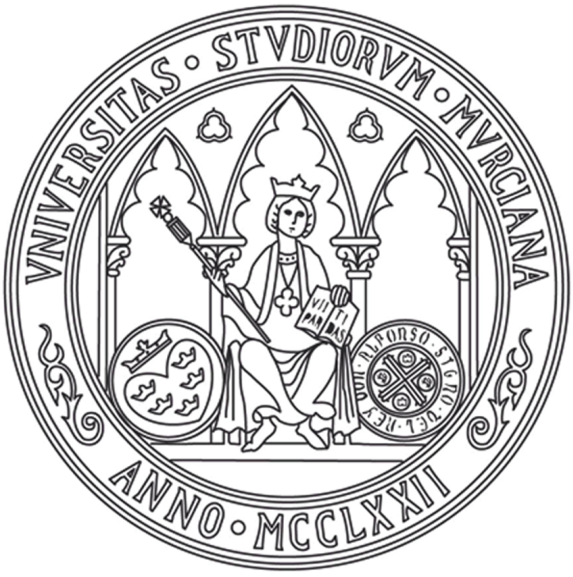

UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA

ESCUELA INTERNACIONAL DE DOCTORADO

Integrative Model for Intrinsic-motivation Oriented Parenting

Modelo Integrado de Crianza Orientado Desde la Motivación Intrinseca

D. Arie Esdhat

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INTEGRATIVE MODEL FOR

INRINSIC-MOTIVATION ORIENTED PARENTING

MODELO INTEGRADO DE CRIANZA

ORIENTADO DESDE LA MOTIVACIÓN INTRINSECA

Tesis Doctoral presentada para optar al grado de

Doctor por

Arie Eshdat

Directoras:

Dra. Cecilia Ruiz Esteban

Dra. Inmaculada Méndez Mateo

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Programa de Doctorado de Psicología

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Departamento de Psicología Evolutiva y de la
Educación de la Universidad de Murcia

AUTORIZA:

La presentación de la tesis doctoral titulada: **Intrinsic-motivation oriented parenting. / Modelo integrado de crianza orientado desde la motivación intrinseca**, realizada por **D. Arie Esdhat**, bajo mi inmediata dirección y supervisión, y que presenta para la obtención del Grado de Doctor por la Universidad de Murcia.

Y, para que surta los efectos oportunos al interesado, firmo la presente en Murcia, a treinta y uno de agosto de dos mil veinte.

Dª. Cecilia Ruiz Esteban

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Dª. Inmaculada Méndez Mateo

Dedicated to my wife, children and grandchildren

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ABSTRACT

The current study strived to outline a model for parenting that is based on the encouragement of the child's intrinsic motivation. The study gathers from existing studies, those educational interventions that encourage development of intrinsic motivation, and from those that formulate a practical parenting model, which includes a detailed specification of principles and tools, with a goal of assisting parents in leading their children in the process of values internalization. The model creates integration between several approaches, and out of them formulates a model that can be used as a tool for parents of all levels. According to the findings, topics were formulated for a practical parenting workshop.

The study combines qualitative and quantitative methodology. The purpose of the quantitative analysis was to examine the extent to which the prevailing parental style actually matches the MI spirit (partnership, acceptance, compassion, evocation) (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), separately measuring each of the four components of the MI. The qualitative analysis seeks to identify the main parenting characteristics, which encourage the internalization of the parents' values and the development of intrinsic motivation to act according to these values.

The participants were 42 adults, with an age range from 25-65 (M=43.17, SD=10.07) (57.14% male). All participants experienced normative parenting in their childhood and were raised by both parents. The results of the quantitative analysis did not find a statistically significant differences in any category by gender. Regarding age, a statistically significant negative correlation was found, with low effect size, with the Compassion category (r = -.377, p = .014, n = 42). Likewise, a statistically significant correlation was found, with low effect size, between Acceptance category and Compassion category (r = .391, p = .010, n = 42).

The results of the qualitative analysis indicated the main influence of the parents on the values internalization by their children. An overwhelming majority of participants (35) indicated a full, and unreserved, internalization of the values which their parents educated them. Regarding the parental characteristics that encourage internalization of values - the key parents' characteristics that the participants testified that made them internalize these values: Honesty, caring and devotion, warmth and love, self-purpose and self-fulfillment, patience and serenity, and diligence. In contrast,

the following key parental characteristics were found as characteristics that caused their children to avoid from internalizing the values by which they educated them: anger and stiffness and lack of containment.

Based on a literature review and research results, a practical model for parents is developed, which focuses on developing intrinsic motivation. The main basis for the model is the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000; 2017), combining Motivational-Interviewing (Miller & Rollnick, 2013) as a practical tool for applying the SDT principles. Insights from the study results were also incorporated. From them a practical model for routine situations developed, and a reference to situations of risk behaviors according to the principles of the 'nonviolent resistance' (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016). Considering the literature review and research results, a model was formulated, and chapter heads were proposed for a parenting workshop to impart the model.

The uniqueness of this study is linking MI to parenting, and the impact of parenting in this spirit on the values internalization. This study was a preliminary exploration in the field, to encourage further research.

RESUMEN

Uno de los factores teóricos más importantes para comprender la conducta es la motivación (Baumeister, 2016), que contribuye sustancialmente al aprendizaje, la conducta y el bienestar (Haakma, Janssen y Minnaert, 2017). Este estudio pretende esbozar un modelo para la crianza de los hijos que se basa en el estímulo de la motivación intrínseca del niño, para ello se estudió la internalización de valores usando la entrevista motivacional.

El estudio analiza de los estudios existentes aquellas intervenciones educativas que fomentan el desarrollo de la motivación intrínseca, y de aquellas que formulan un modelo práctico de crianza, que incluye una especificación detallada de principios y herramientas, con el objetivo de ayudar a los padres a guiar a sus hijos en el proceso de internalización de valores. El modelo crea integración entre varios enfoques y, a partir de ellos, formula un modelo que puede utilizarse como herramienta para los padres de todos los niveles. De acuerdo con los hallazgos, se formularon temas para un taller práctico para padres.

Las preguntas de investigación son:

• ¿Cuáles son los ingredientes centrales de la paternidad que fomentarán el desarrollo de la motivación intrínseca y la internalización de valores?

• ¿Cómo se puede estructurar una autoridad parental establecida, que no solo reducirá, sino que incluso aumentará el estímulo a la internalización y la motivación intrínseca?

Teniendo en cuenta las respuestas a estas preguntas, el modelo proporcionará una respuesta a la pregunta principal:

• ¿Cómo se pueden combinar todos estos ingredientes básicos en un modelo práctico y aplicable que pueda ser utilizado por los padres?

Dado que la intención es crear un modelo para la crianza de los hijos, la revisión de la literatura comienza con los estilos de crianza según Baumrind (1966; 1971; 1991), y una comprensión de la prioridad del estilo autoritario, que combina exigencia y capacidad de respuesta. Para ampliar el tema de la capacidad de respuesta, también se revisaron la teoría del apego y sus conclusiones en el campo de la crianza de los hijos. En el ámbito de la autoridad parental el estudio también revisó la 'función de anclaje' (Omer, Steinmetz, Carthy y Von-Schlippe, 2013), que es un puente entre la teoría del

apego y la autoridad parental. Las herramientas para tratar problemas complejos de comportamiento, sin requerir control psicológico, se ha estudiado el enfoque de resistencia no-violenta (RNV) (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016).

Se revisaron los principales métodos para entender la motivación, especialmente, la motivación intrínseca y la teoría de la autodeterminación (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Se ha dado una extensión especial a las tres necesidades cuya satisfacción crea un ambiente que favorece el desarrollo de la motivación intrínseca según la SDT (competencia, parentesco y autonomía).

La necesidad de competencia se amplió a través del trabajo de Bandura (Bandura, 1977). La necesidad de relacionarse se ha ampliado a través de la teoría del apego. Respecto a la necesidad de autonomía, se realizó una revisión de la entrevista motivacional (MI) (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), que los propios investigadores de SDT vieron como un método aplicado para concretar sus principios teóricos (Markland, Ryan, Tobin, & Rollnick, 2005). MI es un método de conversación que evoca y cultiva la motivación interna para el cambio. Se basa en la cooperación y autonomía del paciente. Este estudio es el primero en incorporar la MI en el campo de la paternidad y, por lo tanto, su contribución resulta innovadora, tal como se ampliará en la sección de conclusiones.

METODOLOGÍA

El estudio combina metodología cualitativa y cuantitativa. El propósito del análisis cuantitativo fue examinar hasta qué punto el estilo parental predominante coincide realmente con el espíritu de la MI (asociación, aceptación, compasión, evocación) (Miller y Rollnick, 2013), midiendo por separado cada uno de los cuatro componentes del espíritu de la MI y si existen diferencias entre géneros y edad. El análisis cualitativo busca identificar las principales características de la crianza, que fomentan la internalización de los valores de los padres y el desarrollo de la motivación intrínseca para actuar de acuerdo con estos valores. También se preguntó a los participantes sobre la forma en que sus padres establecían límites.

Los participantes fueron 42 adultos, con un rango de edad de 25 a 65 años (M = 43,17, ST = 10,07) (57,14% hombres), seleccionados al azar. Todos los participantes experimentaron la paternidad normativa en su infancia y fueron criados por ambos padres.

Los participantes respondieron un cuestionario abierto semiestructurado desarrollado ad hoc para esta investigación (10 ítems), en el que se les preguntó qué características de sus padres les hacían querer internalizar sus valores y qué características les generaban resistencias. Además, se pidió a los participantes que describieran la calidad de la comunicación entre padres e hijos en el hogar de su infancia, y cómo sus padres demostraron autoridad.

RESULTADOS

Los resultados del análisis cuantitativo no encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas en ninguna categoría por género. En cuanto a la edad, se encontró una correlación negativa estadísticamente significativa, con tamaño de efecto bajo, con la categoría CO ($r = -.377$, $p = .014$, $n = 42$). Asimismo, se encontró una correlación estadísticamente significativa, con tamaño de efecto bajo, entre la categoría AC y la categoría CO ($r = .391$, $p = .010$, $n = 42$).

Los resultados del análisis cualitativo indicaron la principal influencia de los padres en la internalización de valores por parte de sus hijos. Una abrumadora mayoría de participantes (35) indicó una internalización total y sin reservas de los valores que sus padres les educaron. En cuanto a las características de los padres que fomentan la internalización de valores, las características clave de los padres que los participantes testificaron que les hicieron internalizar estos valores: Honestidad (9), cariño y devoción (9), calidez y amor (7), propósito propio y egoísmo. -cumplimiento (6), paciencia y serenidad (5) y diligencia (5). En contraste, las siguientes características clave de los padres se encontraron como características que hicieron que sus hijos evitaran internalizar los valores por los que los educaban: ira (9) y rigidez y falta de contención (10).

En cuanto a la forma en que los padres establecen límites, la mayoría de los participantes (32) describieron un estilo común a ambos padres. La mayoría de ellos (27) describieron a padres que establecían límites claros pero que lo hacían con un enfoque comprensivo y a menudo dialógico. Casi la mitad de los participantes (19) dijeron que habían experimentado que al menos uno de sus padres tenía una autoridad dura y rígida, y algunos incluso fueron castigados cuando eran niños. Sin embargo, es importante señalar que para nueve de ellos, el otro padre estaba equilibrado por la

suavidad y la calidez. La mayoría de los participantes (27) afirma que al menos uno de sus padres les prestó atención.

DISCUSIÓN

La respuesta a la primera pregunta de investigación, se dio principalmente considerando la revisión de la literatura sobre SDT. Los testimonios de los participantes en el estudio cualitativo también confirman las conclusiones de los investigadores del SDT. La necesidad de relacionarse se puede ver en los testimonios de los participantes de interiorizar los valores de sus padres a través de la calidez, el amor y el cariño, y la necesidad de autonomía se puede ver en su testimonio de que la rigidez de sus padres afectó la interiorización de los valores. Más evidencia de la importancia de satisfacer la necesidad de autonomía para desarrollar la motivación, se encontró en el estudio cuantitativo que encontró que la mayoría de los padres de los participantes actuaban con el espíritu de MI, que incluye un amplio énfasis en la autonomía (el espíritu de MI se refiere a la autonomía como uno de los componentes de la aceptación) y la asociación. La combinación de este resultado y los resultados de la investigación cualitativa, que indicó que la mayoría de los participantes internalizaron los valores de sus padres, puede explicarse por el hallazgo de los investigadores de SDT de que satisfacer las necesidades de autonomía era una parte importante de la internalización de los valores.

La respuesta a la segunda pregunta de investigación se dio principalmente de acuerdo con el trabajo de Omer y sus colegas. La 'función de anclaje' (Omer, Steinmetz, Carthy y Von-Schlippe, 2013) brinda la posibilidad de ejercer una autoridad parental constante y determinada, sin verse arrastrado a una escalada y sin dañar el sentido de parentesco del niño. El modelo NVR (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016) también permite hacer frente a problemas de comportamiento graves y situaciones de riesgo, de acuerdo con los principios de la "función de anclaje". Los hallazgos de la investigación cualitativa también refuerzan esto. Como se mencionó, una gran proporción de los participantes testificó que sus padres establecieron límites, pero lo hicieron de manera comprensiva y dialógica. Dado que la mayoría de ellos internalizaron los valores de sus padres, es evidente que la forma dialógica en que los padres establecieron límites fue efectiva para el proceso de internalización. Por el contrario, los participantes declararon explícitamente que la ira es una de las características de los padres que perjudica la

internalización de los valores. La ira es una de las características de la autoridad y el control rígidos y es contraria a la idea de la "función de anclaje".

La respuesta a la tercera pregunta de investigación es la principal contribución de este estudio a la sociedad. Se ha creado un modelo integrador, que combina todos los hallazgos de la revisión de la literatura actual y los resultados del estudio, en un modelo coherente que se puede enseñar a varios padres para mejorar la motivación y los valores intrínsecos de sus hijos.

El trasfondo teórico del modelo se basó en SDT (Ryan y Deci, 2000; 2017) y el modelo intenta incorporar una respuesta de los padres a las tres necesidades básicas. La forma en que se puede satisfacer la necesidad de relacionarse se basa principalmente en la teoría del apego (Bowlby, 1982), por lo que el modelo enfatiza la respuesta y disponibilidad de los padres para el niño, y su capacidad para calmarlo y desarrollar un trato cálido y servicial relación con él.

La forma práctica en que se puede satisfacer la necesidad de autonomía, el modelo aprende de MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), y ofrece enseñar a los padres cómo realizar la entrevista motivacional, y fortalecer la automotivación para un cambio positivo en su niños. Una innovación significativa en este modelo es la primera integración de la MI, una teoría que tiene una amplia base de investigación y aplicación en el campo de la atención y la educación escolar, en el campo de la crianza de los hijos. Los hallazgos del estudio cuantitativo indicaron que los padres aplican tres de los cuatro componentes del espíritu de la MI, pero el cuarto componente, la evocación, no se implementa (probablemente porque requiere una habilidad que necesita aprendizaje). Este estudio estima que si los padres aprenden a implementar esto, mejorará significativamente la internalización de valores. Esta evaluación se basa en los hallazgos de la SDT, que enfatizan el cumplimiento de la necesidad de autonomía como un componente central en el desarrollo de la motivación intrínseca. Los hallazgos de este estudio, que sugirieron el efecto positivo del espíritu de MI en la internalización de valores, también confirman esta suposición. Por lo tanto, por primera vez, este estudio sugiere enseñar a los padres las habilidades de la MI.

Satisfacer la necesidad de competencia, incluyendo, además de incentivar y dar tareas personalizadas, también la estructura, que lleva al niño a cumplir con las normas que se le exigen. Este componente requiere el uso de la autoridad parental. Para que la autoridad no afecte el sentido de parentesco y conexión con el niño, el modelo incluye

la 'función de anclaje' (Omer, Steinmetz, Carthy y Von-Schlippe, 2013), y en los casos en que se necesita una autoridad más decidida, ante problemas de comportamiento y situaciones de riesgo, el modelo utiliza herramientas de NVR (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016).

Teniendo en cuenta la revisión de la literatura y los resultados de la investigación, se formuló un modelo y se propusieron las líneas principales para un taller de crianza en el que formar a los padres en la utilización del modelo.

CONCLUSIONES

La contribución de este estudio está en la confirmación de estudios previos que han definido los componentes parentales que fomentan la internalización de valores y el desarrollo de la motivación intrínseca. Una de las contribuciones importantes del estudio es detallar las características de los padres que fomentan o impiden la internalización de los valores de los padres.

La singularidad de este estudio al vincular la MI con la paternidad y el impacto de la paternidad en este espíritu en la internalización de valores. Este estudio fue una exploración preliminar en el campo, para fomentar más investigaciones. Según los hallazgos, que han demostrado que muchos padres actúan con el espíritu de la MI y, al mismo tiempo, sus hijos informan de un alto nivel de internalización de los valores de los padres, el estudio estima que perfeccionar la implementación del espíritu de la MI por parte de los padres Incrementar la internalización de sus valores por parte de sus hijos. Como se mencionó, el único componente de los cuatro componentes del espíritu de MI que los padres no aplican es la evocación. El modelo estima que si los padres aprenden a utilizar esta habilidad, aumentará su capacidad para fomentar el proceso de internalización. Además, el estudio propone futuras investigaciones en el campo de la crianza de los hijos según el espíritu MI, que confirmará la suposición de que el estudio del componente de evocación influirá en la creciente internalización de valores.

FIRST CHAPTER

FIRST CHAPTER

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Parenting styles

Parenting styles refer to parents' attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors (Lopez, et al., 2018). Baumrind (1991; 1971; 1966) pioneered the definition of parenting styles, and divided it into two dimensions: one is responsiveness – acceptance, warmth, nurturing, support, and sensitivity (Pinquart, 2017; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018), and the other is demandingness - clear and consistent expectations of child behavior, and monitors the child's behavior according to these expectations (Akcinar & Baydar, 2014).

Other axes of parental style are warmth versus rejection, structure versus chaos, and support for autonomy versus coercion (Neel, Stark, & Maitre, 2018).

Based on the two dimensions (responsiveness and demandingness), Baumrind (1966; 1971; 1991) defined four parenting styles (within the settings for each of these styles are also the additional axes):

Permissive Parenting - (high responsiveness and low demandingness) - these parents enable their children to regulate their actions by themselves, without constructing boundaries. They transmit to their children warmth and acceptance, and do not use punishments.

Authoritarian style - (low responsiveness and high demandingness) - parents who tend to lead, control, and criticize the behavior of their children in accordance with a rigid set of rules. They place clear boundaries, appreciate obedience, and tend to punish the reluctant child. They reduce the child's autonomy and expect him to accept a parent’s word to be what is right. These parents tend to be strict and distanced.

Authoritative style - (high responsiveness and high demandingness) – characterized by giving clear orders, posing demands and supervision of child behavior. However, the clarity in putting boundaries is mediated to the child by warmth, reasoning, flexibility and willingness towards verbal negotiation, for the purpose of adjustment to the viewpoint of the child. They tend to balance the rights and obligations

of the children, endeavor to enrich their children, and encourage self-expression (Mikeska, Harrison, & Carlson, 2017).

Neglectful style - (low responsiveness and low demandingness) – These parents rarely supervise or give guidance to their children. Their communication with their children tends to be poor and tense (Mikeska, et al., 2017).

The parenting style has a significant impact on parent-child relationship and their levels of conflict (Bi, et al., 2018), cognitive and behavioral outcomes (Neel, et al., 2018), and the socialization process (Mikeska, et al., 2017).

