

# Measuring knowledge of child development

## Differences between parents according to gender, generation and education

Jennifer Campbell and Linda Gilmore

*A sample of 2,330 parents were surveyed regarding their knowledge of child development in the first three years of life, using a simple, easy to read questionnaire. Items tapped knowledge that would contribute to an authoritative parenting style, which combines warmth and firmness, and is associated with the most favourable child development outcomes. The sample included mothers and fathers of dependant children living at home, as well as grandmothers and grandfathers. While the majority of parents demonstrated good, basic knowledge of child development, there were also relative differences between parent groups, such that knowledge increased consistently with parents' level of educational achievement, and was greater in mothers than fathers. There were also generational differences, with grandfathers being less knowledgeable than present day fathers, and grandmothers less knowledgeable than present day mothers. The questionnaire has potential value for practitioners, as the survey results provide data from a large Australian sample which could support the use of the instrument with at-risk groups, or in parent intervention programs.*

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*Jennifer Campbell, Ph.D.  
School of Learning and Professional Studies  
Queensland University of Technology  
Victoria Park Road, Kelvin Grove, Qld 4059  
Email: kj.campbell@qut.edu.au*

*Linda Gilmore, Ph.D.  
School of Learning and Professional Studies  
Queensland University of Technology  
Victoria Park Road, Kelvin Grove, Qld 4059*

Documentation of systematic differences, across societies and generations, in beliefs and practices related to childrearing (Bornstein, Haynes, Azuma, Galperin, Maital, Ogino, et al., 1998; Holden, 1995) leads inevitably to the conclusion that views of childhood and parenting are cultural constructions, with variations between cultural groups or historical periods often reflecting changing social or economic conditions (Goodnow, 1995). Of particular current interest is the move towards 'modernity' in attitudes and behaviours in childrearing (Schaefer, 1990; 1991), with the process of increasing parental modernity documented both cross-culturally (Jung & Honig, 2000; Sever, 1989) and across generations (Honig & Deters, 1996; Vermulst, de Brock & van Zupten, 1991). Individual modernity relates to supporting greater rights and autonomy for those in minority groups who have lower status and power (Schaefer, 1990). When applied to parenting behaviour, this corresponds to a reduction in traditional parental authoritarianism, and an increase in more flexible, democratic childrearing practices that foster autonomy and self-direction, rather than obedience (Honig & Deters, 1996; Schaefer, 1990; 1991).

Child development research strongly supports the importance of parental modernity for effective childrearing in western democracies. Schaefer (1990, 1991) has demonstrated a significant relationship between parental modernity, as indicated by mothers' attitudes, beliefs and parenting practices, and children's academic competence and motivation. Similar findings arise from the extensive research into the effects of different parenting styles on child development outcomes, relating in particular to the model developed by Baumrind (1967, 1971). Authoritative parenting – which corresponds closely to the concept of parental modernity in that it incorporates components of warmth and responsiveness with inductive reasoning, reasonable demands for maturity and self-regulation, firmness in setting rules, and consultation with the child regarding decisions – has been linked to the best social, emotional and academic outcomes, both in preschool years (Baumrind & Black, 1967; Denham, Renwick & Holt, 1991) and at older ages (Eccles, Early, Frasier, Belansky & McCarthy, 1997; Herman, Dornbusch, Herron & Herting, 1997). Conversely, parental authoritarianism, as measured by Schaefer (1990, 1991), has been significantly correlated with lower levels of child competence, a finding that has

been repeated in the research associated with Baumrind's model. Children whose parents place a high value on conformity, obedience and power assertive methods of control, tend to be more anxious, withdrawn and unhappy in preschool (Baumrind, 1967; 1971), and to continue to be less well adjusted in adolescence, than those reared with an authoritative parenting style (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts & Dornbusch, 1994). They do, however, tend to fare better than those raised by undemanding parents, who are either permissive or neglectful (Baumrind, 1991).

