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"LARO TAYO!": PARENT-CHILD AND PEER PLAY ACTIVITIES OF FILIPINO CHILDREN AND RELATED VARIABLES

By

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ABSTRACT

"LARO TAYO!": PARENT-CHILD AND PEER PLAY ACTIVITIES OF FILIPINO CHILDREN AND RELATED VARIABLES

By

Marita Depante Bernardo

This study identified differences in play activities engaged in by children varying in sex, age and socioeconomic status. Frequency of parent-child play was correlated with parental acceptance and child's self-concept. Sex, age and socioeconomic differences in parent-child play activities were described. Lastly, differences in play and other social behaviors of children varying in popularity and self-concept were identified.

Four hundred thirty-seven first and fourth graders from two public and two private coeducational schools completed a Home Play Survey, a sociometric instrument, the Child Parental-Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire and the Pasao Self-Concept Scale. Based on the results of the sociometric measure, 32 selected children were observed during recess.

Results of the Home Play Survey showed that there were age, sex and socioeconomic differences in play activities at home. These differences could be accounted for by social and lifestyle variations among families and by cognitive and social development of children. Among the fourth graders, more frequent parent-child play was associated with more

parental acceptance indicating that parent-child play could be a cause or an indication of positive parent-child relations. Among the first graders, more frequent parent-child play was associated with more parental rejection and higher self-concept. The latter indicates that this interaction can enhance competencies and relationships. The PARQ scores could have a different interpretation for younger children and that moderate parental acceptance is associated with more frequent parent-child play.

Different models for predicting self-concept, with parent-child play and parental rejection as predictors were separately presented for Grade One and Grade Four children.

Sex-typing was observed in parent-child play activities. There were fewer play activities among the lower class older children than among the middle class and the lower class younger children.

The data from observations showed that popular children were more social than unpopular children. Unpopular children with high self-concept tended to be isolated. The play activities and interactions of unpopular children with low self-concept were more motorically active and aggressive compared to play of popular children.

Recommendations regarding methodology, applications and topics for future studies were made.

* Filipino for "let's play"

To my parents, Mariano and Socorro Bernardo,
with all my love.

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Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This study describes play patterns of male and female Filipino children of two grade levels (first and fourth grades) and of low and middle socioeconomic status. Play activities at home were determined from children's responses to a questionnaire, and free play activities in school were determined from observations of selected children during recess. These play patterns were related to children's opportunity to play with their parents, the parent-child relationship, the child's self-concept, and their popularity with peers.

Differential patterns of play were explored in this study. Western literature has already described clear patterns. Several factors identified in this literature were examined in the play activities of Filipino children. These factors included sex, age, and socioeconomic differences in play. They also included interpersonal or social variables as well as intrapersonal variables such as personality.

* Filipino for "let's play"

Sex differences in play activities are evident in early childhood. Boys play more physical games. When they engage in symbolic play, the types of roles played also show marked sex differences (Rubin et al., 1983).

Play patterns and opportunities for play also differ among the various social classes. The social forms of play appear to be more evident among the middle and upper classes. This is partly due to less interactions between parents and children of the lower class and of the fewer opportunities afforded to children by these parents (Smilansky (1968) and Udwin & Shmukler (1981, cited in Johnson, et al., 1983).

With age, there is an increasing social component to play (Smith, 1977). This is consistent with the overall pattern of increasing socialization in childhood (Gottman, 1986 cited in Hetherington & Parke, 1986). There are also marked changes in terms of complexity and cognitive maturity again consistent with cognitive development in childhood (Kalverboer, 1977; O'Connel and Bretherton, 1984).

Relationship of play to several interpersonal and intrapersonal variables was also explored. The development of social skills through play has been inferred in studies relating social competence and social types of play (Rubin et al., 1983). Social competence could be enhanced as social play further provides the opportunity for social interactions. In two types of social play, for example,

symbolic or make-believe play, as well as games-with-rules, players learn and practice social roles and expectations (Mendez, Jocano, Rolda & Matela, 1984; Piaget, 1972). The correlational nature of this relationship is evident in the popular child's engagement in more social forms of play (Connoly, 1980, cited in Rubin et al.)

While social play as a correlate of social forms of play has been largely explored in terms of peer interactions, another interesting context would be that of parent-child relations. In the generally authoritarian Filipino family, the context of play is the one activity where parent and child are equals. Engagement in such a presumably enjoyable and egalitarian activity could enhance the relationship between parent and child.

Development of self-concept could be an indirect consequence of engaging in play in childhood. Early socialization is an important source of the development of self-concept. Children base their perception of themselves on how they believe others see them. Perception of parental warmth could produce a more positive view of oneself. If parent-child play and parent-child relationship are related to each other, it would be interesting to see how they contribute to a child's self-concept, whether separately or in combination. In peer relations, a child's view of oneself in relation to his or her peers would be related to his or her popularity. A child's view of oneself could be

indirectly related to play behaviors as differences in play behaviors have been found to be related to popularity.

This study is exploratory as hypothesized relationships between patterns of play and selected variables have largely been based on western literature. Findings of either similar or different patterns of Filipino children's play activities would be an important contribution to the growing literature in Filipino Psychology, as well as to cross-cultural research.

It is the belief of this researcher that play is a valuable and necessary activity in childhood. Relating play activities to interpersonal relationships, and with the intrapersonal dimension of self-concept could provide evidence for this belief.

This study has several objectives:

1. To describe play activities of Filipino children at home,
2. To relate frequency of parent-child play with the variables: child's self-concept and the parent-child relationship, and
3. To describe play behaviors of popular and unpopular children in school during recess.

Review of Related Literature

This present study is aimed at describing Filipino children's play activities. Patterns of play, variations in play, and possible relationships with selected variables are explored. To provide background for the areas of interest, the literature reviewed in this section includes significance of play, categories of play behaviors, patterns according to age, sex and socioeconomic status, play variations in the context of different settings and adult involvement, the Filipino context, and methodological issues in research on play.

Significance of play

It is now commonly believed that play must have some important developmental outcomes. Developmental psychologists have given this issue increasing attention, finding cognitive and social benefits. While many are still speculative, the following are among the topics for which there is empirical evidence showing benefits of play.

Development of social skills

Social play is believed to promote social skills such as cooperation, sharing, followership and flexibility (Athey, 1984). Sociodramatic play promotes social awareness, flexibility in approaching different situations (Smilansky, 1968), and rehearsal of adult roles (Mendez, Jocano, Rolda & Matela, 1984).

There is some empirical support for the social benefits of sociodramatic play. Sociodramatic play tutoring had positive effects on group cooperation (Rosen, 1974), and increased positive social interactions (Smith, Dalgleish & Herzmark, 1981, cited in Johnson et al., 1987) and empathy (Saltz, Dixon & Johnson, 1977, cited in Johnson et al., 1987). Connolly's (1980) observational study of children at play found that incidence of sociodramatic play significantly predicted performance on measures of social competence, popularity, and role-taking activity (cited in Rubin, et al., 1983).

In games with rules, children learn to accept prearranged rules and to adjust to them (Smilansky, 1968); they learn to control their behaviors and reactions within given limits. Even rough-and-tumble play has been proposed to have positive values. Hartup (1977) and Johnson et al. (1987) claim that in rough-and-tumble play children learn to control impulses so as to be able to participate appropriately within the group. Among popular children, it is a form of playful provocation, a means to elicit a response from another (Pellegrini, 1989). However, the socializing aspect of rough-and-tumble play affects children of different dispositions in different ways. For aggressive children, rough-and-tumble play progresses into aggression (Pellegrini, 1989) and seems to be an act of establishing dominance.

Several studies have found negative correlations between some types of play and social skills. Using teacher ratings, Christie & Johnsen (1989) found group play to be related to social maladjustment. In their study, the researchers point out the strong influence of context (i.e. teacher attitudes) on this unexpected finding. The teachers find group play to be disruptive and less directly related to academic tasks than solitary activities such as reading. Thus it was looked upon negatively by these teachers.

Rubin's study (1985) clarifies the importance of social play for social skills to appear. In his study, even dramatic play, if it is solitary, is not associated with improvement in social competence. It appears that for dramatic play to have positive social benefits, it must occur with others.

Social relationships: Peer play

Few studies have looked at how play promotes relationships between the child and significant others. Most studies describe how children play with peers and adults, but not how engaging in play with each other is related to the quality of their relationships.

In peer relations, Sutton-Smith (1984) asserts that "play is about the struggle for identity within the dominance-subordination domains of one's peers" (p.61). Play is seen as a medium for finding a niche in the context

of peer relations. These speculations point to the positive role play may have in establishing relationships. Empirical support is needed to establish the validity of such speculations.

Social relations: Parent-child play

Athey (1984) speculates that the body contact in infant play with adults builds a sense of security and belonging. Atienza (1982) suggests that games played by the family encourage mutual acceptance and affection, and that the child is more likely to feel that parents who play with him or her "really care".

In a review of studies on parent-child play, Henderson (1984) listed some conclusions. First, a secure attachment to a caregiver provides the young child a base from which to explore. Sorce & Emde (1981, cited in Cohen, 1987) observed that when the mother is in the same room as the child but could not be "used" by the child (i.e. mother buried her head in a newspaper), the child's play and explorations were limited. Van der Kooij (1989a) also found that when highly stimulated by parents to play, children show higher play intensity.

Secondly, adults may facilitate play by focusing the child on novel objects. Mothers show explicit teaching with play with objects (Dunn & Dale, 1984; Dunn & Wooding, 1977). Belsky, Goode & Most (1980, cited in Cohen, 1981) observed that children played most competently when mothers

focus their children's attention to what the toys were and what could be done with them. Mothers also appeared to be sensitive to children's capacities. With younger children, they used more physical strategies such as demonstrating an object; with older ones they were more verbal.

Thirdly, adult participation facilitates play. Dunn & Wooding (1977) found that with the mothers' joint attention, length of play increased. It also provided a forum in which verbal exchange between mother and child is rich.

O'Connel & Bretherton (1984) observed facilitation of play by mothers. However, they claim that it is the child who actually determines the effectiveness of mother's instruction. Thus while adult involvement appears to help, the child is not a passive recipient of such interaction.

And lastly, adult involvement facilitates social skills. In the first year of life, mothers provide attention-maintaining stimulation (Fitzgerald, Strommen & McKinney, 1982). Caregivers actively encouraged mothering play among 2-year olds (Miller & Garvey, 1984). This is significant in that it is the first step towards adopting a social role other than one's own.

In all of these studies, very little mention is made of fathers, usually simply describing the more physical play of fathers with their children. This neglect is surprising since fathers may actually spend more time playing with their children in proportion to total time spent with them

(Jurilla, 1986). Thus it is important that a study on parent-child play interactions and relations include the father as well.

Mental health: the self

Play is conceptualized to be an empowering activity. According to Johnson, Christie & Yawkey (1987), it is self-enabling; it enhances the self as an autonomous and functioning person who can control events. The individual is seen as "kept in balance" by the activity (Sutton-Smith & Kelly-Byrne, 1984).

The importance of play to mental health is indirectly supported by findings relating early peer relations and adult mental health problems (Hartup, 1977). Peer rejection or poor peer relations significantly predict future problems. And as play occurs mainly in the context of peer relations, it could be said that failure to play with peers is a good indicator of poor peer relations. This, in turn, subsequently predicts future mental health problems.

Sex-roles

Children are socialized into their respective sex-roles very early in life. Differences can be seen in the toys bought for them (Block, 1981; Rubin et al., 1983) and in parent-child play. Dunn & Dale (1984) observed mothers and their 2-year olds. They found that mothers initiated nurturing and household themes more often to their daughters than to their sons (34% of playing time with daughters vs.

8% with sons). Actions to vehicles on the other hand showed a reverse trend (15% with sons, 0% with daughters).

Teachers also play a role in reinforcing sex-typed play. They are more likely to leave children alone as long as they played in the traditional way (Fagot, 1983, cited in Johnson et al., 1987). Arrangement of the play area influences the way children play. While boys already show a preference to the block area, and girls to the housekeeping area, keeping the two areas separate reinforced the division between "boy areas" and "girl areas". Kinsman & Berk (1979) found that simply removing the divider between these two areas significantly increased play between boys and girls and also encouraged play with opposite-sex-typed toys.

Summary of significance of play

We see that in play, children learn valuable social skills which are inherent in play activities themselves, and are, therefore, acquired and practiced through them.

Effects of play on relationships with significant others are little studied to date, and the relationship between play and mental health has been only indirectly shown by looking at its opposite. In light of these observations, three areas are the special foci of this study:

(1) play with parents and children's relationships with them as measured by a parental acceptance/rejection measure,

(2) play and mental health (or healthy functioning), specifically play as related to the child's self-concept, and

(3) play and social skills, in particular, play as related to the child's popularity with peers.

Categories of play

There are many ways of analyzing and categorizing play activities. Smith (1977) suggests that one look into the different aspects of play. A researcher can look at one or a combination of the following: content, complexity, and context of play. This study looks at the combination of content and complexity, and the social contexts of peer and adult interactions.

Content and complexity of play

Content refers to the kinds of behaviors to which combinatorial repetitions and variations are applied. This includes physical activity, use of objects and symbolic play. Most categorizations of play according to content are also arranged according to complexity. Thus, these two ways of categorizing play behaviors are combined. An additional type of play which has been identified when analyzing complexity, but not content, is games-with-rules. These four play categories, physical activity, use of objects, symbolic play, and games-with-rules, are discussed successively.

Physical activity

This play category involves gross body movements. One example is rough-and-tumble play which includes the following: tease, hit at/kick at, poke, pounce, sneak up, carry child, play fight, pick on, chase, hold and push (Pellegrini, 1989). This type of play obviously involves at least one other person.

Another type of activity which makes use of gross body movement is described by Piaget as the earliest form of play in infancy and early childhood. Sensorimotor exercise or practice play consists of simple repetitive muscle movements (Piaget, 1962). This type of play is done for performance of already existing schemas with no effort at adaptation. Examples are running and jumping. They could also be repetitive movements involving objects such as bouncing or throwing a ball.

Use of objects

Perhaps the most well-known categories of play are Piaget's (1962). His categories are developmental and were originally used to describe cognitive levels.

The earliest two levels both involve object use. The first level is functional play. It is done as a manipulatory activity but is not constructive; that is, it is done for its own sake. An example is kneading or rolling clay with no attempts to construct something out of the clay.

The second level is constructive play. Manipulations of objects are done in order to create something. Play with blocks, clay, paints usually end up as creations.

Other categories of object play have been proposed. Kalverboer (1977) and O'Connel and Bretherton (1984) describe similar categories.

Symbolic play

The most frequent topic of research on play is symbolic play. Other names for this type of play are pretend (Rubin, Fein, & Vandenberg, 1983), dramatic (Piaget, 1962), and fantasy play (Smith, 1977).

Shotwell, Wolf & Gardner (1980, cited by McCune-Nicolich & Fenson, 1984) define symbolic play as "the ability to represent actual or imagined experience through the combined use of objects, motion and language" (p.84). Symbolic play when elaborated in cooperation with at least one other role player is called sociodramatic play (Smilansky, 1968). Focus is on role-playing. Saltz and his colleagues (cited in Rubin et al., 1983) differentiate betwen ordinary sociodramatic play and thematic fantasy play. In the latter, the roles played are far removed from the children's everyday experiences. An example is pretending to be fairies in another world. Because it requires more imagery and pretense, they declare that it is a more mature form of group pretense.

Garvey and Berndt (1977, in Rubin et al., 1983) describe even more types of dramatic roles: Functional roles are those organized by an object or activity (e.g. teacher when playing school). Relational roles are those that imply complementary relationships (e.g. mother-child). Character roles are based on stereotypic occupational or habitual activities (e.g. cowboy) or on fictional roles (e.g. Robin Hood). And peripheral roles are those discussed and addressed but not portrayed by the child himself or herself (e.g. imaginary friends).

The various categories discussed above suggest that symbolic play in itself has several components. One can look at the role-playing aspect such as types of roles played. The use of objects and other people in the play activity are also important. In both cases one can see how far the symbolization extends. For example, while use of a toy plate requires little or no imagination, the use of a leaf for a plate does require imagination. Playing "mommy" which is directly imitative is not as creative as playing "space monster," for which children have no real models.

In playing with others, it is interesting to note roles assigned to self and others as well as how the children cooperate to maintain the dramatization of their respective roles. Being able to maintain sociodramatic play requires important social skills such as cooperation and turn-taking.

Games with rules

And lastly, complexity of rules varies in different types of play. While play of young children is virtually rule-less, symbolic play makes use of rules that are made up by the role players (Rubin et al., 1983). However, one type of play is characterized by the presence of formal rules. Games with rules are probably the most complex of play activities. In them, the children have to accept prearranged rules and to adjust to them. They learn to control their own actions and reactions within given limits (Smilansky, 1968).

Piaget (1976) predicts that symbolic play gradually evolves into games with rules. The former becomes increasingly social and rule-governed, developing into the formal rule-governed competitive games. Rules in the latter could not be changed unless mutually agreed upon before the game is played. According to Piaget (1976), "competition is controlled by a collective discipline, with a code of honour and fair play" (p.569).

Games with rules differ from organized sports in that motivation could be intrinsic rather than extrinsic (i.e. while the player plays to win, there are no external rewards and the players are not influenced by external demands to participate). In this sense, organized sports would not be classified as play, while spontaneously played informal

sports would be classified as play even though both are rule-bound.

These different ways of categorizing play are useful in determining play patterns derived from play activities. They form a basis for initially grouping the varied play activities and for describing differences in play activities between relevant groups such as boys and girls.

Peer social context

One classification scheme which looks at the social dimension of play development is Parten's social participation scale (cited in Johnson et al., 1987). It has the very simple categories of: (1) solitary play - playing alone with materials different from those of children within speaking distance; no conservation with others; (2) parallel play - playing with toys or engaging in activities similar to those of other children who are in close proximity; however, there is no attempt to play with the other children; (3) group play - playing with other children, roles may or may not be assigned.

Howes (1980; in Johnson, et al., 1987) examines these social levels in greater detail. He focuses on two dimensions of peer play: (1) the complexity of the social interactions among children, and (2) the degree to which their activities are organized and integrated. He describes five levels of increasing complexity:

Level 1 - Simple parallel play

Children, in close proximity to one another, are involved in similar activities but do not engage in eye contact or any social behavior.

Level 2 - Parallel play with mutual regard

Children are involved in similar activities and engage in eye contact. The children, though not socially interacting, are aware of others' presence and activities.

Level 3 - Simple social play

Children direct social behaviors to one another. Typical behaviors include vocalizing, offering objects, smiling, touching, taking toys, and aggression. The children's play activities, however, are not coordinated.

Level 4 - Complementary/reciprocal play with mutual awareness

Children engage in activities in which their actions reverse other children's actions, demonstrating awareness of each other's roles. No conversation or other social exchange takes place.

Level 5 - Complementary/reciprocal social play

Children engage in complementary and reciprocal activities, as in Level 4, and in social exchanges, as in Level 3.

Both of these scales look at the social context in terms of peer involvement. This has been a major concern of many studies on play (Rubin et al., 1983). As

classification in these scales allows the researcher to infer a child's social maturity, it is important to note that there are many environmental constraints which affect the child's capacity to engage in social play. Jennings & Curry (1982, cited in Curry & Arnaud, 1984) have found that the following affect children's social play: presence of mother, familiarity with the other child(ren), teachers, physical setting, and the length of time provided for the children to become familiar with one another. The following section further looks at adult involvement and settings.

Adult social context

Johnson et al. (1987) describe different types of adult involvement in play with children:

1. Parallel play - The adult plays alongside but not with the child or children. When adult participation is in this pattern, children tend to persist longer in play. And by observing how the adult is playing, they may learn new ways of playing with objects.
2. Co-play - Adult joins but lets the children control the course of the play. By asking for information, instructions, and responding to children's actions and comments, the adult can add new elements to the children's play.
3. Play tutoring - The adult initiates a new play episode and takes a more dominant role thereby teaching new play behaviors. This can be done in two ways:

a. outside intervention - adult is not involved in the play itself,

b. inside intervention - adult takes on a role.

4. Thematic fantasy training - The adult helps children act out stories. This is beneficial for children with no or little experience with sociodramatic play.

5. Spokesman for reality - the adult may classify or explain roles more accurately. This helps children understand roles of others.

In any of these different types of adult participation, the adult involvement is gradually phased out such that children end up playing among themselves. Also, the authors caution that while adult involvement may help children, it is not always necessary. An adult must be sensitive as to when his or her involvement is needed. They suggest that an adult intervene only when: (1) children do not engage in make-believe play on their own, (2) children have difficulty playing with other children, or (3) play becomes repetitious or appears ready to break down.

Settings

When categorizing according to settings, a play setting can be academic or nonacademic. Many studies look at free play in the classroom or in the laboratory. Christie & Johnsen (1989) argue that play which occurs in these settings is not really free play. Types of toys and

expectations of adults are different in these settings than in nonacademic settings.

Schwartzman (1984) points out how these settings affect children's play. Higher socioeconomic children show more mature forms of play in the academic settings than lower socioeconomic children. However, outside the laboratory or classroom, even lower SES children show such mature forms.

Another classification scheme is that of outdoor play versus indoor play. The difference between these two settings may account for some of the social class differences in play as upper class children play indoors more frequently, while lower class children spend more time playing outdoors (Minoza, 1984).

The type of outdoor environment also changes play behaviors. Traditional playgrounds with fixed, conventional equipment encourage functional play, especially large motor play (Johnson et al., 1987; Rubin et al., 1983). Naylor's (1985) review shows that traditional playgrounds are seldom used by children and that they show a preference for "adventure" playgrounds where elements are loose and children can create their own structures. Undesignated play spaces, such as backyards, encourage more social play.

