



# Attachment styles in the family of origin and resentment. Young adult survey<sup>1</sup>

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Mariusz Karbowski<sup>a</sup>, Maria Ryś<sup>b</sup>, Maja Zagubień<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Mariusz Karbowski, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9806-6133>,

Department of Psychology, Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, Jan Kochanowski University in Kielce, Poland

<sup>b</sup> Maria Ryś, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4287-1261>,

School of Human Sciences, University of Economics and Human Sciences in Warsaw, Poland

<sup>c</sup> Maja Zagubień, <https://orcid.org/0009-0009-9454-3068>

**Abstract:** Everyone experiences difficult situations that they have to face. Many researchers raise questions about the determinants of coping or lack of coping skills in such situations. One of the little-studied aspects in psychological analyses is the problem of resentment. This article considers how resentment is framed in psychology, as well as examines one of the factors concerning its determinants, namely attachment style during childhood. Research Objective: The article attempts to find an answer to the question of whether there are correlations between attachment style in the family of origin and resentment in young adults. Methodology: the study of 185 subjects used the Scale for the Study of Attachment Style in the Family of Origin (SPRP) by M. Ryś, Z. Krasowska and N. Witerek (2021), and those dimensions of the Scale of Psychological Resilience (SOP) by M. Ryś et al. (2020), which address issues of resentment. Results: The results of the study indicate significant correlations between non-secure parenting styles in the family of origin and the studied aspects of resentment. The results also indicate differences in the experience of resentment between men and women.

**Keywords:** secure and non-secure childhood attachment styles, rejecting attachment style, resentment

## Introduction

The issue of attachment styles in the family of origin is the subject of analysis by many psychologists.<sup>2</sup> As J. Bowlby (2016) states, the patterns of attachment to parents developed in childhood are the basis of human development. The best-known classification of attachment styles distinguishes three attachment styles: secure, anxious-ambivalent, and avoidant (Ainsworth, 1989). Most research on attachment to date covers only three patterns of attachment to a parent. M. Ryś proposed to distinguish the fourth style – rejecting, which is characteristic of people experiencing neglect or harm in childhood, and together with her team she created a method that can be used to examine the level of all four attachment styles: secure, anxious-ambivalent, avoidant, and rejecting (Ryś, Krasowska, Witerek, 2021).

An important issue discussed in this article is resentment. Everyone experiences difficult situations that they have to face. Attitudes towards difficult situations are analysed in the context of mental resilience, which has resulted in publications and research authored, among others, by A. Borucka and K. Ostaszewski (2012), M. Marciniak (2019), K. Ostaszewski (2014), A. Pacut et al. (2022), M. Ryś (2020), A. Studniczek et al. (2018).

This article attempts to find an answer to the question whether there are relationships between attachment style in the family of origin and resentment in young adults. In the study of 185 people, the Attachment Style in the Family of Origin (SPRP) scale by M. Ryś, Z. Krasowska, and N. Witerek (2021)

1 Article in Polish language: [https://www.stowarzyszeniefidesetratio.pl/fer/61P\\_Karb.pdf](https://www.stowarzyszeniefidesetratio.pl/fer/61P_Karb.pdf)

2 E.g.: Ainsworth (1989); Bowlby (2016); Kornas-Biela (2017); Liberska i in. (2016); Libura-Gil (2018); Łoś (2010); Marchwicki (2004); Plopa (2019); Ryś, Krasowska, Witerek (2021); Siwek (2012); Stępnicka-Markowska (2023).

was used, and the data from the Mental Resilience Scale (SOP) by M. Ryś et al. (2020), which deal with the issue of resentment.

## **1. Theoretical foundations of research**

### **1.1. The problem of attachment in the family of origin**

#### **1.1.1. Definitional approach to attachment**

The attachment theory owes its origins to the observation of the negative consequences of separation from the mother in the early stages of a child's life (Bowlby, 1998) and a review of ethologists' research on the attachment behaviour of birds and non-human primate species (Bowlby, 2016; Swojnóg, 2012). Its creator, J. Bowlby (2016), questioned the theory of secondary drive, which states that the child attaches to the mother's figure as a result of her satisfying its physiological needs. Instead, the author postulated that a separate behavioural system has been developed through evolution, the main goal of which is to strive for closeness with the attachment figure, which increases the chance of survival of the individual. The theory presented by J. Bowlby was continued by his student M. Ainsworth (1989), who conducted research on attachment among Ganda infants and created the Alien Situation Procedure, thanks to which individual attachment styles were distinguished. Since then, many researchers have developed issues related to this theory.

There are many different definitions of the concept of attachment in the literature. J. Bowlby defines it as the "need for a bond between an individual and a person or an individual of the same species" (Bowlby, 1980, after: Ryś et al., 2021, p. 241). The author believes that everyone has been provided with a repertoire of attachment behaviours, the main task of which is to maintain closeness with the mother figure. These include, among others: crying, screaming, smiling, vocalizing, clinging, "following". The main figure of attachment is a non-interchangeable figure. However, it does not mean that the child cannot have

secondary figures of attachment (Bowlby, 2016). Moreover, observations of infants (Schaffer, Emerson, 1964) and children (Ainsworth, 1963, after: Bowlby, 2016) indicate the following relationship: the more attached a child is to the main figure, the more likely it is that it will address attachment behaviours to other people familiar to it.

According to M. Ainsworth (1969, p. 971), attachment is an "emotional bond that an individual bestows on another specific person". The child treats the object of attachment as a safe base from which to begin exploration of the environment and to which he returns in a situation of anxiety and withdrawal. Stimuli activating the attachment system can be divided into two categories: those related to the well-being of the individual, e.g., hunger, pain, fatigue, or those related to the environment, e.g., external threat or separation from the attachment figure (Cassidy, 2016, after: Lubiewska, 2019). Similarly, attachment is defined by J.K. Baker (2006, p. 7), namely as an "emotional bond that includes: the desire for intimacy, anxiety after an inexplicable separation, pleasure or joy after a reunion, and grief after loss".

P. Marchwicki (2009) understands attachment as a "state in which an individual feels a strong tendency to seek the closeness of another specific individual, especially in situations of stress, difficulty, or threat" (Marchwicki, 2009, p. 11). The tendency to this type of behaviour is a property of the attached person. This means that a person is attached to a particular figure also in moments of temporary absence of her presence and in situations when she does not seek shelter and consolation from her at a given moment (Marchwicki, 2009, p. 11). In turn, M. Adamczyk (2016) defines this term as a "biologically rooted tendency to form strong emotional bonds with caregivers in the first years of life" (Adamczyk, 2016, p. 90). Attachment to the main caregiver is the basis for further human development. It plays an important role in the formation of internal operating models, i.e., the image of oneself and other people (Adamczyk, 2016).

M. Czub (2014, p. 11) defines attachment as a "specific relationship between a child and its most important caregiver". The author points out that it is an important factor in proper mental development.

