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## Childhood Experiences and Needs: Parental Goals, Mistakes, and Personality Traits and Their Adult Daughters' Ability to Meet Their Needs

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### Abstract

**Objectives of the research:** The purpose of this study was to determine whether women's childhood experiences are related to their ability to meet their needs in adulthood.

**Research methods:** The survey was conducted online with a random sample of 402 women between the ages of 21 and 50. In order to answer the research questions, text mining algorithms and cluster analysis carried out by data mining algorithms were used.

**A short description of the context of the issue:** The ability to fulfill one's needs is an important determinant of personal happiness, well-being and mental health. The study examined whether women who had experienced fewer parental mistakes were better at meeting their needs, and whether there were intergroup differences between women who were more and less efficient at fulfilling their needs in terms of the personality traits their parents tried to mold in them during childhood and the personality traits that the women developed.

**Research findings:** The results revealed that women who experienced fewer parenting errors in childhood and whose parents tried to shape in them personality traits such as Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus) and Integration (Gamma-Plus) indeed developed these traits and were more effective in fulfilling their needs in adulthood.

**Conclusions and recommendations:** Experiencing more parenting mistakes in childhood is associated with the development of unfavorable personality traits and lower competence in meeting needs in adulthood.

**Keywords:** parenting goals, personality project, personality traits, parenting mistakes, satisfying needs

### Need Satisfaction and Experiencing Happiness

The relationship between the satisfaction of needs and the experience of happiness was one of the main themes of the work of Abraham Maslow, who created the theory of the hierarchy of needs (Miner et al., 2013). According to Maslow, people must have their needs satisfied in order to achieve happiness. The link between need satisfaction and happiness is confirmed by numerous studies (Drakopoulos, 2008).

Maslow described five classes of needs. *Physiological needs*, such as drinking, eating, sleeping or breathing, are necessary for survival. Their satisfaction is fundamental to human existence and the satisfaction of other needs, such as the *need for security*.

The need for security concerns not only physical security, but also social and psychological security. Satisfying this need allows one to focus on the *need for belonging and love*, or the need for closeness, friendship and maintaining relationships with other people. Failure to satisfy this need can lead to social isolation, alienation and depression. Next is the *need for esteem, respect, prestige* and recognition of one's uniqueness, as well as appreciation of one's talents and a sense of accomplishment. Satisfying this need paves the way for satisfying the last need in the hierarchy, that is, *the need for self-actualization*: reaching one's full potential. (Winston, 2018).

According to Maslow (1964a), some people who have satisfied the need for self-actualization experience a so-called *peak experience*, which can be similar to a mystical experience and is a profound experience of happiness. Contemporary research seems to confirm the link between the satisfaction of needs in the hierarchy and the experience of happiness (Şimşek & Demir, 2013).

### **The Source of Satisfaction of Needs in Childhood**

Satisfying needs is a learned skill. To achieve happiness, one must learn to be happy. This is a process that begins during a child's upbringing (Şimşek & Demir, 2013). Parents shape their children's competence in meeting needs by teaching them various activities, such as eating, going to sleep on their own, or otherwise handling their own needs independently. This is a process called scaffolding (John et al., 2018). As a result of this process, the adult is able to take care of his or her needs. For a child to learn how to meet their own needs, adult help is needed. When a parent teaches a child the rules of social behavior, including ways of meeting one's needs, he/she transfers some of his/her parental control (Szymańska, 2017a). While taking care of the child's needs, the parent simultaneously cares for the proper development of the child's personality (Millon and Davis, 1996; Prince and Howard, 2002).

### **Satisfying needs in adulthood and the experience of parenting mistakes in childhood**

However, for this process to be successful, parenting must proceed without major disruptions. These disruptions can involve events and situations that can be considered erroneous. Sometimes these may include parental behaviors that are detrimental to the child's development. These are usually called *parental mistakes* (Gurycka, 1990). Depending on the theory, different parental behaviors are classified as incorrect. However,

many studies confirm that certain parental behaviors, such as aggression, excessive strictness, constraining the child's activity, indifference, pampering the child, or doing various activities for the child instead of letting him/her learn the activity, can have adverse effects on the child's development (Millon & Davis, 1996).

