Parental Involvement in the Development of Children’s Organizational Skills

Çocukların Organizasyonel Becerilerinin Gelişiminde Ebeveyn Katılımı

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to explore mothers’ perceptions regarding their contributions to their 9- to 12-year-old children's organizational skills (e.g., time management, material organization, self-care skills). This mixed-methods study implements the explanatory sequential design. In the first stage, the mothers (n = 191) filled out the Questionnaire for Assessing Students’ Organizational Abilities (QASOA) and answered some demographic questions online. Based on the results from the QASOA, children with deficits in their organizational skills have been distinguished from those who do not have deficits. In the second stage, five mothers with children showing no deficit in organizational skills and five mothers with children showing deficits in these skills were interviewed on their involvement in their children’s organizational skills. The qualitative data were analyzed using directed content analysis. The findings suggest ways mothers, teachers, and psychological counselors can contribute to developing children’s organizational skills.

ÖZET

INTRODUCTION

Parental involvement can be described as parents’ active participation for their own and their children’s benefit both at home and in school life (Esther, 1995). It includes motivated parental attitudes and supportive behaviors intended to influence children’s social and academic well-being (Vukovic et al., 2013). Parental involvement in daily life consists of the activities and interactions between parents and their children at home (e.g., supervision and monitoring of home- and school-related tasks) and parental expectations about children’s academic learning in school life (Ginsburg et al., 2010). Based on the literature, one study conducted with parents of secondary school students demonstrated a positive association to exist between home-based parental involvement and school success. Students’ academic achievement increased with increases parents’ cooperation with teachers in monitoring their children and helping them with their school-related tasks (Çiftçi & Bal, 2015).

Parents, especially mothers, have important roles in their children’s development as children’s most extensive social interactions are with their families during the critical developmental periods of their lives (Schaefer & Bell, 1958). As a result, the literature states strong associations to be found between parental involvement and a range of phenomena related to child development such as executive functions (Fay-StammbachHawes & Meredith, 2014; Vuckovic et al., 2020), behavioral problems (Hosokowa & Katsura, 2018), school achievement (Areepattamannil, 2010), and mental health outcomes (Singh, 2017). Organizational skills are another important area to which parental involvement is closely related. The literature contains a growing number of studies that show associations between parental involvement and the components of organizational skills (Walker et al., 2004).

Organization can be described as the ability to plan and manage an activity by using time and space effectively to carry out the necessities of daily activities (Khaledi et al., 2019; Tubul-Lavy & Lifshitz, 2017). Organization can also be defined as the ability to decide how to carry out these activities. When deciding how to implement activities, planning the steps necessary to manage the activities, putting them in a logical order, taking these steps, and completing them are the sub-skills of organizational skills. Time management and material organization are also important components of organizational skills (Aygün, 2020). Time management requires planning the time for starting an activity, splitting time effectively among activities, and completing activities at specific times. Lastly, material organization requires keeping materials available and arranging them while practicing activities (Aygün, 2020). Organizational skills in children are generally composed of basic school-related skills. For instance, children’s organizational skills can be defined according to Jansen (1995) as keeping class notebooks tidy, writing daily lecture notes in notebooks, writing lecture notes in specific parts of a notebook, bringing daily course materials to class, bringing the materials teachers to ask for, completing homework before the due date, and using time effectively to complete class activities. The first years of school are a crucial time for young children to develop these skills to enhance their school performance (McWayne et al., 2008). Based on the information explained in this paragraph, this paper describes the main organizational skills as time management, material organization, and self-care skills.

Time Management

Managing time for academic tasks and activities of daily living is a component of organizational skills (Bikic et al., 2017). Time needs to be managed effectively in order to achieve home-based and school-related tasks. In this regard, one should set goals, make plans, and establish priorities in order to
effectively manage time (Uğur & Kutlu, 2005). In addition, being aware of how to balance one’s time, using strategies and tools, having a flexible routine, and evaluating effective time use are the ingredients needed for managing time (White et al., 2013).

Time management is required in school-related tasks. The inability to manage time effectively may result in students having low academic achievement (Alay, 2000; Breoux et al., 2018; Cambell & Svenson, 1992) and anxiety (Eldelektiğölu, 2008). Several reasons may be found for ineffective time management such as disorganization, procrastination, stress, lack of motivation, and study environment (Uğur & Kutlu, 2005).

Parents have indispensable roles in helping children develop time management skills. A meta-analysis study regarding organizational skills interventions for children and adolescents with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) revealed all intervention programs to include parenting components to develop parents’ skills in monitoring, prompt, and rewarding their children when they initiate or perform well in school-related tasks (Bikic et al., 2017). Parents’ behaviors in this regard were argued to reinforce children’s behaviors and encourage them to use these skills in various contexts. For example, an intervention program designed to improve the organizational abilities (including time management) of middle schoolers with ADHD saw school mental health providers include parents in the program, meet with them two times, and teach them how to monitor and reward their children (Langberg et al., 2012). In this regard, parents appear to generally be expected to contribute to their children’s time management skills through prompting, monitoring, and rewarding appropriately. To be more specific, past research has provided information regarding how parents can help children in managing their homework and included time management with regard to homework. In this context, one qualitative study (Xu & Corno, 1998) showed parents’ strategies to have helped their children cope with difficulties in homework management. Parents were indicated to guide their children mostly in time management (e.g., establishing a timetable for homework, encouraging the child to spend some downtime relaxing before starting homework, helping children plan their time) and the arrangement of the study environment (e.g., finding the best place for studying, helping the child prepare a study place). Also, how children manage their homework resembles their parents’ behaviors; in other words, children model their parents’ homework management strategies. In line with these findings, two studies (Xu et al.; Xu & Wu, 2013) indicated homework time management (e.g., setting priorities, planning, working more quickly when lagging behind, keeping track of what needs to be done) to be positively related to adult monitoring (e.g., the frequency that family helps with homework, from never to routinely).