Building attachment affects the quality of the child's emotional and cognitive processes. For this reason, it is the basis of educational, professional, and personal achievements (Czub, 2014). M. Plopa (2019, p. 485) defines attachment as a "relatively stable socio-emotional relationship with another individual, a person, as well as intrapsychic organisations that develop on the basis of individual experiences with the first caregivers". He emphasises that there is a relationship between certain attachment styles and such forms of social behaviour as: love, friendship, sense of security, loneliness, depression, and anxiety (Plopa, 2019, p. 485).

In this article, the concept of attachment will be understood in accordance with the definition already cited by J. Bowlby (2016). From the moment of birth, a person is equipped with a system that is the building block of attachment. It is shaped as a result of repeated interactions between the infant and the main caregiver (Bowlby, 2016), and the quality of the bond created is an important factor determining the future social and emotional functioning of a person (Plopa, 2015).

### **1.1.2. Attachment styles**

Attachment style is a model of attachment-related behaviours that considers individual differences in the quality of the child's bond with an adult (Ainsworth, Wittig, 1969, after: Marchwicki, 2003). The experience of relationships with the attachment figure in childhood is one of the most important factors responsible for social and emotional functioning in the future. The attachment style is the result of the effectiveness and predictability of the main caregiver's response to stressful situations experienced by the child, and is also a representation of the strategies adopted in the future to cope with stress (Plopa, 2015).

#### **Secure attachment style**

Many researchers agree with the thesis that the most beneficial for further human development is the development of a trusting bond with the first caregiver (Atwool, 2007; Bukalski, 2013; Czapiga, 2007; Pistole, 1995, after: Porębiak, 2012, Walker et al., 2022).

It is formed when the main figure of attachment is easily accessible to the child, reacts sensitively to the signals coming from the child and adequately helps the child in experiencing difficult situations (Czub, 2014). Research by S. Goldberg et al. (1994, after: Słaboń-Duda, 2011) has shown that mothers of securely attached infants react equally sensitively to emotions expressed by the child as positive and negative. It is also the result of the complementarity of the child's and caregiver's behaviour – the child clearly communicates his or her needs, and the adult responds to them accurately (Pederson, Moran, 1996, after: Stawicka, 2008). The primary caregiver's reactions to signals from the child are characterised by consistency, coherence, and predictability (Brzezińska et al., 2016). The repetition of interactions with the attachment figure results in the formation of a positive mental representation of himself and other people in the child, which is the basis for the development of optimal self-regulation (Stawicka, 2008).

A child with a secure attachment style in the presence of its mother is calm and explores its surroundings with curiosity. He treats his mother as a safe base to which he can always return and receive comfort in a situation of discomfort. In the absence of the main attachment figure, he feels anxious, but when she returns, he greets her with joy, seeks closeness with her, calms down relatively quickly and returns to normal activity (Król-Kuczkowska, 2008). They communicate their emotions openly, are characterised by empathy, and tend to consider the other person's perspective. Emotions expressed as positive predominate, and expressing negative ones is short-lived. They inform about the frustration they experience (Iniewicz, 2008). At preschool age, a child is characterised by ingenuity, effectively copes with stress, is able to cooperate with peers, establishes casual conversations, and relates to other people in a friendly way (Czub, 2014).

A child who is securely attached more easily achieves a high level of mental resilience, independence, cooperativeness, self-reflection, control of their own feelings, empathy, and social competence in adulthood (Włodarczyk, 2016). The quality of the bond with the first caregiver is also associated with a general sense of well-being (Moore, Leung, 2002,

after: Matysiak-Błaszczyk et al., 2020). P. Darling Rasmussen et al. (2019) conducted meta-analyses of studies on the relationship between attachment and mental resilience. Their results indicate that the secure attachment style is significantly associated with the development of mental resilience. Research by R.C. Fraley and P.R. Shaver (2000) indicates that there is a relationship between attachment style in childhood and intimate bonds formed in adulthood. People with a secure attachment pattern feel greater satisfaction from the relationship with their partner, show greater acceptance, tend to positively value mutual dependence, and feel joy in close relationships. In adulthood, they are able to skilfully resolve conflicts, communicate their needs in a free way, and are convinced that the emotions they experience are accepted and understood by those close to them (Ryś et al., 2021). They also have the ability to rationally assess reality, in a situation of experiencing life difficulties, they tend to seek support and are able to admit their own weaknesses to their loved ones, which is the basis for building intimacy in the relationship (Karbowa, 2012).

### Non-secure attachment styles

Research (Berek, 2019; Flores, 2004, after: Wyrzykowska, 2012; Suchańska et al., 2019; Wawiórko, Zabłocka-Żytka, 2018; Wendolowska, 2017) proves that the formation of an abnormal bond with the first caregiver is one of the risk factors for the occurrence of disorders in human development. In the psychological literature, there are various nomenclature for non-secure attachment styles<sup>3</sup>. This article uses the classification presented by Maria Ryś, who, in addition to the secure style, distinguished the following styles: anxious-ambivalent, avoidant, and rejecting (Ryś, Krasowska, Witerek, 2021).

Children with the anxious-ambivalent attachment style have an experience of a relationship with a caregiver that is based on the inconsistency of the adult's response to the child's needs. The main attachment

figure tends to impose itself in contact with the child, alternating with ignoring the signals sent by the child (Nowotnik, 2014). It is also overly controlling and tends to punish the child through abandonment and unavailability. Such an experience of the first relationship teaches the child that the expression of the negative emotions felt gives a greater probability of attracting the caregiver's attention. This contributes to the strengthening of the secondary strategy of the so-called attachment hyperactivation, i.e., exaggeration of attachment behaviours (Kobak et al., 1993, after: Płopa, 2015). Through such behaviour, the infant experiences anxiety, has a tendency to excessive clinging and abandons exploration of the environment in favour of contact with an adult (Płaczek, 2012). During the separation from the main caregiver, he experiences severe anxiety, and after his return, it is very difficult for him to calm down. The child's ambivalent behaviour is also characteristic, manifested by alternating striving for closeness with the caregiver and the appearing resignation from seeking contact with the caregiver (Ainsworth, 1982, after: Stawicka, 2008). Research by C. Żechowski et al. (2018) has shown that the anxious attachment style is one of the predictors of somatic symptoms and difficulties in social functioning. Such a pattern of attachment also results in excessive seeking of attention from others, impulsivity, a sense of frustration and helplessness when experiencing difficult situations (Czub, 2014).