Can the experience of these parental mistakes in childhood interfere with the process of learning to satisfy one's needs, and consequently contribute to lower need satisfaction in adulthood? According to psychological theories, the answer is yes. A child who often witnesses such parental behavior experiences a great deal of stress, which disrupts the learning process. A parent who frequently makes mistakes not only fails to satisfy the child's legitimate needs, such as the need for security, but can also disturb the child's internal balance. The child may then experience difficulties in learning how to meet these needs (Şimşek & Demir, 2013). Therefore, parental errors have an impact in two ways: on the one hand, they disrupt the child's current needs, and on the other, they make the child unable to learn how to meet his/her own needs. This study tested whether experiencing parental mistakes in childhood is associated with lower levels of need fulfillment in adulthood. This was the first research hypothesis (H1).

**Parents' upbringing goals and children's need satisfaction in adulthood.** In the process of upbringing, parents shape their children's personality. They do this by, among others, by choosing parenting goals, sometimes referred to as the *personality project* (Gurycka, 1979; Levine, 1974). These selected traits can, in turn shape the children's ability to meet their own needs: research shows that need satisfaction is related to personality traits (Nishimura & Suzuki, 2016). Therefore, this study tested the co-occurrence between adult women's perceptions of their parents' parenting goals (what personality traits they wanted to shape in them) and their level of need satisfaction. This was the second research hypothesis (H2).

**Parental goals and mistakes and the formation of a child's personality.** Parental goals or the personality project, together with parental mistakes, are activities that determine the child's experience (pathways in the

model, see Figure 1). This experience consists of the following: (a) a record of what happened (descriptive information), (b) whether what happened was good or bad (evaluative information), and (c) how the child will act in similar situations in the future (programmatic information, Gurycka, 1985). Descriptive information includes data on the child's perceptions of the parents' goals and mistakes, evaluative information – data on whether the parents' attitudes and goals were right or wrong, and programmatic information – on how to cope in the future, for example, when someone is being aggressive. Apart from this information, the experience also includes data on how the child felt (emotions), what the child thought (mental activity), what kind of relationship the child had with the parent (relational contact), and how the child behaved (Greenberg, 2002). This experience, when repeated, creates tendencies that later develop into personality patterns (Gurycka, 1990; Millon & Davis, 1996; Millon, 2010). Of course, the child does not remember all the events that he/she experienced. According to Howe (2000), this is impossible even with highly emotional events. However, what is remembered is a generalized representation of these events. Therefore, examining children's experiences of their parents' goals and mistakes means examining their mental representations.

Since the beginning of psychology, parenting mistakes and negative childhood experiences have been associated with personality development, especially personality disorders (Kutter, 2000; Millon & Davis, 1996). Contemporary psychotherapeutic research confirms that people struggling with severe personality problems had difficult childhoods and numerous painful experiences (Millon & Davis, 1996). Is the development of certain *personality meta-traits* associated with higher or lower levels of parental mistakes experienced in childhood? This was the third research hypothesis (H3). Is it related to the shaping of specific personality traits? This was the fourth research hypothesis (H4). If the answers to these questions are yes, it can be said that future well-being and happiness are related to childhood experiences.

**Personality traits and need satisfaction.** The ability to meet one's needs is also related to personality type. Studies show that need satisfaction is

positively correlated with extraversion and openness to experience, low agreeableness and conscientiousness, and negatively correlated with neuroticism (Nishimura & Suzuki, 2016).

Contemporary research on Big Five traits reveals that there are personality types in the population that are combinations of the Big Five traits (DeYoung et al., 2002; Strus et al., 2014).

Guided by research findings revealing that the Big Five personality traits are related to the ability to meet one's needs, this study examined whether those with higher levels of need satisfaction are more likely to manifest certain meta-traits? This was the fifth research hypothesis (H5).

## Method

### Research Objective and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine whether there is a co-occurrence between the level of parental mistakes experienced in childhood, the personality traits shaped by parents, the personality traits actually developed, and the level of need satisfaction in adult women. Figure 1 depicts a model that shows the relationship between (a) parental goals, or the personality project that parents shape in their children, (b) parental mistakes, (c) the child's perception of parental goals and parental errors, or the child's experience, (d) the child's personality traits, and (e) the level of need satisfaction.