Importance of categorization and contextualization

The studies reviewed above are useful for this study in that they help organize the analysis of play activities. Sex, age and socioeconomic differences can better be

understood if one can categorize the play activities according to some dimension such as complexity. They can also be better interpreted when viewed in their proper context such as the physical and sociocultural environments wherein these play activities occur.

In this study, play occured within the settings of home and school during recess. This study was done in a different culture from the one from which categories were derived. However, it is assumed by this researcher that although play activities, per se, may differ between the Philippine and Western cultures, these categories would still be useful for initial organization of the data. Should there be play activities which do not fit the categories, the categories could be reconceptualized.

Play patterns according to age, sex, social class, and personality

The sections above described ways by which variations in play could be categorized. The following sections show variations in play according to children's age, sex, social class, and personality.

Age differences

Age is usually related to certain types of play. Some types of play are more frequent in certain age groups and some do not emerge until a certain age. Christie & Johnsen (1989) found that for American children functional play was

found to be negatively correlated with age, peaking at around 4 years of age; while constructive play was positively correlated with age peaking at 6 years. Van der Kooij (1989) found similar results, with constructive play peaking at 5 years among Dutch children.

Symbolic play emerges from 3-6 years (Smilansky, 1968) among advantaged preschoolers but not among disadvantaged children. Schwartzman (1984) argues that disadvantaged children did engage in symbolic play but at a later age (6-8 years).

There are also changes in symbolic play with age. Children show increasing representational ability. As they grow older, they tend to use ambiguous props to engage in symbolic play (Pellegrini & Perlmutter, 1990). There is also marked maturity in terms of playing roles. As the child grows older, he or she is capable of elaborating more complex role relationships.

Play of children becomes increasingly social with age (Smith, 1977). At 2 years, social interactions are infrequent and short in duration. Most play of 2-year olds is with objects or with adults. At 3 years, social play begins in the play group or nursery. Interactions are mostly dyadic. At 4-6 years, there is a marked increase in duration of social play and in number of children involved in it.

Thus with age, children's play changes in terms of types of play, complexity, sociability, and cognitive maturity.

Sex differences

Sex differences are evident even in early childhood. This can be seen in children's play activities. Boys seem to prefer gross motor and rough-and-tumble play. Girls, on the other hand, prefer play with objects (Smith, 1977).

Both sexes engage in symbolic play. However, there are sex differences in the types of roles played. Boys are more likely to play fictional, superhero characters. Girls play familial characters (Rubin et al., 1983).

Pellegrini & Perlmutter (1990) show differences in social interactions during play. Girls engage in more imitations, requests for help, and give more responses to play topic initiations. Boys exhibited more utterances, gave more commands and play topic initiations.

These changes reflect sex-typed characteristics of more nurturance and submissiveness among girls, and more activity, assertiveness and achievement among boys. While we cannot say that it is in play that sex-typed behaviors are learned, it is evident that these are maintained in play.

Among older children, these same trends can be seen in their games (Block, 1981). Boys' games reward initiative, improvisation and extemporaneity. They encourage within-

team cooperation as well as between-team competition. Girls' games are mostly highly structured, turn-taking games that are strictly rule-governed and less often require contingent strategies. Thus it seems that boys' games are more geared towards development of competence than are girls' games.

These sex-typed behaviors increase with age, and sex-typing is more evident among boys (Rubin et al., 1983). Older boys avoid playing with feminine toys more than preschool boys; and boys generally avoid feminine toys more than girls avoid masculine toys. Girls' preferences are broader in scope. In symbolic play, for example, girls are more likely to engage also in fictional pretense than are boys to engage in familial themes.

Social class differences

Children from lower socioeconomic groups seem to exhibit less mature forms of play than those from middle and high SES groups. Lower SES preschoolers have been found to engage in more solitary and functional parallel play compared to their middle SES agemates (Rubin et al., 1976; cited in Rubin et al., 1983). Middle and high SES children engage in more symbolic play than lower SES peers (Smilansky, 1968; Smith, 1977; Tizard, Philips & Plewis, cited in Rubin et al., 1983; Udwin & Shmukler, 1981, cited in Johnson et al., 1987).

Smilansky (1968) and Udwin & Shmukler (1981, cited in Johnson et al., 1983) assert that these deficits are due to the differential ways that lower SES parents treat their children. Smilansky says that upper class parents are more likely to play with their children while lower class parents are less likely to do so.

There are many confounding variables in studies of social class differences. Most studies cited are done in the school or laboratory settings. Schwartzman's (1984) study is interesting in that it shows that outside of these settings, even lower SES children's play demonstrate the maturity of their more advantaged counterparts. They are also highly creative, more verbal than in the academic settings, and they display a variety of social and survival skills.

Schwartzman (1984) and Feitelson (1977) point out several basic differences in the lifestyles of these children. Children who work (i.e. who engage in child care and/or other economic responsibilities) cannot or do not have enough time to play. And children of lower class families frequently have to assume such responsibilities. Children must also have sufficient space and toys to engage in symbolic play, both of which are deficient in lower income homes.

Personality differences

Play activities are a good medium for observing personality differences among children. Stockinger-Forys and McCune-Nicolich (1984) put together dyads of 3-year olds who did not know each other. They observed that the socially dominant child seemed able to wait while the other child warmed up. Pellegrini (1989) found differences in rough-and-tumble play of popular and rejected children. For the former, this type of play was nonaggressive while for the latter, aggression seems to dominate it.

Other researches identify personality patterns associated with play. Johnson and his colleagues (1987) identified a "fantasy-making" predisposition. They found this to be related to higher level of imagery, positive affect, social interactions and cooperation during free play.

Wolf and Gardner (1979, cited in Johnson et al., 1987) differentiated between "patterners" and "dramatists". The former engage in more object play, while the latter engage in more social play.

As most of these studies are observational and correlational, causal relationships between personality and types of play in cannot be properly established. However, since personality or dispositions are often inferred to be relatively enduring, stable traits, then it could be said

that choice of play activities is a result of certain dispositions.

In this study, self-concept and peer popularity are two relatively stable traits that were related to play. As popular and unpopular children, as well as children of high and low self-concept differ in behaviors, it is hypothesized that they would differ in play as well.

Summary of play patterns

The differences described above show that both maturation and socialization play a part in differentiating play behaviors. As the literature cited describes children in Western countries, predominantly the U.S., it would be interesting to see if such patterns also exist among play of Filipino children. One would expect similarities in patterns that are due to maturation, while differences between cultures would be evident in patterns that are due to socialization.

The Philippine experience

Most of the research cited above involved American children in the U.S. and children in other western countries such as England and the Netherlands. Far less is known about Filipino children's play. The following sections describe what has been written about how children play and parent-child relationships in the Philippines.

Filipino children's play

As in the western literature, there are sex differences in the way Filipino children play. Girls play inside the house more frequently than outside, and more frequently than boys (Minoza, Botor & Tablante, 1984). Filipino children's play is also sex-typed. Sevilla (1982) observed that the favorite play activities of 3-6 year old girls is playing house, while for boys, it is gunfights. Many of the games however are not sex-typed, such as playing in the sand and catching insects.

There are also social class and ecological differences. Urban middle- and high-SES children are more likely to play indoors and have commercial toys, while rural and lower SES urban children play outdoors and have few toys (Minoza et al., 1984).

Social skills are demonstrated in play. Minoza and her colleagues found that most children (81.6%) could get along with others at play. When they quarrel, group pressures tend to resolve the quarrel (Mendez et al., 1984).

Parent-child relationships

In child-rearing, Filipino mothers are more involved than the fathers. Ramirez (1974) reports that the father is always out of the house (including non-work activities) to the neglect of the attention due to his wife and children. Minoza et al. (1984) found that only 23.5% of the husbands they surveyed were enthusiastic in helping their wives with

child care, although about half (51%) report helping with discipline. And yet, in one rural community, more fathers (84% vs. 13% of mothers) reported companionship and warmth between parent and child as a primary motive for parenthood (Jurilla, 1986). The father also acts as the child's playmate while the wife attends to her chores.

In a nationwide survey done by Sevilla (1982), she reports that 73% of parents get directly involved with their children's play, either as an active onlooker or as actual participants. In a primarily authoritarian society, this is significant in that in the area of play, parents and children are, for once, on a more equal basis (Atienza, 1982).

The apparent relationship between parents and children in play, particularly the role of fathers, is interesting in that it allows the participants to step out of their customary authoritarian relationship. But very little has been written about children's play in the Philippines. A major aim of the present study is to add to the literature about play patterns of Filipino children.

Methodological issues

McCune-Nicolich and Fenson (1984) recommend that in doing play research, one must consider the setting, participants and their roles, subjects, and observation procedures.

Settings

Most studies are done at home (Belsky, Goode & Most, 1980; Dunn & Dale, 1984; Dunn & Wooding, 1977; Miller & Garvey, 1984; Minoza et al., 1984; O'Connell & Bretherton, 1984), in a laboratory (Eckerman & Stein, 1990; McCune-Nicolich & Fenson, 1984; O'Connel & Bretherton, 1984; Phillips & Sellito, 1990; Rosen, 1974; Smith & Connolly, 1980 in Johnson et al., 1987; Sorce & Emde, 1981 cited in Cohen, 1987), or in school play areas such as the playroom or playground (Christie & Johnsen, 1989; Pellegrini, 1989; Pellegrini & Perlmutter, 1990; Rubin, 1982; Van der Kooij, 1989).

It appears that the setting varies according to the purpose of the research. When studies are done in the laboratory, there is usually manipulation of some variable such as spatial density, and there is usually adult intervention (Eckerman & Stein, 1990; Smith & Connolly, 1980, in Johnson et al., 1987; Sorce & Emde, 1981, cited in Cohen, 1987).

Most purely descriptive studies are done where free play is most readily observed, such as the home or playground. But other free play research is also done in the classroom or the laboratory. In such cases, a bias seems to exist in favor of more socioeconomically advantaged children who show more mature forms of play in the laboratory or classroom (Schwartzman, 1984).

As this study is exploratory in nature and has as one focus the question, "What do Filipino children play at home?", a survey was deemed most appropriate to get as many responses as possible from many children.

Participants and their roles

Most free play observations include other same-age children. This appears to be the most "naturalistic" form of observation in that most play activities occur within the context of peer relations.

A second focus of this study was to document Filipino children's free play activities in an academic setting. For this purpose free play observations were done during recess. This was limited to observations of children identified as popular or unpopular through a sociometric measure.

When others are involved in the child's play activities as documented in research studies, it is usually the mother (Belsky, Grade & Most, 1980, cited in Cohen, 1987; Dunn & Wooding, 1977; Dunn & Dale, 1984; Minoza et al., 1984; O'Connel & Bretherton, 1984; Phillips & Sellito, 1990; Sorce & Emde, 1981 cited in Cohen, 1987). However, most of these studies are experimental, involving effects of some manipulation on children's play. Another adult is usually requested to manipulate the situation in some way. The observation is then focused on the effects of such manipulations on the child's play. Examples include level

of child's play when mother ignores/attends to child (Eckerman & Stein, 1990; Phillips & Sellito, 1990; Sorce & Emde, 1981, cited in Cohen, 1987), and effects of play tutoring (Rosen, 1974; Smilansky, 1968).

Some mother-child observations are of free play. In these observations, the focus is more on how the mother plays with the child (Dunn & Dale, 1984; Dunn and Wooding, 1977).

Parent-child play activities were also explored in this study and as this researcher was concerned mostly with getting a variety of responses from many children, survey was conducted rather than observations at home.

Subjects

Most studies of play include infants, preschoolers and kindergartners. Older children are rarely studied (Pellegrini, 1989; Van der Kooij, 1989b). As such, certain types of play are overrepresented in the psychological literature. These include functional, constructive, and in particular, symbolic play.

Since play of older children is not much studied, games with rules are neglected (Block, 1981). And as we associate play with childhood, play in adolescence and adulthood, except probably in the context of sports, is practically ignored whether in the U.S. or in the Philippines.

For this study, two different childhood levels were chosen, first graders to represent early middle childhood, and fourth graders to represent later middle childhood. These were chosen because these groups are young enough for parental interactions to remain active and significant, yet old enough that opportunity for peer interactions are available. The different forms of play, from physical play to the more complex games with rules, are also observed in children of these age levels.

Conceptual Framework

This research is not guided by any one theory, and all hypotheses are based on the literature previously reviewed.

Variations in play activities

The topic most studied in play research is age differences. This study is focused on social play of children in middle and late childhood. Other studies describe differences in types of play engaged by these two age groups (Piaget, 1962). Parten (1932, in Johnson, et al., 1987) observed play patterns to change from solitary to cooperative (social). Piaget (1962) and Smilansky (1969) identified early to mid-childhood as the age when sociodramatic play is most common, and mid-late childhood when games-with-rules emerge.

Changes in friendship patterns and cognitive development could account, in part, for these differences.

As children grow older, their peer group size changes from dyadic to small to bigger groups. However there is a sex difference in that girls tend to participate in small peer groups while boys are in larger groups (Block, 1981). Cognitively, games-with-rules require more maturity as they require knowledge and retention of several rules as well as the use of strategies to win in these usually competitive activities. Sociodramatic play, on the other hand, requires different cognitive skills, primarily the ability to take the perspective of others which requires a knowledge of the roles of others, and also the flexibility to "pretend."

In this study, two very different age groups, first and fourth graders, comprise the sample. Based on the literature, the younger group would be expected to engage in more sociodramatic play, while the older is now capable of games with rules. These two age groups were chosen primarily because of this difference. In order to see more diversity in play patterns, children who are capable of these more sophisticated play activities rather than preschool children were selected.

Also as children of these age groups are more social, i.e. tend to play in groups compared to preschoolers, important social variables, such as popularity as an indicator of social competence, could be investigated in relation to social play. Furthermore, children of these age groups still spend a considerable amount of time with the

family, so that impact of that relationship on play may be investigated as well.

Sex differences have been found in types of play activities (Kalverboer, 1977; Smith, 1977), toys (Block, 1981) and roles played in sociodramatic play (Rubin et al., 1983). These sex differences in play seem to reflect sociocultural sex role stereotypes. In this study, observing play of Filipino children would allow one to see sex-role stereotypes which exist in the Philippine culture. Roles Filipino children play would reflect roles that are perceived in the culture as more typical of each sex.

Studies on socioeconomic status differences show less mature forms of play among lower SES children (Smilansky, 1968; Rubin et al., 1983). Children of ages 6-7 are expected to engage in a considerable amount of sociodramatic play. These studies show that children of lower SES tend not to do so. Instead they engage in the less mature play forms of solitary, parallel, functional, or constructive play.

Smilansky (1968) attributes such differences to parent-child interactions. Schwartzman (1984) says differences in lifestyle account for the appearance of less mature forms of play among lower SES children. MacDonald (1993) describes a parenting style which resembles that of the lower class. He associates this style with low involvement in parent-child play. Mendez et al. (1984) shows that lower class Filipino

children frequently take care of siblings and do household chores leaving less time for play.

Play varies in different settings. There are differences between schools and homes in terms of types of available play materials (Christie & Johnsen, 1989). Age and sex differences in play seem to reflect dispositions to certain play activities due to maturity and to social learning. Effects of settings is probably more external in that children will adjust their play activities according to what is physically available and possible in various settings.

Play and popularity

As most peer interactions occur in the context of play, whether a child is liked or not by her or his peers could be observed in play interactions. As most play activities in mid- to late childhood are social, a child with good social skills would fit in well in play interactions. It is also possible that the valuable social skills that popular children have are learned in play interactions.

Problem behaviors can also be seen in the play situation. For example, some differences between popular and rejected children have been observed in rough-and-tumble play (Pellegrini, 1989). The latter tend to show more hostility than playfulness compared to the former. Among isolated children, a basic problem is their inability to

enter play groups. These general findings would be expected in Filipino children's play.

These early socialization interactions could also affect how children view themselves. They see the self according to how they think others see them. Being liked and accepted by peers is therefore a possible determinant of a positive self-concept. In this study, it is assumed that being liked is in part determined by positive social interactions with peers. For these age groups, these positive social interactions occur mostly during play. Accordingly, children's self-concept was related to play patterns in this study.

Play with parents, parent-child relationship, and self-concept

As parent-child relations are positively correlated with a child's self-concept, parent-child play interactions would indirectly affect self-concept due to its relation to parent-child relationships. In this research, parent-child relationship is measured as the child's perception of parental warmth as opposed to rejection or indifference. Playful interactions are assumed to be indicators of warmth. A parent who cares enough to spend time playing with a child is perceived as one who must "really care".

In childhood, play is probably one of the few parent-child interactions where they are on an equal level. It is also usually pleasant. Thus opportunities for parents and

their children to engage in pleasant, equalitarian play interactions could contribute to the development of a positive parent-child relationship.

Summary of framework

This study includes descriptions of play activities at home reported by boys and girls, of 1st and 4th grades and from public and private schools representing the lower and middle classes respectively.

In addition, play and its relation to certain interpersonal and intrapersonal variables will be analyzed. It is expected that play patterns will differ among children varying in popularity and self-concept. On the other hand, parent-child play activities and frequency of parent-child play will be related to parent-child relations and self-concept. It is believed that parent-child play is related to parent-child relations and that both directly, or indirectly relate to self-concept.

Statement of the Problem

This study seeks to describe play activities of Filipino children in different settings, and to relate these activities to selected sociodemographic, personality, and social variables. Specifically, the following questions guide this study:

1. What play activities are engaged in by children categorized according to:
   a. sex?
   b. age (1st vs. 4th grade)?
   d. socioeconomic status (low and middle)?
2. What is the relationship between playing with parents, child's report of parent-child relations, and child's self-concept?
3. What is the relationship between a child's peer play activities, peer popularity, and self-concept?

Hypotheses

Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

1. There are differences in types of play engaged in by
   a. boys and girls, and
   b. children in first and fourth grades,
   c. children from low and middle socioeconomic status.

2. Children's reports of experiencing or having experienced playing with their fathers and/or mothers is significantly related to the child's perception of his or her relationship with the father/mother, and with the child's self-concept. Specifically, the more frequent the play interaction between child and parent(s), the more the child will perceive parental warmth, and the higher the child's score in the Self-concept Scale.

3a. There are differences in types of play engaged in by popular and unpopular children.

3b. The more frequently the child engages in social play , the higher the peer rating of popularity of that child, and the higher the child's score in the Self-concept Scale.

Definition of Terms

Play- This is any activity that is "enjoyable, flexible, and most typically characterized by pretend" (Smith & Vollstedt, 1985, p. 1049). In this study, it refers to any activity that would have any two of the three characteristics mentioned above that is observed during recess. It also refers to any activity that the children would interpret as play in response to the Play Activities Scale.

Types of play- This refers to the kinds of play behaviors engaged in by children. There are different categories described in the literature. The following are included in the observation guide which is to be used in identifying types of play:

Rough and tumble play- This type of play involves gross body movements with physical contact between players. It includes the following, though this list is not exhaustive: tease, hit at/kick at, poke, pounce, sneak

up, play fight, pick on, chase, hold and push (Pellegrini, 1989).

Sensorimotor play- This involves simple repetitive muscle movements with no effort at adaptation. It is done for the sake of the movement itself. It is also sometimes called "practice" play as the child appears to be simply exercising a movement. Examples include running, jumping, bouncing ball.

Functional play- This is a manipulatory activity that is not constructive. It involves manipulation of objects but with no attempt to construct or make something out of the manipulation. An example is kneading clay but not making something out of the clay.

Games with rules- This type of play activity has prearranged formal rules, and is usually competitive.

Outdoor/motor games- These are group, motor games which require gross motor skills such as running, jumping or throwing but which are differentiated from ball games. These games have rules and are played in groups. Examples include tag, leap-frog, hide-and-seek.

Reciprocal play- In this type of play the actions reverse other chilren's actions demonstrating awareness of each other's roles. No conversation or other social exchange takes place. An example is a two-player video game where each player interacts with the action on the screen and not necessarily with the other player.

Reciprocal social play- This is similar to reciprocal play with the added dimension of social exchanges such as conversation.

Socioeconomic status (SES)- This is the social and financial status of the subjects. Low socioeconomic status is inferred from enrollment in a public school while enrollment in a private school by virtue of the tuition structure is believed to indicate a middle SES (Gonzales, 1986). In this study, the terms "public" and "private" school may be used interchangeably with "low" and "middle" social class respectively.

Popularity- This is the degree to which one is liked by other people. In this study, a sociometric rating scale which measures liking and/or acceptance is used to classify children as popular or unpopular. In this study, only same-sex peer ratings were used as same-sex interactions are more common among these age groups.

Parent-child relationship- In this study, this is defined as the child's perception of parental warmth as measured by the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ, Rohner, 1980).

Parental warmth- Rohner (1980) conceptualizes parental warmth as a bipolar dimension with rejection or the absence of parental warmth and affection at one pole, and acceptance at the opposite pole. A parent is perceived as low in parental warmth or high in parental

rejection if the PARQ total score is low. "Parental acceptance" or "Parental rejection total" is used in the text to refer to the PARQ composite scale to distinguish it from the subscales Warmth and Rejection.

Warmth (subscale)

This subscale measures a child's perceptions of parents as giving love or affection. Examples of parental behaviors include kissing, showing approval, comforting child.