Significant differences in tendencies towards authoritative versus authoritarian parenting attitudes and practices have been found between mothers and fathers, and between parents of different generations, cultures and levels of education. However, in many studies where such differences are noted, these exist alongside considerable similarities between the groups investigated, indicating the impact on parenting of multiple social, cultural and family specific factors. Thus, for instance, although Conrade and Ho (2001) found that present day Australian fathers were perceived by their children to be more authoritarian than mothers, and mothers were seen as more authoritative than fathers, this difference existed within the general finding that fathers were still more likely to be perceived as authoritative rather than either authoritarian or permissive. Such relative differences between mothers and fathers appear in many research studies (eg, Hosley & Montemayor, 1997; Russell, Aloa, Feder, Glover, Miller & Palmer, 1998; Smetana, 1995).

Similar findings are also found when parents from different generations are compared. Thus Vermulst et al. (1991), in their study of grandmother-mother dyads in Holland, found that while mothers were less restrictive, and paid less attention to rules and control, than grandmothers, the level of restrictive parenting of a given mother was influenced by the conformity orientation of her mother (the grandmother). It was also influenced by the mother's (and the grandmother's) level of education. Vermulst et al. (1991) therefore argued for the relative, rather than absolute, transmission of parental characteristics across generations, whereby intergenerational continuity of parenting is moderated by the social-cultural shift from conformist, authoritarian parenting to more child-centred, democratic approaches. This shift appears to be at least partially mediated by level of education. A similar mix of similarities and differences between grandmothers and mothers has also been reported in American studies (Honig & Deters, 1996; Overbey & Pollina, 1996), as well as in other cultures. For instance, Sever (1989) demonstrated significant changes in childrearing attitudes across three generations of women in Turkey in the direction of decreasing emphasis on authoritarian control, and increasing encouragement of independence and autonomy. Such generational changes interacted with mothers' level of education. Similarly, Sistler and Gottfried (1990) not only

found strong similarities between a mother's child development knowledge and that of her mother (the grandmother) for both white and black American mother-grandmother dyads, with mothers generally being better informed than grandmothers, but they also found that there were significant cultural differences between white and black parents, which were maintained across the generations.

Although most studies of cultural and generational change have related to women's parenting characteristics, similar social-cultural changes have been reported for paternal childrearing. Jung and Honig's (2000) study of middle-class Korean father-grandfather pairs, for instance, found not only a similarity between fathers' disciplinary attitudes and practices and those of their fathers (the grandfathers), but also revealed a trend towards modern fathers being more nurturing and flexible than their own fathers. Furthermore, fathers' educational attainment was inversely related to the strictness of their disciplinary practices. In general, though, grandfathers appear to be an under-researched group, and few comparisons are available between fathers and grandfathers.

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One of the most striking findings appearing in the above research studies of social-cultural change in childrearing attitudes and practices, is the relationship between parents' level of education and authoritative, democratic approaches to childrearing. Whether comparisons are made between males and females, across generations, or cross-culturally, educational achievement appears as an important variable in predicting parenting characteristics. This may be because those with higher levels of education are both more likely to have greater knowledge of child development (Conrad, Gross, Fogg & Ruchala, 1992; DYG, 2000; Schaefer, 1991), and also to hold more progressive democratic beliefs (Holden, 1995; Schaefer, 1990). Both of these are required for effective authoritative parenting. Without appropriate knowledge of child development, parents will not be able to understand their children's behaviours and perspectives, or make realistic demands (Goodnow & Collins, 1990).