In the proposed model, personality moderates the relationship between childhood experiences and the ability to meet one's needs. Therefore, depending on the child's personality, the relationship between childhood experiences and the level of need satisfaction may be buffered or may lead to a synergy effect (Nowak, 2007).

The objective of this study was to investigate the potential correlation between the extent of parental mistakes encountered in childhood, the personality traits influenced by parents, the personality traits developed over time and the level of need fulfillment in adult women. Accordingly, the study verified the following hypotheses:

**H1:** Women who experienced more parental errors in childhood have lower levels of need satisfaction in adulthood.

**H2:** Women who have higher and lower levels of need fulfillment differ in terms of the personal qualities that their parents tried to develop in them.

**H3:** Women who experienced fewer parenting mistakes (both mothers' and fathers') exhibit more plus-type personality traits, while those who experienced more parenting mistakes exhibit minus-type traits.

**H4:** Women develop more strongly those personality traits that their parents tried to develop in them.

**H5:** Women with plus-type personality traits have a greater need for fulfillment than women with minus-type traits.

### **Approval of the Research Ethics Committee**

All procedures involving human participants in the study were in accordance with ethical standards. The research received approval from the Research Ethics Committee of the Institute of Psychology of the Białystok School of Public Administration on December 10, 2015.

### **Research Sample and Procedure**

The survey was conducted online in 2018. Using the  $k = 2$  operator, kindergartens were randomly selected from a list compiled by the Ministry of Education for each voivodship.

The study included 402 women between the ages of 21 and 50 ( $M = 34$ ,  $SD = 5.4$ ), with the largest representation of those between the ages of 28 and 39.

### **Variables**

The main dependent variable was the level of satisfaction of the women's needs. The independent variables were (a) the women's mental representations of their parents' parenting goals, i.e., the personality traits that their parents wanted to develop in the women during their childhood (according to their perceptions), (b) the women's mental representations

of the parental mistakes they experienced during their childhood, and (c) the women's personality traits.

**Representation of parenting goals.** *Parenting goals* are the various personality traits that parents want to develop in their children. They are sometimes called the personality project (Gurycka, 1979). The discrepancy scale was used to study the parental goals and the child's level of development in terms of the traits shaped by the parents (Szymańska & Dobrenko, 2017).

**Representation of parenting mistakes.** Parenting mistakes are situations or parental attitudes that cause adverse effects in the child's *development* (Gurycka, 1990, 2008). Parental mistakes include such parental behaviors as (a) strictness, (b) aggression, (c) constraining the child's activities, (d) indifference to the child and his or her affairs, (e) the parent's self-accentuation, that is, overly focusing on the parent's own image of the child, (f) pampering the child, (g) doing things for the child, (h) idealizing the child, and (i) inconsistency.

The mental representation of parental mistakes reflects how the child experienced these mistakes. This study analyzed women's experiences of parenting mistakes (the mistakes of mothers and of fathers were analyzed separately). The study used a questionnaire to examine the mental representation of parenting mistakes developed by Gurycka (author of the theory of parental mistakes) to assess the children's perceptions of parenting errors. (Gurycka, 1990).

**Personality traits.** According to Cattell, they constitute the "mental structure of personality" (Strelau, 2001, p.533). This study refers to the Circumplex Personality Model by Strus et al. (2014). In this model, the authors describe eight personality meta-traits consisting of combinations of Big Five traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992). These are: Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus), Self-restraint (Delta-Plus), Integration (Gamma-Plus), Disinhibition (Alpha-Minus), Passiveness (Beta-Minus), Sensation seeking (Delta-Minus) and Disharmony (Gamma-Minus) (Strus et al., 2014a).

**Meeting one's needs.** This is a variable that consists of five corresponding to the needs described by Maslow in his pyramid of needs: (a) physiological, (b) security, (c) belonging and love, (d) need for esteem,



and (e) self-actualization. (Maslow, 1964b). According to Maslow, human needs are arranged in a hierarchy, and a person can meet higher-level needs when he/she has satisfied lower-level needs. The Needs Satisfaction Inventory, which was created by Lester (2013) and adapted to Polish conditions by Jarosław Jastrzębski was used to measure needs according to Maslow's concept of the hierarchy of needs.