**Material Organization**

The material organization is related to certain problems such as recalling tasks, forgetting and losing needed materials, and monitoring due dates (Gallagher et al., 2014). In addition, arranging the materials required for studying in school tasks and putting them in order in study places also require the ability to manage materials. First of all, children who have organizational problems also have difficulties managing the materials needed to complete their tasks and assignments (Gallagher et al., 2014). For instance, even if a child wants to complete their assignments, they might forget to put the assignment materials in their backpacks, and thus completing their assignment becomes impossible. Similarly, they might forget to bring their homework to school due to losing the required materials. Secondly, the material organization includes important factors for academic success such as organizing notebooks, having neat and orderly
notes and handouts, bringing all school-related materials to class, and bringing these back home (Jansen, 1995). As such, material organization can also be said to require the ability to manage one’s belongings (Langberg et al., 2012). For example, a study conducted on students with ADHD revealed material organization to be one of the best predictors of school achievement. Hence, the material organization is a critical component in the process of completing homework for students with ADHD (Langberg et al., 2011).

**Self-Care Skills**

Self-care skills are generally called daily living skills in the scientific literature, with the term referring to various personal abilities in different contexts such as home and school. Some self-care skills include dressing, undressing, toilet training, grooming, and maintaining personal hygiene. One should perform those skills regularly in daily life to be able to function independently (Stabel, 2013). Moreover, to be able to perform those tasks, cognitive (e.g., planning), motor (e.g., balance), and perceptual (e.g., sensory) abilities are needed (Mlinac & Feng, 2016).

Parenting practices are important for children’s development of daily living skills. First of all, parental instruction is needed for children to learn those tasks; however, the style of instruction makes a difference. For instance, a longitudinal study examining the development of children’s daily living skills from infancy to school age showed higher levels of daily living skills to be related to higher maternal expectations (e.g., mothers’ views regarding what a child will be doing in the following 6 months after the time of assessment), and greater frequency of maternal stimulation (e.g., mothers’ verbal or non-verbal behaviors such as questioning, giving directions, and gestures toward the child) even when controlling for children’s cognitive skills. Also, children with mothers who exhibit higher levels of directiveness (e.g., telling the child what to do or not to do) have higher daily living skills compared to those with mothers who questioned their children more while young. It was argued that directive instruction in early ages facilitates learning daily living skills (Dieterich et al., 2004). Akhmetzyanova (2014) also stated that families should establish daily routines to teach children self-care tasks and allow time for practicing these skills. When children learn these skills, they feel a sense of independence and confidence.

**Parental Involvement and Organizational Skills**

Parent involvement and the components of organizational skills have been studied across various contexts. Specifically, the main context in which parent involvement is strongly needed is at home. Home-based parental involvement includes parental support for both home-related tasks and educational processes (e.g., helping children with their homework; Fernández-Alonso et al., 2017). For example, a meta-analytical study conducted by Fay and Chen (2001) showed statistically significant positive associations between homework supervision and academic achievement.

Parental involvement is the most important factor as parents are responsible for how their children develop organizational skills regarding school performance (Hill & Taylor, 2004; Jeynes, 2003). To understand the roles parents have in their children’s organizational skills, research was conducted to understand why parents get involved in their children’s homework, what strategies they use, and how their involvement contributes to their children’s academic learning. According to the results, parents believe their involvement contributes to their children’s academic success because their involvement
encompasses a range of activities from teaching their children the basic structure of homework to improving their performance and other more complex activities to help their children explore effective learning strategies (Walker et al., 2004).

Guiding Questions
This study explores: (1) mothers’ perceived contributions to their children’s organizational skills at home and self-evaluations regarding these contributions; (2) the differences (if any) between mothers of children who have a deficit in their organizational skills and the mothers of children who have no deficit in organizational skills in terms of parental practices at home.

Significance of the Study
When examining the literature, a limited number of studies are seen on the development of children’s organizational skills. Existing studies have mostly been conducted on children who do not show typical development. Thus, this study is thought will make a significant contribution to the literature by examining the role parental involvement has in the development of organizational skills in typically developing children.

METHOD
This study is designed as mixed-methods research for understanding the relationship between children’s organizational skills and parental involvement. The study has two stages and the type of mixed methods involves the explanatory sequential design, which has a quantitative phase followed by a qualitative one. This type of mixed methods research first collects quantitative data and then forms questions and the participant groups in the qualitative stage by considering the previously collected quantitative data. The explanatory sequential design aims to explain quantitative data in depth by using qualitative findings (Creswell, 2014). The first stage of the current study collected data from mothers regarding their children’s organizational skills, and the second stage interviewed mothers regarding their involvement with their children’s school work and their contributions to developing their children’s organizational skills. The aim is to understand the parental mechanisms behind children’s organizational skills.

Stage I
The research collected data in this stage from mothers through an online survey with the aim of differentiating children who have deficits in organizational skills from those who have no deficits.