Differences in child development knowledge have been reported across cultures and generations (DYG, 2000; Reis,

1989; Sistler & Gottfried, 1990), and knowledge of child development has been linked to effective parenting and higher levels of children's competence (Bornstein et al., 1998; Conrad et al., 1992; Parks & Arndt, 1990; Schaefer, 1991). Furthermore, education programs aimed at increasing parents' knowledge have been shown to lead to improvements in children's social, emotional and cognitive development (Cedar & Levant, 1990; Gordon, 2000; Wagner & Clayton, 1999). Improving understanding of child development thus forms an important focus of parenting programs, and a vital component of interventions with at-risk groups such as adolescent mothers (Conrad et al., 1992; Fulton, Murphy & Anderson, 1991; Reis, 1989). A reliable measure of developmental knowledge consequently has potential applications in research, clinical, educational and legal settings (Ferguson & Schneider, 1999). There are, however, few well established instruments for measuring knowledge of child development, appropriate for individuals with a range of reading and educational levels, which could act as screening devices with potentially at-risk groups, or measure change in knowledge after an intervention program. Nor is there much normative data on community knowledge of child development, particularly in Australia.

In a number of studies, assessment of child development knowledge has either focused very specifically on the age at which developmental milestones are expected (for instance, Reis, 1989; Sistler & Gottfried, 1990), or has involved long, complex questionnaires (for instance, DYG, 2000). Larsen and McCreary Juhasz (1986) have developed a Knowledge of Child Development Inventory, with an appropriate reading level, which has been tested on a sample of American women. This includes 56 multiple choice items assessing knowledge in a range of physical, cognitive, social and emotional development areas. A selection of these items could provide the basis for a shorter, less wide-ranging instrument. Similarly, the report *What grown-ups understand about child development* (DYG, 2000) details the results of an extensive study of 3000 American adults, which demonstrates that while adults are generally well informed in many areas of child development, there are significant differences between those with different levels of education, and between mothers and fathers, and those of different generations. While their questionnaire is too lengthy to provide a useful screening instrument, once again, a selection of items might usefully contribute to the construction of a brief screening instrument.

The present study was designed to meet three objectives. The first of these was to develop a brief, simple to read instrument to assess parents' knowledge of child development, particularly in areas that would contribute to authoritative parenting (Baumrind, 1967; 1971). The second objective was to provide normative, Australian data on community knowledge of

**Table 1 Percentage of fathers and mothers in each age group**

	20 or less	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71 plus
Men (n=1,183)	0.1%	7.7%	19.8%	33.1%	26.3%	8.6%	4.4%
Women (n=1,139)	0.2%	11.7%	22.8%	32.8%	21.8%	9.3%	1.4%

child development, using a sample that included fathers as well as mothers, and in particular, included grandfathers, who are an under-researched group. The final objective was to test for differences in knowledge between different groups in the community. If the instrument provided an effective measure of child development knowledge, then it was hypothesised that the sort of differences between groups that have appeared in the literature reviewed above should also appear in this study. Thus it was hypothesised that there would be relative differences between groups, such that mothers would have better knowledge than fathers, present day parents would have better knowledge than the previous generation of parents (grandparents), and knowledge would increase with level of educational achievement.

**METHOD**

**PARTICIPANTS**

A sample of 2,330 adult members of the Australian community, all of whom were parents, participated in the present study. There were approximately equal numbers of men (1,189) and women (1,141). The percentage of men and women in each age group is presented in Table 1, and the distribution of highest level of education completed is detailed in Table 2. The sample was reasonably representative of the Australian population in relation to levels of education. Comparisons with Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (1997) data showed that the percentages of the total sample with high school education (52%), certificates/diplomas (23%) and tertiary study (25%) were similar to those in the Australian population (60%, 22% and 18%, respectively), although there were slightly more with tertiary qualifications and slightly fewer with only secondary school education than in the Australian population.

**Table 2 Highest level of education completed**

	Grade 10 or less	Grade 11 or 12	Certificate /diploma	Bachelor's degree	Postgraduate qualification
Men (n=1,159)	23.1%	23.6%	24.8%	17.9%	10.5%
Women (n=1,112)	33.9%	22.6%	21.8%	15.2%	6.6%

## INSTRUMENT

A questionnaire was constructed to provide a measure of parental knowledge of child development in the first three years of life. Fifteen of the 18 items were taken from the Knowledge of Child Development Inventory developed by Larsen and McCreary Juhasz (1986), and the remainder were adapted from items contained in a survey of American adults (DYG, 2000). Each item had a multiple choice format, with respondents required to choose one of four alternatives. The answer deemed to be 'correct' in each case was that which was supported by child development research and well recognised parenting programs (Larsen & McCreary Juhasz, 1986) and which would best contribute to authoritative (as opposed to authoritarian or permissive) parenting (Baumrind, 1967; 1971). In general the items were designed to tap understanding of normal child development sequences, and how best to support children's needs for love and affection, and the development of autonomy (Erikson, 1963) in the first years of life. The 18 items appear in Figure 1 at the end of this article.