### **Data Analysis Method**

The study used two data analysis methods. The first was text mining algorithms and the second was data mining algorithms that carried out a cluster analysis (Elder et al., 2012). The text mining algorithms counted the personality traits that the women surveyed listed as goals of their parents (Szymańska, 2017b) and created new binary variables that represented each personality trait that the women mentioned. These new variables were sequentially classified into one of the eight dimensions described in the Circumplex Personality Model of Strus et al. (2014). In this way, parents' parenting goals were represented in the form of a personality project. As was revealed, the minus meta-traits corresponded only to traits considered undesirable. Accordingly, the higher the women's scores on the minus traits of parental goals, the more often their parents listed these traits as undesirable (see Figures 2, 3 and 4).

The second method of analysis involved data mining algorithms performing cluster analysis. They extracted clusters of individuals who were similar in terms of their level of need satisfaction, their experience of parental mistakes, and the personality traits that their parents wanted to develop in them, as well as the personality traits they actually had. This method made it possible to determine the significance of differences between the clusters, to determine how strong the effect size was, and, using a standardized mean, to show how strong each variable was within a group (whether scores were low, medium or high) (Elder et al., 2012).

## Results

Cluster analysis identified two groups of women who had similar scores on the following variables: (a) the perception of their parents' parenting goals, (b) the level of parenting errors experienced, (c) personality traits, and (d) the level of satisfaction of one's own needs (see Figure 2). The algorithms classified 192 women into the first cluster, 48% of the sample, and 210 women into the second, 52% of the sample.

There were slight differences between the two groups of women in terms of personality traits shaped by their parents (see Table 1).

There were medium differences between clusters for experiencing the following parental mistakes: aggression, constraining the child's activities, and the parent's self-accentuation. The differences were small and/or very small for the experience of the following mistakes: strictness, pampering the child, doing the child's tasks for them, idealization and inconsistency. On the other hand, they were large for the experience of parental indifference (see Table 1).

Large differences between the clusters were found for the following variables: Plasticity (Beta-Plus), Integration (Gamma-Plus), Disinhibition (Alpha-Minus), Passiveness (Beta-Minus) and Disharmony (Gamma-Minus). The differences were medium for Stability (Alpha-Plus) and very small for Self-restraint (Delta-Plus) and Sensation-seeking (Delta-Minus).

Both clusters were characterized by large effects for all needs. The women in both clusters differed significantly in terms of being able to meet their own needs.

Parents of women who belonged to the first cluster developed in them the trait of Self-restraint (Delta-Plus), and also tried to ensure that their daughters did not develop the trait of Sensation seeking (Delta-Minus), which is the opposite of Self-restraint.

Women in the first cluster experienced parental mistakes of strictness, aggression, constraining of activity, indifference, parental self-accentuation, being pampered, being idealized, and facing a lack of consequences at a moderate degree, which was higher than for the women in the second cluster. Women in this cluster had also been replaced in their duties by

their parents to a low extent, and they experienced the mistake of parental indifference to the greatest extent.

They exhibited significantly lower levels of personality traits such as Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus) and Integration (Gamma-Plus), as well as significantly higher levels of Passiveness (Beta-Minus) and Disharmony (Gamma-Minus).

Their levels of need satisfaction were also significantly lower than that of women in the second cluster (satisfaction at a moderate level, with a normalized mean ranging from 0.40 to 0.70). The second cluster consisted of women whose parents primarily developed in them the traits of Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus) and Integration (Gamma-Plus). They also made sure that their daughters did not develop the trait of Sensation seeking (Delta-Minus).

These women experienced low levels of aggression, activity restriction, parental self-accentuation, being pampered, being relieved in their duties and inconsistency. They experienced strictness, indifference and being idealized at a moderate level. Regarding personality traits, women belonging to this cluster reported high Integration, moderate (elevated) Stability (Alpha-Plus) and Plasticity (Beta-Plus) and low Disinhibition (Alpha-Minus) and Disharmony (Gamma-Minus). The subjects satisfied the needs for belonging and love, self-esteem and self-actualization at a high level, and physiological and safety needs at a moderate level.

The results confirmed the first hypothesis. Lower levels of need satisfaction in adulthood were primarily related to higher levels of parental mistakes, above all the mistake of indifference, in childhood. Conversely, higher levels of need satisfaction coincided with lower levels of parental mistakes experienced in childhood.