Research Sample
The sample in the first stage consists of 191 mothers with children between the ages of 9 to 12 years old. The mothers’ ages range from 27 to 55 years (Mage = 39.2). Among the mothers, 25.6% (n = 50) are employed; the rest are housewives. In addition, 4.6% (n = 9) of the mothers are single and 86% (n = 95) are married. Among the mother’s children, 50.8% (n = 99) are girls and 49.2% (n = 96) are boys. In addition, 22.6% (n = 44) of the children attend private schools while 77.4% (n = 151) attend public schools. Convenience sampling was used as the method for reaching participants. The survey form was shared with the mothers by way of social media platforms.
Procedures

Ethics approval was first obtained from the university ethics committee. At the beginning of the data collection process, the mothers were informed about the contents of the study through the informed consent form, then the mothers were asked to complete a demographic information form and the Questionnaire for Assessing Students’ Organizational Abilities (QASOA) using online forms on the Internet. The mothers who agreed to volunteer in the second part of the study were asked to write their e-mail addresses or phone numbers so the researchers could get in touch with them for the qualitative part of the research.

Measurement Tools

Demographic information form. A demographic form was used to collect information from the mothers about their monthly household income levels, age, education levels, marital status, and employment status as well as their children’s age, gender, class level, and school type (i.e., private or public). Also, mothers were asked to state if their children had a psychological or neurological disorder and if the father of the child was alive or not. Children who had psychological or neurological disorders were excluded from the sample. In this regard, the demographic information form was used for two reasons; the first one is to exclude outliers from the sample. For instance, one participant stated mother’s age as 77, so data belonging to that participant were excluded from the study. Secondly, as mentioned below, the maximum variation sampling method was used to select participants in the qualitative phase, and the selection has been made based on the demographics of the child (i.e., child age and child sex). Other than these two reasons, data collected from the demographic information was not used for the analyses since the study did not aim to use demographics as a variable in any quantitative or qualitative phase.

Questionnaire for Assessing Students’ Organizational Abilities (QASOA). The QASOA is a measurement tool developed for assessing 9-12-year-old children’s organizational skills. The scale has two forms: a parent and a teacher form. The parent form has a total of 14 questions in three sub-scales: performing learning tasks, time and space orientation, and quality of the written materials (Aygün, 2020). This study uses the parent form to ask parents to rate their child’s organizational skills on a 4-point Likert-type scale (0 = all the time, 3 = never) by considering their child’s activities at home. Higher total scores indicate more problems with organizational skills, with total possible scores obtainable from the scale ranging between 0-42. A total score greater than 10 indicates a deficit in the child’s organizational skills. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was conducted by Aygün (2020), with the Turkish version showing sound validity and reliability scores. Cronbach’s alpha of reliability for the parent version of the QASOA is α = .84, and the Spearman-Brown coefficient for split-half reliability is .84.

Stage II

The second stage of the study consists of interviews with the mothers about their involvement with their children’s schoolwork and their contributions to their children’s organizational skills development.

Participants

Of the 52 mothers who had stated being willing to participate in the qualitative phase and had written their contact information in the survey study, 10 were selected using the method of maximum variation
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Sampling (Patton, 2015). The aim in parallel with this sampling method is to identify common patterns among diverse participants (Patton, 2015). Before determining the 10 participants, children were grouped into two: those who have no deficit in organizational skills according to the QASOA results and those who have a deficit in organizational skills. Then, these two groups were sorted based on their ages and every fifth participant was selected randomly from the age groups. The researchers paid attention to the heterogeneity of gender, which means if the number of boys and girls are not equal in the groups that were divided based on their deficit level, another fifth participant was selected until the number of gender equality was reached. Of the children in the no-deficit group, three are female and two are male; two of the girls are 10 years old, one girl is 9, one boy is 11, and one boy is 12. Of the five mother’s children with a deficit in organizational skills, three are boys and two are girls; the boys are 9, 10, and 12 years old, while the girls are 9 and 11 years of age.

Data Collection

In the qualitative data collection phase, the researchers called the mothers who’d volunteered for the second stage to set a convenient time to meet with them on an online video conferencing platform. The mothers were sent a link and password at the appointed time for participating in the online meeting, and semi-structured interviews with the volunteer mothers were conducted through this platform.

The interview questions were developed based on the subscales from the QASOA (e.g., performing learning tasks, time and space orientation, quality of written materials). The interviews had questions about what kind of involvement the mothers show (if any) toward their children’s time management for completing homework, preparing materials for the upcoming school day, and keeping their study desk tidy. A total of six interview questions have been grouped under four categories: time management, material organization, self-care skills, and mothers’ self-evaluations regarding their contributions to their children’s organizational skill development. Two questions are about time management, two questions are about the material organization, one question is about self-care skills, and one is a question about the mothers’ self-evaluations. One sample question about time management is “What do mothers do so that their children complete their homework in a timely manner? What do you do?”, and one sample question about the material organization is “What do mothers do to get their children to prepare for the following school day (e.g., preparing the backpack for school, putting the necessary materials in the backpack)? What do you do?” The overall aim is to understand if mothers support their children’s organizational skills, and if so, what kind of involvement they show with their children’s activities.

Data Analysis

In the quantitative data analysis part, the descriptive statistics results of QASOA were examined. In addition, outliers and normality assumptions were examined. Four data, which were found to be outliers according to Mahalanobis Distance, were excluded from the study. It was observed that the variable belonging to QASOA met the normality assumption. The Cronbach alpha value of QASOA was found to be .86.

Directed content analysis has been used to analyze the qualitative data. The main characteristic of directed content analysis is to be guided by an existing theory or prior research. Categories are derived from a theoretical framework (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). At the beginning of this study, four main themes (e.g., time management, material organization, self-care skills, and mothers’ self-evaluations) were specified.
based on the interview questions. The researchers carefully reviewed and coded the data that had been transcribed under each of the four main themes. The categories were then created using these codes. As a result, the categories have been placed under the four main themes identified at the beginning of the data analysis. Table 1 shows the main themes the researchers established and the categories resulting from the directed content analysis.