*One of the most striking findings ... is the relationship between parents' level of education and authoritative, democratic approaches to childrearing.*

## PROCEDURE

As part of their fieldwork, pre-service education students studying a unit on Human Development at a large Australian university, were required to ask two parents to complete the above questionnaire. One parent was to have at least one child under 18 years living at home, while the children of the other were all to be 18 years or older and living away from home. Data collection spanned two consecutive semesters, with the unit studied by a different group of students in each semester. In the first semester, the students were required to interview two mothers, one from each of the above categories, and in the second semester, the students were asked to interview two fathers, one from each of the above categories. This arrangement was to ensure that there were approximately equal numbers of mothers and fathers in the sample, and a good range of parents at different stages in the child rearing process, including both parents of dependent children, and grandparents. Students were instructed not to discuss answers to the items with the parents prior to the completion of the whole questionnaire, and items on the questionnaire were not discussed with students in their university class until after the completion of their fieldwork. Where both student and parent gave permission, completed questionnaires formed the database for the present study.

## RESULTS

An item by item report of the percentage of respondents who nominated each answer is presented in Figure 1. This provides normative data for the use of this questionnaire with Australian parents. In each case, the majority of respondents gave the 'correct' answer. The figures in this table indicate that, in general, Australian parents are well informed about some of the basic child development ideas that are likely to contribute to effective parenting. Further data analysis was undertaken by computing a knowledge of child development score for each individual by adding together the number of correct answers for the eighteen items. The mean number of correct responses obtained by all respondents, 14.6 out of a possible total of 18, further confirmed the good general child development knowledge within this sample of Australian parents.

In the literature reviewed previously, level of educational achievement was found to be a critical variable contributing to gender, generational and cross-cultural differences in parenting attitudes and knowledge. Consequently, in this study, a one-way ANOVA was first conducted to test for differences in knowledge between those with different levels of education. This revealed significant differences in knowledge of child development for respondents with different levels of educational achievement. Mean knowledge score consistently increased with each successive level of education completed ( $F(4, 2206) = 35.411, p < .001$ ). A Tukey HSD test for multiple comparisons revealed that there were significant differences in knowledge scores between every level of education, except for the comparison between those with a bachelor's degree and those with a postgraduate qualification. In this comparison only, the difference was in the right direction, but did not reach significance. (Significance levels for all other comparisons varied from  $p < .015$  to  $p < .001$ .) Mean scores ranged from 13.77 (s.d. = 2.98) for those with grade 10 or less, to 15.53 (s.d. = 2.35) for those with postgraduate qualifications.

As a result of this significant effect of level of educational achievement on child development knowledge, education was used as a covariate in all subsequent comparisons between groups. To test for differences in knowledge between mothers and fathers, a one-way ANCOVA, controlling for level of education, was conducted on the whole sample. This demonstrated that, in the sample as a whole, mothers had significantly greater knowledge than fathers ( $F(1, 2208) = 147.58, p < .001$ ).