The second research question was also answered. A lower level of need satisfaction in adulthood was associated with having traits like Self-restraint (Delta-Plus) developed in childhood. On the other hand, higher levels of need satisfaction in adulthood were associated with traits such as Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus) and Integration (Gamma-Plus) that were developed in childhood. The results clearly support the

validity of the first and second hypotheses. Childhood experiences are related to the satisfaction of needs in adulthood.

The third hypothesis was also confirmed. Lower levels of experiencing parental mistakes coincided with the development of plus-type personality traits, especially Integrated Personality (Gamma-Plus), which was the most desirable type, as well as Stability (Alpha-Plus) and Plasticity (Beta-Plus). Higher levels of parental errors were associated with the development of minus-type personality traits, especially Passiveness (Beta-Minus) and Disharmony (Gamma-Minus).

Finally, the fourth hypothesis was confirmed. The development of specific personality traits co-occurred with adult women's identification of these traits as their parents' parenting goals. This result held true for the traits of Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus), and Integration (Gamma-Plus), but only for women whose parents made fewer mistakes overall. Adult women who experienced more parental mistakes in their childhood did not develop the traits they indicated as their parents' parenting goals.

The results also confirm the fifth hypothesis. Plus-type personality traits, that is, Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus), and Integration (Gamma-Plus), co-occurred with higher levels of need satisfaction, while higher levels of minus features (Passiveness, i.e., Beta-Minus, and Disharmony i.e., Gamma-Minus) were related to lower levels of need satisfaction.

The same analysis was made for the internal representation of adult women's relationships with their mothers, that is, for the women's perceptions of parental mistakes made by their mothers, as well as the personality traits that their mothers wanted to develop in them. Cluster analysis revealed the existence of two clusters of women similar in terms of variable scores (see Figure 3). The first cluster comprised 193 women (48% of the total sample), while the second cluster included 209 women (52% of the sample). Differences between the clusters were small and very small for personality traits shaped by the parents, with the exception of self-restraint (Delta-Plus), in which the distances between the clusters were of medium size (see Table 2). Differences between clusters were high for the parenting mistakes of aggression, activity restriction, indifference,

parental self-accentuation and inconsistency Differences were average for the mistake of strictness and small for pampering, doing things for the child and idealization. There were large differences between clusters in fulfilling the need for safety, belongingness and love, physiological needs, and medium differences between the need for self-esteem and self-actualization.

Summarizing the results obtained in this part of the analysis, it should be noted that they confirm the conclusions of the first analysis. The fewer parenting errors women experienced in childhood, the better they were at meeting their needs in adulthood (H1). They exhibited plus-type personality traits to a greater degree (H3). Better need satisfaction was related to the fact that their parents developed Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus) and Integration (Gamma-Plus) in them, and prevented the development of Disinhibition (Alpha-Minus, H2). Women indeed developed those traits that their mothers wanted them to develop more strongly, but only if their mothers did not make too many parenting mistakes (H4). Women with stronger plus-type personality traits were also better able to meet their needs (H5).

The final analysis was carried out to examine the relationship between the women's need satisfaction, their personality traits, their memories of their fathers' parenting mistakes, and the personality traits that their fathers wanted to develop in them. Cluster analysis again identified two groups of women based on outcome variables (see Figure 4). It classified 179 women into the first cluster (45% of the total sample) and 223 women into the second cluster (55% of the sample). Differences between the clusters were small for the personality traits that their fathers had shaped in the women, except for the traits of Stability (Alpha-Plus) and Self-restraint (Delta-Plus), for which the differences were medium (see Table 3). Differences between the clusters were high for the women's experience of the mistakes of aggression, activity restriction and parental indifference, while they were medium for their experience of parental self-accentuation, being idealized and facing and inconsistency, and small for the mistakes of strictness, being pampered and being relieved in their activities/duties. In terms of personality meta-traits, differences

between clusters were high for Integration (Gamma-Plus), Disinhibition (Alpha-Minus), and Disharmony (Gamma-Minus), medium for Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus), and Passiveness (Beta-Minus), and small for Self-restraint (Delta-Plus) and Sensation seeking (Delta-Minus). For all the needs, the differences between the two clusters proved to be large.