The authoritarian style was common until the 1950's. Parenting was characterized by a distant, dominant, and punishing authority style. The figure of authority perceived itself as an exclusive source of power, without having to give any explanation of his parental behavior to anyone (Omer, et al., 2013).

The authoritarian style has been found to impair parental and child cohesion and increase the frequency and intensity of conflicts (especially in adolescents) (Bi, et al., 2018), and is a risk factor to self-injury (You, et al., 2017). When things evolve into psychologically controlling parenting, they lead to increase in depression (Gargurevich & Soenens, 2016), anxiety (Meyer, Carlton, J., & Wissemann, 2019), low self-esteem and even psychopathology (Soenens, 2012).

The disadvantages of authoritarian parenting in its traditional style led to it starting to lose its position and legitimacy in the eyes of professionals. At the end of the 1950's, the authoritarian approach was disavowed by many, and instead permissive parenting was embraced, that maintained that children could be raised well without demands and restrictions, which are perceived as harmful to spontaneous growth (Omer, et al., 2013).

Nowadays, most professionals consider these to be false hopes (Omer, et al., 2013), and in fact it was found that children who were raised in this style, tend to develop less emotional intelligence and personal growth (Wischerth, Mulvaney, Brackett, & Perkins, 2016). Children who were raised in permissive families tend to suffer from low self-esteem and were found to be in a higher risk of conduct disorder and even violence and criminality (Baumrind, 1971; 1991).

As opposed to these viewpoints, Baumrind (1966) recommended the authoritative style as a parental attitude, which balances correctly between the two

things, the demand on one hand, and the response on the other, and this way opens a path to another type of authority, which is more suitable to values of the new era.

In order to expand on this balance, attachment theory is first reviewed, which has greatly expanded the field of responsiveness, and then reviewed a theory that incorporates parental authority within the principles of attachment theory.

1.2. Attachment Theory

Attachment theory is one of the most competent conceptions regarding the early relationship between the toddler and the caregiver (Parolin & Simonelli, 2016). According to attachment theory, the person develops representations of self and others in early childhood, and these representations remain relatively stable later in life and have a significant impact on his psychological adaptability throughout his life course (Jewell, et al., 2019).

The theory was initially developed from Bowlby's (1940) observations of children who were raised in orphanages, or children that lost one of their parents. Those children received all physical needs, such as food, clothing, and a safe roof over their heads, but nonetheless, exhibited difficulties in adapting to separation from parents. Bowlby identified a number of stages in the adaptation process: protest stage – infants looked frustrated, angry, and cried a lot; despair stage – infants seemed to be in a state of semi-depression, stopped playing and refused to eat; disengagement stage – infants looked as they are recovering, but demonstrated emotional separation. Infants who were returned to their mothers in this stage did not exhibit any emotional interest. In light of his observations, he established the hypothesis that children need, in addition to food and material care, also the close care and support of the initial caregiving figure, for their proper psychological development (Bowlby, 1982).

Children are born with a natural tendency to find a permanent caregiver, from whom they will be assured and comforted when they need it (Fearon & Roisman, 2017). When the child does not develop a secure attachment, it may affect his psychological adjustment in the future, and even the risk of developing a variety of psychopathology (Jewell, et al., 2019).

However, Fonagy, Luyten, & Allison (2015) said that the ability to predict psychopathology according to the level of attachment is relatively weak, so the centrality of this factor in the development of the disease must be questioned. Furthermore, it is important to remember that the measurement of childhood attachment is inaccurate (Fearon & Roisman, 2017), so it is very difficult to accurately examine the relationship between early childhood attachment and the development of psychopathology later in life.

1.2.1. The stages of attachment theory development

1.2.1.1. The first stage: attachment as a natural biological orientation

As opposed to popular opinion among psychoanalysts of his time, who perceived the baby's dependency in his mother as a negative trait, Bowlby (1973) claimed that every baby is born with a natural biological tendency to emotional attachment as part of his normal development. This is a survival need, since a mother provides his basic needs, such as warmth, food, security and defense that improve his chances to survive (Bowlby, 1958). Bowlby was influenced by Lorenz's (1935) research on the behavior of the natural attachment of ducklings to their mothers, and the research of Harlow, & Zimmermann (1958) regarding monkeys preferring a fictitious character of a tender mother, to the fictitious character of a nourishing mother.

Bowlby's perception was developed significantly by Ainsworth's (1967; Ainsworth, Biehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978) research on the mother-baby relationship, through "the stranger situation" she developed, which revealed the influence of the attachment character's quality of response on the baby's attachment patterns and his response to separation and renewed encounter.

1.2.1.2. The second stage: exploring the attachment in the representation level

The second stage in the development of attachment theory began with the research of Main (2000), who researched the attachment as a movement on the representation level. She developed an attachment questionnaire for adults, through

which she proved that a person's attachment with his parents influences the quality of the relationship with his own children.

1.2.2. Attachment figures

The main attachment is usually towards a mother (Fuertes, Faria, Beeghly, & Lopes-dos-Santos, 2016), but, fathers also serve as an important and central attachment figure that significantly influences the child's normal development (Brown, Mangelsdorf, Shigeto, & Wong, 2018; Fuertes, et al., 2016).

Baby can also be attached to someone who is not his biological parent. In cases when there were several care taking figures, babies developed attachment not only to parents, but also to the other caregiving figures (Yakeley, 2017).

1.2.3. Role of parents according to Attachment Theory

Attachment theory is a key theory within parenting research and parent-child relationships (Fearon & Roisman, 2017). Bowlby (1973) stated that the quality of functioning of the attachment system, and achievement of closeness and security, are dependent not only upon a proper attachment system of a child, but also on availability of a parent for contact at times of need, on his sensitivity and his response to hints of seeking closeness and support, and his ability to relieve stress. Therefore, the role of the parents according to the attachment theory, is to perceive the child's signals, and interpret them accurately, in order to respond to these signals adequately and quickly, and thus to provide him with a secure base (Juffer & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2018).

Further to the sensitivity and responsiveness to the child's signals, the parent should respond warmly so that the child feels safe and develops a secure attachment (Brown, et al., 2018).

1.2.4. Attachment styles

Attachment styles are patterns of expectations, needs, emotions, and social behavior, created as a result of the basic attachment experience (Fuchs & Taubner, 2019).

Ainsworth, et al. (1978) studied attachment styles according to an experiment she developed, which was called a 'strange situation', in which the behavior of infants was examined in a situation of separation from their mothers and reuniting with them. In light of the observations, she defined three attachment styles: secure – these infants coped conveniently both while mother was close and when they separated from her. They happily received the mother when she returned after a separation. When they sensed distress, they looked for proximity of mother, but in a time of relaxation, they showed confidence and dared to move away from her, in order to explore their environment. In addition, they were not intimidated by contacting a stranger. These infants have a 'working-model' of successful search for closeness and achievement of security; avoided - with a working model of an unavailable attachment figure, they 'turned off' the attachment system at times of separation or reunion. They maintained distance and tended to rely on themselves. It was obvious they had no confidence in availability of mother; anxious/ambivalent – seemed to have an attachment 'working-model' but activated the attachment mechanism excessively and expressed much stress at times of separation, and a conflictual response upon mother returned.

It was found that secure attachment occurred when the mother was sensitive to the infant's communication signals. An avoidant attachment characterizes an infant whose mother rejects him, and anxious-ambivalent attachment characterizes a baby whose mother behavior is not predictable (Ainsworth, et al., 1978; Juffer & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2018).

Main (2000) added a fourth category defined as a disorganized attachment, and characterized by a bizarre and unorganized behavior at times of separation and reunion.

Later studies preferred conceptualizing attachment styles as areas in a two dimensional space – anxiety in attachment and avoidance of attachment (Kirrane, Kilroy, Kidney, Flood, & Bauwens, 2019).

Secure attachment (low anxiety and avoidance) supports the development of self-esteem, social ability, and quality relationships. Anxiety attachment is characterized by the development of low self-confidence, negative self-esteem, and the avoidance of seeking closeness with others. Avoidance attachment appreciate themselves as being competent and self-sufficient, but they tend not to trust others and remain distant and detached from the people around them. Those who suffer from both

high avoidance and high anxiety depend on others for their affirmation of their feelings, avoid close relationships, and negatively perceive others (Kirrane, et al., 2019).

1.2.5. Adult attachment styles

Adult communication style is the knowledge, expectations, and confidence level that people relate to themselves and the people they are in close relationships with (Fraley & Roisman, 2019). According to attachment theory, attachment patterns created during early childhood are relatively stable over the course of life (Jewell, et al., 2019). One of the basic principles of attachment theory is that attachment relationships continue to be important throughout the continuum of life. Relationships in adulthood are largely influenced by the 'internal work-model' created by attachment to the early childhood caregiver (Ainsworth, 1989).

Attachment style has a crucial influence on the nature of inter-personal relationships a person will build in his adulthood (Bailey, Holmberg, McWilliams, & Hobson, 2015). People with a secure attachment style tend to be more committed to their relationships, develop a more supportive and engaged parenting style, experience less depression, and adapt to stressful events in effective ways (Fraley & Roisman, 2019).

Shaver, & Mikulincer (2002) built a model for activation of an attachment system in adulthood. They maintain that daily events a person deals with and experiences as threatening created activation of the attachment system (usually non-conscious). Activation of the system leads a person to search for an attachment figure or its representations, in order to draw security and calmness from it. When an attachment figure or its representation does not respond, or fails to assist in regulating distress feelings, negative representations of himself and of others are created within a person, and secondary attachment strategies are being developed, from either of two types, which are dependent on the extent a person considers emotional regulation by closeness a possible option.

If a person does consider achieving of calmness through an attachment figure a possible option, but feels that it is unavailable or not efficient enough, a strategy of hyper-activation develops, in which a person activates much effort in order to achieve

protective relations with the attachment figure, through actions of control and clinging. This strategy invests a lot of resources in over activation of an attachment system, and occasionally causes a delay of actions that may reduce stress without dependency on an attachment figure. Thus, a chaotic and undistinguished mental architecture might form (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002).

On the other hand, when a person has been through multiple experiences in which the closeness of an attachment figure did not have a positive outcome of relieving stress, but rather negative outcomes such as anger or rejection, he does not consider a search for closeness a sustainable option. In this situation, a connection between a search for closeness and a negative emotion is created, and a strategy that is termed de-activation is formed, where the goal is to reduce the activity of the attachment system, in order to avoid the pain of unavailability of an attachment figure experience. This strategy leads a person to deny his attachment needs and to avoid closeness, intimacy, and dependency. An aspiration for relying on himself is being increased, at the expense of creating a cognitive, emotional, and physical distance from others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002).

Later studies undermine the claim about the stability of attachment styles, and attribute it greater flexibility and the possibility of changes in life, especially in relationships. The dimension of attachment anxiety should decrease in interpersonal situations that promote personal confidence and thus more secure models of the self. The dimension of attachment avoidance is decreased by the experiences of a meaningful relationship that involves a positive dependency, thus creating a safer model of a close person (Arriaga, Kumashiro, Simpson, & Overall, 2018; Girme, et al., 2018). However, it is easier to change the attachment style during childhood than in adulthood, so it is better to address this early (Fraley & Roisman, 2019).

1.2.6. The anchoring function – a combination of attachment theory and parental authority

Omer et al. (2013) created a bridge between parental authority and attachment theory. Those two subjects seem to be very distant from one another, as while attachment theory encourages parenting which provides a 'safe haven' and a 'secure base' for a child through sensitivity, acceptance, unconditional love, and availability

(Ainsworth, 1993), parental authority is perceived as a strict position which favors punishment and control. However, Omer et al. (2013) claim that a correct authority position not only does not contradict attachment, but it constitutes a necessary complementary link for attachment. They added the metaphor of an anchor to the metaphors of "safe haven" and "secure base." Port is a "safe haven" and "secure base" for the ship, but the ship will not be able to enjoy what a port has to offer without having a steady anchor at the bottom of the sea. Without an anchor, a ship may collide with other ships or drift out to open sea without protection. The same goes for a child, who needs stable parents who are capable of setting limits that defend him from dangers and negative currents. A secure parent-child relationship cannot be complete without the anchoring function.

The anchoring function also serves as a bridge between the child's need for construction and boundaries, and the need for autonomy (Omer, et al., 2016).

For self-anchoring of parents, in order for them to be used as a stable anchor, they cannot drift after the child. The 'anchor' helps stabilize the child in the face of strong impulses and emotions and the effect of dangerous temptations (Kahn, et al., 2019).

Omer, et al. (2013) and later Kahn, et al. (2019) state that in order to achieve parental authority, the following principles are to be insisted upon:

A. Structure – in order to create the structuring of home rules, parents should determine rules and routines which define the hierarchy, boundaries, and definition of roles and rights of the family members. These boundaries should be firm but not strict. The structure was proven as efficient also in reducing negative phenomena for children who suffer from OCD (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016) or ADHD (Jakob, 2014).
B. Presence – a sense of parental presence is created in the child as his parents take actions that reflect availability, involvement, and supervision. Omer, et al. (2016) used the term "vigilant care" to describe this. The parent protects the child from temptations and dangers in effective but non-invasive ways (maintaining open communication, knowing the child's friends and how the child spends his time). Just like an anchor restrains the movement of the ship only when it exceeds a certain limit, so does the parent demonstrate a

constant caring presence and occasional restraint when required (Kahn, et al., 2019).

Parental supervision was proven as an efficient mechanism for reduction of risk behaviors in all ages (Kaniušonytė, 2015). Omer, et al. (2013) compared supervision in late childhood and in adolescence with supervision of an infant, which is done at three levels of alertness, which change according to the situation. The regular situation, in the daily routine, is a condition of 'open attention'. The parent is busy with other things, but always maintains a certain level of attention to the infant, in order to detect signs of distress if necessary.

If a parent identifies a sign of distress, he raises his attention up to 'focused alertness'; however, he still does not act, but checks if the infant succeeds in dealing with the situation and calms down. If an intervention is required, the parent goes up to a level of 'active defense' and acts in order to stop the infant's distress. These three levels continue into the age of adolescence as well, even though they are differently performed. The ability of a parent to move flexibly between these three levels of supervision is more important than his authority. This style of parental supervision does not harm the development of independence of a child, as it enables an open and safe space for experiences as long as no reason for intervention is created, and therefore enables a child to develop independence in safe conditions.

C. Social support – to firmly anchor themselves in a way that can withstand even situations where the child significantly exceeds their boundaries, parents can use the support of the extended family, friends, and other community members, who can assist them if needed. Social support constitutes the extra 'anchor-teeth', enabling parents to anchor themselves well, even in the face of extreme or dangerous behaviors (Kahn, et al., 2019).
D. Self-control – in order for parents to be an anchor, they need to be able to control themselves, regulate their responses to the child’s behavior, and act according to their parental goals. Self-control allows parents to avoid escalation, deal with the child's threats without surrendering, and remain stable without stooping to the same level as the child's negative feelings, to help him relax (Kahn, et al., 2019).

1.2.7. Nonviolent resistance – dealing with behavioral problems and risk behaviors

Nonviolent resistance (NVR) (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016) is a method for coping with behavioral problems, violence and risk behaviors in non-violent and non-escalating ways. The approach is based on the sociopolitical approach of nonviolent resistance (Sharp, 1973), with the understanding that violence always has social meaning, even when it only appears at home (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016).

NVR has demonstrated efficacy in parental guidance for effective coping with a variety of child behavioral disorders, such as violence (Jakob, 2018), child-to-parent violence (Coogan & Lauster, 2014), ADHD (Jakob, 2014), OCD (Lebowitz, 2013; Omer & Lebowitz, 2016), anxiety (Lebowitz, Marin, Martino, Shimshoni, & Silverman, 2019), autism (Golan, Shilo, & Omer, 2018), conduct disorder (Gleniusz, 2014), and children affected by gangs and child sexual exploitation (Heismann, Pierzchniak, & Prescott, 2019). In addition, effectiveness has also been demonstrated in dealing with behavioral problems in school (Amiel & Maimon, 2019).

The effectiveness of NVR in stopping problematic behaviors and preventing escalation allows parents to increase the positive interactions that, in many cases of chronic conflict, have become scarce (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016). Thus, NVR plays an important role in the implementation of the anchoring function (Kahn, et al., 2019; Omer, et al., 2013).

NVR's philosophy assumes that the attempt to actively resist violence contributes to its perpetuation. Therefore, the fight against violence should be non-violent. The parent who opposes violence should avoid physical or verbal attacks on the child. Parents are instructed to resist the child's destructive behavior, but not to try to control it. The child's behavior usually changes gradually (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016).

1.2.7.1. The stages of NVR intervention

Omer & Lebowitz (2016) defined the following steps as the stages of NVR treatment: establishing a working alliance, anti-escalation training, announcement that from now on parents will resist violence and not keep it secret, and support group recruitment.

To stop the negative behavior, Omer & Lebowitz (2016) describe a number of 'resistance steps': documentation and involvement of supporters, the sit-in (parents sit down in child's room and tell him that they are no longer prepared to accept this behavior, and so they will sit in his room until he suggests how this behavior will not be repeated), and reparation (the perpetrator of the problematic behavior carries responsibility for his actions, and he must correct it).

1.3. Motivation

Motivation is a key factor affecting performance, learning and well-being (Haakma, et al., 2017). Baumeister (2016) emphasizes the central importance of motivation in that many psychological processes (emotions, cognition, etc.) actually exist to serve the motivation. Moreover, he wrote: "Most of psychology can be analyzed down into the basic processes of motivation and cognition" (Baumeister, 2016, p. 1).

There are two types of phenomena that are defined in the literature as 'motivation'. One type is a trait, that is, desires that characterize the person and are characterized by repetitive patterns of behavior in order to achieve these desires (even if they are not constantly done). The second type is related to the situation, namely, a certain desire to perform a specific behavior in a particular event. There is, of course, a connection between these things, because the situational impulse arises out of a trait of desire for a particular activity that now has the opportunity to be realized (Baumeister, 2016).

1.3.1. Source of motivation

Theorists have defined different sources of motivation, each according to his method:

The impulses and instincts approaches – early theories (Hull, 1943; 1952; Freud, 1915) related motivations of human behavior to instinctive impulses. According to this perception, the organism has an aspiration to preserve homeostasis (balance), and when the balance is broken, tension is created, and an impulse to get to a state of relaxation awakens. This impulse is the motive for behavior. In this context, Hull (1943) defined four main impulses – hunger, thirst, sex and avoidance of pain. Freud (1915) narrowed

the instincts down to two main ones: life instincts, the central of which is sexual impulse, and death instincts, the key instinct of which is aggressiveness. In contrast, Bernard (1924) has greatly expanded the list, including more than a thousand instincts.

Humanistic approach – the humanistic approach (Maslow, 1943) claimed that the motives for human behavior were higher than those of animals. According to this approach, the source of human motivation is core needs. The theory preferred this concept, which has awareness and goals, rather than such a mechanical definition as impulses (Murray, 1938).

Maslow (1943) maintained that the central need that motivates human behavior is the need of an individual to develop and realize his potential ('self-actualization'). However, in order to realize this need, more basic needs are to be realized first, without which it is not possible to realize higher needs. Therefore, the basic needs for behavior create a gradient of needs, where only the realization of a basic need enables advancement to the next stage of higher needs. Amongst the needs numbered by Maslow, there are 'absence' needs, such as physiological needs, or the need for relatedness, and 'growth' needs such as the need for self-actualization (Acevedo, 2018). The hierarchy of needs according to Maslow (1943) is: Physiological needs – food, water, rest, sexual expression and stress relief; Safety needs – a sense of comfort, relaxation and relief from fear; Love needs – relationship, bond, love; Esteem needs – self-confidence, sense of worth and ability and respect from others; Self-actualization needs – realizing one’s potential and achieving significant goals.