**Trustworthiness**

According to Guba (1981), four criteria must be met to achieve trustworthiness in qualitative research: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The current study used several strategies to ensure trustworthiness. First of all, the two authors separately analyzed the participants’ written records to help ensure credibility. During the analysis, codes were created from the data, then the codes were integrated under the categories. The analyses were then compared and contrasted, and the common codes, categories, and themes were identified. The themes revealed from the common codes were integrated with the existing themes. Secondly, the two authors consulted with each other in each step of the data analysis process, with an advisor monitoring the process to ensure confirmability. A careful and detailed description of the process has also been provided to ensure dependability. Lastly, direct quotations from the participants have been given to enhance data transferability.

**Ethical Statement**

The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of İstanbul 29 Mayıs University (2020/04). All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of İstanbul 29 Mayıs University Ethics Committee.

**RESULTS**

The descriptive statistics show the children’s mean score as obtained from the QASOA to be 10.47 and the standard deviation to be 5.85; the scores range between 0 and 28.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Skills (n = 191)</td>
<td>10.47</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28.00</td>
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</table>

The qualitative part of this study investigates the collected data under four main themes (i.e., time management, material organization, self-care skills, and mothers’ self-evaluations). These themes have been identified based on the relevant literature and the interview questions. Table 2 details all the main themes and categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>Over-monitoring</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Guiding</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Use of organizational tools</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Home environment</td>
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</table>
a) **Time management.** The first main theme of this study is time management. Mothers’ contributions to their children’s time management skills were investigated with two questions.

Mothers were asked what they have done so that their children use their time efficiently for schoolwork-related responsibilities. Four categories emerged for this question: over-monitoring, guiding, use of organizational tools, and home environment. The mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills constantly check the child and overly monitor if the child had completed their school work. For example, one mother stated:

“So, being a mother as you’ve said, I am constantly watching over him.” (P5)

As for the children with higher levels of organizational skills, in contrast to over monitoring, these mothers took on the role of a guide. Quotations from three mothers can be given as examples for these two subthemes:

“I try to encourage children to set their own schedule. I have my own schedule, too.” (P1)

“A mother should provide other conditions and not engage in homework by hindering the child’s schoolwork.” (P10)

“I help as much as I can, but he does it himself; I only guide.” (P3)

Some mothers mentioned preparing the home as an optimal learning environment for children. For instance, one mother stated:

“I have to schedule things like dinner and bedtime and clean up the house first so that the children can have space to themselves.” (P1)

Also, the use of organizational tools (e.g., timetables) was common for Participants 1 and 2.

For the other question under the main theme of time management, mothers talked about what they do to have their children do their homework on time. Three categories emerged for this
question: give responsibility, use organizational tools, and teacher-parent collaboration. Whereas mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills take responsibility for their child’s homework, the other mothers prefer to give their children the responsibility. They just remind the child about their homework from time to time.

“I remind him about his homework; if he has any, I remind him about when he will do it.” (P1)

The rationale behind giving responsibility to the child can be exemplified by one mother’s explanation:

“I do not take and do it so that she can see the result when I do not. That way, the child will see how he accounts for it to the teacher in class. The child should feel ashamed. She will see what comes of it. I let her get embarrassed.” (P2)

The use of organization tools such as writing down the homework of the day in a note-book (P1), getting daily WhatsApp messages from school (P3, P7, P10), and reminding the child about their homework after receiving a message from school were common among four participants whose children had higher levels of organizational skills. Regarding WhatsApp messages, one mother mentioned how she and her child keep track of homework via this online platform:

“His homework is already coming to my phone now because it is online. I’m keeping track of whether he’s completed his homework. He already checks the homework; I tell him to do his homework, and he does.” (P3)

Teacher-mother collaborations seem important for some mothers with children possessing higher levels of organizational skills (P2-9). One mother mentioned:

“She was planning with his teacher. Actually, her teacher consulted with us about how it could be better. For instance, we made plans according to the child’s bedtime. A common decision was generally made in class. The child had a plan and we followed it.” (P9)

b) Material organization. The second theme of this study is material organization and was explored through two questions. The first question asked mothers about where their children study and what the mothers do to keep that place and the study materials (e.g., desk, library) tidy. For the former question, the mothers of children with higher levels of organizational skills preferred the child has their own study desks ($f = 3$), a quiet place at home ($f = 1$), or any unoccupied place at home ($f = 1$). Meanwhile, two of the mothers with children possessing lower levels of organizational skills prefer the child have their own room or desk whereas the other three had no specific place to study. Thus, children with higher levels of organizational skills tended to have a place that is appropriate to study.