Also, an analysis of women's recollections of their experiences in their relationship with their fathers confirmed earlier findings. The fewer parenting mistakes the women experienced in childhood, the better they were at meeting their needs in adulthood (H1). Regarding their fathers, women in both clusters claimed that they experienced more indifference than from their mothers. It was also confirmed that the women's need satisfaction was related to the fact that their fathers developed Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus), and Integration (Gamma-Plus) in them, and prevented the development of Disinhibition (Alpha Minus, H2). The results confirmed that fewer parenting errors of the fathers are associated with the development of plus-type personality traits in the daughters (H3). Women who developed the traits of Stability (Alpha-Plus), Plasticity (Beta-Plus), and Integration (Gamma-Plus) in childhood co-occurred with better need satisfaction in adulthood (H4). Plus-type meta-traits were associated with women's better need satisfaction (H5).

## Discussion

The study confirmed the hypotheses. It showed that the parents of women who had strong plus-type personality traits, especially Integration (Gamma-Plus), Stability (Alpha-Plus), and Plasticity (Beta-Plus), actually put more effort into developing these traits in them: these women did indeed display these traits in adulthood. Their parents also tried to prevent the development of Disinhibition (Alpha-Minus).

Women who had stronger plus-type personality traits were also better able to fulfill their needs. They had their physiological and safety needs met at moderate levels, and their needs for belonging and love,

self-esteem and self-actualization at high levels. In turn, women whose parents tried to develop Self-restraint (Delta-Plus) type traits (obedience, submission, docility) had weaker plus-type traits and minus-type traits at a similar, average level. These women were much less proficient at fulfilling their needs. All their needs were met at a moderate level.

The two groups of women differed significantly in the experience internalized from their relationships with their parents. Women whose parents developed plus-type traits in them and who, as adults, exhibited these traits strongly were very good at fulfilling their needs, as well as experienced significantly fewer parental mistakes from their parents, both mothers and fathers, during their childhood. Their experience of parenting mistakes (of both mothers and fathers) was moderate/low. On the other hand, women whose parents focused on developing restraint traits in them (Delta-Plus), who displayed similar levels of plus- and minus-type traits, and who were able to satisfy their needs on a moderate level, experienced significantly more parental mistakes, especially the mistake of indifference.

An analysis of the profiles shown in Figures 2, 3 and 4 makes it possible to clearly associate high scores in the experience of indifference with lower levels of needs satisfaction in adulthood, and at a similar, moderate level with plus- and minus-type personality traits. It can also be observed that high scores in needs satisfaction are accompanied by high scores in plus-type personality traits, particularly in the case of integrated personality, and low and moderate levels of parenting errors experienced in childhood.

The study was designed so that multiple groups of variables could be analyzed at the same time. This was possible by using data mining algorithms, which allowed grouping people similar to each other in terms of the variables analyzed, showing statistically significant differences and effect sizes between the groups. Thanks to the use of the normalized mean, it can be very quickly discerned whether a group's score was low, moderate or high. The study used two proprietary tools from the creators of the theories of parenting mistakes and the Circumplex Model of Personality, which was also a methodological advantage.

Unfortunately, a considerable limitation of this study was the retrospective analysis of the experiences of parental mistakes and goals. All data on childhood experiences were collected from adult women. Retrospective studies are known to be biased (Sato & Kawahara, 2011). In this case, however, the problem is of different nature. We examined the experience of parental mistakes or goals related to what the adult daughters remembered and how they understood these situations, not what happened. These aspects of the research are very important. We have not studied the actual situation, only the subjective experience or representation of past events. However, if we had asked their parents, instead of asking adult daughters, the material obtained would also have been retrospective. Again, we would not have received information about what really happened, but rather what the parents remembered. We would therefore be examining the subjective experiences of the parents.

However, it is the child's experiences of these events, not the parents', that shape the child's personality. Therefore, we investigated the experiences of adult women, because they were more closely related to how they function and what personality traits they exhibit in adulthood. In order to answer the question of what really happened, how the children experienced these situations and how their personalities developed as a result, longitudinal studies should be carried out (Babbie, 2007).