Behaviorist approach – According to the behaviorist approach (Skinner, 1953; Watson, 1913), a person is naturally motivated to seek positive reinforcements and to avoid negative experiences, which causes him to increase the frequency of behaviors which caused pleasure in the past and to avoid behaviors due to negative things which he experienced. Further development of the theory by Bandura (1977A; 1977B), who combined the insights of behavioral psychology with those of cognitive psychology, maintains that a person learns which behaviors are predicted to receive reinforcement through observing others, in a process called 'social learning'.

Cognitive approach – According to cognitive approaches (Bandura, 1986; Beck, 1971; 1976; Tolman, 1948), a subjective interpretation of reality greatly affects the extent to which motivation awakens. The interpretations that the individual gives to his experiences influence his feelings and behavior. As opposed to the mechanistic

approach, which claims that an activity which gets a proper reward will automatically increase in frequency, the cognitive approach emphasizes the importance of the way a reward is conceived by the receiver.

1.3.2. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation was first made by Woodworth (1918). In general, a division is made into three types of motivation:

Intrinsic motivation - "refers to what a person does on his or her own because of the interest, pleasure or satisfaction derived from that particular behavior" (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018, p. 3).

Extrinsic motivation - when an individual does the activity for a specific external outcome (Locke & Schattke, 2018).

Combined motivation - which combines the two types of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

However, it should be noted that a certain behavior might be externally motivated at first, and later, after an internalization process, can become internally motivated (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018).

Locke, & Schattke (2018) commented that the division into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is inaccurate, as far as human behavior is concerned, because even the motivation we call 'intrinsic' is actually influenced by the environment. The boundaries between the fields become more blurred when we add the neurological aspect (Hidi, 2016), according to which the motivation we call internal is also driven in fact by rewards provided by the brain, and on the other hand, the motivation we call external is driven by internal mechanisms. For example, rewards and gains are seen in the brain's reward system as resources that promote survival and are therefore rewarded.

However, the combined character of the different types of motivation is one of the things which led the self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2014; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2000) to define motivation types as a broad continuum which includes different types of regulation and integration. A continuum was defined with different levels of extrinsic motivation, and each level is

more internal than the previous one (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The full spectrum will be presented extensively in the chapter on SDT.

Intrinsic motivation is characterized by the willingness to choose difficult tasks, and to invest time, effort and persistence in them, even without any reward or external pressure. An activity driven by intrinsic motivation will be characterized by concentrating a lot of attention on the performance, as opposed to little concentration on the consequences of performance over the status and self-esteem of a person. Emotionally, this activity will be characterized by absence of anger, a small quantity of anxiety, shame, guilt or pride, and positive emotions such as calmness, satisfaction and joy. The minor occupation with results of performance over the status of a person, and absence of disturbing negative emotions, enable another cognitive characteristic – flexibility and creativity in thinking about the performance (Assor, 2005).

Assor (2005) sums up the benefits of learning out of intrinsic motivation in five points: very positive emotional experience; means for constructing identity; promoting deep and creative learning; promoting consideration of another and a feeling of relatedness to school; means of dealing with a feeling of emptiness and free time and the pressures of age.

1.3.3. Flow

Csikszentmihalyi (2012) imprinted another concept that is related to intrinsic motivation when he explained a phenomenon people experience when they are occupied with an activity they like very much, and occasionally they are involved in it to such a degree that they forget even basic needs, like food, etc. Csikszentmihalyi called it 'flow'.

The feeling of flow is characterized by a number of characteristics: adjustment between personal ability and the complexity of a task; a feeling that one operates towards a clear goal; immediate feedback is received in each stage; a person feels that the results of the action are in his hands; a person uses all of his attention reserves for the task; and the feeling of time is distorted, and the person is so immersed in his work that he is not even aware of basic needs. The existence of a learning environment which

enables these conditions will encourage the involvement and interest of a student in his learning.

The concept of 'flow' occupied a big part of positive psychology, which was developed by Seligman in the last decade of the 20th century (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). According to Csikszentmihalyi (2012), flow is one of the factors which contributes to one's happiness.

1.3.4. Self-determination theory – emphasis on motives

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000) is a comprehensive framework for understanding human motivation and personality in the spirit of the humanistic approach, which emphasizes the natural tendency of people to move towards growth and self-actualization (Koole, Schlinkert, Maldei, & Bumman, 2018; Maslow, 1943). In the past three decades, SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000) has become a leading paradigm for explaining motivational processes, which includes a broad and developing research base (Koole, et al., 2018; Silva, Marques, & Teixeira, 2014).

In early 70's, several important studies were conducted, all having the same conclusion – as opposed to what was expected according to behavioral theory, which held a central place in educational practice at that time. It was found that participants to whom a reward was promised for an enjoyable activity, did it only as long as was required for receiving the reward, but not in their free time. In contrast, a comparable group of participants, who did the activity for fun and preferred to continue with it even after the time it was defined to be over. The experiments were carried out on different ages: e.g. Deci (1971) with students, and Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett (1973) with toddlers. The findings have since been tested in more than 150 different studies (Hidi, 2016). These experiments were the main factor in the emergence of SDT (Koole, et al., 2018). The researchers argued that the reason for the decline in intrinsic motivation was the perception of reward as external control, and thus, unexpected rewards did not result in a decrease in intrinsic motivation because they were not perceived as controlling but as tangible feedback on the importance of the activity itself (Hidi, 2016). However, it should be noted that Hidi (2016) emphasized that although criticism on using rewards became almost consensus, many researchers claim that this criticism is excessive and

relying on misrepresented data from the literature. These researchers called other researchers to focus on the positive outcomes of using rewards.

As mentioned above, the findings that indicated the decrease in intrinsic motivation because of rewarding, led the researchers to develop the SDT to place emphasis on developing intrinsic motivation. According to SDT, people naturally develop their potential and intrinsic motivation when their basic needs are satisfied. In this context, SDT lists three basic needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Autonomy – the need for the existence of a feeling that the activity is performed out of initiative and volition and to feel the opportunity to choose actions and goals (Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019). Autonomy is accompanied by a sense of inner coherence (Koole, et al., 2018).

Competence – the desire to feel effective and able to cope with challenges (Koole, et al., 2018), achieve goals and avoid failure (Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019).

Relatedness – the need to feel one belongs to a social group, to be valued by others (Koole, et al., 2018; Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019), and to feel able to develop secure and satisfying connections with people in the social surrounding of a person (Deci, et al., 2001).

The more these basic needs are met, the more a person develops his tendency for growth, which will lead to inner engagement, vitality, and well-being (Koole, et al., 2018).

The theory has a deep relationship with positive psychology (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004; Gomez-Baya & Lucia-Casademunt, 2018), since it deals with factors which contribute to the growth of people, and not with what causes different pathological developments, as does most of the research in the field of clinical psychology (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013).

Ryan & Deci (2017) divided the SDT framework into six mini-theories:

A. Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999) describes the impact of the social environment on encouraging or delaying the development of motivation, performance and wellness.

B. Organismic integration theory (OIT) (Ryan & Connell, 1989) describes how external regulation can integrate within the self, and the factors that promote or inhibit the integration of regulation into behavior (Ryan & Deci, 2000).
C. Causality orientations theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) explains how autonomous behavior that is fairly controlled can turn into personal tendencies.
D. Basic needs theory (Ryan, 1995) explains how satisfying basic needs affects well-being and vitality.
E. Goal contents theory (Kasser & Ryan, 1999) explains how the content of people's goals is associated with satisfying basic needs and improving personal well-being.
F. Relationship motivation theory (Deci & Ryan, 2014) analyzes the interactions between autonomy and relatedness needs in a satisfying relationship.

Following the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which was described above, a broader spectrum of distinction was defined, focusing more on quality of motivation and less on amount of motivation (Silva, et al., 2014). While intrinsic motivation is defined as when a person is performing a specific activity for his pure pleasure and satisfaction regarding its execution (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018), extrinsic motivation has a number of types, from the most external level to levels in which there is an increasing internalization (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci, Ryan, & Guay, 2013; Koole, et al., 2018).

Internalization is a process by which a person changes external regulation into internal regulation. The difference between the different types of extrinsic motivation are defined according to the regulation processes, which become more and more sophisticated according to the extent of efficiency of the internalization process, from external regulation to integrative regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci, et al., 2013; Koole, et al., 2018):

External regulation – the behaviors of the person are performed as a result of external force, like compliance, rewards or punishments.

Introjected regulation – a person is driven by anticipated self-aggrandizement, or alternatively by a desire to avoid guilt, shame, or anxiety. All these forms are based on conditional self-esteem, and the person still does not refer to as part of his own self.

Assor (2005) defines another type of motivation, which belongs to this type of regulation as well, is conformist motivation, meaning investing in an activity out of a recognition of the validity of authority or tradition, without understanding the rationale of things. The feeling which accompanies an activity which is performed out of this motivation is respect.

Identified regulation – a person feels that he chooses behavior because he believes it is important for his personality or professional development.

Integrated regulation – the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation. The internalization process is complete, and the values are assimilated and identified with the coherent sense of self. The person feels harmony between his different identifications and feels that he performs the behavior because it matches the goals and values that he has defined as the most important, and because it reflects his self and identity.

The two latter types of regulation mentioned here, although they can't be defined as 'pure' intrinsic motivation, still have a significant autonomous dimension compared to the first two, which are based on external regulation (Gillison, Rouse, Standage, Sebire, & Ryan, 2019). However, they still belong to extrinsic motivation, as identification is not in the activity itself, but rather in the importance a person assigns it (Deci, et al., 2001).

According to SDT, the more intrinsic a person's motives for activity are, the greater the quality of motivation, and this will increase one's creativity, cognitive flexibility, and self-esteem (Deci, et al., 2001).

SDT is concerned with how to influence the regulation and integration of non-intrinsically motivated behaviors – the process by which they can become truly self-determined and how the social environment influences this process (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The influence of environment upon motivation is not direct; however, satisfying these three needs in the environment of a child will constitute a comfortable climate for the development of self-regulation processes (Silva, et al., 2014), and this will also promote self-motivation and well-being (Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019).

Furthermore, an environment in which the three needs are fulfilled will assist the existence of a process in which the performance of activities which were driven at

first by completely extrinsic motivations will be internalized as well (Kaplan & Assor, 2001).

Additionally, satisfaction regarding those three needs cultivates an immediate sense of welfare, reinforces internal strength resources, and contributes to pro-activity and integration. Opposite to that, frustration regarding these three needs, especially when it is caused by a significant care-giving figure, tends to develop passiveness, fragmentation, and ill-being (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013).

1.3.4.1. Parenting according to SDT

Strong evidence demonstrates the effectiveness of SDT-based interventions in a wide range of domains, including parenting (Gillison, Rouse, Standage, Sebire, & Ryan, 2019; Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019). In the context of parenting, fulfilling these three basic needs is done through supporting autonomy (fulfilling the need for autonomy), warmth (fulfilling the need for relatedness), and structure (fulfilling the need for competence), and through avoiding the upheaval of these conditions (Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019).

A parenting style that is based on the three core needs of SDT and operates according to the three dimensions mentioned here encourages internalization of values and norms promoted by the parents (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018). On the other hand, parents who take the opposite approach may reduce their children's intrinsic motivation.

The opposite style is characterized by coercion/control – over-control and expectation of compliance; hostility/rejection – expressing emotions that express rejection, dislike, and disapproval; and chaos – boundless or unclear boundaries and inconsistencies (Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019).

Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1989) developed a three-dimensional model of parenting based on SDT's conceptual lines. There are three dimensions on which the model is based.

A. Positive parental involvement - related to satisfying the need for relatedness. The parents show warmth and affection as well as attentiveness and dedication to the child and his developmental needs. They are aware of what is happening in their child's life and take an active role. Additionally, they

provide him with the emotional and critical resources for him to feel secured and directed.

B. Structure - related to the need to feel self-competent. The structuring process created for the child is a clear framework in which he can experiment with norms, and in this way develop his trust in his ability to take on desirable social norms himself. The structuring is created by defining clear and realistic expectations regarding the child's behavior, expressed through clear and consistent directions as well as clear feedback and consistent outcomes (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018).

C. Autonomy support - related to the need for autonomy. Autonomous parents convey a message of appreciation for their child's autonomy and choices and encourage individual expression (Zimmer-Gembeck, Webb, Thomas, & Klag, 2015). Autonomy support was found to be significant even for preschoolers (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2019).

Like at home, with parents, so at school, with teachers – the more teachers support their students' basic needs, the more they will improve student motivation for learning (Haakma, et al., 2017).

1.3.4.2. Development of a sense of self-competence

SDT assumes that humans are born with a natural tendency to overcome challenges and grow psychologically, but to do this, he needs to feel a sense of self-competence (Haakma, et al., 2017). Self-competence refers to a child's feeling that he knows how to cope with the challenges the environment brings him (Haakma, et al., 2017).

The process of developing a sense of self-competence was discussed a lot by Bandura (1977A). According to his definition, the feeling of self-efficacy is "people's judgment regarding their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Bandura (1977A) defined two types of expectation beliefs: outcome expectations – the belief that certain actions will lead to certain outcomes. Efficacy expectations – believing in the ability to perform the actions required to achieve the desired outcomes.

Bandura (1977A) lists four sources from which man derives his expectation of efficacy:

A. Performance accomplishments are a major source because the experience of successful execution raises expectations of success in the future. Conversely, repeated failures weaken efficacy expectations, unless they occur periodically after a chain of successes. Experiencing overcoming failure by making an effort can strengthen one's sense of self-efficacy.

B. Vicarious experience refers to watching others who successfully perform difficult or threatening activities with no negative consequences. This may raise expectations in the viewer that he, too, will improve if he continues his efforts. However, indirect experience is a less reliable source of information about a person's abilities, so the expectation of efficiency may be weaker and less stable.

C. Verbal persuasion is easy to carry out and may enhance a person's confidence in his self-efficacy, but this source, too, has a weaker and less stable impact.

D. Emotional arousal refers to high arousal which usually impairs performance. People expect the least success when they are tense and emotionally aroused.

However, SDT claims that even when a person experiences success, if he believes that he has performed the actions because of external control, the need for competence is not met (Muenks, Wigfield, & Eccles, 2018).

It was proved that a feeling of efficacy encourages investment of effort and persistence and predicts success in variety of fields, including learning achievements and academic choices (Muenks, et al., 2018; Musu-Gillette, Wigfield, Harring, & Eccles, 2015). The effect is in both directions; the student's self-perception affects his achievements, and on the other hand, the achievements affect the student's self-perception (Marsh, et al., 2016). Children's motivation to persevere in difficult achievement tasks depends on how much they believe their current level of competence is changeable (Muenks, et al., 2018).

Parents play an important role in the development of ability beliefs. Simpkins (2015) noted four ways that parents influence their children's achievement motivation: high expectations of the child's performance; providing appropriate but challenging

tasks; creating a supportive and warm climate; and being role models for high achievement-oriented behaviors.

In addition, Simpkins (2015) noted four components of the influence of parental beliefs on a child's sense of competence: parents' causal attribution of the child's successes; their expectations of him; their perceptions of the value of various activities; their perceptions of the degree of difficulty of various tasks.

It is possible to help a person to develop a feeling of self-efficacy when he is helped to develop realistic goals, clarify his expectations of himself, set optimal challenges for himself, and adjust the action strategy to his skills. Additionally, it is important to provide him with relevant and nonjudgmental feedback, and to aid him in acquiring skills through practice, guidance, and support (Silva, et al., 2014).

Teachers also can support their students' sense of competence by providing a structure and framing learning with explicit and clear instructions (Haakma, et al., 2017).

Ames (1990) researched the feedback styles required in different stages of development. It was found that while young children perceive the extent of their effort as equal to personal ability, this is not so for older children, whose estimation of personal ability is affected more by their actual achievements and teachers' evaluations. It is important to emphasize that it is essential that teachers learn how to empower students' sense of ability, because unfortunately, the research findings indicate that children's beliefs about their abilities diminish during the elementary and middle school years (Wigfield, et al., 2015).

According to attribution theory (Graham & Taylor, 2016), children try to explain to themselves the causes of their successes and failures, and these explanations determine their future success expectations. When one attributes his successes to his abilities and efforts, and his failures to effortlessness, he tends to develop high expectations for future success. In contrast, when he attributes his failures to inability, his motivation will diminish significantly.

However, as the child grows, he begins to understand the connection between low ability and the need to invest effort, and by adolescence, he may have already concluded that the fact that he is required to put in more effort in order to succeed indicates that he has low ability (Muenks, et al., 2018).

In sum, attribution theory has defined three dimensions: stability (does the child believe his abilities are changeable?), controllability (does the child think he has the ability to control success or failure through his or her efforts?), and internality (the child's perception of how much the reason for success or failure depends on himself, or on an external factor) (Graham & Taylor, 2016).

1.1.1.1.1. Developing sense of attachment and relatedness

A sense of relatedness is developed from experiencing inter-personal connection, warmth, and affection (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018; Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019). Attachment theory developed quite a lot the understanding of concept of relatedness, and its importance to sense of security, and the ability to have new experiences (Bowlby, 1940). Due to the importance of the subject, it is extensively reviewed above with a broad emphasis on the ways in which parents can influence the development of attachment.

1.3.4.3. Development of sense of autonomy

Autonomy is defined as experiencing a sense of choice, willingness, volition, and willing endorsement of one's own behavior (Deci, et al., 2013; Haakma, et al., 2017). Gillison, Rouse, Standage, Sebire, & Ryan (2019) found that using of non-controlling language promotes autonomy satisfaction, and the provision of a rationale promotes autonomous motivation.

While SDT emphasizes autonomy-support parenting as a determinant of self-motivation and self-regulation, further researches suggest many other benefits: psychological health, academic achievement and outcome, adaptive psychological functioning, self-efficacy, school involvement (Vasquez, Patall, Fong, Corrigan, & Pine, 2016), and self-responsibility (Bindman, Pomerantz, & Roisman, 2015). Meuwissen, & Carlson (2019) proved it also had influence on executive function development.

Autonomy support parenting involves providing choice and involvement in decision-making and encouraging initiative and independence in problem solving (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2019). Also important is knowing the children's perspective,

fostering inner motivation resources, and exhibiting a preference for flexible language use and providing explanation, and the reduction to a minimum of controlling language (Vasquez, et al., 2016).

Meuwissen, & Carlson (2019) noted two ways that parents could be non-autonomy supportive. One of the ways is by being a control parenting - when parents provide extra help, such as performing tasks for their children, or making decisions that the child should make himself. The other way is the opposite: 'laissez-faire parenting' - when parents give over independence and require the child to handle things on their own, without providing enough help or guidance.

Autonomy support has also proved to be a useful approach for teachers and coaches with a strong impact on students' motivation and well-being. Autonomy-supportive teachers respect students' individuality and embrace open access to their internal motives (Haerens, et al., 2018); they are adaptive with the learning tasks to the students' interests, goals, and values, and providing opportunities for choice (Haakma, et al., 2017). This allows for expressing unique perspectives, inviting language use, validating student requests, and honoring each student's progression rate (Haerens, et al., 2018). It is accomplished by clarifying the value and meaning of studied subjects, and through use of experiences that would demonstrate the importance and relevance of the material. In addition, they give students the possibility to express negative feelings regarding the studied subjects and the way it is being taught, and can result in the creation of a working plan by the student, guided by a teacher, in order for a student to realize why he is working on the specific subjects in each stage (Assor, 2005).