The avoidant attachment style arises when the maternal figure actively rejects the child's attempts to make contact with her (Ainsworth et al., 1978, after: Wallin, 2011). Due to personal or social conditions, the caregiver does not regulate the emotional tension experienced by the infant. This results in the development of a strategy of defensive exclusion in the child, i.e., the repression of the figure of attachment that rejects behaviour and his own need for attachment (Król-Kuczkowska, 2008). An avoidant attached child does not show interest in the caregiver, tends to avoid contact with him, and spends more time exploring the environment than looking for

3 M. Ainsworth (1978; after: Ainsworth, 1979) created a laboratory procedure on the basis of which she distinguished three patterns of attachment of a child to its mother: pattern B – secure attachment style, pattern A – avoidant attachment style, and pattern C – anxious-ambivalent attachment style. M. Main and J. Solomon (1990; after: Wallin, 2011) added a fourth style to this classification: pattern D – disorganised attachment style.

closeness. Infants experiencing such a relationship with their first caregiver learn that the emotions they express do not bring the desired results (Plopa, 2015). Interestingly, the research of G. Spangler and K.E. Grossmann (1993, after: Senator, 2012) showed that these children, despite the lack of a behavioural reaction to separation from their mother, had the highest level of cortisol in saliva, i.e., a hormone indicating the perceived stress. People with this attachment pattern tend to show false affect, excessive emotional control, avoid close contact, and see other people in a negative light. In difficult situations, they do not seek support because they expect rejection (Brzezińska et al., 2016). Analyses of research on the importance of attachment styles on later human development indicate that the avoidant pattern is associated with irritability, impulsivity, experiencing frustration, lack of trust, uncertainty, and difficulties in relationships (Komorowska-Pudło, 2016).

These two attachment styles inadequately describe the situation of people who grew up in families where pathological behaviour towards the child occurred. For this reason, M. Ryś, Z. Krasowska, and N. Witerek (2021) created a research method that considers the third non-secure attachment style, which they described as rejecting. It is formed when a child is brought up in a dysfunctional family, in which he experiences neglect or harm. The infant perceives the attachment figure as both a source of threat and relief, which results in a clear motivational conflict when the attachment system is activated. It has a deep-rooted conviction that life is full of difficulties that cannot be effectively overcome. He behaves suspiciously of life's chances, because he is convinced of their impermanence. People from such an environment are characterised by a low level of mental resilience (Ryś, 2020), they experience mental health problems (Soudi et al., 2015, after: Ryś et al., 2021) and are not motivated to self-develop and pursue their own desires. In adulthood, these people do not defend their own rights, have problems with opposing others and have a sense of being unloved.

The experience of the relationship with the attachment figure is the basis for further human development. The quality of the bond with the first caregiver is related to the development of internal operating

models (Marchwicki, 2006). J. Bowlby (2016) assumes that internal operating models formed in early childhood are generally a permanent element of the human personality. For this reason, the attachment style determines important aspects of the image of oneself, other people, and the relationships between them (Ryś et al., 2021).

## 2. The problem of resentment

### 2.1. Definitional approach and analysis of resentment

Ressentiment has been the subject of special interest of philosophers for the last few centuries.

Marc Ferro, in his book *Ressentiment in History*, describes the manifestations of resentment over the centuries. Although the author uses the term “eternal resentiments”, in fact, he refers in his publication only to the period of the ancient rebels, whom he describes as the first rebels in history (Ferro, 2013, after: Karbowski, 2025).

In the nineteenth century, resentment was perceived as a substitute reaction in a situation of powerlessness and powerlessness. According to Nietzsche (2022, p. 24-25), it is the substitute reaction of the “weak” against the “strong”, which makes the weak “good” and the strong “bad”, Nietzsche saw the sources of this substitute reaction in the structure of interpersonal relations, in the social structure. The theory of resentment was developed by Max Scheler in his work *Ressentiment and Morality* gives a definition of resentment: “Ressentiment is spiritual self-poisoning that has strictly defined causes and effects. It is a permanent psychological attitude which arises when certain emotional impulses and passions, which are normal in themselves and are essentially part of human nature, are systematically suppressed and not discharged, and are entailed by certain permanent tendencies to a certain kind of illusion about values and corresponding value judgments. The emotional reflexes and passions that are primarily at play here are: a vengeful feeling and a reflex of revenge, hatred, malice, jealousy, envy, mockery” (Scheler, 2008, p. 33-34).

Despite the importance of this topic, it is only in recent years that attempts to analyse this phenomenon in the social sciences or health sciences have appeared. A pioneer of work in this area is Mariusz Karbowski (2023, 2025), who in his approach to resentment, refers to philosophical approaches, but presents his analyses as revealing resentment by showing it from the position of the so-called “emotional self”, understood as a complex emotion resulting from tensions in social relations. In a 2025 scientific monograph, he captures resentment as a complex of hidden emotions, such as anger, envy, hatred, jealousy, or desire for revenge, which often go unnoticed by people whose behaviour may be motivated by them. These emotions, strongly interrelated, have a significant impact on both the reactions and the individual’s mental state (Karbowski, 2025).

Inspired by the pioneering works of M. Karbowski, other works, including research papers, aimed at deepening the understanding of the phenomenon of resentment, began to be created. The results of such work are presented in this article.

As a definitional approach, M. Ryś and E. Trzęsowska-Greszta proposed the definition of resentment as an attitude towards previously suffered harm, as resentment manifested in an emotional return to difficult, sometimes traumatic events (emotional aspect), but also in their analysis (intellectual aspect) and in actions taken towards revenge or forgiveness of the culprit.

Such an approach is the result of many investigations into various approaches to mental resilience, in which the phenomenon of resentment plays a significant role in overcoming negative life events, leading to a relatively good adjustment of the individual, despite adversities and/or traumatic experiences in childhood (Craig, Bond, Burns, 2003; Kumpfer, Summerhays, 2006; Luthar, Iron, 2003; Sameroff, Rosenblum, 2006).

Thus, resentment is associated on the one hand with experiencing a threat or a traumatic situation or the occurrence of an increased level of risk to the well-being of the individual, and on the other hand, with having competencies that allow them to cope with such experiences and overcome adversity (Luthar, 2006; Luthar et al., 2000; Luthar, 2006; Masten, Powell, 2003; Masten, 2007; Rutter, 2000).

Adversity is life events or circumstances that are highly stressful for an individual, related to a family or social situation (e.g., poverty, parents’ divorce) or with an immediate threat to life (wars, disasters, terrorist attacks) (Rutter, 2000; Luthar, Zigler, 1991; Masten, Powell, 2003). In adversities, a characteristic phenomenon is the coexistence of several risk factors that may strengthen the risk of resentment. The action of one risk factor usually has little negative effect on the individual, but the co-occurrence of several risk factors over a long period of time can cause behavioural or health disorders (Davis, 1999; Greenberg, 2006; Kumpfer, 1999; Masten, Powell, 2003).