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## Tables

**Table 1. Analysis of Variance Results for the Cluster Analysis of Parental Goals and Mistakes, Personality Traits, and Need Satisfaction in Adult Women**

	Between SS	df	Within SS	df	F	p	$\eta^2$	Interpretation of $\eta^2$
Stability	17.90	1	814.15	400	8.7951	.003	.021	small
Plasticity	6.49	1	313.17	400	8.2952	.004	.020	small
Self-restraint	43.82	1	800.31	400	21.9036	.000	.052	small
Integration	6.13	1	165.95	400	14.7697	.000	.036	small
Disinhibition	18.96	1	721.97	400	10.5064	.001	.026	small
Passiveness	1.58	1	282.95	400	2.2367	.135	.005	very small
Sensation-seeking	8.65	1	672.41	400	5.1484	.023	.013	small
Disharmony	1.78	1	377.10	400	1.8829	.170	.005	very small
parents' strictness	125.20	1	14037.75	400	3.5675	.059	.009	very small
parents' aggression	1690.67	1	18577.91	400	36.4018	.000	.083	medium
constraining child's activity	2194.04	1	14837.98	400	59.1466	.000	.129	medium
parents' indifference	5832.56	1	27389.02	400	85.1809	.000	.175	big
parents' self-accentuation	1112.54	1	16141.45	400	27.5697	.000	.065	medium
parents' pandering to the child	603.07	1	15755.05	400	15.3111	.000	.037	small
replacing the child in their activities	75.08	1	16823.84	400	1.7850	.182	.004	very small
idealization of child by parents	891.08	1	22739.41	400	15.6747	.000	.038	small
parents' inconsistency	1013.44	1	20130.40	400	20.1376	.000	.048	small
Stability of daughters	887.62	1	6654.43	400	53.3548	.000	.118	medium
Plasticity of daughters	3085.14	1	12616.50	400	97.8128	.000	.196	big
Self-restraint of daughters	85.38	1	13137.69	400	2.5994	.108	.006	very small
Integration of daughters	3812.29	1	7425.74	400	205.3553	.000	.339	big
Disinhibition of daughters	2622.64	1	12335.64	400	85.0425	.000	.175	big
Passiveness of daughters	2530.65	1	10408.13	400	97.2567	.000	.195	big
Sensation-seeking of daughters	70.25	1	12959.20	400	2.1683	.141	.005	very small
Disharmony of daughters	9709.76	1	11455.82	400	339.0334	.000	.459	big
daughters' need of safety	9735.33	1	22517.58	400	172.9374	.000	.302	big
daughters' need of belonging	11120.69	1	27647.60	400	160.8919	.000	.287	big
daughters' need of esteem	18042.01	1	22316.57	400	323.3834	.000	.447	big
daughters' need of self-actualization	16909.73	1	27617.79	400	244.9107	.000	.380	big
daughters' physiological needs	8074.29	1	21319.67	400	151.4899	.000	.275	big

**Table 2. Analysis of Variance Results for the Cluster Analysis of Mothers' Goals and Mistakes and Adult Women's Personality Traits and Need Satisfaction**

	Between SS	df	Within SS	df	F	p	$\eta^2$	Interpretation of $\eta^2$
Stability	7.914	1	378.38	400	8.3657	.004	.020	small
Plasticity	1.019	1	97.03	400	4.1988	.041	.010	small
Self-restraint	41.110	1	345.20	400	47.6362	.000	.106	medium
Integration	3.055	1	105.45	400	11.5870	.000	.028	small
Disinhibition	16.269	1	329.49	400	19.7498	.000	.047	small
Passiveness	.012	1	124.57	400	.0382	.845	.0009	very small
Sensation-seeking	3.255	1	308.22	400	4.2242	.040	.010	small
Disharmony	1.049	1	183.09	400	2.2925	.1301	.006	very small
mothers' strictness	361.028	1	4860.42	400	29.7117	.000	.069	medium
mothers' aggression	2538.109	1	5578.02	400	182.0078	.000	.313	big
constraining child's activity	2902.162	1	4918.76	400	236.0078	.000	.371	big
mothers' indifference	6269.727	1	7833.88	400	320.1337	.000	.445	big
mothers' self-accentuation	1895.736	1	4039.96	400	187.6986	.000	.319	big
mothers' pandering to the child	176.507	1	6323.40	400	11.1653	.001	.027	small
replacing the child in their activities	325.538	1	7671.40	400	16.9741	.000	.041	small
idealization of child by mothers	287.361	1	8489.68	400	13.5393	.000	.032	small
mothers' inconsistency	1654.438	1	7246.54	400	91.3229	.000	.186	big
Stability of daughters	583.123	1	6958.93	400	33.5180	.000	.077	medium
Plasticity of daughters	273.835	1	15427.81	400	7.0998	.008	.017	small
Self-restraint of daughters	105.684	1	13117.38	400	3.2227	.073	.008	very small
Integration of daughters	1158.962	1	10079.07	400	45.9948	.000	.103	medium
Disinhibition of daughters	1324.054	1	13634.23	400	38.8450	.000	.089	medium
Passiveness of daughters	278.888	1	12659.89	400	8.8117	.003	.022	small
Sensation-seeking of daughters	120.594	1	12908.85	400	3.7368	.053	.009	very small
Disharmony of daughters	3836.018	1	17329.56	400	88.5428	.000	.181	big
daughters' need of safety	5136.627	1	27116.28	400	75.7719	.000	.159	big
daughters' need of belonging	8984.977	1	29783.30	400	120.6713	.000	.232	big
daughters' need of esteem	5667.234	1	34691.35	400	65.3446	.000	.140	medium
daughters' need of self-actualization	5414.046	1	39113.47	400	55.3676	.000	.122	medium
daughters' physiological needs	5196.281	1	24197.68	400	85.8972	.000	.177	big