However, according to Ames (1990), it should be noted that in multiple cases, an attempt to include students in the selection of tasks does not necessarily encourage the development of intrinsic motivation. The public educational frame, which measures students according to achievements and grades, may cause students to choose an activity that yields high results with a low amount of effort exerted.

1.3.5. Internalization of parents' values

Internalization of values is a process by which children receive values and integrate them into their own sense of self, and their behavior becomes internally

controlled or self-regulated (Karmaka, 2015). On the behavioral aspect as well, when a person recognizes that a certain behavior contributes to effective functioning in the social world, an intrinsic motivation is created to internalize this behavior into the self (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018).

Kohlberg (1969), who described the process of moral development, divided it into definite stages. Pre-adolescents are at a conventional level of moral development and tend to internalize values and meet parental requirements in order to receive rewards, avoid guilt, or gain approval. But, during adolescence, the adolescent enters the stage of moral development and develops an intrinsic motivation to accept values in himself.

Kopp (1982) said that already during the second year of life, children increasingly show signs of independence and autonomy. They begin to assess the demands of social situations and adjust their behavior to them, and so, they begin to move towards self-regulation. However, it is important to distinguish between independent self-regulation, which develops in early childhood, and autonomic self-regulation, which belongs to later stages of development (Laurin & Joussemet, 2017).

As mentioned above, SDT defines the child's compliance to parental demands over a sequence of regulation levels ranging from external regulation, through different levels of integrated regulation, to internal regulation. According to SDT, the process of internalization is facilitated by the fulfillment of three psychological needs: relatedness, autonomy and competence (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018).

Karmaka (2015) noted several studies that indicate that parental autonomy support, involvement and responsive parent-child relationships are positively associated with internalization and self-regulation, as opposed to a controlling structure, which is related to external regulation, lack of internalization, and a focus on rewards and punishments.

In addition, everything written above in the chapter on SDT belongs to the child's internalization of values.

1.4. Motivational Interviewing

Note: in this chapter the researcher chose to use the term 'client' regarding a person with whom the therapist works, since this is the term used by most of the theoreticians in this field. The reason for the popular use in this term is the relationship between MI and the Rogers' 'client focused approach' (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Motivational Interviewing (MI) is a form of conversation that is based on cooperation in order to enhance the client's motivation and commitment to change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013, p. 12). This approach was first published by Miller (1983) as a method to work with clients who struggle with drinking problems, to recruit them for treatment, but over time, evidences accumulated for the fact that it is effective as a therapeutic process in itself as well, with empirical evidence for the efficiency of the treatment used for alcohol consumption and many other areas (NREPP, 2013; Lev-Ran & Niztan, 2011; Lundahl, Kunz, Tollefson, & Burke, 2010; Markland, Ryan, Tobin, & Rollnick, 2005; Miller & Rose, Toward theory of MI, 2009). This method became an important consultation method for professionals with a growing interest in it (Lundahl, et al., 2010). Londhal et al. (2010) claim that this is since the approach is short termed, can be learned and humanist oriented. However, despite the extensive use, the understanding of how this method works is still merely partial (Magill, et al., 2018).

The approach is accepted presently in working with adults and adolescents who suffer from variety of mental problems, such as: substance abuse (McDevitt-Murphy, Williams, Murphy, Monahan, & Bracken-Minor, 2015), self-injury (Smolinski, 2014), suicidality (Britton, Patrick, & Williams, 2011), eating disorders (Vella-Zarb, Mills, Westra, Carter, & Keating, 2015), anxiety (Randall & McNeil, 2017) and depression (Freira, et al., 2017). As well as supporting behavioral change in many areas, such as: diet and physical activity (Bean, et al., 2015; Miller & Gramzow, 2016), sexual behavior (D'Amico, Houck, Tucker, Ewing, & Pedersen, 2017), gambling (Yakovnko, Quigley, Hemmelgarn, Hodgins, & Ronksley, 2015), smoking cessation (Merchant, Romanoff, Zhang, Liu, & Baird, 2017), and involvement in treatment (Lundahl, et al., 2010). Additionally, in recent years the approach has been used also to increase achievements and motivation for learning among students (Terry, Strait, McQuillin, & Smith, 2014; Strait, et al., 2012), and increasing the self-efficacy and motivation to

develop a career among students with special needs (Sheftel, Lindstrom, & McWhirter, 2014).

The approach is client focused, and it operates according to principles of cooperation, in order to stimulate motivation for change and increase it. Its origin point is that in each client, there is an intrinsic motivation for change, but there is ambivalence and resistance towards the change as well (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). According the transtheoretical model (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1982; 1984) ambivalence is normal when considering a change, and the goal of treatment in MI is promoting motivation for change through solving the ambivalence (Miller & Rose, 2015). In this sense, it is a revolutionary approach (Mason, 2009), as opposite to classic approaches for treating addictions, which tend to confront against the resistance of a client to withdrawal, this approach acts for creation of conditions to enable the consulting a process of change out of intrinsic motivation and trust in his ability to succeed in the process of change (Lev-Ran & Niztan, 2011).

According to Miller & Rollnick (2013) the MI didn't develop from a theory, but from the clinical experience. The continued development of the method was a process of "convergence of science and practice" (Miller & Rose, 2009, p. 527). however, it has certain linkage to Rogers' humanistic approach (Rogers, 1959), and just like it, it is also a client focused approach, and also giving emphasis to empathy, cooperation and honesty. However, as different from humanistic approach – which avoids taking a guiding attitude, out of an assumption that the means for self-realization are naturally at the disposal of the client, and the role of the consultant is to enable optimal conditions for self-examination – MI is a guiding approach, that guides the client towards change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013; Lundahl, et al., 2010).

Additional significant theory's that lies in the background of the work of Miller and Rollnick is the self-perception theory (Bem, 1967) and the self–efficacy (Bandura, 1982). Another theory that resonates between the sounds of the MI, it the cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), but Miller & Rollnick (2013) said that this is too narrow a definition of what they are doing in developing discrepancy, and it is more appropriate to see the development of discrepancy as part of the process to allow the client to clarify his conflict about change and the possibilities for change. MI it also aligned with Prochaska and DiClemente's integrative model of change (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1982; Prochaska & DiClemente, 1984; DiClemente & Velasquez, 2002)

and the concept of readiness to change (Rollnick & Miller, 1995; Markland, et al., 2005).

According to the MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), motivation for change and turning it into a practical program, are comprised of three basic components: the will of an individual to make the change, his confidence in his ability to make the change, and his willingness to make the change immediately. The components are truly connected to one another, but each one of them might affect the question whether a change will occur.

1.4.1. The spirit of the MI

MI is a style of interaction with a client, by which help he is assisted to decide to apply himself for change in a positive direction (Naar-King & Suarez, 2014).

Miller and Rollnick (2013) insisted that in order to use the system correctly and efficiently, it is not just enough to study its technique, but first its spirit should be learned.

The structure in which the components of the MI spirit were described evolved during the years of development of the approach. The two steps are presented below.

1.4.1.1. The old structure of MI spirit

Three subjects describe the spirit of the approach in the first and second editions of Miler & Rollnick book (1991; 2002): autonomy, partnership and evocation. These components will be described below.

1.1.1.1.2. Autonomy

According to self-determination theory, which was reviewed above, one of the core needs of a person is a sense of autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Similarly, MI emphasizes that a person cannot bring about a change in another person, as change stems from an internal process. Therefore, the role of a therapist is not to cause a client to change, but rather his role is to support and guide the client in such a way that his

personal ideas regarding change will receive a strong enough emphasis, in order to stimulate him to make a decision about change and execute it (Miller & Rollnick, 2013; Miller & Rose, 2009). For this purpose, a therapist should create an environment that supports autonomy, by raising the viewpoint of a client up to the surface and giving information regarding a variety of possibilities, while emphasizing personal choice and responsibility of a client (Williams, 2002). Alternately, should a therapist attempt convincing a client to change their behavior, he in fact takes sides in one of the conflicts a client experiences, and causes a client to start representing the other side, which in fact, would reinforce their objection to change (Markland, et al., 2005).

1.1.1.1.3. Partnership

The therapist avoids creating a position of authority towards a client, and in its place, he chooses the creation of a relationship that is based on partnership in the process (Miller & Rose, 2009). On one hand the therapist wants to lead the client in a certain direction of ambivalent solution, but on the other hand, does not tell the client what he should do, but rather enables him to arrive at conclusions by himself, with the help of creating suitable conditions (Rollnick, Miller, & Butler, 2008).

1.1.1.1.4. Evocation

A therapist in the spirit of MI does not express opinions, but rather helps a client to produce the language of change (Miller & Rose, 2009). Extensive use of the client in the language of change predicts behavioral change (Magill, et al., 2018). Amrhein, Miller, Yahne, Palmer, & Fulcher (2003) found that client commitment language, during the later portion of an MI session, predicted client status as a treatment responder 12 months later. In order to do this, a therapist needs to overcome what Miller and Rollnick called 'the correction reflex', which makes him want to tell a client how to change, and in its place he should create suitable conditions for the client himself to claim the change and look for factors that can assist him in the change process (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). However, it should be noted that in the meta-analysis that was performed later by Magill, et al. (2014) It may have been proven that using MI-consistent skills, according to the model of Miller & Rose (2009) impacts the increase

in usage of change talk by the client but surprisingly, a certain increase was seen in sustain talk, as opposed to evaluations according to which using these skills should decrease sustain talk (Magill, et al., 2014; Magill, et al., 2018). A similar finding was also found in the review of Romano & Peters (2016). As they attempted to explain that, Magill et al. (2014) offered that the reason for this is the inability of the research tool which was used in the reviewed researches, to identify the various influences over the sequence of the clinical process; and that in the beginning of the process the sustain talk might be increased as well, as part of the ambivalence examination. In that sense, it is very important that sustain talk will also increase, but later the process enables to solve the ambivalence. This is also explains why increasing change talk alone did not lead significantly to a change in the results.

Later, Magill, et al. (2018) specified the finding even more and showed that even though examination of the ambivalence leads to an increase in both change talk and sustain talk, the most important thing is the proportion between them. When the proportion stresses change talk, it enhances the ambivalence solution and leads to better results. However, is was proven that using skills that are not consistent with MI (for example: confrontation, warning to uncalled for advices) – even when occurs merely several times during the session – increases the client's sustain talk, deceases change talk and harms the results as it is.

As far as the influence of using a language (either change or sustain) on the results, significant findings weren't found to indicate that increased usage of change talk predicts better results, however evidence were found that increased usage of the client's in sustain talk, predicts negative effects on the results. Additionally, and surprisingly, it was found that integrated usage, of both change and resistance language, significantly predicts better results (Magill, et al., 2018). Hence, the research enhances the MI assumptions regarding what clinicians should not do, but still does not confirm enough what is recommended to be done (Magill, et al., 2014). Magill, et al. (2014) Offered that the main questions therapists should ask themselves is not related to the amount of change talk and sustain talk, but regarding the process of ambivalence solution – was ambivalence merely examined or examined and answered.

1.4.1.2. The new structure of the MI spirit

In the third edition of their book, Miller and Rollnick (2013) changed the structure of the MI spirit description. They added acceptance and compassion to the spirit and included support for autonomy as one of the components of acceptance. Instead of the three parts of the old description (Miller & Rollnick, 1991; Miller & Rollnick, 2002), the new description includes four subjects: partnership, acceptance, compassion and evocation (autonomy was included as one of the components of acceptance).

The partnership and evocation were part of the old structure, and they are broadly detailed above. Acceptance and compassion will be explained here:

1.1.1.1.5. Acceptance

The acceptances consists of four components: absolute-worth, autonomy, accurate empathy, affirmation (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). These components will be described below.

Absolute worth is an unconditional acceptance of the client's value and potential (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). This issue is also based on Rogers' (1959) ideas. Rogers named this quality 'Unconditional Positive Regard' (connecting these two concepts was conducted by Miller and Rollnick themselves) and defined them as one of the critical therapeutic conditions to create a change. In Rogers' (1980, p. 271) words, unconditional positive regard is "an acceptance of this other individual as a separate person, a respect for the other as having worth in his or her own right. It is a basic trust – a belief that this other person is somehow fundamentally trustworthy". Rogers (1980) Claimed that when a person is provided with these conditions, he will change positively naturally, as part of what Maslow (1943) defined as the need to 'Self-actualization'. Farber & Doolin (2011) reviewed 18 studies on the association between therapists' provision of positive regard and therapeutic outcome and showed a positive correlation between the factors, and concluded that positive regard constitutes as a significant component in building therapeutic relationships and an important foundation for other types of interventions.

Autonomy were part of the old structure, and it broadly detailed above.

Accurate empathy - Empathy constitutes one of the core principles of interview that assists according to the spirit of Rogers (1959). Similarly, MI uses the empathetic approach as well, in order to develop therapy alliance and to create supportive atmosphere and to intensify intrinsic motivation for change (Rogers, 1959; Naar-King & Suarez, 2014). The therapist expression of empathy, have been found to have positive effects on client within-session collaboration and engagement (Moyers, Miller, & Hendrickson, 2005). The therapist's empathic understanding skills, and the quality of the relationship between the therapist and the client, predicts the success of the treatment (Miller & Rose, 2009).

1.1.1.1.6. Compassion

Miller & Rollnick (2013, p. 20) said that "compassion is a deliberate commitment to pursue the welfare", According to them, it does not mean merely sympathy or recognition of the struggle, but a real act to improve the other's well-being and prioritizing the other's needs. Miller & Rollnick note that the reason they added compassion to the other three components of method, is that the other three components can be performed out of the therapist's personal interest and even for exploitation (as certain salespersons do).

Despite the central importance that Miller and Rollnick (2013) attributed to the MI spirit, it should be noted that in the meta-analysis of Magill, et al. (2018) the relationship between the therapist MI spirit and the client's outcome is not supported (Magill, et al., 2018).

1.4.2. Stages of therapy

Miller and Rollnick (2013) said that MI is built on four processes, while each process is built on a basis of the processes preceding it and continues together with the processes succeeding it. The processes are engaging, focusing, evoking, and planning. The following is a breakdown of each of the stages:

Engaging - the process in which two people build a Therapeutic alliance. This relation is a basis to all that would occur later in the process. First impression has a key role and in its course, a client decides to what extent he likes and trusts the therapist,

and whether he will return (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). The evaluation of a client of the quality of therapeutic relation predicts retention of the therapy and results thereof, even should clients not evaluate this way (Crits-Christoph, et al., 2011). There are several factors that affect development of this relation: service system in which a therapist and a client meet and positions of a therapist and a client (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Focusing - the formulation of decision as to which change is about to develop as a result of the process. This decision is made on basis of a client's agenda, however, a therapist's agenda as well (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Evoking - the purpose of this process is to evoke motivation of a client himself to make the change defined in previous process. The therapist hears the thoughts and emotions of the client himself on why and how to make the change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Planning - "the clutch that engages the engine of change talk" (Miller & Rollnick, 2013, p. 30). This stage occurs when a client reaches the brink of readiness for change and he begins talking more and more on when and how to make the change. In this stage, a client seeks information and advice. The planning process entails structuring formulation and specific plan of action.

1.4.3. MI skills

The tools that are being used in MI were developed in order to provide a framework that supports the client's autonomy as well as his evaluation and trust of the required change's importance, while avoiding confrontation or persuasion, which might provoke the client's resistance (Snape & Atkinson, 2016).

In order to achieve the goals of MI, a model for an interview was developed which includes the following skills: open questions, affirming, reflective listening, and summarizing (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). The following is a breakdown of each of the skills:

Open questions - open questions invite the client to think before answering, and to answer at length (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). Miller & Rollnick (2013) Suggest that after the open question, the therapist will reflect the client's answer once or twice, and only then, he will ask the next open question (The skill of reflecting will be described below).

Affirming – Affirmation is an accentuate of the positive. "To affirm is to recognize and acknowledge that which is good including the individual's inhernt worth as a fellow human being. To affirm is also to support and encourage" (Miller & Rollnick, 2013, p. 64). The affirmation contributes to building the therapeutic alliance because people develop more trust and openness with people who recognize their strengths. It also can reduce defensiveness (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Reflective listening – Reflective listening is also based on Rogers' work. Rogers (1965) called it "accurate empathy". It is a cornerstone for his client-centered counseling. Reflective listening is not merely the ability to stay quiet and listen to what the client has to say, but also to express the listening by using body language and reflection. This type of listening helps the client to stay talkative, and encourages self-examination regarding uncomfortable issues. Reflection can be also used in order to guess the meaning behind the client's sayings, to deepen the conversation (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Gordon (1970) defined 12 types of reactions which are not listening: an order; a warning or a threat; giving advice or suggesting a solution; persuasion or argument; preaching; judgment or non-consent; consent and praises; imbuing of shame; ridicule or labeling; interpretation or analysis; relaxation; investigating questions; distraction, humor of change of conversation subject. Instead, it is recommended to employ reflective listening, which transmits full attention to the spokesman, and encourages him to continue, to elaborate and get more profound in his words (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). The MI therapist also uses open-ended questions, affirmations and Summaries to promote ‘active listening’ (Snape & Atkinson, 2016).

Summarizing – Summary is similar to reflection, but it unique in that it pools together several things that the client told the therapist. It shows the therapist's listening, and allows the client to hear himself again and to look at what he said (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Other important principles of the MI are encouraging the feeling of discrepancy (Naar-King & Suarez, 2014), rolling with resistance, and encouraging the sense of self-capacity.

Encouraging feeling of discrepancy – The will to make a change is affected by a feeling of non-adjustment between the situation as it is presently, and the goal a person sets for himself. Therefore, change is made by reinforcing the feeling of non-adjustment

(Miller & Rollnick, 2013). The probability that a behavioral change occurs, is significantly increased when a new behavior is identified as matching the values and goals of a client. The more a client senses non-adjustment between his values to his current status, thus the chance his motivation for change would grow increases. Therefore, the focus should be on the world of values of a client rather than on social norms of a therapist (Naar-King & Suarez, 2014).

Producing change talk – in order to help production of the change talk of a client (Miller & Rose, 2009), conversation with him should be aimed at 'fishing' out components of the change talk and intensifying them. The role of a therapist is 'to fish out', by guiding questions, the components of change talk. According to Miller and Rollnick (2013), the change talk is comprised of four components: disadvantages of existing situation, benefits of change, confidence in the ability to make the change and practical intention to make the change.

Rolling with resistance – As stated, in a MI the counselor does not object to revelations of resistance of a client, but rather, rolls with the resistance (Markland, et al., 2005). Since the research indicates that confrontation with the client is related to the client's increase in resistance and decrease in involvement during therapy (Magill, et al., 2018).

Encouraging the sense of self-capacity – As trust in ability to make a change is one of the significant components of a decision to make a change, a therapist must encourage the sense of capability of a client (Markland, et al., 2005) by encouraging him to tell about his successes in the past and the powers he possesses (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

1.4.4. The Motivational Interviewing Treatment Integrity Code

Despite the positive results of many MI-researches reviewed here, there is a considerable inconsistency in the results, as well as researches that did not elicit any results (Moyers, Rowell, Manuel, Ernst, & Houck, 2016). Regarding many of those, the researches had explanations on why in their opinion no results were found. For example: Fleming, et al. (2010) Examined the influence of short-term MI-based intervention on reducing alcohol abuse for students in college, however they didn't find significant differences compared to the control group. Freira, et al. (2017) Claimed that

this might occur as a result of the research being based on low intensity intervention – 2 short 15 minutes sessions and 2 phone calls. D'amici, et al. (2018) Examined a short-term MI-based on adolescents with high risk for alcohol and drug abuse, which included one frontal session of 15-20 minutes, found a significantly positive change in the adolescents' approaches towards alcohol and drug abuse, but no influence was found on reducing this use. The writers noted that this might stem from measurement difficulties, and to that explanation, we can add the explanations of Freira, et al. (2017) regarding the article mentioned earlier, since this research as well included a short-term intervention.

