygotsky's method of literary analysis to a Playworld. In: Connery C, John-Steiner V, Marjanovic-Shane A, eds., *Vygotsky and creativity: A cultural-historical approach to play, meaning-making and the arts*. New York: Peter Lang; 2010:163-180.
9. Miyazaki K. Teacher as the imaginative learner: Egan, Saitou and Bakhtin. In: Egan K, Madej K, eds. *Engaging imaginations and developing creativity in education*. Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing; 2010:33-44.
10. Marjanovic-Shane A, Ferholt B, Miyazaki K, Nilsson M, Rainio AP, Hakkarainen P, Pesic M, Beljanski-Ristic L. Playworlds - An art of development. *Play and Culture* 2011;11:3-31.

Play: Commenting on Smith & Pellegrini, Christie & Roskos, Samuelsson & Pramling, Baumer, Hart & Tannock, Gosso & Carvalho, Clark, and Jenvey

James E. Johnson, PhD, Michael Patte, PhD

The Pennsylvania State University, USA, Bloomsburg University, USA

June 2013

Introduction

Increasing attention to play during the early years is witnessed both in results from scientific studies and in the uses made of the findings by service providers and policy-makers. Disciplined inquiry into play is extensive across many important and relevant topics such as found in the papers in this chapter,¹⁻⁸ even as the depth and quality of evidence and understanding varies considerably. Moreover, how research on play is used in practical settings like school classrooms, playgrounds, nature and community centers, children's libraries and museums, hospital playrooms, and child guidance centers is complicated by different agendas, constraints, world views and conceptual frameworks among researchers, practitioners and policy-makers.⁹

The challenges of studying, advocating and using play in the field of early childhood development and education (ECDE) are further compounded by internal and external factors. Internally, with methodological and theoretical advances producing ever more answers to research questions and additions to the knowledge base, we see new research questions and the truth of the adage "the more you know, the more you realize what you don't know." Externally, the targets and needs for play research and application are made greater given the quickened pace of social, educational and technological changes, brought on by the digital revolution, global climate change, shifting demographics, and economic and political changes.

The field of ECDE has a long tradition of play-related theorizing, research and practice. The eight papers¹⁻⁸ in this chapter reinforce and extend the meaning and utility of widely accepted propositions that play is a major occupation¹⁰ (as opposed to work or business) of young children (with the caveat that the play "umbrella" includes exploration, imitation, narration, investigation, imagination, and, meta-play planning and negotiation along with play enactments). Play expression can take on many different forms by combining the four "play elements" of (1) body,

(2) object, (3) symbol use and (4) relationships; play is associated with the being and becoming of the wholechild --characterized by different but interrelated developmental dimensions/domains (e.g., emotional, social, physical, cognitive, linguistic, spiritual and moral), and that play actions and thoughts of young children are connectable to micro- and macro-contextual factors.¹¹

The papers in this chapter are diverse and do not yield to a simple unifying theme. Still, as a composite they relate to the above propositions within the literature and to the broader issues mentioned earlier. Furthermore, these research summaries together suggest three important considerations: (1) What is “quality” play and how to evaluate it in young children? (2) What is the role of the adult (i.e., teacher, parent, therapist, etc.) in ECDE play?; and (3) How differentiated are adult play beliefs and practices as children mature from birth to eight or nine years?

Research and Conclusions

The contributions in this chapter¹⁻⁸ define and describe play and its attributes and summarize literature within four areas: (1) Play and learning/development; (2) Play and teaching; (3) Cultural context; and (4) Play interventions.

Play reflects, reinforces, or generates new learning and development.¹¹ As Smith and Pellegrini¹ discuss, although play is seemingly needed by young children (i.e., the cognitive immaturity hypothesis), a prevailing “play ethos” dating back decades¹² has exaggerated its benefits; and the principles of equi-finality and epiphenomena should always be kept in mind.^{13,14} Equifinality refers to the idea that many developmental outcomes have alternative pathways (e.g., There is no one royal road to literacy). Epiphenomena signals that confounding variables obscure the role of play in learning and development. Adult tuition, verbal behaviour, social interaction, occurring at the same time as playing might be responsible for the apparent benefits of play and not necessarily the process of playing per se. Christie and Roskos² also urge caution about the putative benefits of play as they probe the dynamics of the play-literacy interface searching for moderating and mediating variables in how play processes are related to early literacy and development.