To test for differences between generations, four separate groups were extracted from the total sample. The first two were present day parents who were less than 50 years of age, who had at least one child under the age of 18 years living at home, and who were not also grandparents. These two groups comprised 557 fathers and 541 mothers. The second two groups were grandparents, 240 grandfathers and 221

grandmothers, who were over 50 years of age, and all of whose children were aged 18 years or older and were living away from home. A majority of the grandparents had regular contact with at least one grandchild. Only 1.6% said that they rarely or never had contact with a grandchild. A two-way ANCOVA, controlling for level of education, was conducted on the sub-sample constructed from these four groups, to test for differences in knowledge by gender and generation. As in the analysis on the total sample, mothers had significantly better knowledge scores than fathers ( $F(1, 1554) = 88.989, p < .001$ ). Generational differences were also demonstrated, such that present day parents had better knowledge scores than grandparents ( $F(1, 1554) = 5.879, p < .015$ ), although inspection of means for the four groups indicated that these generational differences applied within, but not between genders. Thus present day mothers had the highest knowledge scores (mean = 15.26, s.d. = 2.47), followed by grandmothers (mean = 14.76, s.d. = 2.50), and then present day fathers (mean = 14.28, s.d. = 2.60). Grandfathers had the lowest knowledge scores (mean = 13.54, s.d. = 3.01). There was no significant interaction between gender and generation.

*Without appropriate knowledge of child development, parents will not be able to understand their children's behaviours and perspectives, or make realistic demands.*

## DISCUSSION

The Knowledge of Child Development Questionnaire was easily completed by a large sample of Australian parents who came from a wide range of educational backgrounds. While much previous research has focused primarily on mothers' knowledge of child development, the current study included fathers and, in particular, grandfathers, an under-researched group (Jung & Honig, 2000). The significant differences in knowledge of child development relating to parents' gender, generation, and level of education that were found in the present study were all in the hypothesised direction, and were all similar to those reported elsewhere in the research literature. Thus, as in other studies (DYG, 2000; Schaefer, 1991), knowledge of child development increased consistently with each successive level of educational achievement. Parents' level of education has also been more generally linked to more authoritative, developmentally sensitive, parenting attitudes and behaviours (Holden, 1995; Jung & Honig, 2000; Schaefer, 1990; Sever, 1989; Vermulst et al., 1991). Similarly, the gender differences found in the

current study were comparable to those reported elsewhere (for example, DYG, 2000). They also relate to more general differences in parenting styles that have been reported, whereby mothers have been found to be more authoritative, and less authoritarian, than fathers (Conrade & Ho, 2001; Russell et al., 1998).

The generational differences found in the present study were also in the hypothesised direction of present day parents having better knowledge of child development than grandparents of the same sex. Apart from a large scale survey of American adults (DYG, 2000), which found that parents in general had better knowledge than grandparents, there have been few comparisons of parent/grandparent knowledge of child development. While Sistler and Gottfried (1990) found that mothers had better knowledge than grandmothers, most other generational comparisons have been of more general attitudes towards parenting, demonstrating more authoritative attitudes in modern day parents. Most of these studies compared mothers and grandmothers (Honig & Deters, 1996; Overbey & Pollina, 1996; Sever, 1989; Vermulst et al., 1991). Jung and Honig (2000) provide a rare comparison of fathers and grandfathers, and these were Korean. The current study therefore provides valuable new information about the knowledge of grandfathers in comparison with other parent groups.

These differences between parents according to education, gender and generation should, however, also be interpreted within the broader framework that parents in all categories generally had good basic knowledge of child development. Many other studies (for instance, Conrade & Ho, 2001; Jung & Honig, 2000; Sistler & Gottfried, 1990; Vermulst et al., 1991) have also reported similar relative differences between groups, where the similarities between the groups studied also needed to be acknowledged, as well as the differences. In the present study, the mean differences between groups (according to education, gender and generation) were fairly small, and the overall similarity between parent groups probably reflected the more general influence of mainstream Australian culture on parents' knowledge, just as the relative differences between groups reflected parents' different gender, generational and educational experiences.

The present study has a number of limitations which suggest caution in interpreting the results. The first is that multiple data collectors were used in the study, and while the university students were given strict written and verbal instructions regarding the administration of the questionnaire, some inconsistencies in data collection methods across the whole sample may have occurred. Secondly, while the survey results were generated from a large Australian sample of parents that was reasonably representative of the Australian population in relation to gender and levels of education, it is not known to what extent the sample was also representative on other variables

which could affect the results, such as ethnicity, religion or geographic location. Future research could explore the influence of such variables.