The researches that elicited inconsistent results emphasized the need to form a clear definition of that is a MI-based intervention, assuming that some of the reasons for the inconsistency in the results stems from ingredients that are added and are not in lined with MI (Moyers, et al., 2016).

For this, several tools were developed, such as: the Yale Adherence and Competence Scale (YACS) (Carrol, et al., 2000); the Independent Tape Rater Scale (ITRS) (Ball, Martino, Corvino, Morganstern, & Carroll, 2002); and the MI Skills Code (MISC) (Miller, Moyers, Ernst, & Amrhein, 2003); Other tools were developed for clinical practitioners and they are more tuned for the day to day of clinical practice, although they are lacking in specifications of the therapist's behaviors. For example: the MI Process Code (MIPC) (Barsky & Coleman, 2001), and the MI Supervision and Training Scale (MISTS) (Madson, Campbell, Barrett, Brondino, & Melchert, 2005).

The most popular scale among researches is: The MI Treatment Integrity Code (MITI) (Moyers, et al., 2016), and its usage is the most common compared to the other measurement methods, due to its reliability and measurement scope. Despite the fact that the MITI was developed as a research tool, it is effectively used in clinical work as well for supervision and evaluation (Owens, Rowell, & Moyers, 2017), and the main article presenting it is one of the top ten most cited articles published since 2015 in the Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment (Elisevier, 2018).

The main advantages of this scale are counting of particular types of clinician behaviors (such as open questions and reflection), rather than measuring global aspects of clinician skills; in grading the clinical practitioner's empathy expressions; in the ability to measure usage om advanced or sophisticated skills; and most importantly – in the strong correlation between the measurement and positive results for the client

(Moyers, et al., 2016). The description of MITI codes is described in Table 1 (Moyers, et al., 2016, p. 37).

The MITI 4 has two parts: global rating (general characteristics rated by the evaluator on a scale of 0-5), and specific therapist behaviors that are counted by the evaluator (Moyers, et al., 2016).

Table 1

Description of MITI codes

MITI code	Brief description
	Globals
Cultivating Change Talk	Encourages the client's own language in favor of the change goal and confidence for making that change.
Softening Sustain Talk	Avoids a focus on the reasons against changing or on maintaining the status quo.
Partnership	Conveys an understanding that expertise and wisdom about change reside mostly within the client.
Empathy	Understands or makes an effort to grasp the client's perspective and experience
	Behavior counts
Giving Information	Gives information, educates, provides feedback, or expresses a professional opinion without persuading, advising, or warning.
Questions	Questions (open or closed).
Simple Reflection	Reflects a client's statement with little or no added meaning or emphasis.
Complex Reflection	Reflects a client's statement with added meaning or emphasis.
Affirm	States something positive about the client's strengths, efforts, intentions, or worth.
Emphasize Autonomy	Highlights a client's sense of control, freedom of choice, personal autonomy, ability, and obligation about change.
Confront	Directly and unambiguously disagreeing, arguing, correcting, shaming, blaming, criticizing, labeling, warning, moralizing, ridiculing, or questioning a client's honesty.
Seek Collaboration	Attempts to share power or acknowledge the expertise of a client.
Persuade with Permission	Emphasis on collaboration or autonomy support while using direct influence.

Persuasion	Overt attempts to change a client's opinions, attitudes, or behaviors using tools such as logic, compelling arguments, self-disclosure, facts, biased information, advice, suggestions, tips, opinions, or solutions to problems.

1.4.5. Pitfalls in a MI

Miller and Rollnick (2013) warned about a number of 'traps' that might disrupt the effectiveness of a MI: a question-answer trap; taking sides – when the therapist takes a side which calls for change he externalizes the ambivalence, and leaves for a client only the resisting side, and by that in fact increases the sustain talk instead of a change talk; 'the expert' trap – a therapist might create an impression he has all the answers. This way, a Client remains a passive receiver of the 'expert's advice'; labeling trap; the premature focus trap – This style leads a client to a defensive position and to straggling to turn attention to those issues that occupy him. As opposed to that, if therapist agree assisting a client to investigate those subjects that worry him, usually it naturally leads back to the subject the parent is interested in talking about, but then the client will be more 'recruited' for the process; the guilt trap - accusing the client.

1.4.6. MI and self-determination theory

In a fascinating paper (Markland, et al., 2005), in which have collaborated Richard Ryan - one of the fathers of self-determination theory, and Stephen Rollnick - one of the main developers of MI, the authors lay out the relation between the approaches. According to them, MI was adopted as a central approach for promotion of behavioral change, however, it lacks a coherent theoretical frame for understanding the psychological process involved in it. The authors propose viewing self-determination theory as a suitable theoretical frame for this matter, as there are multiple parallels between the perceptions. Both approaches base on the perception that a person has a natural tendency to grow towards psychological integration and MI provides an environment that facilitates this growth (Miller & Gramzow, 2016; Patrick & Williams, 2012; Patrick, Resnicow, Teixeira, & Williams, 2013).

On the other hand, MI provides to the SDT a specific set of therapy skills. In addition, a prominent parallel can be observed between the social mental environment, which encourages, according to SDT, self-determination and regulation and between the practice of MI (Patrick & Williams, 2012; Patrick, et al., 2013).

As stated above, SDT deals in three innate psychological needs – autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci, et al., 2013). The autonomy is expressed in MI by taking the perspective of the client, cooperation, supporting his choices, minimizing pressure, rolling with resistance, examination of possibilities and encouraging change talk. The relatedness is related to expression of empathy, creating a positive environment, studying the worries of a client and understanding their position and avoiding being judgmental or blame. The competence is expressed in MI in self-support by structuring a clear and unbiased information on behavior and outcomes thereof, assisting in defining purposes and targets, supplying a positive feedback without judgement and providing optimally challenging tasks (Markland, et al., 2005; Patrick & Williams, 2012; Patrick, et al., 2013).

1.4.7. MI with children and youth and in educational setting

1.4.7.1. MI with children and youth

MI can be very useful for children and youth as well. The basic principles of MI, such as supporting autonomy and using a cooperation-based approach, are well suited to the youth needs for independence and identity (Kaplan, 2014). The principle of 'rolling with resistance' (instead of confronting it) and the focus on solving the ambivalence that characterizes the MI, can be very beneficial for youth – which is seldom accompanied by ambivalence to many issues (Bean, et al., 2015).

Strait, et al. (2012) reviewed cognitive and neurodevelopmental evidence of children and adolescents' cognitive and social–emotional readiness for mental tasks thought to drive behavioral change in MI Based on the findings, recommend continued testing of MI with students in middle and high schools but caution against using MI with elementary school students. Nevertheless, it should be noted that few researches have confirmed the efficiency of MI for younger ages as well (Cryer & Atkinson, 2015).

In addition, the MI provides efficient results when working with adolescents. D'Amico, et al. (2018) examined a brief MI-based intervention in primary age care, with adolescents at-risk for alcohol and drug abuse. The participants took part in one session of MI, 15-20 minutes long, which included evaluation of motivation for change, conversation on the adolescent's approaches regarding the pros and cons of alcohol and drug abuse, his estimation of his future if continue this drug abuse, and a discussion on his willingness to quit. If the teenagers showed willingness to stop using, methods to handle temptations were discussed. Follow up sessions were conducted 3, 6, and 12 months after the first one, and showed a significant and positive change in the adolescents approach towards alcohol and drug abuse. However no impact was found on reduction ins usage (although the authors noted that this could stem from measurement difficulties); Brody (2009) described a case study of a treatment for an adolescent who suffered from depression using a MI. Colby, et al. (2012) examined the impact of one MI session followed by a phone call after the frontal session, as well as a phone call with the parents, and revealed a short-term positive impact on reduction in smoking, however not on quitting smoking.

Additionally, researched were performed on using MI together with other method, in order to increase clients' involvement and the program's success chances. Bean, et al. (2015) Proved the effectiveness of two MI sessions in improving the adherence of adolescents to Teaching Encouragement Exercise Nutrition Support (T.E.E.N.S) program, that includes physical activity, dietary intervention and behavioral support; Kamen (2009) suggested to combining MI, relative to the Transtheoretical Model of Change (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1982), with exposure-with-response-prevention therapy, to motivate youth to seek treatment, and to remediate non-suicidal self-injury risk factors and behaviors. Another interesting intervention was demonstrated by Draxten, Flattum, & Fulkerson (2016) who used MI in order to promote a program the Healthy Home Offerings via the Mealtime Environment (HOME) plus with children and their parents, with the aim of promoting heathy eating and family time meals, as well as to prevent child obesity (Fulkerson, et al., 2014), with children and their parents to promote healthful eating and family meals and prevent childhood obesity. Additional MI interventions in Childhood Obesity Treatment were reviewed by Borrello, et al. (2015).

However, MI with children and youth is relatively new, and the limits on the usage in MI in various ages according to the child development stages has not been verified yet. Adjusting the MI for children might be proven difficult due to the cognitive and neuropsychological requirements of working with motivational interview (Strait, et al., 2012; Strait, McQuillin, Smith, & Englund, 2012).

1.4.7.2. MI in educational setting

Application of MI in educational setting is a relatively new field, although a growing one (Snape & Atkinson, 2016; Cryer & Atkinson, 2015). The MI's flexibility, its being evidence-based and its focus on the child's inner motivation and values, make it an approach that is suitable to use in educations systems (Frey, et al., 2011; Terry, et al., 2014). The main advantages of school-based treatment are that it is approachable and conducted in at the client's convenient time, as well as its normative framework that reduced the chance that a stigma will be developed on the client. Schools also constitute as an important factor in the process of tracing those who need treatment (Freira, et al., 2017).

In a survey conducted among educational psychologists in UK, it was found that MI serves for them as a fourth popular treatment intervention (Atkinson, Bragg, Squires, Muscutt, & Wasilewski, 2011).

Strait, et al. (2014) presented two distinct approaches of school-base MI (SBMI): student-focused SBMI and consultative-focused SBMI.

1.1.1.1.7. Student-focused SBMI

The more popular intervention is Student-focused SBMI which is focused on working with the students themselves. Snape & Atkinson (2016) established the evidence for the effectiveness of student-focused SBMI and determined the features of MI that have been used to date in student-focused SBMI interventions. Most of the researches that were reviewed by them focused on individual intervention with children and adults, and only one research focused on group intervention. The review based the evidence for the MI's effectiveness.

Examples of student-focused SBMI: Kelly & Lapworth (2006) proved the effectiveness of a short-term MI-based tobacco-focused intervention for reducing smoking by teenagers who were directed by their schools due to smoking. In an evaluation that was conducted a month after the intervention, a very significant improvement was showed in reducing both frequency and quantity of smoking, as well as the self-efficacy to refuse smoking, in groups that received a MI—based program, even though it was short-term; Cryer & Atkinson (2015) described a case of a 9 years old boy, who was identified as disengaged, was efficiently treated using a MI-based short-term intervention, which improved significantly his learning motivation and behavior in class; Two studies found that one session of MI did improve math grades of middle-school students' who were identified as having poor grades or a high number of behavioral referrals (Strait, et al., 2012; Terry, Strait, Smith, & McQuillin, 2013). Later, Terry, et al. (2014) examined whether an addition of an extra session will improve the outcomes, and found out that indeed an extra session leads to a significant improvement. It is necessary to shorten the process as much as possible since many obstacles stand in the way of applying long treatment in schools, as will be detailed later (Strait, Terry, McQuillin, & Smith, 2013; Terry, et al., 2014); Enea & Dafinoiu (2009) proved the efficiency of group intervention with 8 weekly sessions, which incorporated methods of MI with stimulating intrinsic motivation and solution-based counselling, in order to reduce adolescent school truancy. Iachini, Rogelberg, Terry, & Lutz (2016) proved the efficiency of a 9 sessions' program, which is based on MI, with an emphasis on skill development, aiming to prevent high school dropout among high risk adolescents. Wong & Cheng (2013) proved the efficiency of MI-based intervention to reduce weight of overweight children. However, it should be noted that Bonde, Bentsen, & Hindhede (2014) claimed that apart from this research, and another one (Melin & Lenner, 2008) many researches on this issue didn't provide outcomes; Mohammadi, Hajizamani, & Bozorgmeh (2015) Proved the effectiveness of combining MI with teeth health program for preschool children; Stewart, Felleman, & Arger (2015) proved the effectiveness of MI-based intervention in reducing marijuana abuse, developing coping strategies and increasing searches for additional treatments after finishing the MI intervention. Freira, et al. (2017) proved the efficiency of MI-based intervention that was incorporated in school health program, to reduce depression

symptoms in teenagers who suffers from over-weight and obesity. The program included 3 face to face sessions, 30 minutes long each.

1.1.1.1.8. Cnsultative-focused SBMI

Consultative-focused SBMI focuses on working with teachers and parents, in order to enhance their motivation to use existed efficient interventions (Snape & Atkinson, 2016). Consultative-focused SBMI include incorporating MI strategies into teacher consultations and using MI to improve program implementation and fidelity (Snape & Atkinson, 2017).

Reinke, Herman & Sprick (2011) wrote a book on effective class management using MI principles; Connell & Dishion (2008) proved the effectiveness of family-oriented intervention in school, to reduce depression in at-risk adolescents. In the program parents participated with their children. The parents received a set of three MI-based sessions, additionally to other resources that were available for them.

1.4.7.3. MI in the general education system

Miller and Rollnick (2013) noted that most of the applications of MI in school are performed in order to prevent problems, but since it was generally proven that MI helps to increase achievements and mental health, it can be assumed that the educational field carries a similar potential for a regular use in the principles of MI as part of the teaching practice in classroom. Indeed, recent articles report on evidence to the efficiency of MI-based interventions in improving achievements and motivation for learning. These interventions also achieved good results (Terry, et al., 2014; Strait, et al., 2012) that improve further when increasing the amount of exposure to the MI (Terry, et al., 2014).

Strait, et al. (2012) showed a significant improvement in class, in general positive academic behavior, and in math test grades, in middle high students following one session of MI. Ige, DeLeon, & Nabors (2017) proved the effectiveness of after-school program to improve eating and exercising habits. The program included 9 sessions with a coach, and the survey that parents filled following the program showed indeed an improvement in the children's eating and exercising habits. The program was

incorporated as part of the modified version of the Traffic Light Program (Epstein, 2005), which its combination with MI was found as a successful combination when working with children (Nabors, Burbage, Woodson, & Swoboda, 2015) (note: in this research the coaches were not professionals, but college students who were trained to guide students). Snape and Atkinson (2016) notes that it is still not clear which components of the MI leas to these results and a future research is required for that.

1.4.7.4. Obstacles in implementing long courses of treatment at school

When professionals wish to perform a MI-based long-term intervention in school, they face several obstacles:

A. Due to holiday breaks during the school year, it's impossible to create continuity of the process.
B. Times to perform sessions are limited since it can't be on regular school hours.
C. Budget limit.
D. Students transferring from frame to frame, a problem that mainly characterizes at-risk adolescents.
E. Monetary constraints that limit the access of certain students for treatment.
F. High percentage of student leaving treatment due to personal or environmental constraints.

This gives an advantage to MI over other interventions since it allows a short-term effective intervention, however professionals from the MI field should prioritize the most effective short intervention (Terry, et al., 2014).

SECOND CHAPTER

SECOND CHAPTER

2. METHODOLOGY

The study combines qualitative and quantitative methodology to discover the extent to which the common parental style matches the spirit of MI: partnership, acceptance, compassion, and evocation (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), and whether parental style similar to the MI spirit influences the increased internalization of parental values by their children.

The purpose of the quantitative analysis was to examine the extent to which the prevailing parental style actually matches the MI spirit, separately measuring each of the four components of the MI spirit and whether there are differences between genders and periods. The choice of quantitative research in these aspects of the study resulted from the desire to obtain a more objective and accurate result that would allow comparison of periods and genders.

The qualitative analysis seeks to identify the main parenting characteristics, which encourage the internalization of the parents' values and the development of intrinsic motivation to act according to these values. The participants were asked about the characteristics of the parenting experienced in their childhood, and the internalization of the parents' values.

A qualitative study was chosen due to the nature of the subject, which deals with components that encourage internalization of values. In order to discover these components, the researcher believed that each participant's subjective definition of the components that encouraged him to internalize his parents' values would provide a more comprehensive picture. The researcher believes that the appropriate tool for that is qualitative research that engages in understanding the participants subjective experience (i.e. the parenting style they experienced as children) combining with more current description, from a subjective perspective as well, of internalization levels of parents' values. The purpose of context analysis is to reach a fundamental and comprehensive understanding of the researched phenomenon, out of a goal to identify the fundamental structures in the basis of the phenomenon (Shleski & Arieli, 2016).

In this aspect of the study, the researcher tends to agree with the supporters of qualitative research, who claim that while engaging in subjective experiences, the quantitative-positivist approach is lacking, since the human experience is much more complicated than can be defined using single variables that can be quantitatively measured. However, the qualitative approach, that engages in the unique narrative of each participant, and strives to reach general insights regarding the researched phenomenon, facilitates understanding better the complexity of the subjective experience. The qualitative research reaches these insights using words, in order to decipher through them meanings and patterns, that allow to receive full and diverse picture on the researched subject from the participants' subject perspective (Leung, 2015; Shleski & Arieli, 2016).

2.1. Participants

The participants in the study were 42 adults, with an age range from 25-65 (M=43.17, SD=10.07) (57.14% male), randomly selected. All participants experienced normative parenting in their childhood and were raised by both parents. The age group is described in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of participants to age groups

Age group	Participants	Male	Female
25-39	10	6	4
40-54	27	15	12
55-65	5	3	2

2.2. Instruments

The participants answered an open semi-structured questionnaire developed ad hoc for this research (10 items - see Appendix A), in which they were asked what characteristics of their parents made them want to internalize the values they learned

from them (example: "What are the characteristics of you parents which were significant to your opinion, that made you stick to their values?"). Also, they were asked what characteristics of the parents aroused resistance (example: "What are the characteristics of your parents, which made you avoid sticking to their values?"). In addition, participants were asked to describe the quality of communication between parents and children at their childhood home (examples: "How were conversations conducted at home?"; "When there was a conflict between you and the parents – describe the way the conflict was resolved"), and how their parents demonstrated authority (example: "Describe the way your parents set limits for you?").

2.3. Procedure

This is a transversal descriptive research. The participants in this study were adults (age 25-65) selected randomly. After obtaining the permissions, participants were approached at their own homes. The questionnaires were completed voluntarily. The instructions were read aloud, emphasizing the importance of not leaving any question unanswered. Participation was anonymus.

This study was carried out in accordance with the recommendations of Oviedo Agreement and it was reviewed and approved by the Ethic Committee for clinic investigations of the University of Murcia and with written informed consent from all subjects was recruited.

2.4. Data analysis

2.4.1. The quantitative analysis

Participants' responses were categorized for each component of the MI spirit (Miller & Rollnick, 2013): partnership (PA), acceptance (AC), compassion (CO), evocation (EV), as explained above, in the literature review.

The number of references to each of the MI components mentioned by each participant was counted. Two types of mentions were counted: A. Direct mentions, in which the participant directly reported a parental characteristic that corresponds to one

of the components of the MI spirit. B. Negative mentions, in which the participant reported a parental characteristic that contradicts one of the components of the MI spirit.

In order to get an accurate count, despite the wording differences between the participants, the researcher coded what the participants said, according to the four components of the MI spirit.

In addition, participants were divided according to age and gender (see table 2 above) to examine whether there were differences between groups.

