



The effectiveness of DITINDAK training to increase mothers involvement in child-rearing early childhood

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ABSTRACT

Background: DITINDAK training is an abbreviation in Indonesian of the word *mendidik tidak mendadak* (meaning that parenting requires a process, so it is not done immediately).

Purpose: This study aimed to determine the effectiveness of DITINDAK training in increasing mother involvement in early childhood education.

Method: The method in this study was a quasi-experimental design with a non-equivalent control group design, consisting of mothers of young children that received training. The data collection method used a Likert scale model based on the Barge and Loges aspects of maternal involvement, consisting of 30 stand items with a reliability value of .846. Data analysis was performed using paired sample *t*-test bootstrap through the SPSS 26 application.

Findings: Based on the paired sample *t*-test on working mothers it is concluded that there is no change or difference between pretest and posttest in working mothers, $t(12) = -0.096, p = .925 (p > .05)$. Meanwhile the paired sample *t*-test on housewives resulting in a statistically significant change or difference between pretest and posttest, $t(19) = 3.417, p = .002 (p < .01)$. The study therefore concludes that the DITINDAK training is effective in increasing the involvement of housewives in early childhood education.

Implication: The result of this study is expected to improved child development, enhanced maternal well-being, strengthened family relationships, and policy recommendations for DITINDAK training program which found to be effective in increasing mothers' involvement in early childhood child-rearing.

KEYWORDS

Mother involvement;
working mother;
housewives; rearing;
training.

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Introduction

Family is one of the most fundamental pillars of society, which shapes the personality of the people in it. Joy, satisfaction, quality and optimal family performance are effective factors in the growth, development and progress of family members (Masouleh & Afjeh, 2018). Parents have always been seen by society as people who play a central role in the upbringing of their children (Barge & Loges, 2003). Parents are responsible for providing for the physical, social, emotional, psychological and spiritual needs of their children (Undiyaundeye, 2014). Children's growth and development can be influenced by parenting and parental affection. The roles of fathers and mothers tend to have different positions and influences, although they are equally important in supporting child development, with the role of mothers considered to make a greater contribution to childcare (Ismiatun & Suryono, 2019). Parents, especially mothers, play a very significant role in guiding and influencing childrens life behaviors (Apriliani, 2023). Traditionally, mothers have many responsibilities in raising children and being involved in their education (Weiss et al., 2003). A mother is the closest person to a child from the time she is in the womb to the time she is a baby. Furthermore, a mother is the child's primary companion and, of course, the child's primary educator as the child grows and develops. Meanwhile, a father is more responsible for providing for his wife and children, while the upbringing and education of children is more the responsibility of the mother. Finally, the fathers involvement in the child's care and education is more focused on material fulfilment (Easterbrooks et al., 2014; McWayne

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et al., 2013; Torres et al., 2014).

The modern family is changing over time. In the past, women were known as *kanca wingking* for men, or more clearly as the number two person in the household after the husband (Rahmawati, 2014, as cited in Jannah & Candra, 2020). But now the position of men and women has changed both at work and at home. Nowadays, women play a dual role where they are not only housewives but also work to support the family economy (Salaa, 2015, as cited in Nauli et al., 2019). Currently, working mothers have become a common phenomenon that can be found in almost every part of the world, including Indonesia. According to the research conducted by Saputra et al. (2021), the reasons for working mothers are divided into two categories, namely economic or financial needs and personal satisfaction (including self-actualization and self-exploration). In addition, another reason that is the main reason for working mothers is to take advantage of their education (Siregar, 2007).

In today's society, families experience numerous pressures from their professional and domestic responsibilities. When both parents are employed, they often work extensive hours, leading to a situation where the majority of working women feeling concerned about managing their finances while also being available for their family (Weiss et al., 2003). Even in Indonesian society, working mothers are usually still expected to be the primary caregivers for their children, regardless of the jobs they have outside the home and their domestic responsibilities (Wahyuningsih, 2022). The roles and duties of working mothers to nurture, care and educate their children are sometimes left to caregivers because mothers have other duties and other activities due to their social status and busy work (Ramadhani, 2019). Research by Saputra et al. (2021) shows that working mothers show negative emotional responses (feeling sad, anxious, worried, and concerned) because the level of trust between mothers and caregivers has not been built when their children have to be left. Working mothers also face negative stigma from society, for example, that mothers who choose to work are selfish because they do not prioritize their children's needs and pay little attention to their children. Unfortunately, housewives have not been spared the negative stigma of society. Being a housewife is considered a more comfortable job for a woman because she doesn't have to be tired from working outside the home. However, housewives are also susceptible to the stress of raising children. This is confirmed by (Jazyla, 2023) that housewives feel that they lack the ability to take care of children and feel uncomfortable (too worried if something bad happens). Housewives find many obstacles in accompanying learning, such as dividing time between doing homework and supporting children's learning.