Rejection- This includes the child's perception of the parent's dislike, disapproval and/or resentment of him or her. This is manifested in two ways: as (1) hostility, which includes anger, resentment, and enmity, or (2) indifference, which is the lack of parental concern or interest. A parent is perceived as high in parental rejection if the PARQ total score is high. The rejection dimension has 3 subscales: Hostility, Neglect and Rejection.

Hostility Subscale refers to conditions where the child believes his or her parents (a) are angry, bitter, or resentful of him or her, or (b) intend to hurt the child physically or verbally. Examples of hostility behaviors include derogatory remarks, nagging, hitting.

Neglect Subscale The child sees parents as unconcerned or uninterested. Sample behaviors include parents

spending minimum amount of time with the child or ignoring the child's call for help.

Rejection Subscale The child sees parents as withdrawing warmth but where such rejection does not clearly reflect either aggressive/hostility or neglect/indifference. An example is the child's report that "my mother does not love me."

Self-concept- This refers to a person's view of oneself in a continuum of low (or negative) to high (or positive). In this study the Pasao Pictorial Self-Concept Scale by Munnariz and Pasao (1988) was used. The total score refers to self-concept or level of adjustment. It has two subscales:

1. Endearing Traits: measures how a child views his or her traits. This subscale answers questions such as "what do you like about yourself?" and "what do you like to do?" It includes items related to school activities (including peers) and the child's view about the self. In this study, this scale shall be referred to as Self-concept: view of self, and

2. Relationships with Others: measures how a child views the self in relation to significant others, particularly significant adults such as parents, grandparents and teachers. This shall be referred to as Self-concept: Relation to others.

In general, the higher the score, the higher the self-concept.

Scope and Limitations

This study seeks to describe play activities of older children as most play studies include infants, toddlers and preschoolers. The ages 6-7 and 9-10 (1st and 4th graders respectively) were chosen because at these ages, the children are already social and yet they are sufficiently different developmentally to expect that their play patterns should differ as well. Also children of these ages already demonstrate two types of play, sociodramatic play and games with rules, which are investigated in this study. Because this is a cross-sectional study, only age differences rather than developmental progression can be described.

First graders were especially chosen because for most schools in the Philippines, this is the beginning of "formal" education. Most of the social interaction takes place during breaks, such as recess, as there are no longer free times during the school day to engage in socialization activities as are found in preschools.

This study includes only the low and middle income classes. The upper bracket was excluded because they are a small minority; also children from upper SES families tend to be enrolled in private sex-segregated rather than coeducational schools.

Observations of play activities were done only in the school setting. Ideally, different contexts should be investigated: the home, neighborhood, parks, etc. Play activities in the home were not observed but were reported by the children. This serves as a limitation in that the basis for analysis of the two settings are not the same. Clear comparisons could not be done. Instead, descriptions of play in each setting were done separately.

Four coeducational elementary schools in Metro Manila were included in this study. Given the urban setting, generalizations of the findings to children in other areas of the Philippines are limited.

Significance of the Study

This study's primary significance is its potential contribution to the developmental literature in Filipino psychology. The observations of children's play in the playground could show important differences in types of play of children of two different age groups, of varying popularity, sex and socioeconomic status. In addition, comparisons with findings of play research in western cultures could be made. Differences and/or similarities in play patterns between Filipino and western children could be identified.

Relating peer play with a child's popularity among peers and his or her self-concept in relation to peers could

guide teachers and counselors to possible interventions regarding children with problems in peer relationships.

And lastly, in attempting to relate playing with parents and variables such as parent-child relations or self-concept, potential benefits of such an interaction in childhood would hopefully be identified. In a society where dual incomes is becoming more a necessity, and where for the middle- and upper classes, child caregiving is left to a hired caregiver, there may be less opportunities for parent-child interactions. If parents could see why play is useful, then directing these limited opportunities toward play interactions might be the most efficient use of that limited time they do spend with their children.

Chapter 2

METHODOLOGY

In this study, first and fourth graders in four school systems completed a series of instruments: 1. Sociometric Rating Measure, 2. Home Play Survey, 3. Child Parental Acceptance- Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ), and 4. Pasao Pictorial Self-Concept Scale. Different kinds of information were used for different purposes:

1. Tabulations of responses to the Home Play survey were done to describe play activities of children at home,
2. Data were derived from the Home Play survey, PARQ and Self-Concept scale to establish correlations between frequency of parent-child play, parental acceptance and child's self-concept, and
3. Based on outcomes of the Sociometric measure, selected children were observed in play activities during recess in school to describe differences between activities of those differing in popularity and self-concept.

Subjects

Two sections (classes) each of Grades One and Four were recruited from 2 public and 2 private coeducational schools in Metro Manila. Data collection was not finished for two sections, one section each of Grades One and Four of the second private school due to lack of time. A total of 14 classes/sections were given the questionnaires (see Table 1 for distribution of classes).

Table 1

Distribution of Classes from each Grade Level per School

	Public School 1	Public School 2	Private School 1	Private School 2
Grade 1	2	2	2	1
Grade 4	2	2	2	1

Two of the schools, one private and one public, were located in Las Pinas, a suburb of Manila, and the other two were located in inner city Manila. Las Pinas is an industrialized community, with factories and other manufacturing companies immediately outside the residential areas. Inner city Manila has less distinct zoning patterns,

where residences and commercial establishments are found in the same areas.

The private and public school in each city were located in the same general vicinity, within 3 kilometers of each other. The children from the two schools in each area differ in socioeconomic status as evidenced by the tuition structures of the two types of schools. Children in the free public schools are generally from the lower income class while those in the two profit-oriented private schools are from the middle class (Gonzales, 1986). For this particular sample, the class distinction is further supported by the children's residence wherein housing zones serviced by the private schools selected are predominantly middle class.

Only one school, a private school, had a playground; it consisted of a vacant lot with monkey bars. The other schools had corridors and some space immediately outside the classrooms that could be used during recess. The classrooms and these areas are available for the children's use during recess.

The number of subjects varied according to analysis as only those with completed survey forms and observation data could be included. Some were included in the descriptive analysis but not in the correlational analysis due to missing data. Table 2 shows distribution of subjects

according to grade level, school and sex for the descriptive/ correlational analyses.

Table 2

Number of Subjects in Play Survey Data

	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR	
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE
BOYS	64 (60)	30 (28)	52 (44)	54 (38)
GIRLS	68 (65)	38 (34)	69 (63)	62 (36)

NOTE: Numbers in parentheses refer to number of subjects in correlational analysis.

For the observational study, the Sociometric outcomes were used to select four children from each section (two popular and two unpopular, and one of each sex within each popularity category). However, it was not possible to complete all observations groups for two reasons: 1) some sections did not have children with low popularity ratings and 2) only children with parental consent could be included. When more than two children qualified per section, random selection was done to identify which child was to be included in the observations.

A total of 32 children identified through the procedure described above were observed. Table 3 shows the number of

children in the observational study. To permit assessment of inter-rater reliability, sixteen children were observed by two independent observers.

Table 3

Distribution of Subjects in Observations

	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR	
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE
POPULAR: (n = 19)				
BOYS	2	2	2	3
GIRLS	2	3	2	3
UNPOPULAR: (n = 13)				
BOYS	2	3	1	1
GIRLS	2	2	2	0

Instruments

The children were asked to complete (fourth graders) or respond orally (first graders) to four questionnaires:

1. Sociometric Rating Measure (Appendix A)
2. Home Play Survey (Appendix B)
3. Child PARQ (Appendix C)
4. Pasao Pictorial Self-Concept Scale (Appendix D)

The first three instruments were translated into Filipino for children who are more comfortable in that language. Each instrument went through 3 translations: the first by a Psychology-Education double major, the second by a Psychology graduate (also the study's research assistant), and the final one by the researcher herself. The research assistant reviewed the first translation, correcting words and phrases for simplicity and informality. She and the researcher went over the suggested revisions, and a third version was drafted through this collaboration. The research assistant tried out this third version with a class of first graders in a private school who were not part of the study. This was done to check if questions would be raised regarding meaning of words and/or sentences.

Sociometric Rating Measure

A rating scale proposed by Asher, Singleton, and Tinsky (1979) was used for this study. A sheet with a list of the child's classmates was given to each child. Each child checked one of three possible choices: I like this classmate a lot, I somewhat like this classmate, and I do not like this classmate. For the first graders, the names were handwritten in large letters, and a researcher read the names out loud to each child. Figure 1 shows a sample of the sociometric questionnaire.

I like this classmate a lot (Gustong-gusto ko ang kaklaseng ito)	I somewhat like this classmate (Medyo gusto ko ang kaklaseng ito)	I do not like this classmate (Hinding-hindi ko gusto ang kaklaseng ito)
MARIA		
MIKO		

Figure 1. Sample sociometric questionnaire.

Scoring the sociometric scale

Each child in a class was given a popularity rating. The choices were coded as follows:

I like this classmate a lot : 3

I somewhat like this classmate: 2

I do not like this classmate: 1

Each child's popularity rating was then computed using the formula:

$$\text{POPULARITY RATING} = \frac{\text{SUM OF RATINGS}}{\text{NUMBER OF SAME-SEX CHILDREN IN THE CLASS GIVEN THE TEST}}$$

Possible scores range from 1.0 to 3.0. The higher the rating, the more popular the child. Under the assumption that a popular child will be rated on the average between "somewhat like" and "like very much", with more ratings of the latter, the midpoint between these two ratings plus .01 was used as the cutoff score. On the other end, an unpopular child was assumed to be rated between "do not like" and "somewhat like", with more ratings of the former. The midpoint between these two ratings was used as the cutoff. Thus, the cutoff scores for determining popularity were the following:

Category	Range of Scores
Popular	2.51 - 3.00
Average	1.51 - 2.50
Unpopular	1.00 - 1.50

In class sections where no child scored in the unpopular category, a cut-off score of 1.70 was considered a low rating if it also corresponded to a standard Z score of -1.5 (or popularity rating is 1.5 standard deviations below the mean for that class). This criterion was used for three cases.

Rationale for choosing peer rating

There are different ways of measuring popularity as defined by peer likability. The most common methods of sociometric analysis are peer nominations, peer behavioral descriptions, and peer rating scales, each having advantages and disadvantages.

The method of peer behavioral descriptions specifically identifies skills or roles of socially competent children (E.g. children are asked to identify "Someone who everybody listens to", in The Class Play of Bower, 1969, cited in Hughes, 1990). The problem of applicability to the Philippines of behaviors identified by American children as true of socially competent peers rules out the use of this method for this study.

The most commonly used method is peer nominations, where each child is asked to select a restricted number of classmates with regard to some criterion (E.g. Name 3 classmates you most like to play with). It is the easiest and quickest to administer but has several disadvantages. Nomination procedures tend to measure friendship patterns rather than general peer acceptance and likability.

There are also ethical concerns of negative nomination questions (Hughes, 1990). In response to this issue however, Hayvren and Hymel (1984) observed that preschool children did not discuss their choices after the

administration of positive and negative sociometric questions. They also did not interact differently after the sociometric measure.

And lastly, nomination procedures appear to produce more variable and lower reliability coefficients ranging from .22 to .74 (Hartup, 1983). Asher (1979), and Oden and Asher (1977) compared the nomination procedure with peer rating. They found peer ratings to have significantly higher reliability coefficients than peer nominations.

For this study, the peer ratings method appears to be most suited. Hughes (1990) in his review of studies using sociometric methods suggests that peer ratings in contrast to peer nominations measure acceptance and likability rather than friendship patterns.

Because each child is rated by each member of a group, peer ratings indicate a child's acceptance by all of the group members. It decreases the likelihood of a person not being chosen because he or she was momentarily forgotten. Also because all children are rated, average ratings are more stable over time. Test-retest correlations have been found to be quite high, ranging from .74 to .81 after a four-week interval (Hughes, 1990).

The concurrent validity of peer ratings has also been established. Rubin and Daniels-Biernes (1983) looked at concurrent correlates of the sociometric ratings of

kindergarten and grade one children using the method of Asher and colleagues. They found sociometric status to correlate significantly and negatively with measures of solitary-dramatic play, and positively with positive peer interactions and prosocial strategies suggested in the Social Problem-Solving Skills Test.

In this study, same-sex ratings were used because children's ratings have been shown to reflect a sex bias (Singleton & Asher, 1977, cited in Rubin & Daniels-Biernes, 1983). Also to address the ethical questions of having children give negative ratings to their classmates, this study followed Hughes's (1990) suggestion that children be specifically instructed not to talk about their choices, and to administer this particular measure in-between classes, rather than before free time.

Home Play Survey

This brief survey asked for some demographic information and asked several questions regarding the child's play activities at home (Appendix B). Fourth graders were given the questionnaire to answer on their own and they were tested as a group. First graders needed individual assistance and their answers were noted down by research assistants.

Item #1, which asked about toys at home, was included by the researcher to supplement item #2 which asked about play activities at home. The second item was adapted from Seagoe's Play Report (Johnson, 1976). Seagoe's observations scale has been used chiefly to compare differences in play styles between cultures and subcultures and also in identifying individual play styles. Reliability coefficients of observers' ratings range from .84 to .99 for boys and .76 to .99 for girls. Seagoe's items have also been found to be related to chronological age (r=.63 for boys and .65 for girls). Item #3 was added for prompting additional answers to #2.

Items 4-9 were based on MacDonald and Parke's (1984) findings using home observation measures. For their American sample, they found significant correlations between popularity of boys and girls and (1) parents' physical play with their children, and (2) parents' engagement in child's activities (both measured as observed frequencies of physically active parent-child interactions, and active participation of parent in child's activities respectively).

Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire

(Child PARQ)

This instrument was designed by Rohner (1980) to elicit respondents' assessments of their experiences in terms of perceived parental warmth. This instrument is meant for children ages 7-12 to reflect on how their primary caretaker now treats them. For this study, children were asked to respond to the Child PARQ twice, once for the father, and once for the mother.

This instrument is ideal for this particular study as it has been validated cross-culturally. Rohner (1980) cites the following studies:

Saavedra (1980) found that Puerto Rican adolescents' perceptions of self-esteem and self-adequacy varied with their perceptions of both maternal and paternal warmth. This finding is relevant to this research as the Philippine culture bears more resemblance to Puerto Rican than to western cultures.

Rohner, Hahn, and Rohner (1980) found that 7-12 year old working class Korean immigrants perceived themselves as more rejected than their middle-class counterparts. Also they reported significantly lower feelings of self-esteem and self-adequacy.

Scoring the PARQ

The PARQ is a 4-point Likert-type scale where respondents are asked to check degree of agreement with each statement. The choices are coded from 1 to 4. Points are added to form a subscale score. The higher the score in a subscale, the more that attribute is reported to occur. For example, the higher the score in the Warmth subscale, the stronger the agreement that the parent is warm. The higher the score in Hostility, the stronger the agreement that the parent is hostile. The Warmth subscale was reverse-scored when computing the composite score (PARQ total). The higher the PARQ total, the more rejecting the parent is perceived by the child. Table 4 shows minimum and maximum scores for the subscales and total scale.

Reliability and validity of the Child PARQ

Reliability was determined for this sample of 187 first graders and 181 fourth graders. In checking internal consistency, it was found that the reliability improved when items were removed from 3 subscales: Warmth, Hostility and Neglect. These items had negative or near zero correlations with the total subscale score. In the analysis, these items were removed. Furthermore, a different item was removed for the Neglect scale for the two grade groups. Thus

Table 4

Minimum and Maximum Scores for the PARQ

Scale	# of items	Minimum	Maximum
Warmth	6	6	24
Hostility	14	14	56
Neglect	9	9	36
Rejection	3	3	12
PARQ total	35	35	140

reliability coefficients were determined separately for the Grade One and Grade Four samples. Tables 5 and 6 show internal consistency reliability coefficients before and after items were removed from each scale for the two groups.

For the first grade sample, internal consistency reliability is satisfactory for the hostility subscale and for the total score (coefficient alpha > .70). The rest of the subscales had moderate reliability (coefficient alpha between .47 to .57).

For the fourth grade sample, most of the subscales and the total score had satisfactory reliability (coefficient alpha > .60). The coefficient alpha is quite low for the

Rejection subscale. For this study, all results related to this subscale are rendered uninterpretable.

Table 5

Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients (alpha) for PARQ Scales and Total Scale (Grade One Sample)

Scale	Coeff. alpha All items	Item # removed	Coeff. alpha with item removed
Warmth (Father)	.52	#3	.56
Warmth (Mother)	.51	#3	.56
Hostility (Father)	.81	#1	.83
Hostility (Mother)	.77	#1	.81
Neglect (Father)	.48	#7	.57
Neglect (Mother)	.43	#7	.55
Rejection (Father)	.56	none	.56
Rejection (Mother)	.47	none	.47
Total Score (Father)	.79	none	.79
Total (Mother)	.72	none	.72

* Cronbach's coefficient alpha, $p < .001$ for all correlations

Concurrent validity has also been established for 3 of the 4 scales and the total scale for the Grade Four sample. The PARQ scales were correlated with a subcale of the Pasao

Self-Concept measure used in this study. This subscale included items on how the children view themselves in relation to mother, father, grandparents and teacher. As this self-concept scale partially measures self-concept derived from children's relationship with parents, it is expected that it should be associated with a measure of parent-child relationship such as the PARQ. Table 7 shows that this self-concept scale is significantly related to the PARQ for the fourth grade sample.

This finding was not found for the Grade One sample as the PARQ scale behaved differently for this group. This will be evident and will be discussed more thoroughly in the Results and Discussion sections.

Pasao Pictorial Self-Concept Rating Scale

This instrument was constructed by educational psychologists from the University of the Philippines (Munnariz & Pasao, 1988). It contains norms for Filipino children from urban and rural settings, including grades Kindergarten to Grade Four.

Each child was shown a series of 34 plates depicting a child in different situations. The child in the picture is the same sex as the subject. Each child was then asked to choose from among four pictures or figures the one he or she

Table 6

Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients (alpha) for PARQ Scales and Total Scale (Grade Four Sample)

Scale	Coeff. alpha All items	Item # removed	Coeff. alpha with item removed
Warmth (Father)	.59	none	.59
Warmth (Mother)	.62	none	.62
Hostility (Father)	.75	#1	.77
Hostility (Mother)	.78	#1	.80
Neglect (Father)	.60	#10	.65
Neglect (Mother)	.58	#10	.64
Rejection (Father)	.34	none	.34
Rejection (Mother)	.23	none	.23
Total Score (Father)	.71	none	.71
Total (Mother)	.74	none	.74

* Cronbach's coefficient alpha, $p < .001$ for all correlations

Table 7

Correlations between PARQ Scales and Self-concept in Relation to Significant Others (Grade Four only)

	Self-concept in relation to others	
	GIRLS	BOYS
Warmth (Father)	.24**	.29***
Warmth (Mother)	.20*	.22*
Hostility (Father)	-.22*	-.21*
Hostility (Mother)	-.21**	-.09
Neglect (Father)	-.24**	-.43***
Neglect (Mother)	-.22**	-.38**
Rejection (Father)	-.03	-.05
Rejection (Mother)	.10	-.04
Total Score (Father)	-.30**	-.28**
Total (Mother)	-.28**	-.36***

* significant at alpha = .05
** significant at alpha = .01
*** significant at alpha = .001

saw as himself or herself. There are separate plates for boys and girls. The placement of the four options is identical, but figures represent the appropriate sex.

This pictorial scale has two subscales: "Endearing traits", also referred to in this study as "View of Self", and "Relationships with others". The latter subscale includes situations with significant adults: parents, grandparents and teacher, and one plate shows a situation with peers.

Scoring the Pasao scale

Each of the response alternatives to a plate has a corresponding score. Scores for each plate range from 1 to 4. Scores are added for the 1st 18 plates to form the Subscale "Endearing traits", and for the next 16 plates to form the subscale "Relationship with significant others." The two scales combine to form the total score. The higher the score, the higher the self-concept.

Raw scores were used for most of the statistical analysis: mean scores and correlations. Percentile ranks were used to identify children high and low in self-concept in the observational part of the study. Percentile ranks were determined from the norms set by Munarriz and Pasao (1988) for urban children in Grades One and Four respectively.

Reliability and Validity of the Pasao Scale

Both reliability and validity data were obtained from the test manual developed by Munarriz and Pasao (1988). Table 8 shows internal consistency and test-retest reliability coefficients for each of the subscales and the total scale.

Table 8

Reliability Coefficients for the Pasao Pictorial Self-concept Scale

	Internal Consistency	Test-Retest
Scale 1 (Endearing Traits)	.66	.52
Scale 2 (Relationships with Significant Others)	.77	.55
Total Scale	.79	.54

*all coefficients are significant at .01 alpha level

To test the validity of this instrument, teachers were asked to rate children on such traits as: Confident, Not Confident, Healthy, Not Healthy. Total scores were correlated with the Pictorial Scale. (see Table 9)

Although the figures below are not high, comparisons between children identified by teachers as high and low in

self-concept are probably most relevant for this study. For these groups of children, differences in scores on the Pictorial Self-concept Scale are reflected in teachers' ratings.

Table 9

Validity Coefficients for the Pictorial Scale

	Teacher Rating
Scale 1 (Endearing Traits)	.17*
Scale 2 (Relationships with Significant Others)	.07(NS)
Total Scale	.14*

*coefficients are significant at .010 alpha level

Those rated high in self-concept scored significantly higher in the Pictorial Scale than those rated low in self-concept by teachers (M= 117.08 and M=107.96 respectively, $t=3.82$, $p<.01$). The Scale appears to be able to discriminate between those with high and those with low self-concept.