In the work on resentment, analyses were particularly used on such problems as part of resilience, such as risk factors, especially: 1) family (violence, parental divorce, poverty, low parental education, mental disorders of parents, neglect, lack of parenting skills, orphanhood); 2) individual (related to biological and genetic susceptibility, intelligence, temperament); 3) environmental (crime, unemployment, violence at home, low level of education at school) (Blistein et al., 2005; Fergus, Zimmerman, 2005; Garmezy, 1985; Hetherington, 1993; Hetherington, Elmore, 2003; Kumpfer, 1999; Kumpfer, Summerhays, 2006; Lin et al., 2004; Luthar, Zigler 1991; Luthar, Zelezo, 2003; Luthar, 2006; Masten, Powell, 2003; Rutter, 2000; Sameroff et al., 1993; Sameroff, Rosenblum, 2006; Werner, 1994).

Shaping attitudes towards resentment is a multi-dimensional process. It is conditioned by both innate factors and various life experiences, which consist of the individual’s personal experiences and the external environment (Ryś, Trzęsowska-Greszta, 2018). N. Garmezy indicated three groups of protective factors: 1) individual characteristics; 2) factors related to the family environment; and 3) characteristics of the non-family environment (Ryś, Trzęsowska-Greszta, 2018; Borucka, Ostaszewski, 2012; Masten, Powell, 2003; Rutter, 1987; Ryś, 2020; Wawryk, Gwozda, 2013).

### **2.1.1. Personal resources of the individual**

Humans have many personal properties that affect whether they will be resistant to the negative effects of the environment (Opóra, 2016b). W. Pilecka (2009)

lists among the individual resources of an individual: a good level of mental development, temperament, a positive self-image, a sense of meaning in life, a positive attitude to life, and qualities important in social contacts – a sense of humour, having talents, and interpersonal attractiveness.

A strong predictor of the right attitudes towards resentment is general cognitive abilities, which are understood as general intelligence and the transformation of information about oneself into specific mental structures (Pilecka, Fryt, 2011). A high level of intellectual efficiency allows the individual to better understand the difficulties experienced, choose an effective way of coping with them, and also makes it easier to ask for external help (Grzegorzewska, 2011). The most important cognitive schemes that play an important role in this regard include: 1) self-efficacy, meaning the belief that personal goals are achievable, despite life difficulties; 2) self-esteem, which is created through the prism of the opinions of others, and 3) perceptions and subjective assessment of social support, i.e., the belief and trust of the individual that he is loved and has someone to turn to in difficult times (Pilecka, Fryt, 2011).

A balanced sense of control and tolerance for uncertainty and complexity are an important basis for this. This shapes the individual's flexibility of action, greater self-confidence, and increases the frequency of experiencing emotions perceived as positive (Letzring et al., 2004, after: Nadolska, Sęk, 2007). A sense of control also ensures the ability to incorporate stressful events into the normal course of life, allows to use previously acquired knowledge and skills, and makes it easier to choose the best course of action in problematic situations (Kobasa, 1979, after: Strycharczyk, Clough, 2022).

What is conducive to coping with difficult experiences is also adequate self-esteem. It reduces the internal sense of danger when experiencing difficulties. People with inflated self-esteem tend to experience emotions strongly perceived as negative, they are also prone to self-aggression or expressing aggression directed outwards. On the other hand, people with too low self-esteem overestimate the difficulties they experience, give in to them and blame themselves for any failures (Ryś, 2020; Ryś, Trzęsowska-Greszta, 2018; Tyszkowa, 1986; Zielińska, 2012).

Another individual factor related to the formation of attitudes towards difficult situations is temperament. The most beneficial for increasing resilience is the so-called positive temperament, which includes personality traits such as: good control and inhibition, conscientiousness, adaptation skills, as well as a positive, moderate mood (Rothbart et al., 2001, after: Grzegorzewska, 2011). W. Pilecka (2009) lists among the dimensions of temperament important for coping with difficult situations: a moderate level of activity, positive emotionality, a high degree of socialisation, proper control of impulses and attentional processes, a higher level of perceptual sensitivity, maintaining the need for stimulation at a lower level, and plasticity. A positive temperament creates softness in the individual in external contacts and strength relating to the inner "self". Thanks to it, a person develops the ability to understand the situation well and looks for effective methods of coping with difficult moments (Grzegorzewska, 2011).

Emotional intelligence also plays an important role in shaping attitudes towards difficult situations. It is defined as the "ability to differentiate one's own emotions and adequately recognise the emotions of others and to use this information in the process of coping with difficulties" (Mayer, Salovey, 1993, after: Ostrowski, 2022, p. 83). Emotional intelligence is associated with appropriate social adjustment, i.e., the ability to interact with others, effective conflict resolution, and the ability to maintain mental balance through the use of mature adaptation mechanisms (Ryś, 2020). Emotional intelligence is also related to the recognition of one's own emotional states and the accompanying bodily signals. Thanks to this, when experiencing difficult situations, the individual can better manage their emotions and use them in a constructive way (Fredrickson, 2004, after: Nadolska, Sęk, 2007).

### **2.1.2. Influence of the family environment**

One of the key elements shaping attitudes towards difficult situations is the way in which parents fulfil the role entrusted to them. The proper performance of parental functions is characterised by specific dimensions and their appropriate combination.

A well-performed role of a parent is conducive to the child's ability to cope with difficult situations through: clear communication, expressing the emotions felt, building bonds, setting specific boundaries, and effective problem-solving (Grzegorzewska, 2011).

Thus, the development of attitudes towards difficult situations depends not only on the personal predispositions of the individual, but also on the quality of the relationship with parents. Developing a trusting attachment to the main caregiver gives the child a sense of security and confidence that the parent will help him in difficult situations. A secure bond is the result of the number and quality of interactions characterised by care, warmth, and sensitivity. It facilitates the achievement of social adjustment and the acquisition of mental resilience (Pilecka, 2009).

A significant role in the formation of attitudes towards difficult situations is played by the style of upbringing, defined as a "constellation of ways and methods of influencing the child in a specific emotional climate" (Pilecka, 2009, p. 116). The democratic style is the most beneficial for building resilience. It provides family members with adequate freedom and expects everyone to be responsible for their actions. Thanks to such upbringing, the child learns to solve problems and conflicts through negotiations and compromises. The democratic style is also conducive to: achieving school success, establishing good contact with peers, developing interpersonal skills, and building independence. Parents who use this style introduce positive and consistent discipline into family life, which helps create the child's resistance to life stress (Pilecka, 2009, p. 116).

The optimal environment for the development of immunity in a child that allows it to cope well in difficult situations is a mentally resilient family. F. Walsh (2016, after: Sikorska et al., 2021), analysing the processes underlying family resilience, lists its three main pillars. The first is a system of beliefs and assumptions. A mentally resilient family perceives adversities in life as challenges, an optimistic approach to life prevails in it and tends to seek support in faith or social contacts. The second pillar concerns the organisation of the family. For the development of mental resilience of its members, the family system should be characterised by: plasticity, internal co-

hesion, and financial security. The last pillar relates to communication and problem-solving. It means that family communication should be characterised by: openness and clarity of message, externalisation of one's own emotions, and striving for satisfactory conflict resolution (*ibidem*, comp. also: Ryś, 2020).