The gender, generational and educational differences between parents found in the current study do however suggest that the questionnaire provided an effective and valid measure of child development knowledge. The items were all obtained from previously used instruments measuring knowledge of child development (Larsen & McCreary Juhasz, 1986; DYG, 2000) and were based on child development research and well recognised parenting programs. The questionnaire was also easy to administer and complete, and was suitable for individuals with a range of reading and educational levels. As such it has potential value for practitioners as a brief screening instrument for use with at-risk groups, or to measure change in knowledge after a parent intervention program. The norms provided in the present study, from a large Australian sample, could support its use in this manner. Further research could also investigate the use of the questionnaire with such populations, and its value as an assessment instrument. ■

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**Figure 1 Knowledge of Child Development Questionnaire Items**  
 Percentage of respondents (n=2,330) nominating each response

**CHILD DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE**

We are interested in people's views about children's development. Please answer each of the following questions, thinking about child development in general. We have alternated the use of 'he' and 'she' throughout the questionnaire, but all questions apply to both sexes, except when we specifically ask about boys or girls. Please mark only one box per question. If you are not absolutely sure, please choose the answer you think is best.

<p>1. How much alcohol may a pregnant woman drink without it possibly harming her baby's development?</p> <p>a) one in the first three months, and one or two glasses per week thereafter 18.8%</p> <p>b) no more than one glass per day throughout pregnancy 10.5%</p> <p>c) all alcoholic drinks should be avoided 63.0%</p> <p>d) low consumption of wine and beer is harmless, but spirits should be avoided 7.6%</p>	<p>5. When a parent gives a baby new objects or toys, how would you expect the baby to respond?</p> <p>a) with no interest, because a baby only likes the familiar 1.0%</p> <p>b) with confusion, because the baby can learn only one thing at a time 1.0%</p> <p>c) with curiosity, because a baby enjoys exploring new things 97.5%</p> <p>d) with fear, because it is a natural reaction 0.5%</p>
<p>2. It is important for the infant's emotional development that her parent</p> <p>a) teaches her not to be afraid of anything 1.6%</p> <p>b) loves her and gives her attention 80.4%</p> <p>c) teaches her right from wrong 17.7%</p> <p>d) teaches her not to cry 0.2%</p>	<p>6. What should a parent do when the baby begins to crawl?</p> <p>a) put the child in a walker to stop him from crawling on the floor because it is dirty 0.5%</p> <p>b) the child should be kept in his playpen so he does not get hurt 3.0%</p> <p>c) the child should be spanked when he gets into things so that he learns not to make a mess 1.4%</p> <p>d) breakable or dangerous things should be removed 95.1%</p>
<p>3. What type of care causes a fearful child?</p> <p>a) spoiling the baby by always comforting or meeting the baby's needs 8.5%</p> <p>b) insensitive, irregular care 83.1%</p> <p>c) it is the personality the baby is born with that determines how fearful the child will be 7.4%</p> <p>d) any care outside the home, no matter how good, causes a fearful child 0.9%</p>	<p>7. Suppose a 15 month-old child walks up to the TV and begins to turn the TV on and off repeatedly. What is the most likely explanation for why the child is doing this?</p> <p>a) she wants to get her parents' attention 10.9%</p> <p>b) she enjoys learning about what happens when buttons are pressed 84.6%</p> <p>c) she is angry with her parents for some reason, so she is trying to get back at them 0.4%</p> <p>d) she is being deliberately naughty and thinks it is funny 4.1%</p>
<p>4. If a six-month old baby cries when a stranger comes near, the parent should</p> <p>a) place the baby in the stranger's arms so the he overcomes his fears 3.3%</p> <p>b) ask her doctor about the problem because this is not a normal reaction 1.4%</p> <p>c) scold the baby since the child has to learn not to be afraid 0.3%</p> <p>d) direct attention away from the baby until he gets used to the stranger 95.0%</p>	<p>8. What advice should a parent be given to help improve a child's language?</p> <p>a) restrict the child so that he does not hear improper language 0.6%</p> <p>b) correct him every time he says something wrong 11.2%</p> <p>c) talk to the child and listen to him 83.8%</p> <p>d) have him repeat sentences after the parent 4.3%</p>