Play teaching, intervention and culture are targeted in other papers in this chapter. Samuelsson and Pramling³ also refer to the relation of play with learning and development. The concept of the playing-learning child informs the teacher’s role in the pedagogy of play (i.e., teacher guided and

directed play). Here children's meaning-making and the teacher's curricular objectives include Nordic didactics and content knowledge. Baumer⁴ continues the discussion about the pedagogy of play focusing on a particular kind of joint adult-child play "Playworlds" which was coined by Gunilla Lundqvist.¹⁵

Hart and Tannock⁵ add the sensitive topic of thematic violence in play, as in mock fighting and use of war toys, and discuss what the teacher's role should be. The authors stress the socio-emotional needs of children and they make a good point that when they exhibit thematic aggressive play it is not real aggression. Their enthusiasm for adult encouragement of thematic aggression in social pretense deserves more qualification however; the evidence is slim and suggestive at best that playful aggression supported by teachers would be "highly beneficial to child development." Furthermore, there are practical teacher concerns relating to classroom management, such as some children misunderstanding playful aggression.

Gosso and Carvalho⁶ aptly note how culture flows throughout play activities, indicate gender differences in play across cultures, and cite how more research is needed about child agency in play and cross-age peer play. There is also interesting work on cultural variations in parental belief systems about play, which can usefully augment their presentation.¹⁶

Clark's⁷ focus on play therapy balances the earlier entries on play and education with a clear statement about play as healing and its socio-emotional benefits, together with its potential educational or learning benefits. Child well-being (and suffering and how to alleviate it) deserve more attention in play research. Finally, Jenvey⁸ discusses methodological problems that beset the study of the play of children with disabilities; she informs the reader about how different impairments affect play. All children whatever their abilities or disabilities have a right to play, as enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.¹⁷

Development and policy implications

Although a science of play is emerging,¹⁸ obstacles prevail in trying to translate research into new practice and policy; politics and the status quo often stand in the way of change and improvement. Often the agendas of play advocates, such as those for recess in the schools, are driven by much more than research findings. Improvement in turning research into new positive play realities for children in practical settings are more likely to happen by filling the research gap in three areas.

Play evaluation

The literature has attempted to articulate what play is and its attributes and forms in ECDE much more than it has grappled with what is good play.¹⁹ Teachers, therapists and parents need to know more about what to aim for as the next step in a child's play skill.²⁰ If one is queasy about measuring play quality, perhaps at least calibrating component social and mental skills undergirding play performance can be scrutinized and some yardsticks can be used to gage progress in young children's play actions, words and thoughts. Authentic holistic, transactional, dynamic assessment as an alternative to traditional assessment can include evidence about a child's play skills and interests; but this needs to be done accurately, reliably and validly.

Adult roles

Policy and practice guidelines need to be informed by research on the fine lines between respecting the child's agenda in play and failing to provide adult support and scaffolding. Attention to cultural and individual differences is paramount in importance. Adult agendas and child agendas must be balanced; how to solve the dilemma of meeting both the child's mental and learning needs and socio-emotional needs; how to simultaneously accept and challenge the child at play and learning, at doing and making, inventing and imagining, when the child is alone, in small and large groups, at the horizon of new consciousness.²¹ Adult involvement in technology play and nature play of children are both important; enriching the play of immigrants and language learners helps these little children become little students in schools.¹⁰

Shifts over the ECDE range

Play expectations and play benefits are not the same across the early learning continuum from birth to age 8 or 9 years, the traditional definition of ECDE. Play is a medium and context for learning during the early years. Play serves as a "leading activity" for mental development from birth to five years;²² but schoolwork and subject matter mastery assumes this role in intellectual development as the child enters the latter stages of the early childhood education age range.²³ More research is needed to fill the gaps in what is known about the changing forms and functions of playful learning and learn-full play over the entire range of ECDE. The same applies to the study of cultural contexts, disabilities and play, play therapy and sundry other important play and early childhood topics.