Young people growing up in families with an atmosphere of trust and cooperation have better skills to cope with difficulties. They are also not afraid to make independent decisions and seek help when they need it. They are aware of the fact that their parents are their support and respect their individuality and autonomy. The more parents treat their child as a partner, giving them freedom of choice and responsibility for their own actions, the greater the chance that they will be able to overcome life's challenges on their own (Ryś, Trzęsowska-Greszta, 2018).

E. Januszewska (2000) points out that growing up in an environment that allows to experience the consequences of own actions and does not impose excessive expectations on the child, is conducive to learning effort, self-control, and cooperation with others. A teenager who feels safe, loved, and respected is able to use a properly selected difficulty and gain a sense of strength and competence. While experiencing problem situations, he learns about his abilities, strengths, and weaknesses. He is able to develop them further by pursuing his goal, facing challenges and difficulties, as well as by experiencing failure. In this way, he builds self-confidence, develops skills to cope with stress, and shapes self-respect, which is based on actual achievements (*ibidem*).

K. Ostaszewski (2014) also points out that one of the strongest protective factors is the so-called effective monitoring. It means intentional educational measures that provide good conditions for the child's development and protect it from threats. Parents who want to effectively monitor their children must consider their developmental needs and build a relationship of trust with them. Monitoring does not just mean controlling a child, but also supporting them in making decisions and dealing with problems. K. Ostaszewski's research on a sample of 3600 Warsaw students indicates that the greatest impact on effective monitoring is the mother's support and family life characterised by common rituals (*ibidem*).



The greatest support in building coping with difficult situations is to show unconditional love and acceptance to the child, while setting clear rules and requirements. This helps shape a sense of security and value, which has a positive effect on the development of the individual and his self-fulfilment. The parents and the school community should: support the child in building adequate self-esteem, encourage him to take on new challenges, enjoy his successes, and teach him how to cope with failures. The adult's task is to respect the child's individuality, create opportunities for their development, and be an example in effectively coping with problems (Wojtczuk, 2020).

### **2.1.3. Influence of the non-family environment**

A.S. Masten (2005, after: Borucka, Ostaszewski, 2012) emphasises the essence of the characteristics of the local community among the non-family protective factors supporting the development of resilience. He draws attention to the essence of a favourable living environment that provides residents with: clean water and air, low crime, a sense of security, and sufficient housing conditions. The school environment is also a very important protective factor. To increase the resilience of the child, it should provide good education and wide development opportunities. An important social aspect is also easy access to health care and emergency services, the possibility of employing parents near their place of residence, as well as valuable relationships with peers or adults outside the family who act as a mentor (Masten, 2005).

Mentor means an "adult who is not a parent, who naturally accompanies a young person in his or her daily life struggles" (Ostaszewski, 2014, p. 141). Research shows that mentor support reduces risky behaviours, prevents the development of mental problems, shapes positive attitudes towards school, and helps achieve better academic results. A mentor is also a source of inspiration and motivation and encourages a person to broaden her interests and horizons. In situations where a teenager is in a conflicting relationship with his parents, having a mentor has a corrective value for the individual's development. A young person can turn to him in case of problems and receive support and mature help. Through such

activities, the mentor creates favourable conditions for the positive development of mental resilience (Ostaszewski, 2014, p. 141; Ryś, 2020).

An important element of the non-family environment, shaping mental resilience, is also learning in a well-functioning school (Opora, 2016a). School should create opportunities to build positive self-esteem, self-efficacy, and security. A key factor in developing mental resilience is also good interpersonal relationships with peers. Social relations act as an external buffer in two ways. Firstly, they are a source of support in stressful situations, and secondly, the previous experience of the received help shapes internal mechanisms in the individual, which are useful in future overcoming difficulties (Opora, 2016a).

Belonging to a pro-social group is also included among the protective factors (Borucka, Ostaszewski, 2008). People who are socially engaged are more likely to establish and maintain relationships with other people. This increases their social capital, which is a resource helpful in protecting against the negative effects of stress (Marciniak, 2019).

Resilience consists of several models of interaction, which can also be related to processes occurring within resentment, i.e., studies of the relationship between risk factors and protective factors (Garmezy, 1985; Luthar, Zelezo, 2003; Rutter, 1987; Rutter, 2006; Werner, 2000; Zimmerman & Arunkumar, 1994). The most common are the three models that were first described by Garmezy et al. (1985). They distinguished: (1) the risk balancing model; (2) risk reduction model; (3) the risk-resilience model. The sustainable risk model assumes that protective factors reduce the impact of risk factors or shorten the duration of their impact. In the risk reduction model, protective factors are assumed to interact with risk factors. They act as a "buffer" or a kind of "protective shield". The risk resilience model assumes that a moderate level of risk acts in a resilient way and at the same time prepares the person for new and more difficult tasks (Garmezy, Masten, Tellegen, 1984).

The resilience models developed by Garmezy et al. (1985) were supplemented by a further three models developed by Fergus and Zimmerman (2005). These researchers introduced a protective-stabilising model, a protective-reactive model, and an inoculation model.

Rutter (1987) distinguished four mechanisms for building attitudes towards the risk of injury: (1) reducing the impact of risk by cognitive reinterpretation of the threat or changing the requirements for the implementation of a selected task or by using help; (2) reducing the negative reaction chain; (3) establishing and maintaining self-esteem and self-efficacy, building self-confidence; (4) opening up to new possibilities.

Semmer (2006) after analysing numerous results of research on the characteristics of a person with a high level of resilience, which also determine a low level of resentment: (1) perception of the surrounding world as favourable; (2) expecting more positive situations to happen than negative ones; (3) treating stressful situations as a challenge; (4) accepting difficulties and failures (the person treats them as an opportunity to gain new experiences and develop); (5) confidence in one's ability to manage one's own life.

An important field of action in protecting against the negative effects of resentment is also strengthening self-esteem and developing self-efficacy. High self-esteem and belief in the ability to cope with a difficult situation have a huge impact on whether a person will use the available resources or cope with adversity.

### 3. Research problem

#### 3.1. Research problem and hypotheses

The experience of the relationship with the first caregiver creates in the child a specific style of attachment to the mother's figure. It is the basis for the formation of internal operating models that include representations of the image of oneself and other people (Bowlby, 2016). Research by R.A. Arend et al. (1979, after: Bowlby, 2016), R. Valiei and A. Karimi Baghamalek (2019), S.M. Kennison and V.H. Spooner (2023), T. Zahide Tapeli and C. Itir Tari (2018), J.K. Jenkins (2016), P. Mariner et al. (2014), N. Aslam and S. Aamir (2013) and P. Fonagy et al. (1994, after: Svanberg, 2009) indicate the existence of a correlation between

attachment style in the family of origin and resentment. However, these studies did not consider the rejection attachment style distinguished by M. Ryś, Z. Krasowska and N. Witerek (2021). Therefore, this study investigated whether there are relationships between attachment style in the family of origin, as measured by a scale that considers the rejecting attachment style and psychological resilience in young adults.