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<p>9. When a two-year-old child pushes off her wet pants</p> <p>a) it indicates that the child is naughty because she won't keep her wet pants on 0.2%</p> <p>b) it is a sign that she is becoming aware of when she wets, and will soon be ready to learn to use the toilet 88.9%</p> <p>c) it is a sign that the child is too lazy to use the toilet 0.7%</p> <p>d) none of the above, a two-year-old should have already been toilet trained 10.2%</p>	<p>14. If a two-year-old refuses to share her toys with other children it is most likely because</p> <p>a) she has been spoiled by her parents and has become selfish 1.8%</p> <p>b) this is normal behaviour for a two-year-old 59.3%</p> <p>c) she isn't used to playing with other children 26.2%</p> <p>d) her parents have not taught her how to share 12.6%</p>
<p>10. Why might a child's temper outbursts increase as he approaches two years of age?</p> <p>a) because he is becoming more dependent on others 2.4%</p> <p>b) because he has a great need to do things for himself 86.2%</p> <p>c) because the child is spoiled and used to getting his own way 9.0%</p> <p>d) because the child is developing a difficult personality 2.5%</p>	<p>15. If two boys, both two years old, seem to push and hit when they play together, their parents should</p> <p>a) never allow them to play together 0.5%</p> <p>b) before play begins threaten them with punishment if they push and hit 18.2%</p> <p>c) realise that this is normal behaviour for two-year-olds 69.4%</p> <p>d) be concerned that the boys are overly aggressive 11.9%</p>
<p>11. In dealing with anger in their toddlers, parents can best help their children to develop self-control by</p> <p>a) giving choices within firm limits 61.9%</p> <p>b) giving plenty of opportunities for expressing anger 2.2%</p> <p>c) ignoring angry outbursts 8.4%</p> <p>d) punishing lightly but consistently after each outburst 27.5%</p>	<p>16. If two girls, both two years old, play side by side rather than with each other, their parents should</p> <p>a) be concerned that something is the matter with the girls 0.9%</p> <p>b) tell the girls to play together 4.6%</p> <p>c) have an older girl join the girls to show them how to play with each other 10.8%</p> <p>d) realise that this type of play is normal for their age, leave them to play as they wish 83.8%</p>
<p>12. A two-year-old boy has begun to say 'no' when he is asked to put his toys away. This response</p> <p>a) shows that he is spoiled 1.7%</p> <p>b) is typical of a normal two-year-old's development toward independence 88.7%</p> <p>c) shows that he has not been properly disciplined 7.6%</p> <p>d) indicates he may have problems respecting authority in the future 2.1%</p>	<p>17. Shortly after the arrival of his baby sister, a three-year-old boy begins refusing to feed and dress himself. His parents can best deal with the boy by</p> <p>a) explaining to him that he is a big boy and should act like one 14.6%</p> <p>b) not giving the child treats until he starts to do these things for himself again 2.7%</p> <p>c) promising him a special treat if he feeds or dresses himself 5.4%</p> <p>d) showing him more love and spending more time with him 77.3%</p>
<p>13. The keynote phrase of the two-year-old is</p> <p>a) 'look at me' 6.9%</p> <p>b) 'mummy do it' 5.4%</p> <p>c) 'me do it' 72.9%</p> <p>d) 'go away' 4.8%</p>	<p>18. When a three-year-old child misbehaves her parent should</p> <p>a) tell her how badly she is behaving compared to other children 4.6%</p> <p>b) spank and remove her from the situation 4.5%</p> <p>c) remind her of the rules and if she then continues, remove her from the situation 87.1%</p> <p>d) ignore her 3.8%</p>

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