The task of raising children can sometimes be burdensome, so some parents rely on external support (Denga & Denga, 2007; Edeman, 2001; Undiyaundeye, 2014). The researchers conducted initial data collection from August 2022 to August 2023 and found that teachers in kindergartens of the same level complained that parents had completely given up on raising their children. Therefore, kindergartens are making efforts to increase parental involvement in education, namely by providing educational material through seminars or psychoeducation. Parental involvement in the care of preschool children is important for children's development, but the fact is that the involvement of parents, especially mothers, in parenting in Indonesia is not good enough (Putri & Utami, 2022). These initial findings are consistent with the findings of Akbar (2017) that parental involvement in stimulating children's development in early childhood education (Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini or PAUD) tends to be low, because when parents enroll their children in early childhood education, they assume that children are fully responsible for early childhood education, although children's learning cannot be separated from parental involvement in any process. Parents also need to monitor their children's development so that they do not leave their children completely in the hands of the teachers at school. The results of the study by Aritonang et al. (2020) showed that maternal care in their research was in a low category, apart from that there were very significant differences in maternal care between boys

and girls, where maternal care for boys was lower than for girls.

Mothers who are highly involved in parenting are strongly associated with better student behaviour (El Nokali et al., 2010; Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Flay & Allred, 2003; Sheldon, 2002), higher academic achievement (Fan & Chen, 2001; Jeynes, 2003, 2007), increased social skills (El Nokali et al., 2010; Hawkins et al., 1999), encouraging children to be independent, having consistent rules, paying attention to their condition and abilities, and building democratic communication (Marsiglia et al., 2007; Suldo & Scott Huebner, 2004; Takeuchi & Takeuchi, 2008; Timpano et al., 2010), so that it has a positive impact on childrens cognitive development, empathy development, emotional stability and behavioral control (Eisenberg et al., 2005; Liem et al., 2010; Warsito et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2002). Whereas mothers who have low involvement in parenting show behavior that often ignores children, have less control over children, less warm relationships with children, lack existing communication and do not apply boundaries to children (Alegre, 2011; Kim & Rohner, 2002; Putri & Utami, 2022; Suldo & Scott Huebner, 2004), so it harms behavior that leads to violence, antisocial behavior, low self-esteem, often feeling dissatisfied, children who feel sad (Milevsky et al., 2008; Poduthase, 2012; Putri & Utami, 2022; Spinrad et al., 2004) and three aspects of dishonest behaviour, namely lying, stealing and truancy later in the childs life (Undiyaundeye, 2014). Thus, maternal involvement is a promising protective factor that is important to consider in the parenting process.

Previous research has focused only on housewives or working mothers, and it is still rare for anyone to conduct training to increase maternal involvement in early childhood care (Arini & Simatupang, 2022). Their study focused only on housewives and showed that, in addition to mothers still lacking in the knowledge of how to interpret and understand mother-child attachment, mothers who play a major role in child development even have difficulties with the concept of their parenting, which has been based only on affection. DITINDAK is important because it should be involved in the care and education of children from an early age. The involvement of parents from an early age will affect the development of children at every stage of development they experience, where if they have been given the right stimulus from childhood, it will have a great influence on the development of children at a later stage. Previous research conducted by (Ghina & Elsanti, 2022) and the results showed that parents, especially mothers, play a role in childrens development.

Kindergarten teachers complain about the low involvement of parents in stimulating childrens development. The low involvement of mothers in education does not only apply to the early childhood care of working mothers, but also to the early childhood care of housewives. When parents send their children to kindergartens, they assume that the child is fully responsible. Although in any learning process the child cannot be separated from the involvement of the parents. Its important for parents to oversee their childs progress and not rely solely on the school teacher for this responsibility. Early childhood, from 0 to 6 years of age, is an individual figure undergoing a process of rapid and fundamental development for the next life (Santoso et al., 2016). In early childhood, it is crucial to fulfill the children's essential needs to optimize their growth and development. Providing educational stimulation, affection, and fulfilment of nutrition and health are things that parents need to pay attention to in caring for children (Wijayanto et al., 2022).