Peer Play Scale

The original intention was to conduct structured observations using pre-set play categories. However, difficulties were encountered with the original structured

observation guide. There were two observers, one with a bachelor's degree in Psychology, and the other a 3rd-year graduating Psychology major. The use of the structured play scale were discussed with them and they practiced the use of this scale in two visits each to a community playground where they separately observed children at play. They then practiced together in the two schools in Las Pinas, twice for each grade. The researchers found that:

1. Due to a short recess period, many of the children did not play, and when they did, did so only briefly*,
2. There were other apparently significant play and non-play behaviors not included in the checklist, and
3. They had difficulty deciding categories spontaneously and found it easier to describe all behaviors observed leaving categorization to be done later.

Due to these observations, this researcher decided that unstructured observations would yield more accurate data, including observations that could be potentially useful.

The observers then practiced simultaneously the unstructured observations with children not chosen for this part of the study.

* It was also observed that the four schools had limited play space and equipment, with only an empty lot or corridors available for space, and monkey bars in the lot of one school.

Inter-observer reliability

Reliability was determined by computing the percentage of behavioral units that were similarly recorded by the two observers as part of the data used in this study. A behavior or group of behaviors was considered a unit if it seems to have a common theme, and co-exist to meet that theme. For example, in the observation "he read a textbook and started writing down answers in his notebook", reading and writing were considered part of the same unit as they are work-related and the latter could not be done without the reading aspect. On the other hand, the observation "he copied notes on the board while talking to his classmates" consisted of two units, as there are two independent behaviors, one work-related, the other social. Percent agreement was computed using the formula:

$$\% \text{ Agreement} = \frac{\text{Number of behavior units recorded by both observers}}{\text{Total number of behavior units observed}} \times 100$$

The two researchers made simultaneous observations of 16 children out of a total of 32 children. The other observations were done independently. The first observer agreed with the second observer 71.3% of the time (72 similar observations out of a total of 101 behavioral units

observed), while the second observer agreed with the first 74.2% (72/97) of the time. Average percent agreement is 71.7% (144/198).

Procedure

Pre-data gathering phase

Permission to conduct observations of, and administer surveys to, two sections each of first and fourth graders were requested from principals of two public and two private coeducational elementary schools in Metro Manila.

Once granted, the researchers requested the cooperation of the teachers of selected sections. Only sections with a fairly equal number of boys and girls were included. When there were several such sections, two from each grade level were randomly selected.

Letters were sent to parents informing them of the study and asking for permission for possible inclusion of their child in the study (Appendices F & G). Children were also informed of the study and their assent to participate obtained (see Appendix H).

Data-gathering phase

1) Administering Questionnaires

All children with parental consent in the selected sections were given four questionnaires at two or three

different times. The Sociometric survey was done first as it was necessary for identifying children for the observations. It was immediately followed by either the PARQ for mother or for father. This was done in order to minimize the possibility of children discussing the peer ratings activity. The PARQ for mother and for father were administered one after the other. In half of the cases, the one for mother was given first, in the other half, the reverse was done. The three other instruments were given at another time in counterbalanced order.

For the fourth graders, measures were administered in the classroom. For the first graders, individual administration was necessary.

2) Sampling from the sociometric scale

Scores were tallied and the mean computed for each child. The researcher then categorized children as low or high in popularity and randomly selected two per category (one boy and one girl) from each class if there were more than two for each category. In three classes, there were no children with very low sociometry ratings. Thus there were fewer unpopular children included in the observations (see Table 3). The names of the selected children were given to the observers. The observers did not know who were rated as popular or unpopular.

3) Observations

The selected children were observed unobtrusively during recess (see Appendix I for consent procedure). A total of 32 children were observed during recess. Twenty-five were observed on two separate occasions, two weeks apart; 7 were observed only once due to absenteeism during the weeks of observations.

The observers situated themselves in the classroom/corridor or playground where they could see the three areas. They were far enough from each observed child that they would not come in contact with the child unless they were directly approached. But they were near enough that they could easily see what the child did. They wrote down all observations of the target child's behaviors. They were also instructed not to compare their observations.

Data Analysis

Different sources of data were used to assess each problem. Analyses of the data were done accordingly:

Problem #1

To test the hypothesis "There are differences in types of play engaged in by boys and girls, children in first and fourth grades, and children from the low and middle socioeconomic status" , cross-tabulations of play activities were done with the variables above. For this analysis, data

from 437 children were available. Play activities were based on responses to the Home Play Survey. Some activities or toys were grouped together due to similarity of function (e.g. videogames was used as the overall term for very similar games such as computer games, Sega/Nintendo, Gameboy). Differences between the groups designated above were determined by looking at frequencies and percentages of children giving similar responses.

Problem #2

To test the second hypothesis, "Playing with father/mother is significantly related to the child's perception of his or her relationship with the father/mother, and with the child's self-concept", a correlation matrix was produced for groups of children categorized according to Grade level, sex and school. The correlation matrix included the children's scores in the four scales of the Child PARQ (for mother and father), total score of Child PARQ (for mother and father), scores in the Self-Concept subscales and total scale, and children's reported frequency of their mothers/fathers playing with them. Only children with complete data in all relevant variables were included. Data from 187 first graders and 181 fourth graders were included in the analysis.

Regression analysis was also done to test possible models for predicting self-concept, with parental rejection and parent-child play as predictors.

Problem #3

To answer the third problem, "What is the relationship between a child's peer play activities, peer popularity and self-concept?", two hypotheses were presented. The first hypothesis that "there are differences in types of play engaged in by popular and unpopular children" was tested using observational data from 32 children identified as popular and unpopular. Cross-tabulations of frequency of occurrence of various behaviors were done to describe play activities as well as other social behaviors of these two groups. The behaviors were categorized according to the categories included in the original Peer Play Scale. New categories were also derived from the other observed non-play behaviors such as "fighting", "work-related", etc. (Appendices J & K).

The second hypothesis was, "The more frequently the child engages in social play, the higher the peer popularity rating of that child, and the higher the child's score in the self-concept scale". It was not possible to test this hypothesis with the data obtained as the play activities observed were not numerous enough for any useful quantification to be possible. Instead, the groupings were

refined such that play and other social behaviors of children varying in both popularity and self-concept could be described. As only twenty-five children had completed the Pasao Pictorial scale, only data from these children were included in the analysis. The 60th percentile was the median split for this group and it was used to categorize children as high or low in self-concept.

Frequency counts of the different observed behaviors were cross-tabulated according to both popularity and self-concept.

To see if a relationship exists between popularity and self-concept, two analyses were done:

1. Correlation between popularity ratings and self-concept scores, and
2. Comparison of mean self-concept scores of popular and unpopular children.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

The content of this chapter is arranged according to the order of the problem statements. The first two sections describe play activities in the home, in general, and specifically play with their parents. The third section describes play in school with their peers.

Play activities at home

This first section answers the question posed in the first problem, "What play activities are engaged in by children categorized according to sex, age, and socio-economic status?" It was hypothesized that there would be differences in play activities between boys and girls, between first and fourth graders and between low and middle SES children. Responses of the children to the question "What play activities do you play at home?" were tabulated, and frequency counts were done according to the groups mentioned above.

Sex differences in play at home

Responses of boys and girls reflect similarities and also differences. Table 10 summarizes boys' and girls' most frequent play activities. Similar data showing most frequently mentioned play activities by sex, age and school/ socioeconomic status are in tables 11 - 14.

There were three play activities mentioned by both sexes. Videogames, outdoor games, and ball games were among the top five most frequently mentioned games by both boys and girls.

Table 10

Play activities of Boys and Girls at Home

Rank	Play of Girls n = 237	f	%	Play of Boys n = 200	f	%
1	dolls	206	87.0	cars	97	48.5
2	house	131	55.3	videogames	82	41.0
3	outdoor/motor games	78	32.9	outdoor/motor games	81	40.5
4	videogames	70	29.5	ball games	74	37.0
5	ball games	48	20.0	"fighting" dolls	69	34.5
6	stuffed toys	39	16.4	guns	48	24.0

Videogames include computer games, TV-hook-up games such as Nintendo, Sega, and portable games such as Game Boy. Outdoor games are group, motor games which require gross motor skills such as running, jumping or throwing, but which are differentiated from ball games. These include the more traditional Filipino games such as

"langit-lupa" (heaven-earth), "tumbang-preso" (knocking off a can), "patintero", "habulan" (tag), "luksong-tinik" (leap-thornbush), and "luksong-baka" (leap-cow).*

The differences in boys' and girls' play seem to reflect sex-typed play activities. Playing with dolls and playing house were the top 2 play activities of girls but these were rarely mentioned by the boys. While boys also played with "dolls", these were not the baby dolls or Barbie as mentioned by girls. Boys play with "fighting" dolls which include figures such as the Ninja Turtles, GI Joe, X-men, superheroes and small plastic soldiers. Apparently even doll play is sex-typed.

Boys play with cars, trucks and other models of vehicles; these were rarely listed by the girls. Ball games were also mentioned by more boys than girls. Seventy-four of the boys (37%) mentioned ball games compared to forty-eight (20.2%) of the girls (Chi Square = 14.29, $p < .001$).

* loose translations by writer. See Appendix L for brief descriptions of these games.

Among the girls, only the older girls from the public schools mentioned ball games with relative frequency (for more detailed listings of play activities according to grade, sex and school, see Tables 11 - 14).

Table 11

Play Activities of First Grade Girls at Home

	Public n = 68			Private n = 38		
	f	%	Rank	f	%	Rank
dolls	57	83.8	1	32	84.2	1
playing house	53	77.9	2	25	65.8	2
motor games* (hide/seek,etc)	23	33.8	3	6	15.8	
videogames	17	25.0	4	10	26.3	3
stuffed toys	9	13.2		8	21.0	4
ball games	8			6		

*hide/seek includes other outdoor, motor, group games such as "patintero", "tumbang preso", "langit-lupa", etc.

Table 12

Play Activities of Fourth Grade Girls at Home

	Public n = 69			Private n = 62		
	f	%	Rank	f	%	Rank
dolls	62	89.9	1	55	88.7	1
playing house	39	56.5	2	24	38.7	3
motor games	36	52.2	3	13	21.0	6
videogames	15	21.7	5	28	45.2	2
stuffed toys	7	10.0		15	24.2	4
ballgames	25	36.2	4	9	14.5	
boardgames				14	22.6	5

Age differences in play activities at home

For both boys and girls, more of the older children reported playing ball games than younger children. Fewer of the older girls played house, although this was still a popular activity among the fourth graders. Table 15 compares number of first and fourth graders reporting these play activities. The older boys did not report playing with robots which the younger boys did.

There were some age differences which were also a function of socioeconomic status. More of the older

Table 13

Play Activities of First Grade Boys at Home

	Public n = 64			Private n = 30		
	f	%	Rank	f	%	Rank
motor games	34	53.1	1	4		
cars/trucks	28	43.8	2	17	56.7	1
videogames	21	32.8	4	12	40.0	4
ballgames	18	28.1	5	7	23.3	6
guns	22	34.4	3	2		
superheroes/ soldiers	17	26.6	6	13	43.3	2.5
robots	12	18.8		10	33.3	5
legos	2	3.1		13	43.3	2.5

*superheroes/soldiers include Ninja turles, wrestlers, "tau-tauhan", etc.

children from the middle class played videogames compared to their younger counterparts and to the lower class children (see Table 16). Playing with legos was popular only among the middle class first grade boys (43%). This was not mentioned by the older children, and only by 2 children (3.1%) of the public school first grade boys.

Table 14

Play Activities of Fourth Grade Boys at Home

	Public n = 52			Private n = 54		
	f	%	Rank	f	%	Rank
motor games	29	55.8	1.5	14	25.9	5.5
cars/trucks	26	50.0	3	26	48.1	2
videogames	16	30.8	5	33	66.1	1
ballgames	29	55.8	1.5	20	37.0	4
guns	10	19.2		14	25.9	5.5
superheroes soldiers	16	30.8	5.5	23	42.6	3

Table 15

Grade One and Grade Four Children Reporting Ball Games and Playing House

Play	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR		CHI SQUARE
	f	%	f	%	
Ball games	39	19.5	83	35.1	12.23***
Playing house (girls only)	78	73.6	63	48.1	14.76***

*** significant at p = .001

Table 16

Number of Children Playing Videogames by Age and Socioeconomic Status

	PUBLIC/LOW SES		PRIVATE/HIGH SES		
	Grade 1	Grade 4	Grade 1	Grade 4	TOTAL
Yes	38 (28.8)[a]	31 (25.6)	22 (32.4)	61 (52.6)	152 (34.8)
No	94 (71.2)	90 (74.4)	46 (67.6)	55 (47.4)	285 (65.2)
TOTAL	132	121	68	116	437

[a] numbers in parentheses refer to percentages
NOTE: Chi Square = 22.96, $p < .001$

Socioeconomic/school differences in play activities at home

There were some differences in play activities of children from the public and private schools. Stuffed toys and constructions toys ("Legos" were specifically mentioned) were among those mentioned by girls and boys respectively from the private schools but not by children from the public schools. Among the fourth graders, boardgames seem to be common among the private school girls but not the public school girls (see Table 12).

While "dolls" were the most frequently mentioned play activity of girls regardless of socioeconomic status, there is an interesting difference in the kind of

dolls they have (See Table 17). More of the private school girls specifically mentioned "Barbie" (71.2%), an import from the U.S., while more of the public school girls (68.1%) used the more generic terms "dolls" or "manika" (Filipino word for doll; Chi Square = 12.09, $p < .001$).

Table 17

Dolls Mentioned by Public and Private School Girls

	Public Schools n = 119		Private Schools n = 87	
	f	%	f	%
Barbie	51	42.8	62	71.2
Dolls/Manika	81	68.1	37	42.4

*Percentages do not total 100 because a child may give both responses.

Table 18 shows that outdoor play activities, both traditional outdoor games and ballgames, are not as common among the private school children as among the public school children. More of the children from the public schools, regardless of age and sex, reported outdoor games as one of their play activities at home.

Table 18

Outdoor Games of Public and Private School Children

	Public (n = 253)		Private (n = 184)		Chi Square
	f	%	f	%	
Ball games	72	28.5	36	19.6	4.06*
Outdoor/ motor games	112	44.3	37	20.1	26.61***

Further analysis shows that there is an interaction between sex, age and socioeconomic status. The difference between public and private school children reporting ball games was evident only among older girls. There was no difference between younger children and older boys from the public and private schools (see Table 19).

Table 19

Number of Children Playing Ball Games by Age, Sex and Socioeconomic Status

	PUBLIC f	PUBLIC %	PRIVATE f	PRIVATE %	CHI SQUARE
GRADE ONE:					
girls	8	11.8	6	15.8	.08
boys	18	28.1	7	23.3	.06
GRADE FOUR:					
girls	25	36.2	9	14.52	6.92**
boys	29	55.8	10	37.0	3.02

** significant at alpha = .01

Parent-child play

This section is divided into two parts. The first answers the second problem "What is the relationship between playing with parents, child's report of parent-child relations, and child's self-concept?" The second part describes patterns of parent-child play according to sex, age and socioeconomic status. While this was not part of the problem, the researcher decided to include this analysis as differential patterns could give more insight into the relationship between the variables state above.

Playing with parents, parental warmth and self-concept

It was hypothesized that the more frequent the play interaction between child and parent(s), the more the child will perceive parental warmth (lower scores in the PARQ), and the higher the child's self-concept (higher scores in the Pasao).

Children were asked how often their mothers and fathers played with them. They were asked whether their mothers and fathers play with them almost everyday, 3-4 times a week, 1-2 times per week, or do not play with them at all. Responses to this question were correlated with the subscales of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire and the Pasao Self-Concept Scale. Tables 20 and 21 show descriptive data for each of these scales. Correlations between age, sex, and socioeconomic status and each of the PARQ and self-concept scales are presented in the appendix (see Appendices M - O). Three-way analyses of variance, with age, sex, and socio-economic status as independent variables, and the PARQ and self-concept scales as dependent variables, are presented in Appendix P.

A correlation matrix was derived for each of the subgroups of children classified according to sex, age and socioeconomic status. These subgroups were kept

separate if the correlations differed in terms of direction and magnitude (i.e. having reached statistical significance or not). These analyses show that patterns emerged differently for Grade One and Grade Four data. Thus for this section, data are presented separately for the two age groups.

Correlation matrices show both the uncorrected coefficients and the correlations corrected for attenuation.

Playing with parents, parental warmth and self-concept: Grade Four data

No significant correlations emerged between frequency of parent-child play and either the PARQ and the Self-concept scales from data obtained from the boys (see Table 22). Thus the hypothesized relationship between these variables was not confirmed for boys.

Table 23 shows correlations obtained from girls. There was a similar pattern for mothers and fathers in that frequency of parent-child play was positively correlated with warmth, and negatively correlated with neglect and hostility by parents. The more frequently a parent engaged in play with the daughter, the warmer and the less neglecting and hostile the parent was perceived by her. The neglect subscale had the highest correlation with frequency of playing with parents. The rejection subscale

Table 20

Mean Scores in the Pasao and PARQ (Grade Four Data)

	PRIVATE		PUBLIC	
	GIRLS n = 36	BOYS n = 38	GIRLS n = 63	BOYS n = 44
FATHER: WARMTH	20.19 (2.80)	23.00 (3.17)	23.32 (3.43)	22.52 (3.80)
HOSTILITY	19.56 (4.65)	22.00 (6.66)	22.19 (6.10)	22.68 (7.85)
NEGLECT	12.58 (3.28)	13.53 (4.25)	14.17 (3.43)	15.77 (4.95)
REJECTION	5.47 (1.90)	6.37 (1.92)	5.54 (2.19)	6.25 (2.33)
TOTAL	53.83 (9.17)	57.78 (11.36)	58.29 (11.20)	60.77 (16.40)
MOTHER: WARMTH	20.97 (3.10)	23.97 (2.71)	23.94 (3.16)	22.36 (4.06)
HOSTILITY	20.92 (5.57)	20.91 (5.92)	23.10 (7.14)	23.73 (8.76)
NEGLECT	12.89 (3.31)	12.32 (4.58)	14.11 (3.17)	15.98 (5.09)
REJECTION	5.81 (1.94)	6.11 (1.71)	5.71 (2.19)	6.23 (2.08)
TOTAL	54.69 (11.23)	57.56 (12.40)	58.89 (12.24)	63.36 (16.22)
SELF-CONCEPT :VIEW OF SELF	62.89 (3.98)	61.24 (5.39)	64.41 (7.06)	64.30 (4.09)
:RELATION TO OTHERS	54.17 (6.75)	53.16 (6.55)	55.29 (8.74)	53.50 (5.40)
:TOTAL	117.03 (9.50)	113.03 (10.05)	118.35 (9.90)	117.86 (7.83)

NOTE: Standard deviation values within parentheses.

Table 21

Mean Scores in the Pasao and PARQ (Grade One Data)

	PRIVATE		PUBLIC	
	GIRLS n = 35	BOYS n = 27	GIRLS n = 65	BOYS n = 60
FATHER: WARMTH	20.52 (2.79)	20.56 (2.91)	21.11 (2.83)	20.77 (2.91)
HOSTILITY	21.64 (6.70)	21.78 (7.52)	22.02 (7.85)	21.30 (7.05)
NEGLECT	14.55 (4.23)	15.11 (4.19)	15.66 (4.57)	14.85 (4.23)
REJECTION	5.97 (2.28)	5.74 (2.51)	5.57 (2.42)	4.68 (2.00)
TOTAL	58.00 (10.07)	59.22 (12.85)	59.03 (14.50)	56.63 (11.81)
MOTHER: WARMTH	20.46 (3.10)	20.56 (2.99)	21.32 (2.60)	21.45 (3.02)
HOSTILITY	21.83 (6.44)	21.85 (7.26)	21.83 (7.11)	21.15 (6.78)
NEGLECT	14.31 (3.96)	15.07 (4.24)	15.86 (4.46)	14.80 (3.73)
REJECTION	5.97 (2.20)	5.85 (2.18)	5.68 (2.32)	4.78 (1.07)
TOTAL	59.29 (9.70)	59.44 (13.37)	58.69 (13.00)	55.88 (11.62)
SELF-CONCEPT :VIEW OF SELF	62.51 (7.09)	63.07 (6.15)	60.43 (5.81)	61.48 (6.82)
:RELATION TO OTHERS	53.80 (5.83)	47.52 (6.95)	54.63 (6.54)	53.85 (6.18)
:TOTAL	117.23 (8.10)	110.70 (10.88)	115.14 (10.15)	115.20 (11.76)

NOTE: Standard deviation values within parentheses.

Table 22

Correlations between Frequency of Parent-son Play and Scores in the PARQ: Grade Four Data (n = 82)

	PLAYMOM		PLAYDAD	
Warmth of Mother	.14	(.17)		
Hostility of Mother	.09	(.10)		
Neglect by Mother	-.09	(-.11)		
Rejection subscale (Mother)	.01	(.02)		
Rejection Total (Mother)	-.01	(-.01)		
Warmth of Father			.03	(.03)
Hostility of Father			.01	(.01)
Neglect by Father			-.15	(-.19)
Rejection subscale (Father)			-.001	(-.001)
Rejection Total (Father)			-.07	(-.08)
Self-concept (view of self)	-.01	(-.02)	-.18	(-.22)
Self-concept (in relation to significant others)	.02	(.02)	-.09	(-.11)
Total Self-concept	-.17	(-.19)	-.05	(-.05)

NOTE: PLAYMOM is correlated with mother variables only, PLAYDAD with father variables.