For the second question mothers were asked here, one category (i.e., giving responsibility) emerged based on the mothers’ statements. The mothers of children with higher levels of organizational skills stated their children to be responsible for keeping their study materials, bookcase, and desk tidy as the mothers had given the children this responsibility to fulfill themselves. Although these mothers and children sometimes do these tasks together or mothers guide children to teach them
how to keep their materials in order, mothers did not do this for their children. For instance, one mother said:

“We organized our library. I said, ‘Look, there are books on various subjects here and books by this author there.’ Then I said, ‘After you finish reading, put it back where it came from.’ I said it like this. After they read, sometimes they put it back, and sometimes they can’t.’” (P1)

Another mother said:

“She organizes herself. For example, there are nested tables next to her books, she sets herself up there. She hung his schedule on the tables, apart from that she organizes her schedule herself.” (P9)

Meanwhile, most of the mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills mentioned tidying their child’s study desk and materials. One mother stated:

“She needs to be constantly told what to do to study regularly. I keep track of him. For instance, I tell her to organize his notebook. I check on her to see if she’s put his pencils back. We struggle with organizing. She needs to be reminded. I constantly remind her. She expects me to put her pencils back, but I remind her. Yet when I put them back, I do it angrily. She actually challenges me. She has problems staying organized.” (P8)

The other question under the theme of material organization compares the two groups based on their school preparation routines. The mothers assessed whether or not their children prepared their school materials (e.g., books, notebooks, pencils) neatly, neatly got their school clothes ready for the next day, and organized their homework for the next school day. The category for this title again was giving responsibility to the child. The mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills reported more problems preparing for school. Instead of their children, they took responsibility for preparing for school. For example, they got their child’s school clothes ready and organized the school books, notebooks, and homework. Meanwhile, the mothers of children with higher levels of organizational skills gave their child the responsibility of preparing for school. These children organized their own school materials.

Although the mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills excessively warned and reminded their children to prepare their clothes, homework, and such, the children still had problems preparing for school. However, the mothers of children with adequate levels of organizational skills supported their children when they needed it and did not take on their child’s responsibilities.

“I’m like my daughter’s assistant. Really, I’m like my daughter’s assistant. From her clothing to preparing her backpack and food.” (P4)

“But I don’t do any of this. Since first grade, they’ve done it all by themselves. I don’t get in their way. The teacher wants us to do it like this. As such, I don’t prepare things. For example, I used to get things ready at the beginning of first grade. Because the teachers wanted the child to be responsible, I stopped getting...
involved after that. They do it all themselves... That’s why I’m so happy with their sense of responsibility. There’s nothing wrong with responsibility. They’ve always gotten ready themselves.” (P9)

c) Self-care skills. One question was used to compare the groups based on their self-care abilities. Mothers evaluated their children regarding their diet, toilet training, cleanliness of clothes, nail and hair grooming, and bathing habits as well as how they had contributed to these skills. The mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills reported their child as having more problems in these areas. When asking these mothers what the reasons were for these problems, two important categories emerged: having knowledge and giving responsibility at a younger age. The mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills did not know which self-care abilities should be taught at which proper age. As a result, some children could not manage their self-care as they were unaware of how to take the necessary steps. Their mothers kept excessive track of their child’s diet and cleaned their nails and clothing instead of having their children do it. For instance:

“I keep the laundry, closets, and drawers in order. The child should not be looking in them, I want to let them cut their own nails, but I don’t know if I should do it yet.” (P10)

“I remind him to brush his teeth, change his clothes before going to bed, wash his hands at lunchtime. I ask if he has done all this.” (P6)

Secondly, the mothers of children with adequate levels of organizational skills gave their children the responsibility of managing their self-care abilities at younger ages. They are more knowledgeable about how to teach these abilities and look after their children when performing the task they’ve learned. When children have difficulties (e.g., while grooming their nails, or hair), they help their children and finish it together. These mothers prefer to help their children instead of warning and reminding them constantly. For example:

“When my daughter was 10 years old, I told her she should shower on her own; I spelled out to her what she should do when taking a bath, how often she should take a bath, and how she can groom herself. We talk about these issues, I tell her about them.” (P2)

“I talk about it. First, I tell her how to do it properly. After a certain age, she began to think, gradually she began to take showers on her own. First of all, I told her the right way to do it.” (P2)

Meanwhile, the mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills reported problems when raising their children. Some of the mothers reported having had to forego teaching their children self-care skills and being unable to give their child the responsibilities the child should have taken on.

“Since my child was three years old, I have experienced many difficulties. I took it easy on my child, I could not keep track of him. Now, I am teaching her how to clean the toilet because she had been looked after for 5 years. She sat in front of the TV looking at games. She was left alone. She did not have anyone to take
as a role model. She spent a lot of time in front of the TV and the computer. I did everything she needed to do herself based on her age.” (P8)

d) Mothers’ self-evaluations. Under this theme, the mothers evaluated their contributions to their children’s organizational skills. The results reveal the individual and environmental factors influencing children’s organizational skills. The individual factors include child temperament, gender, mother’s education, and mother’s perceived self-efficacy. The environmental factor involves coparenting support.

Among the individual factors, the mothers emphasized their child’s temperament. For example, the mothers with more than one child attributed the differences among their children’s organizational skills to their temperaments. Although the mothers had provided their children with similar conditions, education, and support, the children differed in skills such as material organization, self-care, and time management.

“I have two children with different personalities. I adopted different attitudes toward them.” (P7)

“She behaves shy and is unassertive on certain issues.” (P4)

“So these things can give different results in each child. For example, she has a 6½-year-old sibling with. For example, the way they study is not the same at all. The sibling doesn’t have this.” (P2)

The mothers also emphasized their children’s gender as having an important role in their involvement. They reported the way they support and teach their children how to develop organizational skills to vary based on the child’s gender.

“Yes, it’s going well for my girl. It’s sometimes the opposite for my boy. I don’t do too many things to him. I act with the rationale that he should do it himself and face the results. My son says that time has passed, but my daughter doesn’t do that, she tries to take that example.” (P2)

Another factor causing the differences among children is the mother’s education. Some mothers received education on child development and some are teachers. As such, they are knowledgeable about how to teach their children self-care abilities, how to organize school materials and homework, and how to manage time. Therefore, the mothers’ education, especially on child development, resulted in differences among their children in terms of organizational skills.