The study's aim was to check whether there are relationships, and if so, what relationships, between the attachment style in the family of origin and those aspects of mental resilience in young adults that relate to resentment.

In search of answers to explain the research problem, the following hypotheses were adopted:

There is a relationship between the attachment style in the family of origin and attitudes related to resentment:

- the more secure the attachment style in the family of origin, the more correct the *attitude towards difficulties and problems* is in adulthood;
- the more secure the attachment style in the family of origin, the more correct the *attitude towards life and oneself* is in adulthood;
- the more secure the attachment style in the family of origin, the lower the level of somatisation in adulthood;
- the more secure the attachment style in the family of origin, the more in adulthood it is proper functioning in the emotional sphere;
- the more secure the attachment style in the family of origin, the more correct the attitude towards hurt is in adulthood.

#### 3.2. Test methods

In order to check the assumed relationships, research was carried out using the following research tools:

- attachment style in the Family of Origin Study Scale (SPRP) by M. Ryś, Z. Krasowska, and N. Witerek (2021);
- the subscales in the Mental Resilience Scale (SOP) by M. Ryś et al. (2020) that deal with resentment;
- surveys.

### **Attachment Style Scale in the Family of Origin (SPRP)**

To determine the attachment styles of young adults to their parents, the Attachment Styles Scale in the Family of Origin was used. It measures the respondent's attachment style to both parents – separately to the mother and father – in retrospective terms. The response was measured using the Likertian Scale – from 1 (definitely not) to 5 (definitely yes). The tool consists of 60 statements that form 4 scales that check the intensity of the style: safe (SB), anxious-ambivalent (SLA), avoidant (SU) and rejecting (SO). Cronbach's alpha for each scale was: SB scale – 0.966; SLA scale – 0.954; SU scale – 0.954; SLO scale – 0.947 (Ryś et al., 2021).

- **Secure style:**  
People who score high on the SB Scale have developed a secure attachment style to their parent in childhood. They feel that their parent has met their basic needs, established a close bond and bestowed unconditional love on them. Such people easily establish lasting relationships, accept the emotions they experience, are able to transparently communicate their needs to their loved ones, and skilfully resolve conflicts. They also have a highly developed sense of their own autonomy, are willing to take on new challenges and effectively cope with problem situations (Ryś et al., 2021).
- **Anxiety-ambivalent style:**  
High scores on the SLA Scale indicate the formation of a non-secure attachment style in childhood. Such people have experienced inconsistent, unpredictable, and inconsequential attitudes of the parent. People who have developed an anxious-ambivalent attachment style in childhood simultaneously feel fear of intimacy and the need to satisfy it. They are also afraid of rejection, which prevents them from developing their own autonomy, and in interpersonal relationships, they subordinate themselves to the other person (Ryś et al., 2021).

- **Avoidant style:**  
People who score high on the SU Scale have developed an incorrect attachment style in childhood. Their parents did not satisfy their basic need for love, acceptance, contact, and security, which resulted in increased frustration. In adulthood, people with an avoidant attachment style use avoidant coping strategies to calm down their emotions and protect them from being hurt (Ryś et al., 2021).
- **Rejecting style:**  
High scores on the SO Scale also indicate a non-secure pattern of attachment to the parent. This attachment style is formed in people from dysfunctional families who experienced rejection or violence, both physical and psychological, in childhood. People with a rejecting attachment style in adult life have a problem with defending their own rights, are unable to stand up in dangerous situations, and feel unworthy of love (Ryś et al., 2021).

### **Ressentiment Scales in Mental Resilience (SOP)**

To examine the level of mental resilience in a group of young adults, the Mental Resilience Scale (SOP) was used. The questionnaire is constructed from 35 statements that form 5 scales. They include various aspects of mental resilience: 1) *Attitude towards difficulties and problems* (Scale I); 2) *Attitude towards life and oneself* (Scale II); 3) *Somatisation* (Scale III); 4) *The emotional sphere* (Scale IV); and 5) *Attitude towards wounds* (Scale V). For each scale, Cronbach alpha was: Scale I – 0.697; Scale II – 0.862; Scale III – 0.738; Scale IV – 0.685; Scale V – 0.771. The response was measured using the Likertian Scale – from 1 to 5. High scores on the Mental Resilience Scale indicate a high level of mental resilience of the respondent (Ryś, 2020).

- **Attitude towards difficulties and problems:**  
The higher the scores of the respondent on Scale I, the more they perceive life problems and difficulties in a broad context. They tend to persistently look for effective ways to solve stressful

situations and treat them as life challenges. On the other hand, low scores on this scale indicate the respondent's difficulties in coping with problems and a tendency to be easily discouraged (Ryś, 2020).

- **Attitude towards life and oneself:**  
People who scored high on Scale II believe that they can cope with overcoming problems. On the other hand, low scores indicate the individual's tendency to feel powerless in the face of life's problems. In addition, the experience of a problematic situation lowers self-esteem and obscures any prospects for a better life (Ryś, 2020).
- **Somatisation:**  
High scores obtained on Scale III indicate that the examined person tries to take care of herself, both physically and mentally, in order to effectively cope with stressful situations. Low scores obtained on this scale indicate the tendency of the individual to experience psychosomatic problems as a result of the reaction to the experienced stress. In difficult situations, a person achieving low scores on this scale may feel internal breakdown, have sleep problems, stomach problems, problems with memory and concentration, as well as problems with proper breathing (Ryś, 2020).
- **Emotional sphere:**  
The higher the scores of the examined person on Scale IV, the more support she feels from their loved ones in difficult situations. In the face of life's challenges, she is not overwhelmed by fear and discouragement, she does not feel lonely and she is able to enjoy life. On the other hand, low scores indicate a tendency of an individual to lose the ability to enjoy life in the face of difficult situations. It is also characterised by a sense of loneliness, inability to ask for support from loved ones and problems with controlling strong emotions (Ryś, 2020).
- **Attitude towards wounds:**  
High scores achieved on the V Scale indicate that the individual has achieved a mature attitude towards the wounds suffered. Such a person does

not torment herself with failures, is able to draw effective conclusions for the future and has the ability to forgive others for the harm done to her. The lower the scores obtained on this scale, the lower the ability of the examined person to forgive others and himself. They also tend to feel the effects of the wounds they have experienced for a long time and are characterised by hypersensitivity, which results in reliving previously experienced harm (Ryś, 2020).

### Self-Survey

The self-survey was created to collect sociometric data, such as: age, gender, education, life situation, family of origin, traumatic experiences, relationship status, material status.

### 3.3. Method of carrying out the study and persons surveyed

The research was conducted remotely, using the Webankieta platform. Participation in the study was completely anonymous and voluntary. 229 people aged 18-35 were examined, including 144 women (63%) and 85 men (37%). In order to reduce the difference between the number of women and men tested, the analysis of the results of 44 women was abandoned – it was done randomly by excluding the results of every second respondent.