: correlations in parentheses are corrected for attenuation

* significant at alpha $\leq$ .05, otherwise not significant

Table 23

Correlations between Frequency of Parent-daughter Play and Scores in the PARQ: Grade Four Data (n = 99)

	PLAYMOM		PLAYDAD	
Warmth of Mother	.22*	(.28)*		
Hostility of Mother	-.20*	(-.22)*		
Neglect by Mother	-.36*	(-.45)*		
Rejection subscale (Mother)	-.10	(-.21)		
Rejection Total (Mother)	-.28*	(.33)*		
Warmth of Father			.27*	(.35)*
Hostility of Father			-.20*	(-.23)*
Neglect by Father			-.35*	(-.43)*
Rejection subscale (Father)			-.03	(-.05)
Rejection Total (Father)			-.30*	(-.36)*
Self-concept (view of self)	.15	(.18)	.16	(.20)
Self-concept (in relation to significant others)	.06	(.07)	.05	(.06)
Total Self-concept	.11	(.16)	.14	(.16)

NOTE: PLAYMOM is correlated with mother variables only, PLAYDAD with father variables.

: correlations in parentheses are corrected for attenuation

* significant at alpha $\leq$ .05, otherwise not significant

was not significantly correlated with parent-child play. Given the poor reliability of this subscale, this finding is uninterpretable.

Frequency of parent-child play was not significantly correlated with the self-concept scales; these results do not support the hypothesis that these variables are correlated.

Correlations between parental warmth and self-concept: Grade Four data

For this analysis, data from boys and girls were combined as patterns were very similar between these two groups, i.e. correlations between the same sets of variables were both significant and in the same direction for these two groups. There were significant correlations between the Parental Acceptance-Rejection and the self-concept subscales. The correlations were weaker for the "view of self" subscale, and stronger for self-concept in relation to significant others (see Table 24). In general, the less rejecting (or the more accepting) a parent, the higher the self-concept of the child.

The Neglect-self-concept relationship appeared to be strongest. Neglect of parent moderately correlated with self-concept in relation to others. The less neglecting a

parent, the higher the self-concept of the child in relation to significant others.

In summary, the hypothesized relationships were partially shown to be true. Among the fourth grade girls frequency of parent-daughter play was correlated with self-concept. For both boys and girls, perceived parental warmth was correlated with self-concept.

Predicting self-concept: Grade Four data

A regression analysis was done to check how well frequency of parent-child play and parental rejection (PARQ total score) predict self-concept. Separate analyses were done for boys and girls as the patterns of correlations differed between these two groups. Separate analyses were also done for mother and father.

For the female fourth graders, parental rejection directly correlated with self-concept. Frequency of parent-daughter play was no longer significantly correlated with self-concept once parental rejection has been taken into account (see Tables 25 and 26 for correlation coefficients and beta weights respectively). For this group, parental rejection served as an intervening variable between parent-child play and child's self-concept.

Table 24

Correlations between PARQ Scales and Self-Concept Scales: Grade Four Data (n = 181)

	SELF-CONCEPT					
	view of self		relation to significant others		TOTAL	
MOTHER:						
Warmth	.14*	(.22)*	.22*	(.32)*	.17*	(.24)*
Hostility	-.20*	(-.28)*	-.22*	(-.28)*	-.24*	(-.30)*
Neglect	-.09	(.14)	-.29*	(-.41)*	-.28*	(-.39)*
Rejection (subscale)	-.02	(-.05)	-.09	(-.21)	-.05	(-.12)
Rejection (total)	-.18*	(-.25)*	-.31*	(-.41)*	-.29*	(-.38)*
FATHER:						
Warmth	.16*	(.26)*	.26*	(.39)*	.23*	(.34)*
Hostility	-.18*	(-.25)*	-.22*	(-.29)*	-.22*	(-.28)*
Neglect	-.09	(-.14)	-.33*	(-.47)*	-.31*	(-.43)*
Rejection (subscale)	-.02	(-.04)	-.06	(-.12)	-.01	(-.02)
Rejection total	-.12	(-.18)	-.28*	(-.38)*	-.25*	(-.33)*

NOTE: figures in parentheses are correlations corrected for attenuation

* significant at alpha $\leq$ .05, otherwise not significant.

Table 25

Correlations Between Parent-child Play, Parental Rejection, and Self-concept: Grade Four girls (n=99)

	Parent-child Play	Parental Rejection	Self-Concept
MOTHER:			
Parent-child Play	1.00	-.33	.16
Parental Rejection		1.00	-.38
Self-concept			1.00
FATHER:			
Parent-child Play	1.00	-.36	.16
Parental Rejection		1.00	-.33
Self-concept			1.00

NOTE: correlations presented are corrected for attenuation

Figure 2 illustrates a model representing this relationship between the three variables.

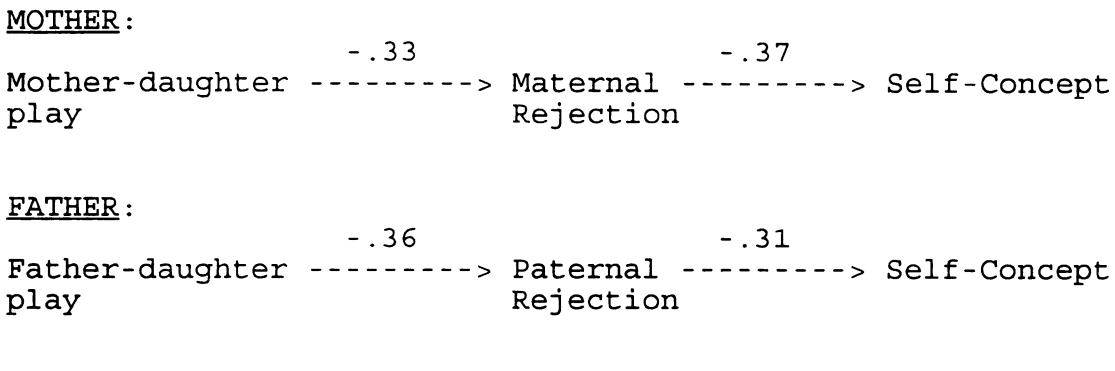


Figure 2. A model predicting self-concept of fourth grade girls.

For the male fourth graders, different models are presented for mother and father. Only rejection by the mother was directly related to self-concept. The less rejecting the mother, the higher the self-concept of the child. Frequency of playing with mother was neither related to self-concept nor to parental rejection (see Table 27).

Relations with the father predicted self-concept in a different way. Rejection and father-son play independently predicted self-concept of fourth grade boys. The less rejecting the father, and the less frequent father-son play, the higher the self-concept of the child. Parent-child play was not related to parental rejection. Figure 3 shows this relationship. Tables 28 and 29 show correlations and beta weights/partial correlations between the three variables respectively.

Table 26

Beta Weights/ Partial Correlations between Parent-child Play, Parental Rejection and Self-Concept: Grade Four girls

	Parent-child play	Parental Rejection	Self Concept	S.E. of B	R
MOTHER:					
Parent-child Play	1.00	-.33	.04	.12	.38
Parental Rejection		1.00	-.38	.13	
Self-concept			1.00		
FATHER:					
Parent-child Play	1.00	-.36	.05	.12	.33
Parental Rejection		1.00	-.31	.14	
Self-concept			1.00		

Table 27

Correlations Between Mother-child Play, Maternal Rejection, and Self-concept: Grade Four boys (n=82)

	Parent-child Play	Parental Rejection	Self-Concept
MOTHER:			
Parent-child Play	1.00	-.01	-.05
Parental Rejection		1.00	-.36
Self-concept			1.00

NOTE: correlations presented are corrected for attenuation

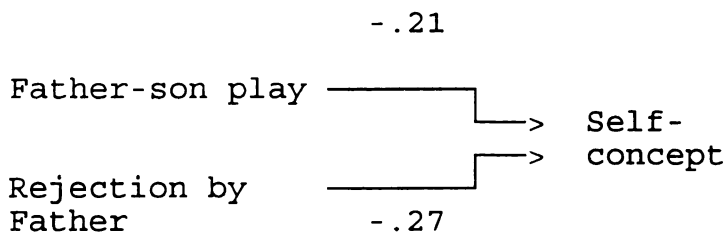


Figure 3. A model predicting self-concept of fourth grade boys.

Table 28

Correlations Between Father-son Play, Paternal Rejection, and Self-concept: Grade Four boys (n=82)

	Parent-child Play	Parental Rejection	Self-Concept
FATHER:			
Parent-child Play	1.00	-.08	-.19
Parental Rejection		1.00	-.25
Self-concept			1.00

NOTE: correlations presented are corrected for attenuation

Table 29

Beta Weights/ Partial Correlations between Parent-child Play, Parental Rejection and Self-Concept: Grade Four Boys

	Parent-child play	Parental Rejection	Self Concept	S.E. of B	R
FATHER:					
Parent-child Play	1.00	-.08	-.21	.12	.33
Parental Rejection		1.00	-.27	.14	
Self-concept			1.00		

Playing with parents, parent-child relationship and self-concept: Grade One data

Grade One data were combined for all subjects. In contrast to the Grade Four data, the relationship between frequency of parent-child play and the PARQ scales were the reverse of what was hypothesized. Table 30 shows that frequency of parent-child play was positively correlated with most of the scales measuring perceptions of negative parent behaviors, and inversely correlated with parental warmth. Generally it can be stated that the more frequently a parent plays with a child, the more rejecting (or less accepting) the parent is perceived by the child. This finding is the opposite of what was expected, and contradicts that of the fourth grade data. Possible explanations are in the discussion section.

When play was correlated with self-concept, the expected outcome was found to be true. The more frequent the parent-child play, the higher the self-concept of the child.

Table 30

Correlations between Frequency of Parent-child Play and Scores in the PARQ: Grade One Data (n = 187)

	PLAYMOM		PLAYDAD	
Warmth of Mother	-.19*	(-.25)*		
Hostility of Mother	.29*	(.32)*		
Neglect by Mother	.27*	(.36)*		
Rejection subscale (Mother)	.14	(.20)		
Rejection Total (Mother)	.30*	(.35)*		
Warmth of Father			-.24*	(-.28)*
Hostility of Father			.22*	(.24)*
Neglect by Father			.13	(.17)
Rejection subscale (Father)			.14	(.19)
Rejection Total (Father)			.22*	(.25)*
Self-concept (view of self)	.23*	(.28)*	.30*	(.37)*
Self-concept (in relation to significant others)	.24*	(.27)*	.29*	(.33)*
Total Self-concept	.32*	(.36)*	.39*	(.44)*

NOTE: PLAYMOM is correlated with mother variables only, PLAYDAD with father variables.

: correlations in parentheses are corrected for attenuation

* significant at alpha $\leq$ .05, otherwise not significant

Correlations between parental warmth and self-concept: Grade One data

Unlike the fourth grade data, there were more significant correlations between the Parental acceptance-rejection scales and "view of self" self-concept rather than the self-concept in relation to others subscale (see Table 31).

The correlations between the PARQ and self-concept scales were also the opposite of what was expected. While the correlations were weak, the direction of these coefficients shows that the more rejecting (or less accepting) a parent, the better the child views himself or herself. Among the PARQ subscales, it was the Rejection subscale which has the strongest relationship (although still weak) with self-concept, i.e. the more rejecting a parent is perceived, the higher the self-concept of the child.

Predicting self-concept: Grade One

One model is presented for first graders since data from boys and girls, using mother and father variables, fit the same model. Parent-child play and parental rejection both significantly predict self-concept. Figure 4 shows that the more frequent the parent-child play, and the more rejecting the parent, the higher the self-concept of the child.

Table 31

Correlations between PARQ Scales and Self-Concept Scales: Grade One Data (n = 187)

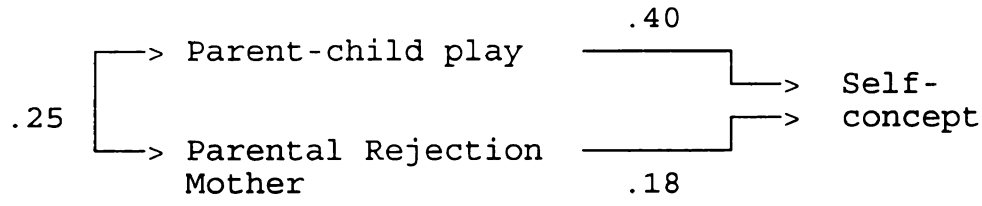
	SELF-CONCEPT					
	view of self		relation to significant others		TOTAL	
MOTHER:						
Warmth	-.17*	(-.28)*	-.04	(-.06)	-.18*	(-.27)*
Hostility	.22*	(.30)*	.17*	(.22)*	.26*	(.33)*
Neglect	.11	(.18)	.12	(.18)	.19*	(.29)*
Rejection (subscale)	.26*	(.47)*	.09	(.15)	.22*	(.36)*
Rejection (total)	.21*	(.30)*	.08	(.11)	.21*	(.28)*
FATHER:						
Warmth	-.15*	(-.25)*	-.09	(-.14)	-.20*	(-.30)*
Hostility	.22*	(.24)*	.15*	(.19)*	.24*	(.30)*
Neglect	.14*	(.23)*	.14*	(.21)*	.21*	(.31)*
Rejection (subscale)	.26*	(.43)*	.07	(.11)	.21*	(.32)*
Rejection (total)	.21*	(.29)*	.11	(.14)	.23*	(.29)*

NOTE: correlations in parentheses are corrected for attenuation

* significant at alpha $\leq$ .05, otherwise not significant

Parent-child play contributes more to the variation in self-concept than does parental rejection. Tables 32 and 33 show correlations and beta weight matrices respectively for the three variables.

MOTHER:



FATHER:

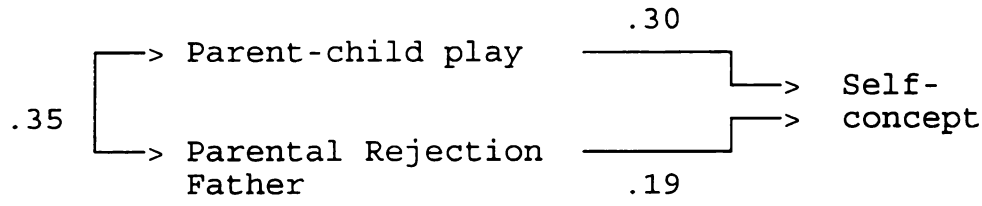


Figure 4. A model predicting self-concept of first graders.

Table 32

Correlations Between Parent-child Play, Parental Rejection, and Self-concept: Grade One (n=187)

	Parent-child Play	Parental Rejection	Self-Concept
MOTHER:			
Parent-child Play	1.00	.25	.44
Parental Rejection		1.00	.28
Self-concept			1.00
FATHER:			
Parent-child Play	1.00	.35	.36
Parental Rejection		1.00	.29
Self-concept			1.00

NOTE: correlations presented are corrected for attenuation

Table 33

Beta Weights/ Partial Correlations between Parent-child Play, Parental Rejection and Self-Concept: Grade One

	Parent-child play	Parental Rejection	Self Concept	S.E. of B	R
MOTHER:					
Parent-child Play	1.00	.25	.40	.07	.47
Parental Rejection		1.00	.18	.09	
Self-concept			1.00		
FATHER:					
Parent-child Play	1.00	.35	.30	.08	.40
Parental Rejection		1.00	.19	.09	
Self-concept			1.00		

Other results: parent-child play activities

As in the first section, responses of the children were tallied according to sex, grade level and school. Tables 34 to 37 show that there was quite a diversity of parent-child play activities. As the children in this study generally gave only one or two responses to the question "What games do you play with her (mother)/ him (father)?", there were

few common responses. A condensed table showing only common responses is shown below (see Table 38).

Table 34

Mother-daughter Play Activities

	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR	
	Public n = 68	Private n = 38	Public n = 69	Private n = 62
	f	f	f	f
dolls	7	5	1	4
house	8	2	1	7
videogames	10	6	5	15
boardgames	3	2	3	1
jokes/stories	2	5	6	4
NONE	19	7	29	8

Other responses:

ball games
books
cards
garter
ghosts
guns
legos
outdoor games
piano
stuffed toys
sungka
teacher-teacher/doctor-doctor
tickling

Table 35

Mother-son Play Activities

	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR	
	Public n = 64	Private n = 30	Public n = 52	Private n = 54
	f	f	f	f
videogames	16	6	4	19
boardgames		1	2	9
tag	7	1	4	6
NONE	21	14	34	12

Other responses:

badminton
ball games
bike
cards
cars
ghosts
GI Joe
guns
house
jokes
legos
puzzles
reading
sungka
teacher-teacher
tennis
tickling

Table 36

Father-daughter Play Activities

	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR	
	Public n = 68	Private n = 38	Public n = 69	Private n = 62
	f	f	f	f
videogames	4	7	6	11
boardgames	1	1	4	12
jokes/stories	4	3	1	7
outdoor games	16	1	8	10
NONE	16	8	32	14

Other responses:

ball games
bike
cards
cars
dolls
ghosts
guns
horsey
house
lambingan
market/store
piano
singing
scissors-paper-stone
stories
stuffed toys
swimming
teacher-teacher
tennis
tickling
television
wrestling

Table 37

Father-son Play Activities

	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR	
	Public n = 64	Private n = 30	Public n = 52	Private n = 54
	f	f	f	f
videogames	9	6	4	10
ball games	2	6	5	15
NONE	13	5	33	13

Other responses:

bike	kite
billiards	lambingan
boardgames	legos
cards	marbles
cars	outdoor games
darts	pingpong
drawing	reading
ghosts	robot
guitar	scissors-paper-stone
guns	sipa
horsey	tickling
house	TV
jokes	wrestling/karate

Table 38

Play Activities of Boys and Girls with Mothers and Fathers (condensed)

	Mother		Father	
	Girls n = 237 %	Boys n = 200 %	Girls n = 237 %	Boys n = 200 %
Videogames	15.2	22.5	11.8	14.5
Boardgames	8.4	----	----	----
Ballgames	----	----	----	14.0
Outdoor games (Active like tag)	----	9.0	14.3	----
NONE	26.2	40.5	29.1	32.0

*Blanks indicate very small frequencies.

Sex comparisons in parent-child play

Videogames were the most frequently mentioned parent-child play activity. These were mentioned by both boys and girls with both mothers and fathers.

The boys reported more active games with either parent, "tag" with their mothers and ball games with their fathers.

Girls, on the other hand, do also engage in active games but only with their fathers. Boardgames were reported to be played with their mothers.

In analyzing types of boardgames, there also existed a sex difference (see Table 39). As there was a very similar pattern for boys and girls, data were combined to reflect differences in boardgames played with mothers and fathers (Chi Square = 9.11, p = .003)

Table 39

Boardgames Played with Mothers and Fathers

	Mother	Father
	f	f
Word games	16	6
Strategy games	5	17
Others	7	5

More mothers play "word games" or boardgames which require or test verbal skills. Examples are Scrabble (the most frequently mentioned) and Boggle. More fathers play "strategy games" such as chess and checkers. These games require not only strategic planning, they are also "combat"

games wherein the objective is to conquer the game pieces of the opponent.

In analyzing "None" responses (i.e. to the question "What games do you play with her [mother]/ him [father]?"), more boys than girls reported not playing any games with either mother or father. The difference is largest when one looks at playing with mother. Chi Square analyses of number of boys and girls who play games and who do not play games with their mothers and fathers show that the difference is significant only for the mothers (see Tables 40 & 41). That is, more boys than girls reported that their mothers do not play any games with them, while more girls than boys reported the opposite. There was no significant difference in the percentage of fathers who play with their sons and daughters.

Table 40

Number of Boys and Girls Whose Mothers Play/do not play with Them

	Girls		Boys	
Mothers play				
Yes	175	(73.84%)	119	(59.50%)
No	62	(26.16%)	81	(40.50%)

Chi Square = 9.49, p = .002

Table 41

Number of Boys and Girls Whose Fathers Play/do not play with Them

	Girls		Boys	
Fathers play				
Yes	168	(70.88%)	136	(68.0%)
No	69	(29.11%)	64	(32.0%)

Chi Square = .301, p = .58^{ns}

Age and school differences in parent-child play

The only significant differences were in the responses of "None" to the question, "What games do you play with your mother/ father?". First, there was an interaction between age and socioeconomic status/school in that the difference between private and public school children was significant for the fourth graders. Table 42 shows that more public school than private school children reported that their parents do not play with them. This was true only for the fourth graders. First grade public and private school children do not differ in the percentage of "None" responses.

Table 42

Children by Grade and School Reporting that Parents Do Not Play with Them

	PUBLIC f	%	PRIVATE f	%	CHI SQUARE
Grade One:					
Mother	40	30.3	21	30.9	not significant
Father	29	22.0	13	19.1	not significant
Grade Four:					
Mother	63	52.1	20	17.2	30.05***
Father	65	53.7	27	23.3	21.85***

*** significant at alpha = .001

Second, there was also an age difference, although the pattern differed in the different socioeconomic classes. Among the public school/ low SES children, more of the older children reported that their parents do not play any games with them
(Chi Square = 11.50 and Chi Square = 25.911 for mother and father respectively, $p < .001$ in both cases). By fourth grade, more than half of the public school children said that their parents do not play with them.

Popularity, play and self-concept

For this section, data from observations of the 32 children selected on the basis of their popularity scores were analyzed. Twenty-five children were observed on two occasions, 7 were observed once.

In this analysis, data for popular and unpopular children were summed over sex, grade level and type of school. This was done as there were very few cases per cell, and the patterns among these different categories appeared to be very similar. Table 43 shows number of cases per cell.