“Yes, I studied social work. But I saw my mistakes from my first child and learned from them.” (P6)

“I studied child development through distance education. Although I do not practice my profession, through suggestions of my education, and I am listening to the TV programs of my doctor. I am trying to apply the things that remain in my mind, my old experiences, and the things that I internalize.” (P2)
The last individual factor is the mothers’ perception of their self-efficacy. The mothers observed other children’s organizational skills and compared them with their children. In this way, they evaluated their contributions to their children’s organizational skills.

“Well, I think I’m good at this issue. I think I’ve always supported their self-needs as much as possible to develop their self-care skills. Since infancy, I think I’ve received positive reactions from the environment regarding this issue.” (P1)

“Nowadays I do not see myself as good. I don’t think I can give that magnificently. I wish to be more disciplined, tough, and hard.” (P8)

The other factor that may cause differences between the children with lower and higher levels of organizational skills is coparenting support, the only environmental factor in this study. The mothers think that children who receive support from their fathers have better organizational skills.

“We have thus tried to create an educational system where the children have been able to stand on their own since being babies with the help of my husband, who is a teacher.” (P1)

“His father says his lessons should be good but blames me. His father says this is our fault, but he means it’s mine. His father doesn’t take responsibility.” (P10)

“For the example of education, we have reading day as a family. My husband is very careful about it.” (P5)

**DISCUSSION**

This study explores mothers’ perceived contributions to their children’s development of organizational skills through interviews and compares the mothers of children with lower and higher levels of organizational skills based on their involvement practices at home.

First of all, the result of the quantitative part showed that the sample of this study has an average value in their organizational skills as stated in the cut-off score of the QASOA (Aygün, 2020). When comparing this result with another study that was also conducted with children from 9 to 12 ages using the QASOA (Aygün, 2020), the children in this study have more problems with their organizational skills. In the former study, the sample had an average score that was lower than the cut-off score. Since there is an only one study that evaluates the organizational skills of the children in this population in literature, these results show the need for further research studies.

In the qualitative part, time management comprises the first theme. The mothers of children with lower and higher levels of organizational skills differ regarding the level at which they monitor their child. The mothers of children with low levels of organizational skills overly monitor their children’s school work and always keep an eye on their children by checking if the child has completed their homework on time. These kinds of behaviors in mothers can be interpreted as overparenting (Segrin Woszidlo et al., 2012) or intensive parenting. Intensive parenting consists of closely monitoring the child’s life and progress (Bernstein & Triger, 2010). Although mothers have good intentions in looking after their children’s schoolwork, constantly keeping track of it may result in their child’s own time management skills.
becoming deficient, as one previous study (Seal & Grolnick, 2008, as cited in Bernstein & Triger, 2010) has shown intensive parenting practices to lead children to be less self-sufficient and to make them less competent in their ability to manage time effectively. Mothers of children with better organizational skills should also be noted to monitor their children’s time management, but their monitoring does not exceed guiding the child, sometimes reminding them of their responsibilities, using organizational tools (e.g., time-tables), and preparing and arranging the home environment (e.g., meal-times) for optimal study conditions. These findings are in line with past research (Gyamfi & Pobbi, 2016) that pointed out children’s developmental training to be related to parents monitoring the child’s activities, making sure the child uses their time after school effectively, and developing a time table for children to regulate their activities.

Giving responsibility to and guiding children are common practices among the mothers of children with better time management skills, whereas the mothers of children with lower levels of time management skills generally assumed the responsibilities. Behaviors such as giving responsibility and guiding can be counted as autonomy-supportive parenting or scaffolding in particular. Parents who have autonomy-supportive styles and use scaffolding help their children organize and plan their activities (Bibok et al., 2009), give their children the opportunity to plan and work on their goals, and prevent themselves from completing a task for their children (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015). By doing this, they can provide the child with a context in which the child can improve their executive functioning skills (i.e., time management; Bibok et al., 2009). In this context, a parent taking the child’s responsibility (e.g., following school-related deadlines) upon themselves may hinder the child’s organizational skills development similar to the sample in this study.

The material organization is one of the most important components of organizational skills. Problems with recalling tasks and due dates and forgetting and losing the required materials may result in disorganization at home and school in addition to academic failure. To manage activities at a specific time and space effectively, material organization (i.e., seeking, finding, collecting, and arranging the necessary materials) is required (Gallagher et al., 2014; Jansen, 1995). When parents and teachers report problems related to the child’s organizational skills, they emphasize disorganization in class and social activities, problems staying organized, illegible handwriting, and unkempt personal appearances (Aygün, 2020).

Parents can be said to affect their children’s organizational skills. This study asked parents to evaluate their children’s material organization skills. The mothers evaluated their children in terms of whether they organize the materials where they study, neatly prepare their school materials (e.g., textbooks, notebooks, pencils), neatly get their school clothes ready for the next day, and organize their homework material for the next school day. In addition, the mothers also evaluated how they contribute to their children’s material organization skills development. The mothers of children with lower levels of organizational skills were seen to take upon themselves the responsibility for the material organization instead of their children. They arranged where their children study, tidied up their school materials, and prepared their children for the next school day (e.g., putting textbooks, notebooks, and homework in the school backpack; preparing the child’s school clothes).