Finally, the answers of 100 women (54%) with mean age  $M = 23.50$  and 85 men (46%) with mean age  $M = 23.40$  were considered in the study, which is presented in Table 1.

In the group of people surveyed 1% of women and 1.2% of men had primary education, 3% of women and 9.4% of men had secondary education, 62% of women and 55.3% of men had incomplete higher education (student status), and 34% of women and 34.1% of men had higher education. 85% of women and 91.8% of men were brought up in a complete family, and 15% of women and 8.2% of men were brought up in a single-parent family.

The subjects were asked to assess the prevailing atmosphere in the family of origin. 24% of women and 42.4% of men rated it as loving, kind, and ac-

cepting; 12% of women and 3.5% of men rated it as tense, quarrelsome, and angry; and as a variable: once good and bad, assessed by 64% of women and 54.1% of men, as shown in Table 4.

It was also checked whether the respondents had experienced a very difficult, traumatic event in their lives. The collected data shows that 31% of women and 28.2% of men have experienced such an event.

#### 4. Results

In order to verify the hypotheses regarding the relationship between the studied variables, a correlation analysis was performed. For variables whose distribution was close to the normal distribution, the r-Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated. On the other hand, for variables whose distribution deviated from the normal distribution, its nonparametric equivalent rho-Spearman was used.

Tables 1 and 2 present an analysis of the correlation between attachment style and resentment scales in the group of young adults.

Based on Table 1, it can be concluded that the following correlations between variables occurred in the group of women. The secure style in attachment to the mother positively correlates with the *Attitude towards difficulties and problems* and *Attitude towards life and oneself*, as well as positively, moderation with *The emotional sphere*. The anxious-ambivalent style in the mother's attachment negatively correlates with *Somatisation and Attitude towards wounds*, and negatively, moderately correlates with *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, *Attitude towards life and oneself*, and *The emotional sphere*. The avoidant style in attachment to the mother negatively correlates with the *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, *Attitude towards life and oneself*, and *Somatisation*, and negatively, moderately with *The emotional sphere*. The rejecting style towards mothers correlates neg-

Table 1. Analysis of the correlation using the rho-Spearman coefficient between attachment style to the mother and resentment scales in a group of women

Variable	Attitude towards difficulties and problems	Attitude towards life and oneself	Somatisation	Emotional sphere	Attitude towards wounds
Safe style	0.261**	0.237*	0.152	0.446**	0.114
Anxiety-ambivalent style	-0.324**	-0.317**	-0.284**	-0.492**	-0.218*
Avoidant style	-0.242*	-0.248*	-0.205*	-0.481**	-0.164
Rejection style	-0.296**	-0.282**	-0.234*	-0.496**	-0.154

\*\* Significant correlation at 0.01 (bilaterally)

\* Significant correlation at 0.05 (bilaterally)

Table 2. Analysis of the correlation using the rho-Spearman coefficient between maternal attachment style and resentment scales in a group of men

Variable	Attitude towards difficulties and problems	Attitude towards life and oneself	Somatisation	Emotional sphere	Attitude towards wounds
Safe style	0.229*	0.227*	0.163	0.277*	0.228*
Anxiety-ambivalent style	-0.287**	-0.416**	-0.294**	-0.328**	-0.403**
Avoidant style	-0.244*	-0.314**	-0.208	-0.312**	-0.270*
Rejection style	-0.314**	-0.371**	-0.200	-0.320**	-0.274*

\*\* Significant correlation at 0.01 (bilaterally)

\* Significant correlation at 0.05 (bilaterally)

atively, poorly with: *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, *Attitude towards life and oneself*, and *Somatisation*, and negatively, moderately with *The emotional sphere*.

Based on Table 2, it can be concluded that the following correlations between variables occurred in the male group. The secure style in attachment to the mother positively and weakly correlates with *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *The emotional sphere*, and *Attitude towards wounds*. The anxious-ambivalent style in attachment to the mother negatively correlates poorly with *Attitude towards difficulties and problems* and *Somatisation*, and negatively, moderately correlates with *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *The emotional sphere*, and *Attitude towards wounds*. The avoidant style in attachment to the mother negatively correlates poorly with: *Attitude towards difficulties and problems* and *Attitude towards wounds*, as well as negatively, moderately with *Attitude towards life and oneself* and

*The emotional sphere*. The rejecting style mothers negatively correlates poorly with *Attitude towards wounds* and negatively, moderately with *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, *Attitude towards life and oneself* and *The emotional sphere*.

Tables 3 and 4 present an analysis of the correlation between attachment style to the father and resentment in the group of young adults.

Based on Table 3, it can be concluded that the following correlations between the studied variables occurred in the group of women. The secure style in attachment to the father correlates positively but poorly with *The emotional sphere*. The anxious-ambivalent style in attachment to the father negatively correlates with *The emotional sphere* and *Attitude towards wounds*. The avoidant style in attachment to the father negatively, poorly correlates with *Attitude towards wounds* and negatively, moderately with *The emotional sphere*. The rejection style in

Table 3. Analysis of correlation using the r-Pearson and rho-Spearman coefficients between the attachment style to the father and scales of resentment in the women's group

Variable	Attitude towards difficulties and problems	Attitude towards life and oneself	Somatisation	Emotional sphere	Attitude towards wounds
Safe style	0.145	0.062	0.065	0.262**	0.100
Anxiety-ambivalent style	-0.110	-0.151	-0.071	-0.266**	-0.202*
Avoidant style	-0.126	-0.142	-0.097	-0.307**	-0.236*
Rejection style	-0.189	-0.169	-0.120	-0.356**	-0.218*

\*\* Significant correlation at 0.01 (bilaterally)

\* Significant correlation at 0.05 (bilaterally)

Table 4. Analysis of the correlation using the rho-Spearman coefficient between the attachment style to the father and the resentment scales in the male group

Variable	Attitude towards difficulties and problems	Attitude towards life and oneself	Somatisation	Emotional sphere	Attitude towards wounds
Safe style	0.401**	0.361**	0.353**	0.404**	0.314**
Anxiety-ambivalent style	-0.442**	-0.477**	-0.370**	-0.515**	-0.413**
Avoidant style	-0.406**	-0.438**	-0.392**	-0.474**	-0.357**
Rejection style	-0.402**	-0.426**	-0.343**	-0.410**	-0.347**

\*\* Significant correlation at 0.01 (bilaterally)

\* Significant correlation at 0.05 (bilaterally)

attachment to the father negatively correlates with *Attitude towards wounds* and negatively, moderately with *The emotional sphere*.