Table 43

Number of Children Observed per Category

	GRADE ONE		GRADE FOUR		
	boys	girls	boys	girls	TOTAL
POPULAR	4	5	4	5	18
UNPOPULAR	5	4	3	2	14
TOTAL	9	9	7	7	32

All observed behaviors were listed and categories were then derived (see Table 44). This included play as well as other behaviors. The Peer Play Scale was also used to categorize play activities observed (see Table 46). For each child, a category is checked if it was observed to have occurred at least once. For example, if a child played tag more than once, the category "played with others" was checked for that child without taking frequency into account. Number of occurrences was not considered in order to control for number of observations; some children were observed twice, and others (7 of the 32) were observed only once.

This section answers the question "What is the relationship between a child's peer play activities, peer popularity and self-concept?" It was hypothesized that:

1. There are differences in types of play engaged in by popular and unpopular children, and
2. The more frequently the child engages in social play, the higher the peer popularity rating of that child, and the higher the child's score in the self-concept scale.

The second hypothesis was not tested as originally planned as the data did not allow sufficient quantification of "frequency of occurrence of social play." Instead, a different approach was taken examining differences in types

of play engaged in by children with high and low self-concept.

In addition, since unstructured general observations were done instead of structured observations of play behaviors only, other social behaviors aside from play were also noted. While this study centers on play activities, it was decided that other social behaviors be included in the analysis in order to get a more comprehensive view of how differently children of varying popularity and self-concept behave.

Popular and unpopular children

Play behaviors of popular and unpopular children

Because of the short 20-minute recess that the schools allowed, and because of the lack of play space and facilities, play activities observed were very limited in number. Nevertheless, some differences in play behaviors emerged between popular and unpopular children.

Table 44 shows that ten of the popular children (55.6%) played with others. In contrast, only 4 (28.6%) of the unpopular children did so. Table 39 lists play activities observed. Of the 18 activities observed from play of popular children, 12 involved 3 or more participants, while 6 were dyadic interactions; no one played alone. Among the unpopular children, 6 out of the 10 activities were group play, 2 were dyadic, and 2 were isolated.

Table 44

Behaviors During Recess of Popular and Unpopular Children

	POPULAR (n = 18)		UNPOPULAR (n = 14)	
	f	%	f	%
EATING				
with others	13	72.2	1	7.1
alone	0	0.0	9	64.3
PLAYING				
with others	10	55.6	4	28.6
alone	0	0.0	2	14.3
did not play	8	44.4	8	57.1
WORK-RELATED	8	44.4	6	42.9
TALKING				
with 2 or more	14	77.8	4	28.6
with one child	2	11.1	2	14.3
APPROACHED OTHERS	8	44.4	3	21.4
APPROACHED BY OTHERS	9	50.0	1	7.1
TAUNTING/TEASING	2	11.1	5	35.7
FIGHTING				
physical	1	5.6	2	14.3
verbal	0	0.0	5	35.7
AGGRESSIVE/* HYPERACTIVE	1	5.6	5	35.7
ALONE ENTIRE RECESS	0	0.0	8	57.1

* This includes behaviors such as aimless running around the room, climbing chairs/shelves, throwing things, etc.

Table 45

Play Activities of Popular and Unpopular Children

	# OF PARTICIPANTS			MOTOR GAMES	
	alone	2	≥3	motor physica	aggres-sive
POPULAR (n = 18)					
scissor-paper stone			x		
chanting (market song)			x		
tag (n=2)				x	
tug-of-war					
hitting hands		x			x
pinching		x			x
pulling			x		x
chasing/tickling (n=2)		x			
rubber bands (n=2)		x			
gameboy		x			
hide-and-seek			x		
chasing (n=2)			x	x	
startling game			x	x	
street fighter (karate)		x			x
TOTAL	0	5	6	3	4
UNPOPULAR (n = 10)					
tug-of-war			x	x	
monkey-monkey			x	x	
tag			x	x	
guessing game			x		
chasing/tickling			x	x	
running			x	x	
streetfighter		x			x
Indian rope/whip		x			x
kicking of object (chalk instead of sipa)	x			x	
pyramid (like monkey bars)	x			x	
TOTAL	2	2	6	7	2

Most of the play activities involved gross motor movements. One can classify these games further into three types: those that simply involve movement (such as running, climbing), those with additional physical contact (such as tickling, pulling), and those that also include aggression with the apparent intent to hurt the other person (e.g. pinching, kicking) as part of the game. In terms of aggression, there seemed to be little difference between the popular and unpopular children in number of occurrences in play (see Table 45). If one were were to count the number of games which involve active motor movement, unpopular children engaged in proportionally more motor games (9 out of 10 play activities listed) than popular children (10 out of 18).

Table 46 shows categories of play engaged in by the children. One notable difference was the occurrence of sensorimotor play among the unpopular children (3 children in the unpopular group, and none in the popular group). This type of play activity involves repetitive muscle movements with no effort at adaptation. It does not seem to have any other purpose except to practice movements.

It was also observed that all of the games played by both groups were very simple, with very simple rules. The more sophisticated games-with-rules such as boardgames, or the outdoor group games that were reported by children as

games they play at home, were not observed . Those play activities which were observed were mostly the aggressive activities (hitting, pinching) and the sensorimotor category (running).

Table 46

Categories of Play Activities of Popular and Unpopular Children

POPULARITY:	POPULAR n = 18	UNPOPULAR n = 14
Rough and tumble	6	3
Sensorimotor	0	3
Functional	4	0
Games with rules	6	2
Reciprocal	1	0
Reciprocal with social exchange	9	5
No play	8	8

Other behaviors of popular and unpopular children

There were other behaviors during recess which distinguished between these two groups of children (see Table 44 above). More of the unpopular children ate alone

and more were alone during the entire recess period compared to the popular children.

Both groups engaged in conversation, story-telling, joke-sharing with other children. However, more of the unpopular children did so with only one other child at a time while the popular children had more group verbal interactions.

Most of the popular children (15 out of 18) were approached by their peers for some form of interaction (such as play, conversation, etc.) while only two of the unpopular children were approached by others.

Negative behaviors were also seen to be more common among the unpopular children. Teasing and fighting were engaged in by more of these children. They also engaged in more aggressive/hyperactive behaviors such as kicking and throwing objects, aimless running and climbing on top of furniture.

Behaviors of high vs. low self-concept children

Play behaviors of children with high vs. low self-concept

Of the types of games played, Table 47 shows that while both groups primarily engaged in active, motor play, more of the games of low self-concept children were aggressive. More of them also played in pairs rather than in groups.

Table 47

Play Activities of High vs. Low Self-concept Children

	# OF PARTICIPANTS			MOTOR GAMES	
	alone	2	≥3	motor physical	aggres-sive
HIGH SELF-CONCEPT (n = 7)					
scissor-paper stone			x		
chanting (market song)			x		
tag (n=2)			xx	xx	
tug-of-war			x	x	
chasing			x	x	
running			x	x	
TOTAL	0	0	7	5	0
LOW SELF-CONCEPT (n = 11)					
gameboy		x			
guessing game			x		
pyramid (like monkey bars)	x			x	
chasing			x	x	
chasing/tickling			x	x	
pulling			x	x	
monkey-monkey			x	x	
hitting		x			x
pinching		x			x
streetfighter		x			x
Indian rope/whip		x			x
TOTAL	1	5	5	5	4

Play activities were further categorized, and number of children who engaged in each play category were tabulated. Table 48 shows that a difference between the two groups can be found in the number of children who engaged in games with rules and sensorimotor play. Most of the children with high self-concept who played (4 out of 5) played games with rules, while only about half (4 out of 9) of the unpopular children did so. Also two of the low self-concept children played the rule-less, motorically active sensorimotor activities. None of the high self-concept children who played engaged in such activities.

Other behaviors of high vs. low self-concept children

There were some differences in other behaviors observed during recess (see Table 49). More of the high self-concept children approached or were approached by other children compared to the low self-concept children.

Fighting was also observed to occur more frequently among the low self-concept children than those with high self-concept. While there was one child with high self-concept who spent the entire recess period alone, more of the low self-concept children (9 out of 11 who ate) ate alone.

Table 48

Categories of Play Activities of Children Varying in Self-concept

SELF-CONCEPT	HIGH n = 13	LOW n = 12
Rough and tumble	3	5
Sensorimotor	0	2
Functional	2	2
Games with rules	4	4
Reciprocal	0	1
Reciprocal with social exchange	5	7
Did not play	8	3

Play and other social behaviors of children varying in popularity and self-concept

When children were classified according to both popularity and self-concept, a clearer picture regarding play and other social behaviors emerged. Table 50 summarizes all behaviors, Table 51 summarizes play behaviors only. There were some behaviors that were more a function of popularity rather than self-concept:

1. popular children, regardless of self-concept, were more social. They talked with more children (11), they approached (7) and were approached by others (6), they also played with other children (9).
2. Unpopular children were more isolated with more of them eating alone (7 out of 11), and remaining by themselves during the entire recess period (7).
3. Unpopular children were also more hostile. All of the verbal fights occurred among the unpopular children (4).

Other behaviors were a function of a combination of popularity and self-concept:

1. Even with high self-concept, unpopular children tended to remain by themselves. They did not play with the other children (5 out of 5), they were neither approached nor did they approach others, and they remained alone during the entire recess (3). It was observed that they kept themselves busy; three of these children were "working" (reading a book, writing on notebook).
2. Like popular children with high self-concept, unpopular children with low self-concept played with their peers. However, their games differed in that more of them engaged in aggressive games

Table 49

Behaviors During Recess of High vs. Low Self-concept Children

	HIGH SC (n = 13)		LOW SC (n = 12)	
	f	%	f	%
EATING				
with others	3	23.1	2	16.7
alone	5	38.5	9	75.0
PLAYING				
with others	5	38.5	8	66.7
alone	0	0.0	1	8.3
did not play	8	61.5	3	25.0
WORK-RELATED	7	53.8	5	41.7
TALKING				
with 2 or more	7	53.8	3	25.0
with one child	6	46.2	3	25.0
APPROACHED OTHERS	3	25.0	0	0.0
APPROACHED BY OTHERS	6	46.2	4	33.3
TEASING	4	30.8	3	25.0
TAUNTING	0	0.0	1	8.3
FIGHTING				
physical	0	0.0	2	16.7
verbal	2	15.4	3	25.0
AGGRESSIVE/* HYPERACTIVE	1	7.7	3	25.0
ALONE ENTIRE RECESS	1	7.7	0	0.0

* This includes behaviors such as aimless running around the room, climbing chairs/shelves, throwing things, etc.

Table 50

Behaviors During Recess of Children Varying in Popularity and Self-concept

SELF-CONCEPT	HIGH		LOW	
POPULARITY:	POPULAR n = 8	UNPOPULAR n = 5	POPULAR n = 6	UNPOPULAR n = 6
EATING				
with others	7	0	1	1
alone	1	4	1	3
PLAYING				
with others	5	0	4	4
alone	0	0	0	1
did not play	3	5	2	1
WORK-RELATED	4	3	2	2
TALKING				
with 2 or more	7	1	4	3
with one child	1	1	0	1
APPROACHED OTHERS	4	0	3	2
APPROACHED BY OTHERS	4	0	2	1
TAUNTING	2	1	0	3
FIGHTING				
physical	1	0	0	2
verbal	0	2	0	2
AGGRESSIVE/* HYPERACTIVE	0	1	1	4
ALONE ENTIRE RECESS	0	3	0	4

* This includes behaviors such as aimless running around the room, climbing chairs/shelves, throwing things, etc.

NOTE: Percentages were not computed due to small frequencies

Table 51

Play Activities of Children Varying in Self-concept and Popularity

		# OF PARTICIPANTS			MOTOR GAMES	
		alone	2	≥3	motor physica	aggres-sive
HIGH SELF-CONCEPT AND POPULAR						
Child 1:	chanting (market song)			x		
Child 2:	rubber bands		x			
Child 3:	chasing/tickling			x	x	x
Child 4:	tag		x		x	x
Child 5:	tag			x	x	
	scissor-paper stone			x		
	tug-of-war			x	x	
	TOTAL # games:		2	5	4	2
LOW SELF-CONCEPT AND POPULAR						
Child 1:	gameboy		x			
Child 2:	rubber bands		x			
Child 3:	hide/seek		x		x	
	gulatan (startle)		x		x	
	streetfighter (karate)		x			x
Child 4:	pinching			x		x
	hitting			x		x
	TOTAL # games		5	2	2	3
LOW SELF-CONCEPT AND UNPOPULAR						
Child 1:	tug-of-war			x	x	
Child 2:	guessing game			x		
Child 3:	hitting		x			x
Child 4:	street fighter		x			x
	twirled hankie		x			x
	TOTAL # games		3	2	1	3

NOTE: No children high in self-concept and low in popularity were observed to play.

(4 out of 8 children and 7 out of 14 games) compared to only 1 out of 5 children or 1 out of 7 games among the high self-concept popular children.

Of the children classified as low in self-concept (median split of the 32 observed children is 60th percentile), this researcher further looked at behaviors of only those with very low scores ($\leq$ 30th percentile). There were five children classified as such. Of these, two are popular with their peers and these children exhibited prosocial behaviors: played, talked with, approached and were approached by others. The three other children got low popularity rating scores. Of these children, a boy and a girl were very aggressive. They fought with their peers, ran around aimlessly, and spent the rest of the recess alone. One child, a boy, with very low self-concept and low popularity rating did exhibit prosocial behaviors. However, this child differed from his peers in that all his interactions, including playing and talking, were with opposite-sex peers.

It seems that popularity of children was related more to social behaviors than to self-concept. Positive social behaviors were observed among popular children regardless of self-concept. On the other hand, antisocial behaviors were observed among those children with low popularity ratings,

again regardless of self-concept. However, the type of antisocial behaviors varied according to self-concept. The children with high self-concept tended to be nonsocial in that they kept to themselves while those with low self-concept engaged in aggressive and/or disruptive behaviors.

Relationship between popularity and self-concept

The third hypothesis that popularity and self-concept are positively related was not supported by the data. There were no significant differences between popular and unpopular children in their mean scores in the subscales and the total scale of the Pasao Self-Concept Scale . T-test values are shown in Table 52 along with the means and standard deviations of the self-concept scores of the two groups.

Table 52

Self-concept Scores of Popular and Unpopular Children

	POPULAR (n = 14)		UNPOPULAR (n = 11)		
	M	SD	M	SD	t
Self-concept -view of the self	62.0	7.5	62.9	5.6	.329^{ns}
Self-concept in relation to others	52.2	6.8	53.0	4.9	.352^{ns}
Total Score	114.2	11.6	115.8	7.0	.429^{ns}

Chapter 4

DISCUSSION

This study describes different aspects of play activities of Filipino children from first and fourth grades and of low and middle socioeconomic status. Sex, age, and social class differences were noted in play activities at home. Frequency of play with parents was found to be related to children's perception of parental acceptance/ rejection and to children's self-concept. There were also sex, age and socioeconomic differences in parent-child play activities. Lastly, play activities of selected popular and unpopular children were observed during school recess. These findings are discussed below in the same order as the presentation of results.

Play activities at home

It was hypothesized that there are differences in play activities of children varying in sex, age, and socio-economic status. Children's responses to the question "What play activities do you play at home?" were cross-tabulated according to the categories mentioned above. Responses were compared across boys and girls, grades one and four, and low and middle classes.

Sex differences

There were some categories of play activities that were reported by both boys and girls: videogames, ballgames, and outdoor games. There were differences in doll play with girls playing with baby dolls/ Barbie and boys playing with superhero dolls. Boys also reported playing with vehicle types of toys and more of them engaged in ball games than did girls.

These preferences in toys and games reflect sex-role stereotypes. The most apparent sex-typing is evident in in play with objects. Girls most frequently mentioned "dolls", while boys mentioned cars and "fighting dolls". Assuming that these game or toy choices also reflect differences in sociodramatic type of play, one can see that girls take on a more nurturant role. This type of play also allows them to practice household skills as seen in the next most popular play activity, playing house.

Boys, on the other hand, play with toys that more reflect masculine stereotypes. Playing with the superhero dolls reflects a certain degree of aggression that is not seen in girls' doll play. Mendez and her colleagues (1984) in a survey of urban and rural children in various parts of the Philippines found that "war games" were among the preferred play activities of boys. This difference in aggression in play supports the general assertion that boys are more aggressive than girls (Tieger, 1980).

Consistent with American literature, Filipino boys do play more active games than girls. Ball games were more frequently mentioned by the boys than the girls and this was true across grade levels and socioeconomic status.

One interesting result is that "legos" seemed more popular among the younger boys than the girls, especially in the middle class. This construction game apparently is seen to be a boys' game. It is not clear whether this reflects an early advantage in spatial skills, or is simply a reflection of what parents think is appropriate for boys, as constructing something may be construed as more consistent with a masculine role than a feminine one.

The possibility that adults, specifically parents, may be influencing their children's play can be seen in the toys made available to them. Children's playing with sex-typed toys could be a reflection of their parents' sex-typed choices.

Age differences

Older children reported more active outdoor traditional games and ball games than younger children. These games are group games which generally involve gross motor movements such as jumping, running and/or throwing. These outdoor games listed by the children can be considered games-with-rules. A traditional game, "patintero", for example, has complicated rules (see Appendix L for a description of this game). It also requires cooperation

among the players to avoid being "it." Among the boys, ball games were more common among the older than younger boys. These games include basketball, volleyball, soccer, all of which are also games-with-rules. Among the private school girls, boardgames were mentioned by the fourth graders but not the first graders.

What all these comparisons show is that there are more games-with-rules among the repertoire of play activities of older children. This shift reflects an increase in complexity of play activities, including the cognitive aspects of play.

This shift also reflects an increase in social skills with age. Most of these games require a group of players cooperating and playing their respective roles in order to play successfully. This increase in social skills could be a function of parents giving older children more freedom to move away from the confines of the home. Naylor's (1985) review of studies done in the U.S. and in England show that a child's "home range" or "territorial range" becomes more extended with age. The same can be said of Filipino children (Mendez et al., 1984). This extended territorial range exposes them to more playmates, allowing them to play more group games, and allowing them to practice social skills that are requisite to these kinds of games.

Socioeconomic differences

There are differences between the toys and play activities of public and private school children. Stuffed toys, legos, and boardgames were reported by the middle class children but not the lower class. This clearly reflects an economic difference. Imported toys that are relatively expensive were listed by more of the private school children than the public schoolers. Obviously, these toys are less affordable to the lower class and are, therefore, not available in the lower class home. Aside from this economic difference, one can also see that the middle class is more affected by the Western market than the lower class. Legos and Barbie dolls for example, are not specifically promoted in the Philippine media. Knowledge of these toys probably come from personal exposure or education of parents or other significant adults, neither of which are readily available to the lower class.

Aside from differences in toys, there was also a socioeconomic difference in games played. More of the public school children play outdoor games. This has been observed by Minoza (1984) who reported that lower class children spend more time outdoors. What is relevant is that the types of games played outdoors are very social in nature requiring a group of players. This is in contrast to Western findings showing less social forms of play among the

lower class (Smilansky, 1968; Udwin & Shmukler, 1981 in Johnson et al., 1983).

This contradiction becomes clear when one looks at differences in the physical-social structure of the middle class compared to the lower class homes. In terms of physical structure, the middle and upper class homes are very private. The houses are fenced in and young children generally do not go out without the company of an adult. Thus middle and upper class children tend to play within the confines of their home. Uy (1993) in her observations of upper class children in Metro Manila found that for these Filipino children, streetgames were not observed. Their play is confined to the homes or in the neighborhood playgrounds under the supervision of the "yaya" (full-time hired caregiver). Because of such a structure, these children also tend to have a limited number of playmates, as they are restricted to the company of their siblings, or their caregiver (parents or a hired caregiver).

The lower class, on the other hand, live in very small quarters and they often resort to playing in the streets. This has been documented by Uy (1993) in her study of "streetgames" of the lower class (Uy, 1993). Similar findings were reported by Brower & Williamson (1974, cited in Naylor, 1985) in inner city Baltimore where children used the streets and alleys for play. Thus for the lower class, more playmates are available for their games, allowing them

to play the outdoor motor games that are usually not frequently possible for the middle and upper classes. Also, as the lower class are less affected by Western influences, they are more likely to play the Filipino traditional games (most of the outdoor games are traditional ones).

Parent-child play and related variables

To answer the question ,"What is the relationship between parent-child play, parent-child relations and child's self-concept?", it was hypothesized that the more frequent the play interaction between child and parent(s), the more the child will perceive parental warmth or acceptance, and the higher the child's self-concept. The children's responses to the questions "How frequently does your father/mother play with you?" were correlated with their scores in the PARQ and the Pasao Self-concept Scale.

In general, it was found that parent-child play was related to parental acceptance/ rejection and to child's self-concept. Patterns emerged differently for fourth and first graders; however, for fourth graders, frequency of playing with parents was significantly correlated with the PARQ scales such that more frequent parent-child play is associated with more parental acceptance. The reverse was found for first graders; more frequent parent-child play was associated with more parental rejection.

Self-concept and play were positively related, but only

among first graders. And lastly, self-concept and parental acceptance/ rejection were also found to be related in the predicted direction for fourth graders, and in the opposite direction for first graders. These findings are discussedseparately for fourth and first graders.

Correlates of parent-child play

Parent-child play and parental acceptance: Grade Four data

Among the fourth graders, frequency of playing with mother/father had significant correlates only for the girls. As older boys, regardless of socioeconomic status, are generally not expected to stay home during the day, frequency of home interactions, including play, may not be as salient to their perceptions of parental acceptance. Also as more boys reported that their parents do not play with them (almost one half as compared to one third of the girls), other parental interactions could be more important to them at this age. In terms of play interactions, quality rather than frequency could be more important and should be further investigated.