Taking responsibility for organizing materials when the child prepares for school can be explained with the concept of overparenting. Overparenting is defined as staying involved in the child’s life, taking
precautions to prevent possible problems, excessively giving advice without the child’s help, controlling the child’s self-management, and providing abundant tangible support (Segrin-Woszidlo et al., 2012). Thus, overparenting might result in taking responsibility and solving problems when the child should, which then leads to problems in the child’s life. First of all, children who are exposed to overparenting might not gain autonomy over their home- and school-related tasks. For example, parents who overparent by offering too much assistance might organize the materials for their child’s homework and school projects (Lindt, 2019). These mothers do not allow the child to develop an independent identity, a sense of self-sufficiency, or a sense of responsibility regarding life’s challenges. For instance, this study saw mothers report conflicts with their child due to the child having problems regarding responsibility. In addition, these children are unable to develop the important competencies of organizational skills, including the ability to manage things like their materials and time (Bernstein & Triger, 2010). Secondly, children may have lower levels of self-efficacy for their responsibilities as a result of mothers being overly involved (Lindt, 2019). For example, this study found some children to have difficulty preparing school clothes for the next day as their mothers had taken on this responsibility in their place. However, children who develop typically are able to organize things regarding their school preparations at these ages.

Mothers’ efforts to develop children’s self-care skills have been categorized under two sub-themes: having knowledge about how to teach children self-care skills and giving children responsibilities with regard to self-care skills at younger ages. Although a few studies are found to have addressed this topic in the scientific literature, our findings are compatible with one previous research that showed direct instruction to be an effective way of teaching children self-care skills (Dieterich et al., 2014). To be able to give children instructions on how to carry out self-care tasks, mothers should have some knowledge about how to teach children daily life tasks. In this regard, statements from the mothers in the present study seem to be justifiable as some of them related the degree to which they’d contributed to the development of their child’s self-care skills to the knowledge they have in this area.

Regarding their self-evaluations, the mothers’ statements indicate the child’s temperament to be influential, which appears to parallel the literature indicating the reciprocal interactions between child temperament and parenting (McBride et al., 2002; Rothbart, 1981). The way this relationship forms may affect the child’s organizational skills. For example, children need their parents to teach them self-care skills, especially at younger ages. However, a study found difficult temperaments to be related to mothers having lower levels of attempting to teach (Maccoby et al., 1984). Similarly, the parents in the current study who defined their child’s temperament as difficult also experienced problems when teaching their child things such as self-care skills, material organization, and time management. As a result, they reported motivational difficulties and conflicts with their children. In addition, a child’s difficult temperament may also be a result of less positive mothering. For example, one mother reported wanting to be more tough in order to be able to cope with her child’s organizational problems.

In the mothers’ self-evaluations, some mothers argued education level to be a contributing factor. The literature shows a strong relationship between parental education and parental involvement. Kohl, Lengua, and McMahon’s (2000) study found lower levels of parental education to be associated with lower levels of parental involvement (e.g., decreased parental involvement at school, lower levels of parent-teacher communication, and decreased parental involvement in home-related tasks). Having a sufficient education is said to be able to increase parental awareness regarding supporting children both
at home and school, whereas less educated parents might experience difficulties that lead them to feel less able to be actively involved in their child’s life. In addition, lacking the skills needed to help their children might affect parents’ relationships with their children (Kohl et al., 2000). The parents in the current study who are educated, especially regarding child development, evaluated themselves better regarding their support for their child’s organizational skills development. They reported themselves as being more knowledgeable when teaching their children self-care, organizational, and time management skills. However, some parents for example reported difficulties regarding not knowing which self-care skills should be taught at which age.

In addition, the literature contains several studies showing associations between parental education and children’s academic performance, with parental involvement being found as a mediating variable in this relationship in one study (Gonzalez Dehass et al., 2005). In that study, parents who were more educated were actively involved in school and established strong parent-teacher communication (Kohl et al., 2000). They supported their children in particular regarding school-related tasks, which as a result contributed to the child’s academic success. Similarly, the parents in the current study with more education helped their children develop organizational skills, which in turn contributed to their performance in both school- and home-related tasks.

Mothers’ self-efficacy perceptions (e.g., perceptions and beliefs of self-competence in their parental role with regard to their ability to positively influence the development of their children; Coleman & Karraker, 2000) played an important role in their evaluations, which is in line with Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, & Hoover-Dempsey’s (2005) study indicating higher self-efficacy beliefs to be related to increased parental involvement at home and school. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler’s (2005) revised theoretical model regarding parental involvement also indicates parental self-efficacy to be an important contributing factor in parents’ involvement at home and school. This model implies that, when mothers have more self-efficacy, their involvement in their children’s school and home activities increases. Similarly, a review study on parental involvement in homework indicated parents’ confidence in their ability to help with children’s homework to lead them to get more involved (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001). Several factors may exist that are associated with self-efficacy beliefs. In this regard, feedback from other people seems to be significant for some mothers in the present study. For example, one mother who blames herself for her children’s difficulties in organizational skills mentioned her husband blaming her for their child’s deficiencies in abilities. Another mother who is content with her parenting abilities stated receiving positive feedback from other people in terms of her parenting practices. In accordance with the importance of feedback from other people, coparenting support is also an influential factor mothers referred to during their self-evaluations. Coparenting support refers to parents’ supportiveness of each other in their parental roles and the extent to which they respect and acknowledge each other’s efforts toward the child (Feinberg, 2002). Coparenting support may reflect on several parenting behaviors such as affirming the other parent’s efficacy and respecting and valuing the other parent’s contributions and opinions. Opposite to coparenting support is undermining, which includes criticism, blame, and condescension (Feinberg, 2003). Previous studies have shown coparenting support and paternal engagement/involvement in the father-child relationship to be positively related (Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2011; Sobolewski & King, 2005). While mothers who perceived their husbands’ support as a coparent positively had a more positive tone in their self-evaluations, the mother
who mentioned her husband’s undermining coparenting behaviors had negative judgements about her own parenting skills.