**Table 3. Analysis of Variance Results for the Cluster Analysis of Fathers' Goals and Mistakes and Adult Women's Personal Characteristics and Need Satisfaction**

	Between SS	df	Within SS	df	F	p	$\eta^2$	Interpretation of $\eta^2$
Stability	25.89	1	373.71	400	27.71	.000	.064	medium
Plasticity	4.57	1	177.95	400	10.28	.001	.025	small
Self-restraint	32.33	1	340.91	400	37.93	.000	.086	medium
Integration	1.09	1	59.35	400	7.33	.007	.018	very small
Disinhibition	10.01	1	257.43	400	15.56	.001	.037	very small
Passiveness	1.32	1	128.29	400	4.10	.043	.010	small
Sensation-seeking	1.70	1	257.28	400	2.64	.104	.006	very small
Disharmony	2.18	1	160.25	400	5.45	.020	.013	small
fathers' strictness	192.99	1	7327.29	400	10.53	.001	.025	small
fathers' aggression	1639.24	1	6621.39	400	99.02	.000	.198	big
constraining child's activity	1670.17	1	5774.11	400	115.70	.000	.224	big
fathers' indifference	4454.30	1	7766.82	400	229.40	.000	.364	big
fathers' self-accentuation	380.50	1	4315.37	400	35.26	.000	.081	medium
fathers' pandering to the child	32.55	1	4296.85	400	3.03	.082	.007	very small
replacing the child in their activities	282.51	1	5956.76	400	18.97	.000	.045	small
idealization of child by fathers	852.19	1	7828.75	400	43.54	.000	.098	medium
fathers' inconsistency	634.99	1	7737.71	400	32.82	.000	.075	medium
Stability of daughters	590.76	1	6951.29	400	33.99	.000	.078	medium
Plasticity of daughters	1745.71	1	13955.94	400	50.03	.000	.111	medium
Self-restraint of daughters	58.46	1	13164.61	400	1.77	.183	.004	very small
Integration of daughters	2232.16	1	9005.87	400	99.14	.000	.198	big
Disinhibition of daughters	2236.38	1	12721.90	400	70.31	.000	.149	big
Passiveness of daughters	1539.88	1	11398.89	400	54.03	.000	.119	medium
Sensation-seeking of daughters	2.96	1	13026.49	400	0.09	.763	.001	very small
Disharmony of daughters	5889.95	1	15275.63	400	154.23	.000	.278	big
daughters' need of safety	7464.26	1	24788.65	400	120.44	.000	.231	big
daughters' need of belonging	8189.43	1	30578.85	400	107.12	.000	.211	big
daughters' need of esteem	11831.21	1	28527.37	400	165.89	.000	.293	big
daughters' need of self-actualization	10578.68	1	33948.83	400	124.64	.000	.237	big
daughters' physiological needs	4881.57	1	24512.39	400	79.65	.000	.166	big

## Figures

**Figure 1. A model of the relationship between parental goals and mistakes, their adult daughters' experiences, and their personality traits and needs fulfillment skills**