To ensure the evaluation of quality in the review process (Wright, Brand, Dunn, & Spindler, 2007), agreement between the two researchers was measured using Cohen's kappa calculation. A score of $k = 0.91$ was obtained. The participant's answers were mentions that relate directly to one of the categories, as well as other mentioned by way of negation. The mentions by way of negation that were counted were one of two options: A. the parents' characteristics, which the participants explicitly indicated that caused them not to internalize the values of the parents, or B. Parenting characteristics mentioned negatively by participants who reported that they internalized their parents' values in a low or reserved manner.

In addition, the differences between the number of negative mentions, and the number of direct mentions, were examined, as well as the differences between age and gender groups.

To analyze the categories according to gender, a mean difference for our independent samples was calculated (Student's t) to determine if there were significant variances. All analyses were performed with SPSS 24.0.

2.4.2. The qualitative analysis

The data were obtained in the form of free text, without any structure. In order to begin analyzing the data, the researcher had to impose some order on the data, in a method that would be systematic and meticulous. To this end, the researcher used the technique of 'categorization' (Neale, 2016).

After reading the data, and in light of the literature review and the researcher's preliminary assumptions, the researcher decided to classify the data into four categories, according to the components of the MI spirit: partnership, acceptance, compassion and evocation (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

This choice was in line with Neale's (2016) recommendation to begin the coding with deductive approach and then to continue iterative and encode also inductive approach. In this study, the deductive coding was significantly modified, and there was no need to define additional categories. Although, during the coding of the data, it turned out that these categories appeared in two types of mentions. One type is the direct mentions in which the participant directly mentioned one of the four components (e.g. "I was once thrown out of school with a letter full of complaints from the teacher. My mother said she wanted to hear my side too in addition to the teacher's opinion" - classified under the category of 'Acceptance'). The other type was mentions to the negative way, when a participant who reported a low level of internalization of parental values, mentioned in the characteristics of parenting that he experienced, a characteristic that opposed one of the categories (e.g. "My father was not (listening to me), for example, when I was about fourth grade, I learned to play and the music disturbed him, So he just broke the instrument, and along with it the desire to play, even though he knew it was something that revived me" - was also classified under the category of 'acceptance', by way of negation).

For the purpose of coding the data, the researcher uses the Excel table. Each participant's answers were written along a line, where each answer received its own column. After each column of answer, eight columns were opened, in which the four categories appeared twice, once on the positive path and once on the negative. In this way, the researcher could indicate for each answer whether it included mentions from one of the categories.

At the end of each row, a summary of all categories was made in three columns - One column counted the direct mentions for each category, the second column counted the negative references for each category, and the last column summed up in general whether there were any mentions to each category (this column was marked '1' if a direct mentions, or a mentions by way of negation appeared in the particular category).

In order to easily identify, at the time of reading each answer, whether a participant reported a high internalization of parental values or a participant reporting a reserved internalization, each line was colored with the appropriate color - rows of participants who reported high internalization of parental values were painted green, and rows of participants who reported reserved internalization were painted yellow. The importance of this marking was to easily distinguish in respondents who reported reserved

internalization and at the same time reported a parental attribute opposite to one of the relevant categories (see example above).

Although qualitative data analysis is a process in which the researcher's unique personality, creativity and inspiration are significantly involved, he still needs to be systematic and meticulous (Neale, 2016).

In order to validate a qualitative research, tools, processes and data that are suitable for the research purpose should be used (Leung, 2015).

Noble, & Smith (2015) note that proving to abide those rules is complicated for qualitative research, since there is no consensus for the standards according to which the research must be criticized. However, they claim that it is indeed possible to apply terms of validation and reliability to qualitative research as well, when validation is achieved using integrity, findings' accuracy compared to the data and the possibility to apply the methods in which the researcher used, and the reliability is achieved through consistent data analysis processes.

Leung (2015) notes that as opposed to quantitative research, whose reliability depends on the possibility to accurately duplicate processes and results, the reliability of the qualitative research depends on the researcher's consistency while analyzing the data. The researcher tried to be loyal to this guideline, and form a consistent system to define the data, both while categorizing it and in the generalization process of the conclusions. This was particularly challenging, since each participant used his own unique language, yet the researcher needed to determine which references reflect a certain parenting characteristic, or a certain level of values' internalization.

THIRD CHAPTER

THIRD CHAPTER

3. RESULTS

3.1. Results of quantitative analysis

Statistical significant differences were not found in any category by gender (see table 3).

Table 3

Statistical significant differences in any categories by gender

Categories	**Gender**		**t**	**p**
	Male **M(DT)**	**Female** **M(DT)**		
PA	1.33 (1.308)	1.06 (0.873)	.779	.44
AC	1.75 (1.260)	1.61 (1.335)	.345	.73
CO	1.29 (1.083)	1.17 (1.098)	.308	.71
EV	0.4 (0.204)	00 (0.00)	.803	.39

Regarding age, a statistically significant negative correlation was found, with low effect size, with the CO category (r = -.377, p = .014, n = 42). Likewise, a statistically significant correlation was found, with low effect size, between AC category and CO category (r = .391, p = .010, n = 42) (See table 4).

As can be seen in Table 3 and in more detail in Table 4, no other statistical signification between any other variable were found.

Table 4

Correlations between age and the general summary of each category

		Age	General sum PA	General sum CA	General sum CO	General sum CV
Age	Pearson correlation	1	-,250	,110	-,377*	,044
	Sig. (bilateral)		,110	,487	,014	,780
	N	42	42	42	42	42
General sum PA	Pearson correlation	-,250	1	,198	,236	,248
	Sig. (bilateral)	,110		,210	,133	,113
	N	42	42	42	42	42
General sum CA	Pearson correlation	,110	,198	1	,391*	,038
	Sig. (bilateral)	,487	,210		,010	,810
	N	42	42	42	42	42
General sum CO	Pearson correlation	-,377*	,236	,391*	1	,112
	Sig. (bilateral)	,014	,133	,010		,481
	N	42	42	42	42	42
General sum CV	Pearson correlation	,044	,248	,038	,112	1
	Sig. (bilateral)	,780	,113	,810	,481	
	N	42	42	42	42	42

* The correlation is significant at the level 0.05 (bilateral)

The comparison between the number of mentions by way of negation and the number of mentions in the positive way did not indicate differences not by gender neither by age.

3.2. Results of qualitative analysis

3.2.1. Central values according to which parents educated you

The participants mentioned many values by which their parents educated them, with wording differences, but after coding, the researcher identified the following values as the most central values that participants educated by their parents:

- Honesty (23) – Examples: "honesty" (E.A.); "decency, fairness…" (V.P.).
- Love, help and respect for others (16) - Examples: "kindness and helping the fellow man" (A.E.); "respect for any and all people" (V.P); "be considerate of others" (A.B.); "…volunteer" (N.B.).
- Religion and tradition (12) - Examples: "Tora (the Jewish holy literature) and mitzvah's (observance of the imperatives of the Jewish religion)" (R.G.); "respect for those studying Tora" (D.L.); "religious belief" (H.A.); "Jewish identity" (Y.A.).
- Diligence and toil (12) - Examples: "diligence" (A.E.); "work, not grow as a parasite, should do what needs to be done" (N.B.); "effort is more important than the outcome…" (P.P.).
- Living modestly and settling for little (7) - Examples: "… modesty" (A.B.); "simplicity" (N.A.); "non-extravagant life" (B.S.); "be satisfied with little" (V.P.).
- Virtue (6) - Examples: "to behave virtue" (S.A.); "first of all be a human being…" (P.P).
- Zionism and the love of the motherland (6) - Examples: "Zionism" (G.P.); "love the land" (V.P).
- Excellence and ambition (5) - Examples: "not wasting time on bullshit and idle talk" (N.B.); "nothing can resist will" (L.L).

Other alues mentioned:

- "Order and cleanliness" (A.E.).
- "Love to the people… trust in people, respect for education, curiosity for understand things, aspiring at learning and knowing, respect for parents, contact with the extended family, brotherly love, persistence towards a target, not being dependent upon another… provide for a living with dignity" (V.P.).
- "Be successful on your way" (P.P).
- "Work ethic, act logically in any situation" (T.N.).

- "Helping at home, help in the farm" (N.B.).
- "Limits, maturity, respect for grownups" (S.G.).
- "Accept anyone the way they are, children are the heart of the family and they come before anything else" (S.S.).
- "Go our way even if it does not fit what everyone does" (S.H.)
- "Happiness" (H.A.).
- "Sensitivity" (E.E.).
- "Money is not what is important in life, winning is not measured according to what is apparent at the moment of victory but rather at the end of the way" (D.T.).
- "Politeness" (A.Y.).
- "Respect for your spouse" (B.A.).
- "Optimism" (T.Z.).

3.2.2. Effect of education for values

An overwhelming majority of participants (35) indicated a full, and unreserved, internalization of the values which their parents educated them.

Examples:

- "(These values took) a very central place" (P.P).
- "(These values) guide me in every aspect of life, they are central values according to which I operate" (T.N.).
- "All these values have a prominent existence in the daily life. An eternal student, creative in all things, sing to myself and my children, encourage them to learn how to play musical instruments and be curious" (N.A.).
- "A very high place, these in fact are the values that direct all my acts and all my choices, consciously and unconsciously that I get familiar with after the fact" (E.A.).

Many of the participants used the term "central place" in relation to the place these values hold in their lives. Some of them like R. G., B. R., V. A., B. S. and more even used the words "are my beacon" or the light that guides their life, regarding the values their parents educated them.

Only seven participants stated that they balanced the values according to which their parents educated them, although they as well were affected by them to a great extent: A.E. wrote: "I think that these values hold quite a central place in my life, although the way of life I chose is very much different than that of my parents. Nonetheless, in the field of order and cleanliness I do not live by the standards of my parents, which are exaggerated to my opinion, but these things are important to me". Y.A. whose parents educated her on the way of Zionism and on the importance of Jewish identity stated: "both hold a central place in my daily life, but the Jewish identity as I perceive it, is much more significant and more related to the values of Tora (the Jewish holy literature) and Halacha (observance of the imperatives of the Jewish religion), than in my parents' home".

The most striking figure is that not even one of the participants testified that he did not internalize his parents' values at all.

3.2.3. The way parents set limits

Most of the participants (32) described a common style to both parents. Most of them (27) described parents who set clear boundaries but did so with a sympathetic and often dialogic approach.

Examples:

- "Pleasant ways, conversations, determination and message" (B.S.).
- "With lots of tenderness and love" (E.V.).
- "Personal conversations, a flood of incidents that happened to them and sharing with the children how they operated..." (D.T.).
- "They would not let cross the line which they considered as proper, it was simply impossible. It is hard for me to describe with words, but they acted with assertiveness. Sensitive to our need, and still clear in their opinion" (R.G).
- "Sometimes it was with an explanation of what the limit is and that it is not to be crossed" (Y.N).

Almost half of the participants (19) said they had experienced at least one of the parents having hardline and rigid authority, and some were even punished as a child.

Examples:

- "In a sharp and clear way, no facilitation and no concessions" (N.B.).
- "Strict (limits) with no possibility of compromise" (S. G.).
- "There were clear limits at home and no one tries crossing them" (T. N.).
- "The limits were stated and they were very clear and when we would transgress them we would get punished" (H.A.).
- "Clear utterances and punishments" (Y.S.).

However, it is important to note that for nine of them, the other parent was balanced by softness and warmth.

Four participants described an atmosphere of boundaries, without having to talk about it. Examples: "…the atmosphere was of limits" (S. H.); "there were rules at home, I was the smallest child in the family and all was already clear, without many explanations" (P.P.).

Three participants cited the personal example as the way parents created the boundaries. For example: "clear lines with personal example" (A.Y).

Only Y.A. noted that both her parents "didn't really set" boundaries. Two other participants stated that one parent did not set boundaries, but for both the other parent balanced it.

Some participants described differences between their parents, sometimes even extreme differences: "father - a very clear authority, with a lot of awe and respect. Rarely physical punishment, usually no need for it, was enough to look at the eyes ... Mother - a lot of warmth and love, and giving without limits" (Y.M.). More examples: "mother is soft and father is strict" (S.S.); "father sets almost no limits, mother when we were little – slapped us, when we grew up – a carrot and a stick" (A.G.); "mother through emotional impact, father through shouting" (A.E.).

Participants' responses highlighted the fact that those who experienced more rigid parenting were less likely to internalize their parents' values. This is especially prominent in light of the fact that most of the participants said that the values of their parents constitute a guiding principle for them in present, and out of a very small minority who spoke of partial or reluctant internalization, all, except for one, said that their parents set strict or aggressive limits.

For example: E.A. described that her parents applied "clear rules, raising of voice, and in rare occasions, also stopped physically". When she described her attitude to the values by which her parents educated her, she describe restrictive internalization: "foundation, not the key point, the frame". As opposed to her father who to her opinion was pleased with her way of life presently, her mother "disappointed, in objection, does not appreciate". Still, E.A. internalized part of the values of her parents out of "understanding that it could be that they see things I do not live them yet, and my appreciation towards them".

Similar phenomenon can be found as well, in S.G.'s choice of words. Her parents also exhibited harsh authority and did not listen to him enough. He indeed internalized the values of his parents, but describes this internalization in a negative connotation as if he forces upon himself what in the past was forced on him by his parents: "respect for adults became without a choice for me, something natural and it is difficult for me to see myself not upholding this, work ethic as well, it is difficult for me to allow myself vacations".

3.2.4. Extent to which parents were attentive to their children

Most participants (27) state that at least one of their parents was attentive to them. Twenty (almost half) of them described that both parents were attentive. Examples: "definitely! To emotions, difficulties, coping, in society, in studies and in relations between siblings" (T.N); "very much! It was fun for me to tell them about experiences that I've been through during the day, and the reason is naturally that they transmitted attentiveness and interest" (R.G.); "as part of their personal abilities they were very attentive" (V.A.).

Some participants (9) described that parents sometimes listened to them, but not always. Examples: "parents were quite busy and therefore were not very much attentive to me. Nonetheless, I could approach them when I needed, and then they would listen" (A.E.); "not so much, there were more orders without explanations, but sometimes they were attentive to me" (D.L).

Seven participants divided between parents. G.P. told that "my father was less (attentive) almost no opportunity to talk to him or tell him. My mother occasionally set

down and talked, mainly on matters of guiding, less of listening". A.G. described: "father no, mother yes, mother always asked how was the meeting, she was interested". A relatively harsh description can be found in the description of A.K. of non-attentiveness of his father: "father not at all. For example, when I was in 4th grade, I studied playing a musical instrument and the music disturbed him so he simply broke my instrument and with it, the desire to play despite the fact that he knew that this is something that revives me. Mother was much more, for example: in transitions of adolescence she was considerate of me in all she could in order to not make it hard of me".

It is interesting to see that of the participants who described that only one of their parents was attentive to them, four of them described that it was the father who was attentive to them, and only three described that the mother was attentive.

E.A. defined an interesting division in his parents' attentive spheres: "(the parents) were attentive only to my intellect, not feelings. Discussion would develop on literature, ethical, emotional matters; there was a delegitimization of expressing emotions. My father was more attentive and interested in emotions, mother – expressed contempt and rejection of any emotional discourse".

Few described that both their parents were not attentive to them: N.B. wrote: "not particularly, you do what you have to. Feelings are not important". P.P.: "no, but they were also not against me, they simply were old and distant". S.G.: "in rare occasions".

It is interesting to see the words of D.T. that in a child's perspective, it did not feel that parents were attentive enough, and presently as an adult he wrote that his parents were "very much attentive, nonetheless, a child always wants more, I always claimed to discriminations".

Examination of the responses about of parental attentiveness relative to reporting on internalization of parental values indicates that the minority of participants, who reported partial or restrictive internalization of parental values, also reported a lack or partial attentive from their parents. On the other hand, the inverse relationship was not observed. There were participants who reported inconsistency or partial attentive, and yet reported complete internalization of parental values.

3.2.5. The way discussions were held in a family

A large proportion of participants (22) described good conversations, at least with one of their parents. Examples: Y.A. wrote "when I came from a meeting etc., I was always asked what was there and how was it and with whom, and I felt comfortable to open up and tell". T.N. described that the discussions were held in a "respectful manner. There was opportunity to express emotions but there was also a very clear way to express what is the opinion of parents and to understand that eventually it was what counted, but it was also clear to us that it was for our best interests". R.G. described that "generally, the discussions at home were held in a cheerful and humoristic manner, with mutual respect".

A.G., as well, described open discussions, but not all of them were pleasant: "there was everything. There were heart-to-heart conversations, and there were conversations with shouting which were heard by the neighbors as well".

Some participants stated the 'Shabbat meals' (Shabbat is Saturday, which is a holy day for Jews, and it is customary to hold celebratory family dinners) as an opportunity for conversation. V.A. wrote that "on Shabbat, during lunch and after it, we prolonged our sitting at the table, sang and talked about what happened during the week: "in studies, at work and in the news". P.P. described "a nice Shabbat table, speaking freely". Similarly, T.Z. stated dinner as an opportunity for a significant discussion: "usually around the dinner table, telling how the day was, deliberations or a question are raised and until the end of the meal – all problems would be usually resolved".

Eight participants described that their parents did not talk to them much. A.E. told that "parents did not talk to me much but approached me when they felt their emotional burden". G.P.: "there were no real conversations. There were conversations around the table when mother was angry that my father fell asleep". B.R. wrote: we did not talk much". D.L. did not describe how the conversations took place at his home, but stated that "not as I would want it to be in my home". A.B. described that conversations at home took place "with raising of voice. With my mother it was more ‘about’ than ‘on’, meaning to tell what other people do. Not attentive. From a place of ‘need’, not a place of attentive. My father would hear and ‘chop’ things, and in most cases I accepted his opinion". S.G. told that it was not easy for him to approach his parents directly and

he approached them by hints: "father, I have a friend who has such pants (hopefully that the hint will be understood), and the reply was: why? What don't you have?".

Six participants described that only one of their parents used to have conversations with them. Interestingly, everyone said it was the mother. Y.M. described: "with father there were practically no conversations, both due to distance and due to the fact that he was a worker in a factory and was very tired after a day's work, and also due to the fact that he was not a person of heart-to-hear discussions. With mother you could talk about many things, she would listen, advise, etc.". A.A. wrote: "mom is listening and empathetic. Hears and tries to help.".

A.E. described that conversations were held in his childhood home, but not as a response to his needs, but to his parents' needs: "my parents did not talk to me often, but contacted me when they felt their emotional load. Example: My father once contacted me after a psychologist I met with told him that I loved Mommy more than him, and asked me if it was true. I was mentally unprepared for such a question, and it put me to an age-appropriate loyalty test".

S.H. described a typical description of boys for many Holocaust survivors. He told that the conversations were "mostly unilateral conversations of my mother, who was lay in bed and tell about herself and her family before the Holocaust".

3.2.6. Parental characteristics that encourage internalization of values

Participants attested to many characteristics of their parents, which led them to internalize the values by which their parents educated them. After coding, in order to counteract the wording differences, the researcher identified the following characteristics as the key parents' characteristics that the participants testified that made them internalize these values:

- Honesty (9) – examples: "honesty and integrity" (N.A.; A.A.; Y.A.; ext.); "truth and justice" (H.B.).
- Caring and devotion (9) – examples: "devoted… and caried" (A.E.); "with much giving" (A.B.); "their great investment in each one of the children" (T.N.).