Among the girls there are significant correlates of frequency of parent-child play. In general, the more frequent the occurrence of parent-daughter play, the more accepting the parent is perceived to be by daughters. In

contrast to the boys, Filipino girls are more confined to their homes (Medina, 1991). Interactions within the home may then define to a larger extent their relationship with their parents compared to sons who spend more time outdoors. As parents are also more likely to continue playing with daughters as they grow older, this interaction probably remains an enjoyable one, and remains a significant variable in the parent-daughter relationship.

Older children also have a wider repertoire of activities. As they move from parent- to peer-interactions, playing with parents could be more of a choice rather than a given. If an older child frequently chooses to do so, parents may respond more positively as they generally spend less time now with their children than when the children were younger.

Parent-child play and self-concept: Grade Four data

Frequency of play was not shown to be related to self-concept. At this age, other variables increasingly contribute to the development of the self-concept of older children. As they are now exposed to different environments- school, peer groups, neighborhood- variables from these contexts also have contributions to their perception of who they are (McDavid, 1989).

Predicting self-concept: Grade Four data

There were differences between boys and girls in how the parent-child variables contributed to variation in child's self-concept. The relational aspect of parent-child play appears to be important for the girls. It directly relates to perception of parental warmth, and indirectly to self-concept through its effect on the former. It is interesting to note that it is the "Relations with Others" self-concept scale which has higher correlates with parent-child play and parental warmth.

For boys, only father-child play and warmth of father were related to self-concept. These two variables contributed independently to variation in self-concept. Unlike the data obtained from girls, parent-child play in this model is not important for its relational value. It did not correlate with parental rejection, and inversely correlated with self-concept. That is, the more frequent father-child play occurred, the lower the self-concept of the son. In examining the correlation matrix, it was the "view of self" self-concept subscale which more highly correlated with parent-child play, while it was the "relations with others" subscale which more highly correlated with parental rejection. The contributions of these two variables, father-son play and rejection of

father, to self-concept appear to be independent. They also affect self-concept in different ways. Father-son play affects the "competence" aspect of self-concept. Rejection by father, on the other hand, affects self-concept derived from relationships with others.

The negative relationship between father-son play and the "view of self" self-concept may indicate a poorer sense of competence by boys who still spend a lot of time playing with their fathers. As older Filipino boys generally move more in the world of peers, those who continue to spend more time playing with their fathers may be different from this norm. For the latter, this may indicate a lack of confidence in themselves and their abilities, which in turn hinders them from socializing with others. Or spending more time with their fathers deprives them of peer socialization. This may then deter them from developing and discovering certain skills necessary for proper development of self-worth.

Correlates of parent-child play: Grade One

Parent-child play and parental acceptance: Grade One

For the younger children, frequency of playing with parents had an unexpected relationship with parental acceptance. Scores in the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire correlated with frequency of playing with parents and with self-concept in the opposite direction from what was predicted. In general, the more frequently the mother or father played with the child, the more rejecting rather than accepting that parent was perceived. Also, the more rejecting the parent, the higher the self-concept of the child.

The direction of these relationships is quite puzzling. One can venture a guess that perhaps the younger children perceived extent of parental warmth differently from older children. For both age groups, scores in the PARQ were quite restricted and skewed towards the positive end, i.e. parents were perceived as warm, not hostile, not neglecting and not rejecting. Filipino child-rearing, especially of younger children, is generally nurturant, affectionate, indulgent and supportive. There is a tendency to be overprotective (Medina, 1991). Higher scores in the PARQ could then mean an "extreme" of rather than "high" in the scales. A very high score in Warmth for example, could be

interpreted as "too much" warmth or "extremely" warm while a lower score does not indicate an absence of warmth but rather moderate warmth.

In the negative scales, a very low score does indicate the absence of that attribute (e.g. never hostile) while a higher score does not mean "always" hostile but rather "rarely" or "sometimes" hostile. In interpreting the correlations, we are actually looking not at the presence - absence continuum, but the moderate to extreme continuum. It is possible that extremely high scores in the scales (e.g. always warm, never rejecting, etc.) may not necessarily reflect positive interactions.

Another interpretation lies in the play interactions. One study suggests that playing, by itself, may not be positive. MacDonald (1987) compared parent-child play of boys who are popular and rejected by their peers. He observed more overstimulation by the parents and consequently, avoidance of stimulation by the rejected child during play sessions. Parents were also seen to be more directing and the rejected child less suggesting. It appears then that the parent-child play sessions of the rejected boys were less likely to be uniformly positive in affect than those of popular children. These results suggest that the affect elicited during play is more

important than frequency of play. One can hypothesize that parent-child play sessions are related to positive parent-child relations if the interaction is felt to be affectively positive.

While studies of parent-child relations often put the direction of influence from parent to child, it is also possible that it is the child who is affecting the parent and/or the interaction with the parents. A young child who feels neglected or rejected might try to get more attention by asking for more play time with parents. Another possibility is that higher frequency parent-child play may mean that a child is more demanding of the parent's time, thereby eliciting more negative reactions from the parent.

However, of these possible explanations, this researcher prefers the first. The latter two imply the negativeness of frequent play. But as frequency of parent-child play was also positively correlated with self-concept, the evidence points towards the positiveness of such an interaction. Instead, the inverse relationship between frequency of parent-child play and parental acceptance could be a function of the interpretation of the PARQ scores. This researcher believes that the ratings of the younger children in this sample are not interpretable in the same way as the ratings of the older children. Very high scores

in warmth, and very low scores in hostility, neglect and rejection could be indicative of over-indulgence and over-protectiveness. Thus we also see that such a direction in scores, i.e. high in warmth and low in rejection, is also related to lower scores in self-concept. This is discussed further in the next section.

Parental acceptance and child's self-concept: Grade One

Most of the parental subscales (except Neglect of mother) correlated positively with "view of the self" self-concept. Hostility and rejection in particular had higher correlations with self-concept than did the other PARQ subscales. Both hostility and rejection are more often associated with punishment than the other dimensions of warmth and neglect. One can conjecture that a child who perceives a parent as never or rarely hostile or rejecting is also a child who rarely gets punished. In the absence of such feedback, a child may not get a clear idea of what is appropriate and what is not. His or her perception of the self and one's own capacity may be muddled by this lack of accuracy in knowing what are positive and negative behaviors.

Childrearing which contains some hostility and rejection and not too much warmth could be a style which allows the child to be more independent, less reliant on the

parent, enhancing competence and feelings of confidence about one's own abilities. On the other hand, extremely high scores may reflect overindulgence and over-protectiveness which detract from the development of competence.

Predicting self-concept: Grade One data

Both parent-child play and parental acceptance correlated with the "view of self" self-concept. Regression analysis shows that frequency of parent-child play and parental rejection contribute independently to variation in self-concept.

More frequent parent-child play may serve to enhance competencies, therefore leading to better self-concept regarding one's view of the self. According to McDonald (1993), because parents are at a higher level of cognitive and physical development, they are better able to structure the child's play activities in such a way that the play activities are sufficiently and effectively stimulating.

Frequency of parent-child play was also positively correlated with the second subscale, self-concept in relation to others (in particular to significant adults). Parent-child play is apparently a positive interaction which contributes to the child's positive view of self in relation to others. It is also possible that it is children with a

high self-concept in relation to others that choose to engage in more play interactions with their parents.

Parent-child play activities

Sex, age and socioeconomic differences in parent-child play

Children reported a wide variety of play activities that their parents played with them. Videogames were the most frequently mentioned parent-child play activity. This reflects a current fad, or perhaps a growing trend in computerization of games.

There were sex, age, and socioeconomic differences in parent-child play. Mothers and fathers seem to differ in their play with children. Fathers played more active games with both sons and daughters, while mothers did so only with their sons. It is possible that the parent is choosing games that they feel are appropriate for their children, or they could be responding to their children's choices. Mothers play active games with their sons, and they play the feminine doll and house play with their daughters. It is also possible that the parent's choice of games reflects a sex-typed bias of parents for their own behaviors. Fathers may be more reluctant to play doll or house with their daughters, thus resorting to active games. In general, more

fathers engage in physical play with their children than mothers (Carson, Burkes & Parke, 1993).

Mothers, however, do play active games with their sons. Mothers could be responding to their sons by engaging in active games that they themselves are able to play. Thus they play games such as tag rather than ball games. The latter is played by fathers with their sons.

A parental bias can also be seen in boardgames. Mothers played verbal games while fathers played strategy games with their children. The mother's tendency to be verbal in her interactions with her children has been found in all studies reviewed by Carson et al. (1993) including some cross-cultural evidence from England and India. The difference between mothers and fathers is consistent with the notion of cognitive differences wherein females are more verbal and males more spatial (Hetherington & Parke, 1986).

Mothers could be taking on the "teaching" role even in play. As boardgames were common only in the middle class homes, one can extend this interpretation only to middle class mothers. From another set of responses obtained from this same sample, it was found that more of the middle class mothers compared to the lower class mothers are reported to be involved in parent-child activities that involve teaching. Specifically mentioned was helping with their

children's homework (Bernardo, 1993).

Sex-typing is evident in play activities engaged in by mothers and fathers. It is with fathers that both sons and daughters engage in active play. Both sons and daughters also play verbal and strategy games; they do so with their mothers and fathers respectively. Thus when parents play with their children, the parents tend to choose games which are sex-typed. Or when children approach their parents for play, they choose games which they believe their parents are more likely to play with them.

In terms of social class differences, the most noticeable is the larger proportion of lower class parents who do not play with their children. This becomes even more evident by fourth grade. Among the middle class there is a small increase in the proportion of parents who do not play with their children when comparing first grade and fourth grade responses. Among the lower class, the difference is quite large; over 60% of the boys and approximately 40% of the girls reported that they have no play activities with their parents. This supports the idea of generally lower involvement of lower class parents with their older children. As in the west, the middle class household seems more child-centered in contrast to the adult focus of a lower class household (Leslie & Korman, 1989).

This difference may also be a sociostructural difference. More of the lower class children play outdoors while the middle class children play indoors. Thus there is more likelihood of parent-child interactions in the middle class home as they spend more time under the same roof.

Differences in lifestyle could also explain the difference. MacDonald (1993) differentiates between high and low investment parenting styles. The high investment parenting style is characterized by monogamy, low fertility (high age of first pregnancy, low # of children, high birth-spacing interval) and parent-rearing of children. The low investment style is characterized by polygyny, high fertility and sibling-rearing. The former style is expected to be high in parent-child play while the latter is expected to be low. The low income class in the Philippines shares more of the characteristics of the low parenting style while the mid-upper classes can be said to be characterized by the high investment style. Furthermore, middle class homes are more likely to have hired help to do household chores. Thus parents have more free time, presumably allowing them to spend more time with their children that would otherwise have been consumed by housework. On the other hand, children in lower class homes are expected from an early age to engage in the family chores leaving them less time in

general to play (Mendez, et al., 1984). MacDonald (1993) likewise found this to be true of lower class American children.

Variety in parent-child play: Issue of defining "play"

There were some interactions which children considered as play. Included were verbal exchanges such as jokes and story-telling. Playing instruments together (e.g. guitar and piano) were also considered a form of play. Perhaps the common elements in these interactions are the "togetherness" and the "fun" such interactions bring.

Another type of interaction is "lambingan" . "Lambingan" is a form of interaction which usually involves physical contact such as hugging, sitting on lap, cuddling, etc. It varies from family to family, and among children within a family. This differs from other forms of play in that the motive is to explicitly show affection to, and elicit affection from, the other person. The similarity of this type of interaction with other types of play rests mainly on its being enjoyable and flexible. While this was mentioned by only a few, it may be due to the method of using an open-ended questionnaire.

The list of activities derived from children's responses to this questionnaire can be used to construct a structured questionnaire. For future studies, a checklist

of possible play activities would likely bring out more parent-child play activities per child than the open-ended questionnaire used for this study.

Another interesting issue is how play is defined and/or categorized. Apparently, children consider as play some activities that this researcher otherwise would not classify as such. Observational methods are limiting in this sense because the observer tends to focus on behavior that he or she believes is play. Future studies on play would benefit from deriving a definition of play from the perspective of children.

Peer play, popularity and self-concept

The third problem differed form the first two in that it focused on the school rather than the home setting. It also focused on peer relations rather than parent-child relations. It was hypothesized that there are differences in types of play engaged in by popular and unpopular children. It was also hypothesized that there is a relationship between popularity, self-concept and play activities.

Children classified as popular or unpopular were selected based on a sociometric measure. These children were observed in school during recess. They were then

further categorized as high or low in self-concept. Play and other social behaviors were cross-tabulated according to popularity and self-concept.

Behaviors of popular and unpopular children

There were some basic differences in characteristics of play activities of popular and unpopular children. Popular children played in bigger groups, while more of the unpopular children played in small groups or did not play at all. The unpopular children seem to be of two distinct types: the isolated and the disruptive types. The latter did play with their peers. Compared to the popular children, they played more active games (e.g. running) and more hostile games (e.g. hitting games, martial arts games).

The same trends were observed in other behaviors. Popular children were more social, they talked to more people, and they approached and were approached by other children. Again, among the unpopular children, there are two distinct types of behaviors. Unpopular children were either disruptive (e.g. aimlessly running around) and hostile (fighting), or they spent more time alone. These observations are similar to findings of Connoly (1980, cited in Rubin, et al., 1984) who found popular children to be more positively prosocial than unpopular children. Pellegrini (1984, 1988) also found that rejected children

show more hostility than playfulness during rough-and-tumble games, while the isolated children are either unable or choose not to enter play groups.

Thus unpopular children are basically antisocial in two ways, either disruptive and hostile, or isolated from their peers. These children are not liked by their peers either because their behaviors lead to unpleasant interactions (e.g. getting hurt in a game) or they are neglected because they do not interact enough with other children. The following discussion makes an important distinction between these two types of unpopular children.

Interaction between popularity and self-concept

In a cross-tabulation of children who vary in popularity and self-concept, differences in play and other behaviors were also observed. Low and high self-concept children did not differ from each other when they are also popular. Even two popular children with very low self-concept scores were very prosocial in their behaviors. In contrast, unpopular children with high self-concept were not as prosocial as popular children, even those popular children with low self-concept. Apparently, prosocial behaviors are better determinants of popularity than they are of self-concept.

There are marked differences however in the behaviors of unpopular children with high and low self-concept. The latter were more hostile (e.g. fighting occurred among this category of children only), aggressive (e.g. played hitting games) and disruptive (e.g. ran around aimlessly). This is even more evident among those with very low self-concept scores. One child in this category did exhibit prosocial behaviors. However, his interactions may be seen as inappropriate for his age group as they were predominantly with the opposite sex. While his behaviors were neither disruptive nor hostile, they may be deviant enough to be disliked by his peers. Interestingly enough, he got very low sociometry ratings from both boys and girls.

On the other hand, the unpopular children with high self-concept showed fewer social behaviors in that they neither approached nor were approached by others, fewer of them played with others, and more of them spent time working on their own during recess. These behaviors may reflect a preference for being alone rather than a deficiency in social skills. Thus their behaviors are nonsocial rather than antisocial. Unlike the unpopular children with low self-concept, they were neither aggressive nor disruptive. They may be unpopular because their preferred activities are solitary rather than social.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study described various aspects of parent-child and peer play and answered three questions:

Problem

1. What play activities are engaged in by children of different sex, age and socioeconomic status?,
2. What is the relationship between playing with parents, child's report of parent-child relations, and child's self-concept?, and
3. What is the relationship between a child's peer play activities, peer popularity, and self-concept?

Methodology

Four hundred and thirty-seven children in first and fourth grades in four schools in Manila and Las Pinas participated in the study. They completed four instruments: 1. Sociometric Rating Measure, 2. Home Play Survey, 3. Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ), and 4. Pasao Pictorial Self-Concept Scale. Different sources of information and analyses were applied to each problem. Data from 437 children were used to answer the first problem. Of these children, 368 were able to complete the instruments and data from these children were used to answer the second problem. For the third problem, 32 children were selected

according to the results of the sociometry scale. These children identified as popular or unpopular were observed during recess.

Results

The following are the major findings of this study:

Play activities at home

1. There were sex differences in play activities with girls showing a preference for dolls and playing house and boys preferring superhero dolls, vehicle-type toys and playing ball games.

2. There were socioeconomic differences in that

a. more of the lower class played ball games and outdoor motor games,

b. girls of the middle class specifically mentioned "Barbie" compared to the more generic "doll" mentioned by lower class girls,

3. There were age x sex x socioeconomic interactions:

a. videogames were played by middle class fourth graders,

b. boardgames were played by middle class fourth grade girls,

c. "legos" and robots were played by middle class first grade boys.

Parent-child play, parental acceptance and child's self-concept

1. Among the fourth grade girls, more frequent parent-child play was associated with child's perception of parental acceptance. Among the boys, these variables were not significantly correlated.

2. Among the fourth graders, parental acceptance was positively correlated with self-concept in relation to others.

3. Among first graders, more frequent parent-child play was associated with:

a. child's perception of parental rejection, and

b. higher "view of self" self-concept.

4. Among the first graders, higher "view of self" self-concept was associated with parental rejection.

Predicting self-concept

1. Among fourth grade girls, parental rejection was directly and inversely related to self-concept. It acted as an intervening variable between parent-child play and self-concept.

2. Among fourth grade boys, both rejection by father and father-son play independently predicted self-concept.

3. Among first graders, parental rejection and parent-child play independently predicted self-concept.

Parent-child play activities

1. There were some sex-differences in parent-child play.

a. Boys play active games with both parents, while girls play active games only with the father and not the mother,

b. When playing boardgames, mothers play "verbal" games while fathers play "strategy" games with their children.

2. There were interactions between socioeconomic status and age in that more of the lower class older children reported that their parents do not play with them.

Popularity, self-concept and social behaviors

1. In general, popular children exhibited more prosocial behaviors than unpopular children regardless of level of self-concept. They played with more children, they talked to, approached, and were approached by other children. These behaviors were not evident among the unpopular children.

2. Unpopular children were of two types, with behaviors varying according to self-concept.

a. The unpopular children with low self-concept played with others but their play was more motorically active compared to popular children. They also exhibited more disruptive and hostile behaviors such as aimlessly running around the room and fighting with other children.

b. The unpopular children with high self-concept did not play with other children. Instead they spent recess alone, with most of them doing schoolwork.

Conclusions

Play activities at home

1. Play activities were sex-typed. Girls' preferences in doll and house play reflect a nurturant role, a role that is traditionally considered feminine. Boys, on the other hand, engaged in more active, aggressive games. This may reflect a male disposition to be more active as has been observed cross-culturally. These sex-typed games could also be influenced by adults in that it is they who buy toys for children. Sex-typed toys may then reflect a sex-role bias by adults.

2. There were certain types of play activities that were more common among children of various age, sex and socioeconomic status (see summary of results above). This can be accounted for by several factors:

a. Some play activities favored by the middle class involve toys that are relatively expensive. Thus an economic difference, in terms of affordability, explains such a difference,

b. Cognitive maturation explains why older but not younger children engage in certain types of play such as boardgames and ball games. Both are rule-bound

which require some cognitive maturity before one can participate in such games.

c. Environmental and lifestyle differences also account for some of the differences in play activities. More of the lower class than the middle class play outdoor motor group games. As middle class children are generally not allowed to wander outside of the confines of their homes, play space and playmates are limited. In contrast, the lower class children use the streets and other areas outside of their homes, giving them more playspace and also more playmates.

Parent-child play, parental acceptance and self-concept

1. Among fourth graders, more frequent parent-child play was associated with parental acceptance. This relationship could be bidirectional. In one sense, it is possible that parent-child play is a positive enough interaction that through it the child perceives the parent to be warm and accepting rather than rejecting. In another sense, it is also possible that parent-child play is simply one of many manifestations of good parent-child relations.

2. Among first graders, more frequent parent-child play is associated with parental rejection. This researcher believes that the correlational data do not really associate high frequency parent-child play with rejection itself. Rather, extreme scores in the Parental Acceptance/Rejection

Questionnaire could be more indicative of the over-protective, overindulgent style of parenting which characterizes parenting of young children in the Philippines. The parent who was rated moderately rather than highly by his or her child probably exhibits a healthier parenting style, and in this measure, better parent-child relations, than one who got very high scores.

3. More frequent parent-child play was associated with higher "view of self" self-concept among first graders. It is possible that play helps enhance children's competencies through the direction of their cognitively more mature parents. It is also associated with higher self-concept "in relation to others." Parent-child play appears therefore to be a positive activity which could be either a possible cause or evidence for the child's feeling good about his or her relationship with significant adults.

Parent-child play activities

1. Sex-typing occurs in parent-child play. This sex-typing could be directed by the parent who chooses which game or play activity she or he believes to be appropriate for the child's sex. Conversely, the child may be directing the activity and the parent is simply reacting to the child's apparent preference.

2. Fewer parents of the lower class play with their older children. The lower class lifestyle can account for this. Older children of the lower class generally spend more time

outside of the home. Therefore, they have less time in interaction with family in general, and parents in particular. Also older children of this class are expected to do their share of household chores and/or work in order to supplement the family income. This leaves the older child less time to engage in play.

Popularity, self-concept and social behaviors

1. Popular children compared to unpopular children are generally more prosocial. They are well-liked by their peers as evidenced in their positive interactions. They also seem to have good social skills. These children, for example, are not only approached by other children, they also do the approaching and are able to enter social groups.
2. Behaviors of unpopular children vary according to self-concept. Those with low self-concept seem to be disliked by their peers because their interactions are negative. When they play, their games are more aggressive making it more probable that another child could get hurt. They are also more hostile. All of the fights observed involved these children. Also their behaviors could be disruptive. They engage in more aimless active behaviors than popular children or the unpopular children with low self-concept.