Teacher-parent collaboration is one of the categories in the mothers’ self-evaluations and is an effective way of getting parents involved in their child’s school-related responsibilities. Previous research has indicated parents’ eagerness to collaborate with teachers to do something (Epstein, 1986; Gökçe, 2000), and the current study confirms this argument. The previous review revealed parents’ perceptions of invitations from the child and the child’s teacher for the parents to get involved in schoolwork to increase their engagement in their child’s schoolwork (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001). Epstein’s (1986) study showed the parents of 1st-, 3rd-, and 5th-graders to agree that teachers who involve parents in learning activities at home to be beneficial for children and their involvement practices would be more effective if teachers showed parents how to do those activities. In relation to the current study, teachers were revealed to use several techniques to involve parents in learning activities at home, such as reading books, signing the child’s homework, helping with worksheets, and asking the child about their school day. When teachers made parental involvement a regular practice in their classrooms by sending memos to parents, arranging workshops with parents, and involving parents with learning activities at home, the parents had the opportunity to get more ideas from teachers about the child’s instructional programs and their perceptions of teachers’ interpersonal skills, and teaching quality increased. Similarly, Gökçe’s (2000) study in Turkey indicated parents to be willing to cooperate with teachers and to expect teachers to establish effective communication and cooperation paths with them. In the present study, mothers stated teachers to have helped them prepare a schedule for children’s daily plans involving homework; the parents used this schedule to guide their children in managing their time. The mothers appear to have been content with the teachers’ guidance.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study had mothers evaluate their children’s organizational skills and group children based on the mothers’ perspectives. However, organizational skills are composed mostly of school-related skills (Jansen, 1995). For example, the main skills in school life are material organization for school, study, and homework materials and time organization related to finishing homework. Because these skills are related to school processes, teachers’ perspectives might be taken into account when grouping children’s organizational skills.

The existing literature related to children’s organizational skills is based on studies conducted on children with ADHD or other learning issues (Abikoff et al., 2013; Langberg et al., 2011). However, studies that have evaluated the organizational skills of typically developed children are very scarce. Therefore, the number of studies with typically developed children should be increased to understand the role parental involvement has in developing children’s organizational skills.

Practical Implications

This study may provide several implications for parents, teachers, and school counselors. First of all, parents’ autonomy-supportive parenting practices and especially scaffolding behaviors as discussed above seem to be effective in contributing to children’s organizational skills. Parents are encouraged to let their children plan and follow the steps needed to reach their goals and to not take on their children’s responsibilities. Instead, parents should only take on the role of guide for their child and help them have
an optimal study environment at home. In this way, children’s organizational skills may show better development. Secondly, parental education regarding child development has been revealed to be important. Teachers and school counselors should train parents on how and when to teach self-care skills to their children. The present study had several mothers with limited knowledge about this. Also, teachers are recommended to collaborate with parents as the mothers greatly appreciated the teacher-parent collaborations by making plans for students together and expecting parents and children to follow this plan at home. Lastly, fathers’ roles as coparents should not be disregarded, as some mothers perceived the support or blame they’d been given from their husband as significant sources of encouragement or undermining, respectively. Therefore, coparenting interventions seem to be an effective way of improving parents’ involvement in children’s schoolwork as well as mothers’ self-efficacy in nurturing roles.

Limitations of the Study

This study presents three primary limitations. First of all, this study was conducted with mothers who evaluated themselves regarding their contributions toward developing their children’s organizational skills. However, the literature also states fathers’ contributions to be as important as mothers’ contributions regarding their children’s organizational skills (McBride et al., 2002). Therefore, restricting this study only to the perceptions of mothers has been a limitation of this study. Secondly, this study was conducted with children between the ages of 9 and 12. These ages can be said to show differences with respect to developmental stages. Therefore, these ages should be addressed separately. In this way, more reliable information can be obtained through in-depth analysis of each age. Lastly, the number of measurement tools and scales in Turkey that evaluate the organizational skills of children is very scarce. Therefore, more valid, reliable, and multidimensional measurement tools should be developed to conduct more valid and reliable research.

Conclusion

This research has investigated the impact of parental involvement on the development of children’s organizational skills using a mixed methods design. The first part of the study grouped the children into two categories: those with higher levels of organizational skills and those with lower levels. The second part of the study had mothers perform self-evaluations regarding their contributions to their child’s organizational skills development through qualitative research guided by the principles of content analysis. According to the results, mothers who gave their children responsibility, who guided them instead of over-monitored, who collaborated with teachers, and who prepared a home environment based on the needs of the children were seen to contribute to the child’s development of time management skills. In addition, the children who use organizational tools also managed their time better. Secondly, the children whose mothers had taken on the child’s responsibilities were found to experience problems regarding their material organization skills. Thirdly, the mothers who were knowledgeable about self-care skills (i.e., how these skills are taught and what the proper ages for teaching are) made greater contributions to the child’s skills. Lastly, the mothers evaluated themselves regarding the factors that affected themselves during their child’s organizational skills development. The mothers reported their child’s gender and temperament as well as the mother’s education, self-efficacy beliefs regarding motherhood, and shown and perceived support from their husbands to have affected the mothers. The
implications, limitations, and future recommendations have been presented for the benefit of third parties (i.e. parents, researchers, and mental health professionals).
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Author Contribution
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