- Warmth and love (7) – examples: "warmth, love, acceptance, indulgence (positive)" (Y.I.S.); "mother - ... forgiving ... maternal ... hot ... very sensitive. Father - warmth ..." (T.N.).
- Self-purpose and self-fulfillment (6) - examples: "stubbornness, adherence to purpose and a strong desire for self-fulfillment" (A.K.); "it is OK to dream and make dreams come true… you can accomplish anything" (T.Z.).
- Patience and serenity (5) – examples: "their tranquility" (N.B.); "now you remind me of something. My father has extraordinary humility. You will never be able to get him out of his serenity... Anyone who knows me will tell you I have patience and longevity. It probably stuck with me because of my appreciation for my father."
- Diligence (5) – A.E., A.H, Y.E. and more, use this term to describe one or both parents.

In addition, additional characteristics were mentioned:

- "Complete faith in rightness of the way by which they live… they were partners in their values, in the important things in life there was no contradiction between them, there was mutual acceptance and an inspiring high respect" (V.A).
- "Wise… and knowledge of resolving problems creatively" (A.B.).
- "Kindness… responsibility for the environment" (G.P.).
- "Simplicity" (P.P).
- "Their ability to cope properly with any situation, act reasonably, love for the fellow man…" (T.N.).
- "Modesty, loyalty to their children and to each other, not seeking popularity" (N.A.).
- "Consistency and acceptance of the different family members".
- "Piety".
- "Persistence".
- "Less talking, stability".
- "Hard working for their living not needing anyone" (Y.S.).
- "Righteousness" (H.A.).

- "Devoted to general matters, volunteered a lot and contributed money as much as they could" (Y.A.).
- "Courage" (L.L.).
- "Personal example" (A.Y.).
- "Strong people who are aware of their weaknesses and this is their strength" (S.B.).
- "trust and appreciation towards me" (E.H.).
- "Talking favorably about another" (A.V.).

3.2.7. Parental characteristics causing their children to avoid internalization their values

After coding the participants' responses to counteract the wording differences, the following key parental characteristics were found as characteristics that caused their children to avoid from internalizing the values by which they educated them.

- Anger (9) – examples: "my mother was very edgy and impulsive, and it caused me to feel that she is angry not because she wants to lead me on some path but as I personally made her angry" (A.E.); "…father's uncontrolled rage…" (N.A.).
- Stiffness and lack of containment (10) - examples: "my father - over rigidity, distances, closures" (Y.Y.S); "denying emotions, 'Spartanism', being strictly judgmental" (E.A.); "competitiveness, 'fighters', perceiving the world as 'black or white'" (E.H.).

In addition, additional characteristics were mentioned:

- "My father was very busy and had no time to listen, and therefore in fact he intervened with my education only when he had to respond harshly, and then I sensed absence of proportionality" (A.E.).
- "To please others on her account, to lower herself before authoritative figures, constant criticism of my qualities" (A.B.).
- "Fatigue and procrastination" (G.P.).
- "Simplicity that does not comprehend the complexity existing is current generation" (P.P.).

- "Degrading expressions of mother towards father… Lack of father's ability to pamper himself".
- "Not adhering to some of the values, strictness, numbness, old fashioned" (N.B.).
- "Lack of inclusion of opinions that are different than theirs" (S.G.).
- "Lack of explaining" (D.L.).
- "Distance, closedness" (Y.M.).
- "Lack of paying attention to language" (S.H.).
- "Preaching, worriedness" (A.A.).
- "Over-practicality and impact of values of Western culture" (Y.S.).
- "Disobedience to God" (E.A.).
- "Father is a little cheap, not optimistic… mother is over opinionated" (Y.S.).
- "Cynicism" (A.V.).
- "Stubbornness" (T.Z.).

FOURTH CHAPTER

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4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

4.1. Discussion

4.1.1. The quantitative study

The results suggest that the parental style prevalent in the decades studied is, in large part, in keeping with the spirit of MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). The average in three of the four categories (PA, CO and AC) ranged from 1.06 to 1.75. That is, most of the participants experienced parenting that included some compassion, acceptance and partnership. Regarding the fourth category, evocation, it is not surprising that the results are close or equal to zero, because in fact it is the only category that talks about a technique that requires learning in order to be implemented.

The reason that no statistically significant differences were found in any category by gender can be attributed to the fact that participants reported on the parenting experience they experienced 1-6 decades ago, it may be decades when the manner of parental treatment for boys and girls became quite the same. This question has been addressed in the research literature, but there is no consensus among researchers about the extent to which parents treat boys and girls differently, in what areas this occurs, and whether fathers and mothers differ in their gender distinction (Endendijk, Groeneveld, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Mesman, 2016).

Regarding age, a statistically significant negative correlation was found, with low effect size, with the CO category. The researcher believes this is attributed to the fact that attachment theory has become increasingly central in recent decades, with widespread applications in the field of parenting (Omer, et al., 2013). In addition, parental authority also became less rigid and relationship-based instead of controlling (Baumrind, 1971; Bi, et al., 2018).

Regarding the correlation between AC category and CO. The researcher believes that is no surprise at all, because compassion and acceptance are close attributes, even from the neurological aspect (Hou, et al., 2017). So close that an important article on MI included them together (Hardcastle, Fortier, Blake, & Hagger,

2017). However, the researcher estimates that if the acceptance component was divided into its various sub-components (absolute-worth, support for autonomy, accurate empathy and affirmation), differences might emerge because the main similarity is between compassion and the empathy sub-component, and for example, the autonomy support sub-component may even be contradictory, because a compassionate parent may oversee and prevent Support for autonomy from his children.

4.1.2. The qualitative study

4.1.2.1. Values according to which parents educate

Minkov, et al. (2018) have shown that in Israel there is a balance between collectivism and individualism, and this is very similar to the findings of this study. In older research, Cohen & Cohen (2002) conducted a study in which they examined the gradient of values of parents to fifth grade students in State and State-Religious education in Israel. In their study, they asked parents to grade values from a given list. The study revealed much resemblance between sectors regarding values that are not necessarily religious. The values were graded according to this order (from important to less important): human relations, development of personal skills, law-abiding, self-realization, general culture, social equality, democracy, Zionism, ambitiousness, and absorption of Jewish immigration to Israel. Regarding the values of Tora (the Jewish holy literature), Mitzvahs (observance of the imperatives of the Jewish religion), and Judaism, there was a big gap between the sectors, while parents of children from the State-Religious schools graded those values much more highly than the parents of children from State schools.

The researcher estimates that the gap between the findings of Minkov, et al. (2018) and the findings of Cohen & Cohen (2002) stems from the fact that Israel has become from a young and poor country to a developed and established country during the decades that followed, so there was less emphasis on values such as Zionism, the love of the homeland and the absorption of Jewish immigration to Israel, which stood out in earlier periods in the development of the state.

Like the Minkov, et al. (2018) research, the current study also shows a balance between individual values, such as honesty, diligence and modesty, and collective

values, such as religion and tradition, Zionism, and the love of the homeland. Values like social equality, democracy and absorption of Jewish immigration to Israel, mentioned by Cohen & Cohen (2002), were nearly not mentioned by the participants of the current study. It is conjectured that, although participants described earlier decades, they probably emphasized values that are significant to them today, so the findings are more similar to those of Minkov, et al. (2018) than those of Cohen & Cohen's (2002).

Other information, with lower research value but interesting in itself, can be found in Willis's (2014) article. Willis attests to the fact that he talked to several experienced parents and asked them about the key values according to which they educate. According to his conclusions from collecting these data, he recommends that parents educate consistently towards the following seven values: honesty, respect for parents, love of another, doing one's best, patience, gratitude, and persistence.

The findings of the current study confirm the key place of honesty, love and respect for others, religion and tradition, diligence and toil, living modestly and settling for little, virtue, Zionism and the love of the motherland, excellence, and ambition.

Most of the values discussed by Willis (2014) were indeed mentioned by the majority of participants. However, the value of respect for parents was mentioned by only three participants, and the value of gratitude was not mentioned at all.

4.1.2.2. The extent to which parents manage to influence the internalization of their children's values

Passing on the values of parents to their children plays an important role in creating social culture (Minkov, et al., 2018). Through the transfer of values, the children learn the structure of their culture and the normative expectations in that culture (Tomasello, 2016).

The impact of parents upon their children is a focal point at all ages, including adolescence, despite the increase of social impact. Social impact and the impact of parents complement each other in the process of socialization (Lakon, Wang, Butts, & Jose, 2017).

In the findings of the current study, there is a very prominent fact that most, if not all, participants internalized the values according to which their parents educated them. It seems that the findings reinforce the opinion of those researchers who maintain that indeed the impact of parents is great. Still, it should be stated that further variables were not examined, and therefore, the current study cannot define the importance of parental influence in relation to additional variables.

The central role of parents in designing the educational environment in which the child grew up and in promoting the development of intrinsic motivation and internalization of values has been extensively reviewed and explained by SDT researchers (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018; Ryan & Deci, 2000), and was mentioned above in the literature review of this study.

4.1.2.3. Parental characteristics that encourage internalization of values

As mentioned above, the main features mentioned in this context are (rated in order of importance): honesty, caring and devotion, warmth and love, self-purpose and self-fulfillment, patience and serenity, and diligence.

Caring and devotion, as well as warmth and love, are the key features of an available and responsive parent, a parenting style that assists in the development of secure attachment (Brown, Mangelsdorf, Shigeto, & Wong, 2018; Juffer & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2018). According to SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000), this component, which expands the sense of relatedness (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018), influences the development of intrinsic motivation and internalization of values.

Patience and serenity greatly affect the exercise of effective parental authority, which is not based on external control of the child, but on the parent's self-control, and his or her ability to be determined but calm (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016; Omer, et al., 2016). Effective parental authority greatly helps develop a child's sense of self-competence (Simpkins, 2015), which is also a key component of developing intrinsic motivation and value internalization, according to SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

For the additional features found in the present study, they can be associated with the characteristics of leadership figures. Posner (2018) has found that people are looking for honesty, ability, dedication and leadership in their leaders.

Honesty was also found in the present study. In addition, self-purpose and self-fulfillment, and diligence, are associated with demonstration of competence, and are also inspiring. This may explain why participants in the current study also cited these traits as parental traits that led to internalization of values.

4.1.2.4. Parental characteristics causing their children to avoid internalization of their values

As mentioned above, the traits most participants mentioned are anger, stiffness and lack of containment. These findings can also be explained by the literature. Stiffness and lack of containment are inconsistent with the development of a sense of autonomy, which is a key component of an environment that encourages intrinsic motivation development and value internalization (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Another important component, according to SDT, is the feeling of relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017), which is undoubtedly impaired when the child frequently experiences anger from his parents.

4.1.2.5. The way parents set limits

By viewing the answers to the current research questionnaire, it can be seen that the majority of parents described that they did not tend to exert parental authority arbitrarily and forcefully, but rather, out of attentiveness and assertiveness, in line with the authoritative parenting style, which Baumrind (1991) recommends as a preferred style.

The finding that participants who reported rigid parenting were also those who reported that their internalization of parental values was partial or unconstrained can be explained by Karmaka's (2015) remarks that parenting with a control structure leads to extrinsic motivation development and reduces internalization. In contrast, autonomy-support, engagement, and responsiveness are positively related to internalization and self-regulation, as opposed to a control structure related to external regulation and internalization.

This can be understood according to the SDT. Two significant components of the environment that encourage value internalization are harmed when the parent takes this style – sense of autonomy and sense of relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

4.1.2.6. Are parents attentive to their children?

As written above, the development of a sense of autonomy is one of the encouraging factors for development of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). One of the most significant factors that affects development of a sense of autonomy is attentiveness of a parent to his child (Karmaka, 2015). Attentiveness is important also for the continuous supervision of a child, as by showing interest in what their child goes through, parents reinforce the extent of internalization of their parental figure in their child, in a way that even when a parent is not around, the child will consider his opinion before being tempted to act in dangerous or harmful ways (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016).

In the current research, differences were expressed between various respondents, but the majority of participants indicated that at least one of their parents is attentive to them. From reviewing the answers, a relationship can be identified between the extent of attentiveness of parents and the extent to which their children internalized their values. Although the vast majority of participants wrote that they fully internalized the values of their parents, it can be clearly seen that the few respondents who spoke of partial or reluctant internalization of the values of their parents reported that their parents were not attentive to them, but they were only partially attentive. For some, one of the parents was attentive and the other was not. Nonetheless, the opposite relationship cannot be identified, as there are those respondents who stated that their parents were completely non-attentive to them, or were partially attentive, and still reported a full internalization of the values of their parents.

4.1.3. Hypothesis about the effect of parental access in the spirit of MI, on the internalization of values by their children

In the quantitative study, the level of parental values internalization by the participants was not examined, so the correlation between this variable and the variables of the MI spirit could not be measured.

However, if we look at the two findings together – the findings of the qualitative study in which all participants indicated internalization of parental values, most of them full internalization, and the findings of the quantitative research, in which most participants indicated parental use of three out of four components of the spirit of MI. This comparison may give rise to the assessment that there is a connection between the findings and, probably, the parental style in the MI spirit served as an element of encouraging internalization.

This hypothesis has a broad theoretical background in SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000; 2017) because, as stated above, MI is actually an approach that complements SDT by providing it with practical tools (Patrick & Williams, 2012; Patrick, et al., 2013).

The topic needs research, but this study seeks to lay the foundation for MI applications in the parenting field, an area which so far – despite the impressive development of this theory, in research and application – has not yet developed.

It should be noted that out of the four components of the MI spirit tested in the quantitative study, the component of the evocation, which is the practical tool, is not used by the parents. This is not surprising, as it is the only component that requires a specific study, but it is a plausible hypothesis that if parents learn to implement this component, the effect on internalizing values will be even greater.

4.1.4. Responses to research questionnaire

4.1.4.1. What are the core ingredients in parenting that will encourage the development of intrinsic motivation and values internalization?

- Intrinsic motivation, rather than extrinsic motivation, should be preferred because intrinsic motivation is integrated with self-identity, triggered by positive emotions, and stimulates attention, effort, perseverance and willingness to deal with difficulties (Assor, 2005).
- In order to foster a child's intrinsic motivation, parents must design a home environment that will provide three core needs for the child: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000; 2017).

- Satisfying these needs, in addition to improving intrinsic motivation, will also create a sense of well-being (Koole, et al., 2018; Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2019).
- In order to satisfy the need for relatedness, parents should show warmth, affection (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018), attentiveness, devotion to the child and his needs (Juffer & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2018), and be aware of what the child is going through and provide him with the emotional resources to feel safe and directed (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1989).
- In order to satisfy the need for a sense of competence, parents must provide a structure through clear and realistic expectations that will provide the child with the direction of acceptable and effective behavior to achieve his goals, in order to experience success, and to feel able to cope with life's challenges (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018). In addition, parents must create a warm and supportive climate, provide appropriate challenges and be a model for high achievement-oriented behavior (Simpkins, 2015). It is important that parents provide relevant, non-judgmental feedback to empower the child (Silva, et al., 2014). Feedback should include an emphasis on the relationship between effort and outcome and, in case of failure, show how failure is the result of a lack of effort and not of incompetence (Graham & Taylor, 2016). At the same time, it is important to make sure that the structure does not conflict with the need for autonomy, both because of the importance of satisfying this need, and because if the child feels that he is successful from an extrinsic control, he will not develop a sense of competence (Muenks, et al., 2018). The researcher believes that the needs can be combined by incorporating the child into decisions about the challenges they will need to deal with, and a discussion about the strengths that can be used to succeed. This can be done with conversations in the spirit of MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).
- In order to satisfy the need for autonomy, parents must convey messages of appreciation for autonomy and choice, and encourage individual expression (Zimmer-Gembeck, et al., 2015) and involvement in decision-making and problem solving (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2019). They should use non-controlling language and give a rationale for their demands of the child (Gillison, Rouse, Standage, Sebire, & Ryan, 2019). To achieve all of these

goals, it is important that parents become familiar with the child's perspective (Vasquez, et al., 2016).

- Even when a child exhibits resistance to the values and guidance of his parents, it needs to be assumed that he is never conclusive about it, but rather, ambivalent (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).
- However, resistance is part of a process of consolidating the personal identity of a child (Naar-King & Suarez, 2014), and therefore, a child should be given space for examination and experience, within the limits of a safe-enough space, and without enabling him to be endangered physically, ethically or morally (Omer, et al., 2013).
- Dealing with resistance, according to the principles of MI, will significantly increase the chances that a child will resolve the ambivalence in the direction his parents educated him in (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). Nonetheless, opposite to a caretaker of MI, which allows for a completely autonomous space for a person being taken care of, parents are committed to putting limits on the possibilities of choice for a child. Therefore, the use of the principles of MI will be in a discourse style with a child, in an aspiration to allow him a relatively large choice space, but should a child decide to still choose negative and dangerous behavior, parents are to intervene and prevent the problematic behavior (Omer, et al., 2016).
- The advantage of using motivational discourse is in its being derived from an autonomic process, even if guided. The premise is that a child will attribute his choice to his personal decision, and thus the sense of autonomy and self-direction will be reinforced (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).
- In order to be influential figures for their children, parents should demonstrate honesty, caring and devotion, warmth, love, containment, self-purpose, self-fulfillment, patience, serenity and diligence, and reduce anger and stiffness.

4.1.4.2. How can an established parental authority be structured in a way which will not only reduce, but even increase the encouragement of internalization and intrinsic motivation?

- The preferred parenting style is authoritative parenting (Baumrind, 1991), combining responsiveness – acceptance, warmth, support and nurture (Pinquart, 2017; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018) with demandingness – clear expectations and behavioral supervision (Akcinar & Baydar, 2014). Parenting in this style reduces conflict levels (Bi, et al., Parenting Styles and Parent–Adolescent Relationships: The Mediating Roles of Behavioral Autonomy and Parental Authority, 2018) and improves the socialization process (Mikeska, et al., 2017) and outcomes in the field of behavior and cognition (Neel, et al., 2018).
- The theoretical background to this parenting application is a combination of attachment theory (Bowlby, 1982) – which seeks to establish for the child 'safe haven' and a 'secure base' – and 'the anchoring function,' which explains the role of structure (Omer, et al., 2013).
- In order to achieve a secure attachment, parents must be available, sensitive and attentive to the child's signals, and be able to respond to them warmly, effectively and comfortably (Brown, Mangelsdorf, Shigeto, & Wong, 2018; Juffer & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2018).
- In order to implement the 'anchoring function,' parents need to create a structure through presence, self-control and, if necessary, social support (Kahn, et al., 2019; Omer, et al., 2013).
- NVR (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016) tools can be used to deal with extreme behavioral problems, or risk behaviors.
- Because structure is one of the conditions for the formation of a sense of competence (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018), parental authority is not only not intended to impair the development of intrinsic motivation, but is an important condition for its development.

4.1.4.3. How can all these core ingredients be combined into a practical and applicable-for-all model, which could be operated by parents in

all layers of the population and from the majority of intelligence levels?

The answer to this question is actually the contribution of this study to society. Below, an integrative model will be presented, combining all the findings of the current literature review and study, into a coherent model that can be taught to multiple parents to enhance their children's internal motivation and values.

4.2. Conclusions

The contribution of this study is in confirming previous studies that have defined the parenting components that encourage internalization of values and internal motivation development. This confirming is conducted in several areas, As detailed in the discussion paragraphs.

One of the important contributions of the study is in detailing the parental characteristics that encourage or prevent the internalization of the values that parents educate. Discovering these characteristics and detailing can serve as a kind of guide for parents, how to formulate a parental personality that will enhance their impact on their children's education.

The uniqueness of this study in linking the spirit of MI to parenting, and the impact of parenting in this spirit on the internalization of values by which parents educate. This study was a preliminary exploration in the field, to encourage further research in the future. Most notably, the fact that parents do operate in the spirit of MI, on most of its components, apart from the evocation that requires a special skill to learn to apply.