This research aims to make a significant contribution to the field of early childhood development by focusing on the DITINDAK training program, which may be a unique or under researched intervention in the specific context of the study, this research can provide valuable insights into effective strategies for increasing maternal involvement in early childhood. The findings of this study can provide empirical evidence to support the effectiveness of the DITINDAK program, potentially leading to its wider adoption and implementation.

There is still a need for more research on culturally sensitive and context-specific interventions, such as the DITINDAK training program, while numerous studies have explored

the impact of parenting programs on child outcomes. This research will address the following gaps that lack of research on specific cultural contexts, limited understanding of the mechanisms of change, and focus on specific populations. Parenting programs are developed and evaluated in Western contexts, and their effectiveness may not be generalizable to diverse cultural settings. While previous studies have shown that parenting programs can be effective, there is a need for more research on the underlying mechanisms of change, such as how programs influence parents' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. This research will address the unique needs and challenges faced by this population by targeting mothers with young children.

The purpose of this research was to determine the effect of DITINDAK training program in increasing maternal involvement in early childhood education. This research hypothesizes that DITINDAK training program can increase mothers' involvement in early childhood education.

Method

The method of this research is quasi-experimental design with a non-equivalent control group design. Nonequivalent control group design is widely used in social science research, especially when studying naturally occurring groups like working and non-working mothers. This design allows researchers to compare the effects of interventions across these pre-existing groups. This design is appropriate because the researcher has two existing groups (working and non-working mothers). These groups cannot be fully randomized due to their employment status. The researcher aims to compare the effects of the intervention (training) on both groups. The presence of two distinct groups - housewives and working mothers - suggests that the study sample is not homogeneous in terms of occupational status. However, it's crucial to note that both groups share a fundamental characteristic: they are mothers of young children. This shared attribute is central to the study's focus on increasing maternal involvement in early childhood rearing. Recent research supports the idea that the quality of parent-child interactions is more critical than the quantity of time spent together, regardless of the parent's employment status (Milkie et al., 2015; Nomaguchi & Milkie, 2020). This approach aligns with contemporary perspectives in parenting research that emphasize the importance of parental involvement and skills across various life circumstances (Cabrera et al., 2018; Dermott & Pomati, 2016).

Participants

The first group consisted of 13 working mothers between the ages of 25 and 42, with young children, different types of work (labor, private sector, teaching, factory work, and salaried) and a high school education equivalent to a bachelor's degree. Meanwhile, the second group consisted of 20 housewives with young children, aged between 28 and 43, and with educational levels ranging from primary school to bachelor's degree. Both groups of participants have children between the ages of 4 and 6.

Procedure

This study was conducted with two different backgrounds with predetermined criteria, but received the same "DITINDAK" training to see if there was a difference between these two groups. In quasi-experimental design with a non-equivalent control group design, both groups will be given a pre-test to measure their initial level of involvement with their children. Then, both groups will receive the same training. After the training, a post-test will be administered to measure changes in involvement levels. The procedures of the DITINDAK Training are detailed in Table A (Appendix).

In this study, the researchers used the "DITINDAK" module, which was created based on the competence areas in positive parenting by Rodrigo, Ma iquez, Martí n & Byrne (Lo pez et al., 2015) comprising 1) child-raising, ability to adapt to the characteristics of the child; 2) parental agency, which includes agreement between intimate partners and appropriate perception of the

parental role; 3) personal autonomy, identifying and using resources to meet needs as a mother; and 4) personal development, consisting of impulse control and stress management (emotion control) and creating and implementing a life plan. The "DITINDAK" training is composed of Asah, Asih, and Asuh. DITINDAK itself is an abbreviation of mendidik tidak mendadak, meaning that parenting is not something that can be done in an instant, but requires a long process to optimize children's growth and development. Asuh is defined as the stage where participants know the types of parenting patterns of early childhood care, they are able to recognize and realize the ownership of parenting patterns that suit them to care for early childhood. Asih means that the parent participants are able to acknowledge and classify the emotions related to parenting, the participants can also provide emotional responses according to the situation that occurs, and the participants know how to control their own emotions. And Asah is interpreted as how mother and father work together, which is shown by how participants are able to understand and acknowledge the roles of mothers and fathers in childcare.