References

1. Smith PK, Pellegrini A. Learning through play. Rev ed. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-6. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/Smith-PellegriniANGxp2.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
2. Christie JF, Roskos KA. Play's potential in early literacy development . Ed rev. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-6. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/Christie-RoskosANGxp2.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
3. Pramling Samuelson I, Pramling N. Play and learning. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-6. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/Pramling-Samuelson-PramlingANGxp1.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
4. Baumer S. Play pedagogy and playworlds. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-5. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/BaumerANGxp1.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
5. Hart JL, Tannock MT. Young children's Play fighting and use of war toys. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-6. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/Hart-TannockANGxp1.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
6. Gosso Y, Carvalho AMA. Play and cultural context. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-7. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/Gosso-CarvalhoANGxp1.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
7. Clark CD. Play therapy. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-6. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/ClarkANGxp1.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
8. Jenvey VB. Play and disability. Smith PK, topic ed. In: Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, eds. *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Montreal, Quebec: Centre of Excellence for Early Childhood Development and Strategic Knowledge Cluster on Early Child Development; 2013:1-6. Available at: <http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/documents/JenveyANGxp1.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2013.
9. Sigel I. Research to practice redefined. In: Damon, W. & Lerner, R. *Handbook of Child Psychology*. 6th ed. New York: Wiley; 2006:1017-1023. Child Psychology in Practice. Vol 4.
10. Paley V. The importance of fantasy, fairness, and friendship in children's play: An interview with Vivian Gussin Paley. *American Journal of Play* 2009;2(2):121-138.
11. Johnson J, Christie J, Wardle F. *Play, development, and early education*. New York: Pearson, 2005.
12. Smith PK. Children's play and its role in early development: A re-evaluation of the 'Play Ethos'. In: Pellegrini AD, ed. *Psychological bases for early education*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.; 1988:207-226.
13. Smith PK. *Children and play*. New York, NY: J. Wiley, 2010.
14. Lillard AS, Lerner MD, Hopkins EJ, Dore RA, Smith ED, Palmquist CM. The impact of pretend play on children's development: A review of the evidence. *Psychological Bulletin* 2013;139(1):1-34.
15. Lundqvist G. *The aesthetics of play: A didactic study of play and culture in preschools*. Uppsala, Sweden: Uppsala Studies

in Education, 1995.

16. Roopnarine J. Cultural variations in beliefs about play, parent-child play, and children's play: Meaning for child development. In: Pellegrini AD, ed. *The Oxford handbook of the development of play*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2011; 19-37
17. International Play Association (IPA) (2010, October, 17). Summary report from the global consultations on the child's right to play. Retrieved from: <http://article31.ipaworld.org/>.
18. Brown S, Tulac M. (2012). Encyclopedia of Play Science. Available at: http://www.scholarpedia.org/article/Encyclopedia_of_Play_Science. Accessed June 3, 2013.
19. Johnson J, Celik S, Al-Mansour M. Play in early childhood education. In: Saracho O, Spodek B, eds. *Handbook of Research on the Education of Young Children*, 3rd ed. New York: Routledge; 2013:265-274.
20. Trawick-Smith J. Teacher-child play interactions to achieve learning outcomes: Risks and opportunities. In: Pianta R ed. *Handbook of early childhood education*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press; 2012: 259-277.
21. Johnson J. Play provisions and pedagogy in curricular approaches. In: Brooker L, Edwards S, Blaise M. *SAGE Handbook of play and learning in early childhood*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications. In press.
22. Elkonin DB. Psychology of play (I). *Journal of Russian and Eastern European Psychology* 2005;43(1).
23. Fler, M. "Conceptual play": Foregrounding imagination and cognition during concept formation in early years education. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood* 2011;12(3):224-240.