Unpopular children with low self-concept are disliked by their peers because of the absence of interactions. They do not play with other children, and they spend recess alone doing schoolwork. This group of children could be showing a

preference to being alone rather than being actively isolated by their peers. The fact that they scored high in the self-concept measure shows that they do view themselves and their relationships with significant adults positively. Their sense of satisfaction could be derived from other sources rather than peer interactions.

Recommendations

This study makes three types of recommendations, the first regarding methodology, the second regarding possible applications of the findings, and the third regarding possible topics for further studies on play.

Methodology

1. Because of the open-ended nature of the survey, there was a wide variety of play activities mentioned. There were some play activities mentioned by some children, but not by enough children to make up a considerable percentage of the sample. It is believed that these responses would not be neglected if they were part of a checklist. For another survey of play activities, the findings of this study could serve as a basis for construction of a checklist which might permit more complete assessment of play activities.
2. The short version of the PARQ was used for this study. It was noted that reliability coefficients were weak for the Rejection subscale which had only 3 items, and were moderate for the Warmth and Neglect subscales. If the subscales are

important in the analysis, then it is recommended that the full scale be used or at least tested to see if reliability improves with more items. If only the composite score is important, then the short version is adequate.

3. Multiple observations are recommended in order to get a better sampling of behaviors. It is also recommended to allow for quantification such as frequency counts of certain behaviors or play activities.

4. Schools with better play facilities and which also encourage play during recess could be chosen for the observations. In this study, the repertoire of play behaviors were limited due to the lack of play facilities in the schools. However, as these schools appear to be typical of most public and middle class schools in the Philippines, the data here serve as a useful preliminary basis for what play behaviors occur within such limited play environments.

5. Parental reports of parent-child play could be included to get the parents' perspective.

6. Replications in rural settings and in other regions in the Philippines could also be done to get a cross-cultural perspective of play activities of Filipino children.

Applications

1. Social class differences in play activities show that both the lower and the middle class do not play certain play activities. The lower class do not play the cognitive games

such as construction games (e.g. legos) and boardgames. The middle class do not play the traditional Filipino games which are more group-oriented and more active. As these games have different functions, the children are deprived of such benefits. Schools or community centers can be encouraged to provide opportunity for these types of games for these children. Toymakers could also be encouraged to construct boardgames and toys which are more affordable to the lower class.

2. Parents should be made aware of the sex-typing which occurs in their play activities with their children. On the one hand, they should realize that both boys and girls can, and will, play certain types of games which are generally believed to be preferred by one sex. On the other hand, they could also be cautioned to be more sensitive to the preferences of their children, which may be sex-typed or not.

3. Parents should also be shown the benefits of playing with their children. In this study it was shown that frequency of playing with parents was related to higher self-concept among the younger children and also to child's perception of parental acceptance among the older children. Parent-child play activity could be a useful indicator of self-concept and/or parent-child relations.

4. Observations of play behaviors during recess can be useful in different ways:

a. They can be used to identify children who are both unpopular and have low self-concept. This is a useful area for intervention as these children's behaviors seem to be disruptive and antisocial.

b. Some activities can be designed that require each child's participation so that children with a preference for being alone can also have opportunities for practicing useful social skills.

c. Schools can be encouraged to provide play facilities for the children as the lack restricts play behaviors. Uy (1993) describes a "typical elementary school" in Metro Manila as having no playground with equipment, but rather having only blank, open space. She also observed that recess was supervised and that children were actually not allowed to play.

Topics for future studies

1. The Parental/Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire results showed unexpected relations with frequency of parent-child play and with self-concept among the 1st grade children. Meanings and interpretations should be further investigated.

a. One can look at the quality of parent-child play using observational data instead of merely self-reports of activities,

b. One can validate the PARQ by relating it with other variables preferably measured by instruments specifically constructed for Filipino children.

2. More refined observations of play behaviors could be done:

a. One can look at the verbal components which was not done in this study as observers were not near enough to record conversations,

b. In the home, one can note playmates (relationship with child, number, sex), boundaries of play space, and interactional behaviors such as initiating and ending play, joining play groups, leadership, etc.

3. A more comprehensive study of parent-child relations could be done putting parent-child play within the context of a broader repertoire of interactions. This could include discipline style, other joint activities, marital relations and other significant family variables.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Sociometric Rating Measure

Instructions: (to be read to the children)

In this activity, I would like to know who are classmates you like. In front of you is a sheet of paper with names of each of your classmates. Consider each classmate as you would usually feel about them. For example, you may be angry at a classmate right now. But consider how you used to feel about that classmate. If you like that classmate a lot before you got angry at each other, then put a check under the column "CLASSMATES YOU LIKE A LOT" even if you do not like that person at this moment. Are there any questions? This is not a test. Please do not talk about your choices with your classmates.

	I like this classmate a lot (Gustong-gusto ko ang kaklaseng ito)	I somewhat like this classmate (Medyo gusto ko ang kaklaseng ito)	I do not like this classmate (Hinding-hindi ko gusto ang kaklaseng ito)
Maria			
Niko			
Lucy			
Sam			
Kevin			
etc.			

APPENDIX B

Home Play Survey

NAME:

ADDRESS: _____, _____
Street City

SCHOOL:

GRADE:

SEX: ____ boy ____ girl

1. What toys do you have at home?

2.* What do you spend most of your time playing at home?

a. _____

With whom do you do this activity? _____

b. _____

With whom do you do this activity? _____

3. With whom else do you play at home?

4.** What things (activities) does your mother do with you?
(List as many as you can)

5.** In a week, how often does your mother play with you? (check one)

____ Almost everyday

____ 3 or 4 times

____ 1 or 2 times

____ Never

6**. What games do you play with her?

7**. What things (activities) does your father do with you? (List as many as you can)

8**. In a week, how often does your father play with you? (check one)

____ Almost everyday

____ 3 or 4 times

____ 1 or 2 times

____ Never

9**. What games do you play with him?

* from Seagoe's Play Report (Johnson, 1976)

** based on findings of home observations measures (MacDonald & Parke, 1984)

APPENDIX C

Child PARQ (copyright address)

APPENDIX D

Pasao Pictorial Self-Concept Scale (copyright address)

APPENDIX E

Play Observation Guide

Child's Name: _____ Date: _____

	Events				
	1	2	3	4	5
Simple parallel play					
Parallel play with regard					
Simple social play					
Same activity with regard					
Same activity with social bid					
Nonplay activities					
Onlooking/Unoccupied/Transition					
Gross motor play					
Constructive					
Functional					
Sociodramatic					
functional role					
relational					
character					
peripheral					
Games with rules					
Teacher involved					
Number of peers					
Sex of peers					
Play area					
Materials/Toys					

APPENDIX F

Consent Letter to Parents

To the parents of _____,

I am a doctoral student of Michigan State University doing my dissertation on "Play Patterns of Filipino Children". Your child is a student in one of the 4 sections of 1st and 4th graders chosen to participate in this study. It would be much appreciated if you would allow your child to participate. The following page describes what the children will be asked to do.

If you have any questions, please call or write:

Marita D. Bernardo
Assistant Professor
Psychology Department
De La Salle University
2401 Taft Avenue
Ermita, Manila

Office phone: 50-46-11, local 560
Home phone: 712-4570

Please indicate your consent and return this form to the school. If you consent, your child will also be asked if he/she wishes to participate. You and your child's decision will be respected.

If you allow your child to participate, and if you would like to see the results of the study, please indicate below whether you would like this information. I cannot give you the results of your child's responses as they are anonymous and confidential. I respect the privacy of the children.

Thank you very much for your response to this letter.

Sincerely,

Marita D. Bernardo

[ ] Yes, my child may participate.
[ ] No, my child may <u>not</u> participate.
[ ] If my child participates, I would like to see the results of this study.

APPENDIX G

Explanation to Parents

Study 1

Time:	1 - 1 1/2 hours (total)
# of sessions:	2 (1/2 hour each)
Subjects:	all students with parents' consent
Procedure:	The students will be asked to answer 4 questionnaires:
	1) Pasao Self-Concept Scale
	2) Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire
	3) List of classmates they like/don't like
	4) Questionnaire on play activities at home

*If you wish to see the questionnaire, the researcher will gladly go to your home or office. They may not be shown to the child before they are given in class as it may bias their responses.

Study 2

Time:	20 minutes per session
# of sessions:	3 (during recess)
Subjects:	3 children will be randomly selected for observations during recess (your child may or may not be selected)
Procedure:	These 3 children will be observed during recess. Types of play, peers/teachers played with, materials/facilities used will be recorded.

THERE ARE 2 STUDIES, AND YOUR CHILD WILL PARTICIPATE IN THE FIRST STUDY. YOUR CHILD MAY ALSO PARTICIPATE IN THE OTHER IF CHOSEN.

APPENDIX H

Consent Request to Children (general study)

Presented orally:

My name is Marita D. Bernardo. I am doing a study on play of children. Your class has been chosen to participate and I hope you will cooperate and help me by answering several papers. These are not tests. I just want to know some things about you such as "How do you play at home?", "How do you relate to your mother/father?", "How do you feel about yourself and your friends?".

If you would <u>not</u> like to participate, just return the papers to me or to your teacher. You can choose to participate or not to participate.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked many questions. If there are words you do not know, please ask me for the meaning. You do not have to answer all the questions but it would be very helpful to me if you do. This is not a test, and there are no right or wrong answers. Please do not talk to your classmates while answering these questions. When you are done, please return the papers to me.

APPENDIX I

Consent Request to Children (Observational Study)

presented orally:

You have been selected for a special part of the study. You and your friends will be observed during recess 3 times. Is it alright if I observe you and your friends during recess? (if child says no, then the following is not necessary). I just want to see what you and your friends do during this time. I will not join you, or talk to you, and I will stay as far away as possible, so that you will hardly even notice me. I will write down some of the things that I saw you do with your friends, such as eating, talking, or playing. If you want to know what I have observed, I will tell you after I have observed you 3 times. Would you like to know what I have written down about what you and your friends have been doing? Do you want to ask me anything?

APPENDIX J

Categories of Behaviors

	f	%
EATING		
with others		
alone		
PLAYING		
with others		
alone		
did not play		
WORK-RELATED		
TALKING		
with 2 or more		
with one child		
APPROACHED OTHERS		
APPROACHED BY OTHERS		
TAUNTING/TEASING		
FIGHTING		
physical		
verbal		
AGGRESSIVE/* HYPERACTIVE		
ALONE ENTIRE RECESS		

* This includes behaviors such as aimless running around the room, climbing chairs/shelves, throwing things, etc.

APPENDIX K

Categories of Play Behaviors

	f	%
Rough and tumble		
Sensorimotor		
Functional		
Games with rules		
Reciprocal		
Reciprocal with social exchange		
No play		

APPENDIX L

Description of Some Filipino Outdoor Games

langit -lupa:

Children are divided into two teams, the langit (heaven) and the lupa (earth) teams. A slipper/thong or sandal is thrown in the air. If it lands right-side-up, the heaven team chases the earth team. If it lands upside-down, the earth team chases the heaven team. Those who are tagged before they reach a designated safe area (home) are considered captured by the other team. The team with more members win the game.

tumbang-preso:

One child, the "it" guards an upright can. The other children try to knock down the can with a slipper/thong or sandal. When the can has been knocked down, the "it" should try to put it upright. When the other children fail to knock down the can, the "it" tries to tag whoever attempts to retrieve his or her slipper/sandal. A child who is tagged becomes "it". The "it" cannot chase another child when the can is not standing upright.

patintero:

Children play in two teams. The children belonging to the "it" team stands in a row with each child guarding an area marked by a line. The children of the other team try to go through the rows and back again to "home" without being tagged by any of the children guarding the rows. Each child who is "it" can only move within the designated line and can tag with arms extended sideways. Once one child is tagged, the whole team becomes "it".

luksong-baka:

This is similar to leap-frog except that the children jump from the "it's" side rather than from back to front.

luksong-tinik:

Two children sit on the grund ("it"). They progressively make a higher "thorn-bush" (tinik) with their feet and hands. The other children take turns jumping over the thornbush. Once a child touches the "it's" hands or feet, he or she replaces one of the children who are "it".

APPENDIX M

Correlations between Grade and Scales of the PARQ and the Pasao Self-Concept Scale

	GRADE
FATHER:	
WARMTH	.098*
HOSTILITY	.005
NEGLECT	.137*
REJECTION (SUBSCALE)	.110*
REJECTION (TOTAL)	.007
MOTHER:	
WARMTH	.075
HOSTILITY	.055
NEGLECT	.141*
REJECTION (SUBSCALE)	.109*
REJECTION (TOTAL)	.034
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE:	
VIEW OF SELF	.153*
RELATION TO OTHERS	.071
TOTAL SCALE	.096

* significant at alpha = .05, otherwise not significant

APPENDIX N

Correlations between sex, socioeconomic status and scales of the PARQ and the Pasao self-concept scale: Grade Four data

	SEX	SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS
FATHER:		
WARMTH	.069	.021
HOSTILITY	.087	.120
NEGLECT	.171*	.255*
REJECTION (SUBSCALE)	.187*	.023
REJECTION (TOTAL)	.108	.136
MOTHER:		
WARMTH	.128	.066
HOSTILITY	.012	.168*
NEGLECT	.108	.312*
REJECTION (SUBSCALE)	.104	.008
REJECTION (TOTAL)	.126	.169*
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE:		
VIEW OF SELF	.087	.203*
RELATION TO OTHERS	.107	.062
TOTAL SCALE	.118	.164*

* significant at alpha = .05, otherwise not significant

APPENDIX O

Correlations between sex, socioeconomic status and scales of the PARQ and the Pasao self-concept scale: Grade One data

	SEX	SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS
FATHER:		
WARMTH	.036	.068
HOSTILITY	.030	.022
NEGLECT	.041	.051
REJECTION (SUBSCALE)	.149*	.146*
REJECTION (TOTAL)	.049	.025
MOTHER:		
WARMTH	.026	.144*
HOSTILITY	.034	.023
NEGLECT	.053	.081
REJECTION (SUBSCALE)	.151*	.144*
REJECTION (TOTAL)	.079	.078
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE:		
VIEW OF SELF	.063	.133
RELATION TO OTHERS	.182	.223*
TOTAL SCALE	.098	.035

* significant at alpha = .05, otherwise not significant

APPENDIX P_1

Analysis of Variance of Scale Scores

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: WARMTH OF FATHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	4.622	1	4.622	.538	.464
Sex	5.310	1	5.310	.619	.432
Grade	24.163	1	24.163	2.815	.094
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	4.848	1	4.848	.565	.453
School x Grade	2.302	1	2.302	.268	.605
Sex x Grade	.870	1	.870	.101	.750
3-WAY INTERACTION	.213	1	.213	.025	.875
RESIDUAL	3073.061	358	8.584		
TOTAL	3125.227	365	8.562		

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: WARMTH OF MOTHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	2.777	1	2.777	.323	.570
Sex	7.925	1	7.925	.921	.338
Grade	8.379	1	8.379	.974	.324
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	6.144	1	6.144	.714	.399
School x Grade	40.398	1	40.398	4.694	.031
Sex x Grade	14.761	1	14.761	1.715	.191
3-WAY INTERACTION	6.805	1	6.805	.791	.374
RESIDUAL	3072.701	357	8.607		
TOTAL	3174.203	364	8.720		

APPENDIX P_2

Analysis of Variance of Scale Scores

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: HOSTILITY OF FATHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	53.910	1	53.910	1.127	.289
Sex	29.040	1	29.040	.607	.436
Grade	.474	1	.474	.010	.921
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	41.104	1	41.104	.859	.355
School x Grade	60.731	1	60.731	1.269	.261
Sex x Grade	64.130	1	64.130	1.314	.248
3-WAY INTERACTION	6.257	1	6.257	.131	.718
RESIDUAL	17128.036	358	47.844		
TOTAL	17370.877				

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: HOSTILITY OF MOTHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	95.636	1	95.636	1.954	.163
Sex	.004	1	.004	.000	.993
Grade	20.607	1	20.607	.421	.517
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	.025	1	.025	.001	.982
chool x Grade	168.164	1	168.164	3.437	.065
Sex x Grade	8.602	1	8.602	.176	.675
3-WAY INTERACTION	9.301	1	9.301	.190	.663
RESIDUAL	17468.816	357	48.932		
TOTAL	17805.956	364			

APPENDIX P_3

Analysis of Variance of Scale Scores

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: NEGLECT OF FATHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	99.016	1	99.016	5.512	.019
Sex	39.254	1	39.254	2.185	.140
Grade	139.718	1	139.718	7.777	.006
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	26.499	1	26.499	1.475	.225
School x Grade	86.521	1	86.521	4.816	.029
ex x Grade	63.887	1	63.887	3.556	.060
3-WAY INTERACTION	21.732	1	21.732	1.210	.272
RESIDUAL	6431.426	358	17.965		
TOTAL	6897.128	365			

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: NEGLECT OF MOTHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	143.423	1	143.423	8.755	.003
Sex	18.767	1	18.767	1.146	.285
Grade	134.583	1	134.583	8.215	.004
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	9.176	1	9.176	.560	.455
School x Grade	91.431	1	91.431	5.581	.019
Sex x Grade	46.097	1	46.097	2.814	.094
3-WAY INTERACTION	61.742	1	61.742	3.769	.053
RESIDUAL	5848.409	357	16.382		
TOTAL	6355.863	364	17.461		

APPENDIX P_4

Analysis of Variance of Scale Scores

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REJECTION OF FATHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	11.852	1	11.852	2.440	.119
Sex	1.258	1	1.258	.259	.611
Grade	14.473	1	14.473	2.980	.085
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	3.698	1	3.698	.761	.383
School x Grade	10.305	1	10.305	2.122	.146
Sex x Grade	38.555	1	38.555	7.938	.005
3-WAY INTERACTION	1.155	1	1.155	.268	.626
RESIDUAL	1738.792	358	4.587		
TOTAL	1835.967	365	5.030		

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: REJECTION OF MOTHER (PARQ)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	9.341	1	9.341	2.083	.150
Sex	.190	1	.190	.042	.837
Grade	12.926	1	12.926	2.883	.090
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	1.685	1	1.685	.376	.540
School x Grade	9.955	1	9.955	2.221	.137
Sex x Grade	17.480	1	17.480	3.899	.049
3-WAY INTERACTION	4.969	1	4.969	1.108	.293
RESIDUAL	1600.544	357	4.483		
TOTAL	1672.849	364	4.596		

APPENDIX P_5

Analysis of Variance of Scale Scores

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: PARQ TOTAL SCORE (FATHER)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	179.080	1	179.080	1.137	.287
Sex	146.300	1	143.300	.910	.341
Grade	25.355	1	25.355	.161	.688
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	133.717	1	133.717	.849	.357
School x Grade	418.801	1	418.801	2.659	.104
Sex x Grade	299.733	1	299.733	1.903	.169
3-WAY INTERACTION	23.910	1	23.910	.152	.697
RESIDUAL	56070.365	356	157.501		
TOTAL	57245.956	363			

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: PARQ TOTAL SCORE (MOTHER)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	178.292	1	179.292	.617	.604
Sex	114.459	1	114.459	.715	.398
Grade	7.466	1	7.466	.047	.829
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	9.559	1	9.559	.060	.807
School x Grade	1044.867	1	1044.867	6.530	.011
Sex x Grade	519.886	1	519.886	3.249	.072
3-WAY INTERACTION	109.421	1	109.421	.684	.409
RESIDUAL	57284.771	358	160.013		
TOTAL	59345.926	365	162.592		

APPENDIX P_6

Analysis of Variance of Scale Scores

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: VIEW OF SELF (SELF-CONCEPT SUBSCALE 1)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	4.333	1	4.333	.120	.730
Sex	.129	1	.129	.004	.952
Grade	149.322	1	149.322	4.122	.043
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	21.597	1	21.597	.596	.441
School x Grade	358.137	1	358.137	9.887	.002
Sex x Grade	60.075	1	60.075	1.658	.199
3-WAY INTERACTION	5.704	1	5.704	.157	.692
RESIDUAL	13040.369	360	36.223		
TOTAL	13827.467	367	37.677		

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: RELATION TO OTHERS (SELF-CONCEPT SUBSCALE 2)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	390.658	1	390.658	8.478	.004
Sex	510.394	1	510.394	11.076	.001
Grade	209.235	1	209.235	4.541	.034
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	117.224	1	117.224	2.544	.112
School x Grade	170.748	1	170.748	3.705	.055
Sex x Grade	95.684	1	95.684	2.076	.150
3-WAY INTERACTION	207.030	1	207.030	4.493	.035
RESIDUAL	16589.039	360			
TOTAL	17857.802	367			

APPENDIX P_7

Analysis of Variance of Scale Scores

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: TOTAL SCORE (SELF-CONCEPT)

SOURCES OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARES	F	SIG. OF F
MAIN EFFECTS:					
School	385.378	1	385.378	3.890	.049
Sex	629.935	1	629.935	6.358	.012
Grade	335.897	1	335.897	3.390	.066
2-WAY INTERACTIONS					
School x Sex	536.141	1	536.141	5.412	.021
School x Grade	73.977	1	73.977	.747	.388
Sex x Grade	20.518	1	20.518	.207	.649
3-WAY INTERACTION	49.529	1	49.529	.500	.480
RESIDUAL	35666.600	360	99.074		
TOTAL	37431.207	367	101.992		

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