Measurement

The data collection method was given to the participants using the Indonesian language and used a scale constructed by the researcher as an instrument based on the aspect of mother's involvement as proposed by Barge & Loges (2003), including regularly monitoring students' academic progress and homework, maintaining personal relationships with teachers, taking advantage of extracurricular school programs, and developing community support systems. The Maternal Involvement Scale consists of 30 fixed items in the form of favorable (statements that support the variable being measured) and unfavorable (statements that do not support the variable being measured). The validity analysis shows that the item validity results range from .831 to .849, while the reliability value is .846 using the Likert scale model with four alternative answers (strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree). Measurements in this study used the Mother's Involvement Scale, which was administered twice, i.e. one week before the training was given (pre-test) and one week after the training (post-test) in the form of "DITINDAK" training to subjects using the same measuring instrument.

Data Analysis

The data analysis in this study is using the paired sample t-test using bootstrapping, which is a procedure used to test for mediation that does not require the assumption of normality of the sampling distribution (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping is a method of repetition or resampling from the original sample obtained (Neihsel, 2018), and in this study 1000 repetitions were carried out. This technique is used with the help of SPSS 26 for Windows.

Result and Discussion

Based on the result of the analysis, the mean pre-test of working mothers and housewives can be seen in the Table 1 below.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics of pre-test

Pretest	Working mothers	<i>n</i>	13
		<i>Mean</i>	91.69
		<i>Std. Deviation</i>	9.004
		<i>Std. Error Mean</i>	2.497
	Housewives	<i>n</i>	20
		<i>Mean</i>	92.96
		<i>Std. Deviation</i>	9.148
		<i>Std. Error Mean</i>	1.907

According to the output table "group statistics" above, the mean or average pre-test score for working mothers is 91.69 (SD = 9.004), while the average pre-test score for housewives is 92.96 (SD = 9.148). From the descriptive statistics, it can be concluded that the mean for housewives is higher than for working mothers. While the pre-test result for Levene's Test of working mothers and housewives can be seen in the Table 3 below.

Table 2*Pre-test working mothers and housewives*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				
		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.032	.860	-.401	34	.691
	Equal variances not assumed			-.402	25.376	.691

Based on the output table above, it is known that the value of Sig. Levene's test for equality of variances is .860 ($p > .05$), which means that the variance in the data between the groups of working mothers and the pretest of housewives is homogeneous or equal. Thus, the interpretation of the output table above can be guided by the values contained in "Assumed equal variances". Sig. Value 2 is tailed on "Equal variances assumed" of .691 ($p > .05$), so it can be interpreted that there is no difference between the pretest of working mothers and the pretest of housewives.

The results of the independent samples t-test analysis showed that there was no difference between the pretest scores of working mothers and housewives, $t(34) = -.401$, $p > .05$. Housewives ($M = 92.96$, $SD = 9.198$) have higher pretest scores than working mothers ($M = 91.69$, $SD = 9.004$). The results of this study are consistent with the findings of Almani et al. (2012) that there is no significant difference between the care of working mothers and non-working mothers. Working mothers are able to balance their roles as mothers and career women, although working mothers have less time to interact with their children than non-working mothers. According to Saputra et al. (2021), there are four categories of ways in which mothers can optimize their children's development: time management, actions taken, facilities provided, and seeking information.

Putri & Utami (2022) state that there are three reasons for the lack of involvement of working mothers in the care of preschool children, such as: (1) mothers come from families with a lower middle class economy, which requires mothers to work, so the quality of time with children is lower; (2) mothers live and work in an environment where the majority lack education, so mothers have difficulty getting up-to-date and reliable information about parenting; (3) mothers lack basic theoretical knowledge about how to do good parenting.