According to the findings, which have shown that many parents do act in the spirit of MI, and at the same time their children report a high level of internalization of the values by which they are educated, the researcher believes that perfecting the implementation of the MI spirit by parents will increase the internalization of their values by their children.

As mentioned, the only component of the four components of MI that parents do not apply is the evocation component. The researcher estimates that if parents learn

how to use this skill, their ability to encourage the internalization of values in their children will increase.

To do this, the researcher proposes the model that will be presented below. In addition, the researcher will propose future research in the field, which will confirm the assumption that studying the evocation component will indeed influence increasing values internalization.

4.3. Proposal for a practical model for parents, based on the results of the research and the review of early literature.

The practical model the researcher suggests combines efficient conduct and communication means with children in routine and efficient ways to resolve conflicts.

In addition, the model will suggest how to deal with escalating situations in child behavior and the occurrence of risk behaviors.

4.3.1. In routine

The model aspires to base the connection between parents and their children on trust in the good will of a child. The assumption on which the model is based is that the child is born with a natural motivation to overcome challenges and grow psychologically (Haakma, et al., 2017), and thus the parental guidance develops a 'with the flow' direction. In light of these things, and to foster this, one must use coercion and favor autonomous support, in combination with structure.

In the spirit of MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), it can be said also that a child who reveals a will or a pattern of negative behavior in fact holds an ambivalent position which is indeed decided in any given moment in a negative direction, but if parents act properly, they have the ability to help the child to solve the ambivalent position in the direction of a positive change. Therefore, the conversation of parents with their children should be a conversation of trust, both in routine and in conflict.

The use of MI for the purpose of discussion between parents and their children is the main innovation of this model, in the opinion of the researcher. Because MI, along with the autonomous style it takes, is a guiding approach (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), its

principles can serve as a basis for parent-child conversation. The combination of the autonomy-supporting style and the pursuit of a definite direction creates an effective language for parents. In this way, a structure can be established without being forced based on coercion, while at the same time avoiding being dragged into a permissive style, whose failure was proven several decades ago (Wischerth, et al., 2016).

In times of routine, it will be expressed by parents emphasizing the positive sides of a child's behavior in order to make him have a sense of success and self-competence (Silva, et al., 2014). For this purpose, age-adjusted encouragements should be used, which will emphasize from a young age the effort a child has invested, and in older age will reflect the success in action (Ames, 1990), with a specific description of the success.

When challenge is standing in the doorway, like the beginning of the school year, parents will talk to the child and help him define targets for himself. Parents will help a child define targets that will constitute a challenge on one hand, but will have high chances of success with reasonable effort. Additionally, they will provide a child with strategies to achieve those targets (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018). The talks will be done in an atmosphere of cooperation, and out of the basic premise that a child himself wants to succeed, and a parent is here in order to help. The parent will enable the child to suggest possible targets and strategies, and will intervene through guiding questions. Only when the child has exhausted his ability to consolidate the strategies will the parent add his ideas.

If the child doesn't believe in himself, the parent will find out with the child what, in his opinion, he is able to do, and suggest these tasks be the first ones. After a child experiences successes, it will be possible to move up the difficulty level of tasks together with the child (Miller & Rollnick, 2013; Simpkins, 2015).

As another way to increase the feeling of ability and success, parents will help the child to acquire different skills, and to practice them, so that he achieves maximal success (Silva, et al., 2014). It is recommended that parents enable the child to have extracurricular activities according to his fields of interest, and to encourage him gently to invest in them. Encouragement will be without any pressure, in order not to hurt the intrinsic motivation of the child to learn the subject.

In order to form this level of cooperation with the child, and to help the child to have faith in himself, the child needs to feel that his parents are happy with him and appreciate him. For this purpose, parents should often show affection to children and create a conversation based on mutual respect. A parent who has difficulties feeling deep affection for his child will be invited to handle that individually. Parents will be able to express affection both as part of the current conversation and by buying, from time to time, little unpredictable presents or performing other gestures which express the fact that the parent thought about the child during the day.

Additionally, it is very important that regular conversations at home are caring and sensitive. The basic premise is that a child who feels that his parents listen to his personality and his needs (Juffer & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2018), and that they don't act out of personal interest and narcissistic motivations, will trust them and let them lead him more easily.

Another significant way to express affection and caring is the extent of availability of a parent and his ability to intervene fast and efficiently when the child needs help (Juffer & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2018).

Another important ingredient in creating the desired conversation between parents and children is reducing language of coercion and adding explanations to ethical guidance or tasks given to a child (Gillison, Rouse, Standage, Sebire, & Ryan, 2019). For this purpose, it is recommended that parents include the child in choosing tasks and their execution time (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2019). As it is possible, it is worthwhile to help him choose tasks that are adjusted to his preferences and his fields of interest (Assor, 2005). In order to enable a proper routine for home life, it is possible to talk to a child in advance and to define with him what tasks will be under his responsibility and when he should execute them. The child will be invited to put forward his suggestions, and the parent will guide him in the consolidation of a plan that will be accepted by the parent. When there is a need to remind the child to execute the tasks, it is recommended that parents use humor in order to reduce the feeling of coercion.

Family atmosphere has a central role in creating a sense of relatedness (Di Pasquale & Rivolta, 2018) and a sense of safe base (Fearon & Roisman, 2017), which intensifies the self-confidence of a child and the feeling of 'unit pride' that strengthens the tendency of the child to internalize the values of the family (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Parents should create a pleasant and non-competitive atmosphere at home and create efficient ways to resolve conflicts amongst family members.

A pleasant atmosphere could be created by creating a conversational culture between parents, in order to emphasize to the children how interpersonal relationships should be formed and how conflicts are resolved in those relationships. A conversation of the parents with the children as well, in the spirit of things written above – showing affection, respect and trust – will create the wanted family atmosphere.

It is most worthwhile to insist on a routine of family meals, in order to invite an opportunity of close contact, passing information between family members and creating an experience of closeness and relatedness (Omer, et al., 2016).

It is recommended that parents maintain a routine of family conversations, in which family members are invited to say positive things to one another or to raise conflicts for family discussions, in order to solve them in the best possible way. In this conversation, parents will insist on respect and attentive conversation, in order for every family member to feel that his matters are important for the entire family.

Additionally, it is advised to insist on a non-competitive family atmosphere and on mutual family activities, with an aspiration that each family member has a part in the organization.

Parents will create frames of ethical discussions with their children in order to discuss the core values they wish to instill in their children and enable the children to argue for and against those values. When possible, it is recommended that parents deal with explaining those values in an experimental and interesting way. In any case, parents should avoid using a preaching style (Assor, 2005).

In order to reinforce the connection of parents with the children, it is recommended that each parent creates a steady frame of personal talk, once a week or once every two weeks, with each child (if it is a large family, the talk may be held once every two weeks). In these talks, the parent will be attentive to the child and will enable him to express negative feelings as well, including, should they come up, regarding values that are important to the parent (Assor, 2005).

4.3.2. Resolution of conflicts and handling of negative behavior

In general, in order to prevent the advent of negative behavior, it is important to insist on structuring a home routine and the required rules of behavior in a clear way that is understood to all, in order to give the child a feeling of a steady and understood world (Omer, et al., 2013). The rules must be clear; however, they should not be too strict (Minuchin, 2003).

Additionally, parents should supervise the child regularly, with a flexible transition between the three supervision levels (Omer, et al., 2016), according to the situation. In routine: open attention during the appearance of any sign of distress; focused alertness during an arousal of actual danger as a result of the behavior of an adolescent or his social relations; active defense, through methods of NVR (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016). Parents should know that their supervision of the child is not a nuisance, but rather one of their basic duties as parents. This understanding will benefit the reduction of guilt of the parents regarding accusations of the child that they 'bother' him with their constant supervision. Parents who feel less guilty will be able to 'market' the supervision to a child in another way and explain to him that they are interested in his actions and his friends since they love him and care about him (Omer, et al., 2013).

Open attention in routine is achieved by constant interest in the life of the child, while abstaining from using an invasive style. Parents will maintain a 'routine of contacts,' meaning a constant frame which invites opportunities for contact with the child and strengthens the presence of the parent in the child's awareness (as in driving a child to and from school). This routine will enable the parent to pay attention to whether the child is exceeding his normal behavior, in which case the need to raise the level of supervision will arise. Additionally, with the reduction of expressions of coercion in conversation with the child and allowing as much autonomy as possible, parents will demand to know about the actions of the child, such as where he goes and with whom and when he is going to come back home (Omer, et al., 2013). Parents will explain to the child that they trust him as long as he shows responsibility and tells them about his actions.

The researcher assumes that employing the tools given above for empowerment of the intrinsic motivation of a child will sharply reduce the need for tools of parental authority; however, it seems that the actual parental authority should never be given up.

A child needs to feel that there are authority figures in his environment that he can lean on, and who can help him organize his internal world, his self-regulation ability and his defense from his urges. The basic hypothesis is that authority does not harm attachment in its essence, but rather is used as a kind of anchor which stabilizes the child in a safe haven and a secure base, which the parents should provide him according to attachment theory. However, the use of tools of strict authority – that is, based on distance, punishment and conditional love – might indeed harm attachment, and therefore, parental authority should be based on non-violent tools (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016).

When a need for educational intervention of some sort arises, parents will first address the child, reflect the situation to him, and invite him to suggest solutions of his own. Parents should pay very serious attention to the suggestions of a child, even if they do not agree with the practical solution, and discuss with him how his suggestion can be improved so it fits the demands of the parents. In this conversation, it is recommended that parents insist upon using an MI style of conversation (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Conversation through an MI style can serve parents should they feel a child tends towards some negative direction, such as when a child exhibits a negative attitude towards school or tends to adopt negative values from his friends. In this case, parents would like to encourage positive change. For that, they can choose between using tools of parental authority and talking to a child in an MI style.

The researcher suggests, for a criterion of choosing intervention means, the question of whether an immediate change is required, in order to prevent irreversible damages, or whether it is possible to enable a slow process, in order to strengthen internalization. If an immediate change is required, parents should begin a conversation with the child and try to recruit him to the process by giving him the option to suggest how he wants to act in order to make the change. However, in this case parents should express a clear position.

If a slower process is possible, the researcher recommends that parents talk to the child in the spirit of MI.

The basis for all things, which will receive a central emphasis in the model, is the assumption that a child is ambivalent in his resistance, and therefore the language of change should be intensified, instead of confronting resistance. For this purpose, an

empathic style should be used, and the child should be included in the entire process, while encouraging stating the position of the child as well as profound and visible listening in order to enable autonomic examination, self-decision and action out of self-motivation. Parents will learn how to tune their listening during a conversation with the child to identify expressions of change talk. Change talk is a combination of these four components: expressing shortcomings of the existing situation; expressing benefits of the expected condition; faith in ability to make a change; intention for change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

When a parent identifies the components of change talk, he will intensify them by reflective listening, while emphasizing the components of change talk in the statements of the child, and a weakened reflection of the components of resistance language in his statements. This way, the child will increasingly express the side that identifies with positive change, and the chances of him choosing to resolve the ambivalence in a positive direction will grow.

The parent should avoid hurrying to express his position, and instead, he should help the child to resolve the ambivalence, in order to identify by himself those elements which encourage the solution to ambivalence in a positive direction. For that purpose, the parent should create an empathic and non-judgmental atmosphere and encourage examination by the child, with the help of employing open questions and the encouragement of any non-adjusted feeling between the aspirations and values of the child and his current behavior. Only after the child has internalized the importance of change sufficiently should the parent help him to formulate the action plan which will help him to achieve the change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Sometimes parents will probably find it difficult to learn this change-language, both due to its complexity and due to them having difficulty accepting the change talk as compared to small practical progress. Therefore, it is very important to explain the lack of benefit in confronting resistance, and to give parents a simple and structured strategy to intensify change-talk and to create a practical plan with the child, after he has been recruited for execution of the change. It should be assumed that this component of the model is the hardest one to apply, and therefore, there is a need for practice. A practice group can be used for this purpose.

4.3.3. Intervention instances in risky situations or problems with extreme behavior

When problematic or dangerous behaviors develop, parents frequently tend to develop a feeling of stress and panic, and they may react forcefully and damagingly. Therefore, it is very important to give them effective tools which will be used during these times, and which will help them to anchor themselves and respond wisely and effectively.

The researcher believes that the NVR protocol (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016) for dealing with these conditions is most effective in achieving results and inhibiting risk behaviors, without severely damaging parent-child contact, and without causing the parent to lose control. As stated above, this protocol has been investigated in a variety of situations, and has been shown to be effective (Coogan & Lauster, 2014; Gleniusz, 2014; Golan, et al., 2018; Heismann, et al., 2019; Jakob, 2014; Lebowitz, Marin, Martino, Shimshoni, & Silverman, 2019).

4.4. Proposal for a parent training course structure based on the proposed model

In order to train parents for the effective use of the method, the researcher proposes holding an 8-session course, according to the following details:

Session 1 - The model of principles. Parents will learn about the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and the three core needs which should be satisfied to encourage the development of intrinsic motivation, according to the SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000; 2017).

Session 2 - Developing a sense of belonging. In this session, parents will learn the principles of attachment theory and how it can be applied in parenting. As an introduction to the next session, this meeting will also explain 'the anchoring function' (Omer, et al., 2013), which explains the need for parental structure and authority using the concepts of attachment theory.

Session 3 - Developing a sense of competence. Parents will learn how to enhance their children's self-competence. Emphasis will be placed on the issue of parental structure and authority.

Session 4 - Developing a sense of autonomy. Parents will learn the importance of supporting autonomy, and how it is possible to give choices without damaging the structure.

Session 5 - Communication with children. Parents will learn basic communication tools to use with children (empathy, open-ended questions, reflection, validation, etc.).

Session 6 - The spirit of MI. Parents will learn the principles of MI and the four components of the MI spirit, and how they can be applied according to the principles learned so far.

Session 7 - MI tools. Parents will learn how to use 'change-language' and how to deal with 'resistance-language.'

Session 8 - Dealing with severe behavioral problems according to NRV (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016). This session will only be offered to parents who are dealing with children who exhibit problematic or dangerous behavior.

4.5. Research summary

This study sought to trace the parenting style components that reinforce values internalization and intrinsic motivation development. In light of the findings, a detailed integrative model, designed to serve as a guide for parents, was developed for their parenting path, focusing on intrinsic motivation development.

The theoretical background for the model was based on SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000; 2017), MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), NVR (Omer & Lebowitz, 2016), attachment-theory (Bowlby, 1982), and the findings of the current quantitative and qualitative studies.

A significant innovation in this model is the integration of MI – a theory that has a broad research base and application in the field of school care and education – in the field of parenting.

The current study demonstrates the central place of the instilling of values in parenting processes. All participants related to the values their parents instilled in them, and the intensity with which they acquired those values attests to the focal place parents attributed to them. The principle values according to which parents educate are honesty,

love, help and respect for others, religion and tradition, diligence and toil, modesty, virtue, love of the motherland, excellence and ambition. Similar to what has been written in the professional literature reviewed here, the current study highlights the significant place of parents in the lives of their children, and the fact that the values of parents are internalized in their children in such a way that upon maturity, the parents' values also constitute their children's core values.

Additionally, it can be seen clearly that parenting which integrates attentiveness, explaining, and empathic discourse, with the setting of limits in a determined manner, encourages internalization of the values of the parents. Opposite to this, authoritative and strict parenting, which does not allow an open discourse, dims the intensity of internalization of values in a child; however, this does not harm it completely. This can be explained by the child's need for attachment, which causes intense motivation for him to please his parents and gain their appreciation, and therefore, he adopts their values, even if he does not feel fully appreciative towards his parents. Prominent parental attributes that encourage internalization of values are honesty, caring and devotion, warmth and love, self-purpose and self-fulfillment, patience and serenity, and diligence. Oppositely, attributes like anger, stiffness, and lack of containment harmed the parental figure in the eyes of the child and dimmed the intensity of internalization of values.

4.6. The limitations of the current study

Regarding the quantitative part of the current study, the limitations are relatively numerous because it is essentially a preliminary study aimed at obtaining a basic overview of the existing state of the MI spirit in parenting. This area has not been previously tested, and this article seeks to stimulate research in this field. The sample on which the study was conducted (n = 42) is small, and the study was conducted only in Israel. In addition, the age range is quite large because the researchers wanted to gain a broad perspective on the topic, but more focused research is needed in the future. Another significant limitation is testing the four MI components in general, without subdividing them into sub-components. More detailed research could give much more accurate results.

The limitations of the quantitative part are also related to the small and geographically diverse sample. In addition, there is room for in-depth interviews with participants to broaden the understanding of how the foundational traits and parental strategies found to be effective influence the internalization of values.

4.7. Recommendations for future research

First and foremost, in light of the current study, the researcher will propose a model for intrinsic motivation-oriented parenting. After the model is formulated, there will be significant benefit in teaching it to parents and studying whether those parents using the model are indeed rewarded with their children internalizing their values and developing intrinsic motivation to act according to those values for the rest of their lives.

Additionally, in the current study it appears that while nearly all participants who reported little or partial internalization of the values of their parents claimed that their parents were not attentive to them and exerted harsh authority, the opposite relationship cannot be observed, but rather, there are respondents who reported that their parents were harsh and not attentive, and still reported full internalization of their values. As stated, this can be attributed to the process of attachment, but there is still room for further study on this subject.

Future quantitative research could include research on a broader sample, additional geographies, and a more targeted age range. It is also recommended that researchers check the sub-components of the MI spirit.

This study can be expanded to examine the impact of parenting in the spirit of MI on various variables in children's development: internalization of values, intrinsic motivation, well-being, self-confidence, self-efficacy, and reduction of negative effects such as addiction, depression, anxiety and more.

In addition, it is very important to investigate the correlation between the MI spirit components in parental style and the degree of internalization of values by their children. A clue to the answers to this can be found by combining the findings of the current quantitative study with the current qualitative research, but there is scope for accurate research with valid data.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A – RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire was sent to participants of the study by e-mail.

	First part – values
1	Tell what are the central values according to which your parents educated you.
2	Describe the place those values hold in your life today.
3	Should your father be asked what he thinks of your life today, what do you think he would have answered?
4	Should your mother be asked what she thinks of your life today, what do you think she would have answered?
	Second part – parenting style
5	Describe the way your parents set limits for you?
6	Were your parents attentive to you? Give 2 examples.
7	How were conversations conducted at home – give an example.
8	When there was a conflict between you and the parents – describe the way the conflict was resolved.
9	A. Describe a situation in which you were loyal to the values your parents instilled you with, when they were not present, despite the fact it was a challenge for you. B. What made you be loyal to these values?
10	A. What are the characteristics of you parents which were significant to your opinion, that made you stick to their values? B. What are the characteristics of your parents, which made you avoid sticking to their values?

APENDIX-B- ARTICLE

REVISTA ESPACIOS SSN 0798-1015

Caracas, August 16, 2020

ESHDAT, Arie
RUIZ-ESTEBAN, Cecilia cruiz@um.es
MENDEZ, Inmaculada
200731RUIZ

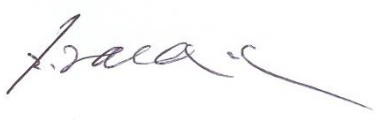
Dear authors.

Your paper “Parenting in the Spirit of Motivational Interviewing” has been accepted flor publication.

The referee´s opinion is “An interesting preliminary study related to Parenting in the Spirit of Motivational Interviewing, aimed at obtaining a basic overview of the existing state of the MI spirit in parenting.

It is recommended to be published.

Sincerely



Renato Valdivieso
Editor

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