Table 3*Paired sample t-test pre- and posttest score of each sample group*

	<i>M_{Pre}</i>	<i>M_{Post}</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig (2-tailed)</i>
Working mothers	91.69	91,92	-0.096	12	.925
Housewives	92.96	86,43	3.417	19	.002

Based on Table 3 of pretest-posttest paired samples test for working mothers, result showed $t(12) = -0.096$, $p = .925$ (2-tailed), which means that there is no change or difference between the pretest and the posttest for working mothers. Meanwhile, based on the paired sample pretest posttest test for housewives, result showed $t(19) = 3.417$, $p = .002$ (2-tailed), which means that there is a statistically significant change or difference between the pretest and the posttest for housewives.

The researcher suggests that the "DITINDAK" training is effective for housewives because housewives still follow the traditional family pattern that most of the child-rearing is the mother's responsibility, and also because housewives are expected to spend more time with their children than working fathers. This is in line with Lutfatulatifah (2020) who found that housewives dominate childcare practices (breastfeeding, feeding, bathing, changing nappies and accompanying play), especially in early childhood, so that children spend more time with their mothers than with their fathers. The findings of these studies are in line with the research of Nurhamida (2013), who found that the division of housework and childcare among housewives still follows the traditional family pattern, that is, women do most of these tasks except for some incidental tasks that are mostly done by men (such as repairing houses, furniture, and electronic devices), while working mothers share more with their husbands in doing housework and caring for children than housewives. Lestari (2012) notes that the traditional concept of marriage applies to the division of duties and roles between husband and wife. Women are expected to devote their time to caring for the home and children, while men are the providers of needs and protection (Papalia et al., 2013).

In Wibowo and Saidiyah (2013) research found that the supporting factor for the parenting process was the support of the husband during the parenting process. The husband is an important factor in the success of a caring and working mother. What's more, husbands can be asked to share parenting tasks, for example, by agreeing with their husbands to share their time in caring for the children.

7 of the 13 working mothers in this study are dual-earner partners. Dual-earner families, where both fathers and mothers work, have a joint parenting pattern or shared care between fathers and mothers in the family and working mothers have limited time with their children. The husband is the closest person to the wife in carrying out parenting because the husband co-parent for the wife in carrying out parenting (Andayani & Koentjoro, 2004; Putri & Utami, 2022). The findings of (Nurhamida, 2013) also showed that working mothers share more with their husbands in household chores and childcare than housewives. Working mothers need to be able to balance work and family (Bishnoi et al., 2020). Several factors influence working mothers in maintaining work-family balance, namely internal factors including commitment, understanding of women's roles and individual character, and external factors including social support, presence of children and work autonomy (Handayani et al., 2015).

The following outcomes and implications can be expected to improve child development, enhanced maternal well-being, strengthened family relationships, and policy recommendations if the "DITINDAK" training program is found to be effective in increasing mothers' involvement in early childhood child-rearing. Children of mothers who participate in the program may show better cognitive, language, and social-emotional development. Mothers who participate in the program may report higher levels of self-efficacy, satisfaction with parenting, and reduced stress. The program may improve family functioning and promote positive parent-child interactions. Lastly, the findings can inform the development of policies that support maternal involvement and early childhood development. Further research should focus on longitudinal studies to track the long-term effects of 'DITINDAK' training on children's developmental milestones and mothers' continued involvement in child-rearing. This can provide deeper insights into the sustainability and enduring benefits of the training. Meanwhile, comparative studies should be conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of 'DITINDAK' training against other parental involvement programs. This can help identify the best practices and potentially lead to further refinement and enhancement of the training module.

Limitations of this research include the small sample size, so the results may not be generalized to a larger population. In addition, this research was conducted in one geographical location which may limit the applicability of the results to other areas with different cultures or socio-economic conditions. Furthermore, the data collection methods used, such as

questionnaires and interviews, may have been affected by respondent bias. And third, the relatively short duration of the DITINDAK training may not have been long enough to see long term changes in maternal engagement. Finally, this study did not examine other external factors that may influence mothers' involvement in early childhood care.

Conclusion

The results of this study indicated that the "DITINDAK" training was effective in increasing the involvement of housewives in early childhood education, but less effective in increasing the involvement of working mothers in early childhood education. It was also found that there was no difference in the involvement of working mothers and housewives in early childhood education.

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Table A*Procedures of the "DITINDAK" Training*

Session	Stages	Objective	Description of Activities	Duration	Tools & Materials
1	Introduction	Familiarity of facilitator and participants with each other	Introduction of the facilitator and the co-facilitator	5'	Informed Consent; Pre- test sheet
	Training Contract	Participants make a commitment to take the training seriously	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The co-facilitator hands out the training contract • The co-facilitator distributes the consent form to the parents. • Parents agree to a training contract by signing an Informed Consent 	5'	
	Training goals	Provide an overview of how the training will work and the benefits to be gained	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The co-facilitator explains the structure of the training activities. • The co-facilitator explains the benefits that will be achieved. 	5'	
2	Who are the Children?	Participants know about children and their rights	Facilitator displays material and briefly explains children and children's rights	5'	PPT
3	Asuh: Identifying the style of parenting	a. Participants know the pattern of early childhood care b. Participants have a parenting mindset in early childhood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The facilitator will display 5 pictures related to parenting styles. • The facilitator asks the participants to choose 1 of the 5 pictures that best fits their parenting style. • The facilitator asks 2 participants, after they have made their choice, to: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Participants shared their reasons for choosing the image b. Participants give examples of experiences according to the selected picture c. The facilitator asks the parents if they think it is still appropriate for the current application. d. The facilitator asks the parents for their opinion on whether the conditions could be changed so that the 	15'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activity picture 1 • PPT

Session	Stages	Objective	Description of Activities	Duration	Tools & Materials
			<p>parents could no longer do this.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In each picture, the trainer explains the types of parenting • Facilitator asks parents to reflect on the explanation given. • The facilitator explains the types of traditional parenting behaviors and how the same parenting behaviors can be applied in the digital age. • Facilitators and parents have a discussion about appropriate parenting patterns in the digital age • Facilitators and parents discuss steps to be taken to adapt to parenting in the digital age • The facilitator summarizes what a good digital parent looks like according to the guidelines (digital parent) and compares it with the steps developed previously. 	15'	
4	Asih: Parenting influenced by emotions	<p>a. Participants recognize the emotions involved in parenting</p> <p>b. Participants can express emotional responses according to the situation.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The presenter presents several images • Facilitator asks participants what might happen to the picture. • The trainer asks the 2 participants what they would do in this situation and why. • The facilitator explains several ways of parenting based on emotions • The facilitator and the participants discuss which of the parenting methods is more appropriate to use. 	15'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activity picture 2 • PPT • Videos

Session	Stages	Objective	Description of Activities	Duration	Tools & Materials
		Participants know how to manage their own emotions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Facilitator explains how to become an emotion-coaching parent The Co-Facilitator teaches how to control one's own emotions, through: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Deep breathing Guided Imagery Progressive Muscle Relaxation 	15'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PPT Music Videos
5	Asah: Working together, mum and dad	Participants will have an understanding of the roles of mothers and fathers in child rearing.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The co-facilitator gives the participants a flipchart with blank spaces to fill in. These spaces relate to the roles of mothers and fathers. Participants will have 3 minutes for discussion and role play. Each group reads the results of the discussion for 3 minutes The facilitator continues with an explanation of the material after each group has finished presenting the results of the discussion. 	20'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PPT Flip chart Pen
6	My commitment: What's getting in the way of my parenting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Participant recognize current parenting behavior Participants recognize forms of parenting that need improvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The co-facilitator gives the participants a piece of paper and a pen to fill in the self-evaluation form (positive behavior that has been done). The facilitator assigns 1 participant to do a reading of one of the behaviors that has been written. The facilitator asks other participants if anyone has written the same thing. The facilitator then discusses the reasons for this behavior with the participants. 	25'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PPT Flip chart self-evaluation a, b, and c.

Session	Stages	Objective	Description of Activities	Duration	Tools & Materials
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The co-facilitator gives paper and pencil to the participants to fill in self-assessment b (negative behavior still being performed). • The facilitator chooses 1 participant to read one of the behaviors written. • The facilitator asks the other participants if anyone has written the same thing and then discusses the reasons for this behavior with the participants. • The co-facilitator gives the participants paper and pens to fill in the self-assessment (c) (behavior to be changed). • Participants will draw conclusions about what actions will be taken in order to have a better parenting behavior. 		
7	Closing	a. Participants can review the training that has taken place b. Participants can also provide proper education for children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants share with each other what they have learned during the training. • Post-test sheet completed by participants • Give a gift • Motivational words & closing remarks from the facilitator • Group photo 	25'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gift • Camera