Based on Table 4, it can be concluded that the following correlations between the variables occurred in the male group. The secure style in attachment to the father positively and moderately correlates with *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, the *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *Somatisation*, *The emotional sphere*, and *Attitude towards wounds*. The anxious-ambivalent style in attachment to the father negatively correlates moderately with the *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, the *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *Somatisation*, *The emotional sphere*, and *Attitude towards wounds*. The avoidant style in attachment to the father negatively, moderately correlates with the *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, the *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *Somatisation*, *The emotional sphere*, and the *Attitude towards wounds*. The rejection style in attachment to the father negatively, moderately correlates with the *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, the *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *Somatisation*, *The emotional sphere*, and *Attitude towards wounds*.

## **5. Discussion and interpretation of results**

In the group of studied women, there was a positive correlation between the secure attachment style to the mother and the following SOP scales: *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*; *Attitude towards life and oneself*, and *The emotional sphere* (Table 1). Women whose basic needs were met by their mother in childhood, felt her unconditional love, and had a close emotional bond, show greater perseverance in finding solutions to problem situations in adulthood. They treat the difficulties they experience as life challenges and are not discouraged in overcoming them. They also benefit from the support of their loved ones, thanks to which they do not feel lonely and are able to enjoy life. The results also indicate the existence of a positive correlation between the secure attachment style to the father and *The emotional sphere* in the group of women (Table 3). This means that women

whose fathers satisfied their need for love, acceptance, and security in childhood feel support from their loved ones and are able to skilfully cope with strong emotions. The correlations confirm the results of previous research by S.M. Kenninson and V.H. Spooner (2023), which showed that a higher level of trusting attachment correlates positively with the level of mental resilience.

The study did not show any significant correlations between the secure attachment style to the mother and *Somatisation* and *Attitude towards wounds* in the group of women (Table 1). There were also no significant correlations between the secure style of attachment to the father and *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *Somatisation*, and *Attitude towards wounds* (Table 4).

On the other hand, the obtained statistical data indicate the existence of negative correlations between post-secured attachment styles and resentment scales. In the group of women, a high intensity of the anxious-ambivalent attachment style to the mother correlates negatively with all aspects of coping with difficult situations. It means that women who have experienced erratic and unpredictable maternal behaviour in childhood have difficulty coping with problems. They are also characterised by a tendency to react psychosomatically to stressful situations, they are unable to ask for support from loved ones and experience a sense of loneliness. They also tend to feel the long-term effects of hurt and difficulty forgiving the harm done to them. The study also showed a significant negative correlation between the avoidant attachment style to the mother and the following scales: *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*, *Attitude towards life and oneself*, *Somatisation*, and *The emotional sphere* (Table 1). Women whose basic needs were not met by their mother in childhood, as a result of which they experienced a sense of frustration, are characterised by a lower intensity of correct attitudes towards difficult situations in adulthood. The research also indicates the existence of negative correlations between the rejection style and *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*; *Attitude towards life and oneself*; *Somatisation*, and *The emotional sphere* (Table 1). Women who have experienced re-

jection or violence from their mothers in childhood have difficulty coping with adversity in adulthood. The problems they experience obscure their prospects for a better life, they also feel inner breakdown, loneliness, and have difficulty controlling strong emotions. In the group of women, the correlation analysis also showed significant relationships between all post-secured attachment styles to the father and *The emotional sphere* and *Attitude towards wounds* (Table 3). It means that women whose fathers were inconsistent in their behaviour, did not meet their basic needs, rejected them or committed violence against them, have problems with experiencing strong emotions in adulthood. They are also unable to ask their loved ones for support, feel lonely, and have difficulty forgiving others for the harm done to them.

The study did not show any significant correlations between the *avoidant* and *rejecting attachment style* and *Attitude towards wounds* in the group of women (Table 1). The results also do not indicate the existence of significant correlations between post-secure patterns of attachment to the father and the following SOP scales: *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*; *Attitude towards life and oneself*, and *Somatisation* (Table 3).

In the group of studied men, there was a positive correlation between the secure attachment style to the mother and *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*; *Attitude towards life and oneself*; *The emotional sphere*, and *Attitude towards wounds* (Table 2). Men whose mothers provided for their basic needs in childhood and gave them unconditional love show greater perseverance in overcoming difficulties in adulthood. They believe in their own abilities, and in the face of challenges, they are not overcome by terror. They are also able to draw helpful conclusions for the future from difficult experiences and are able to forgive others for the harm done to them. Analysis of the obtained data also indicates the occurrence of significant positive correlations between the secure style of attachment to the father and all aspects of the mental resentment scale (Table 4). Men whose fathers gave them unconditional love, provided for their basic needs, and were a “safe haven” for their children cope well with life’s problems. They take care of themselves, both physically and mentally,

they can ask others for help in difficult situations and do not feel lonely. They do not torment themselves with failures and wrongs from the past and are able to draw constructive conclusions for the future from unpleasant situations. This is confirmed by the results of meta-analyses carried out by P. Darling Rasmussen et al. (2019), which showed the existence of positive correlations between secure attachment and the level of mental resilience. In the group of men, the study did not show any significant correlations between the secure attachment style and *Somatisation* (Table 2).

The results indicate the existence of a significant relationship between post-secured styles of attachment to the mother and those dimensions of mental resilience in the group of men that concern resentment. The anxious-ambivalent style was positively correlated with all scales of resentment. It means that men who experience inconsistencies and inconsistent parental attitudes of their mother in childhood are characterised by a lower intensity of mental resilience, i.e., a higher level of resentment. The study also showed a negative correlation between the avoidant and rejecting attachment styles and the following mental resilience scales: *Attitude towards difficulties and problems*; *Attitude towards life and oneself*; *The emotional sphere*, and *Attitude towards wounds* (Table 2). Men whose mothers did not satisfy their basic need for love, acceptance, and security in childhood, felt rejected by it or suffered harm from it, are less able to cope with difficult situations. They are also unable to ask their loved ones for help, they feel lonely and abandoned. The life failures they experience lower their self-esteem, they have difficulty experiencing strong emotions, and it is difficult for them to forgive, both others and themselves. Correlation analyses also showed significant negative associations between post-secured attachment styles to the father and all dimensions of resentment in the group of men (Table 4). Men who did not experience unconditional love from their father in childhood, felt rejected or hurt by him, have difficulty coping with problems. The difficulties they encounter overwhelm them and obscure the prospects for any improvement. In stressful situations, they have problems with concentration and feel internal disintegration. They also have difficulty



controlling strong emotions, asking for support and feeling the long-term effects of the harm they have experienced. This is confirmed by the results of research by N. Aslam and S. Amir (2013), who showed a relationship between non-secure attachment patterns and a lack of mental resilience.

## Summary

Early adulthood is associated with many challenges taken up by young people. Entering new social roles, starting your first job, or choosing a life partner, is associated with the stress experienced and the need to overcome emerging difficulties. The results indicate that the secure attachment style to the mother and father correlates positively with mental resilience, which means less tendency to resentment. Women and men whose parents met their emotional needs in childhood show greater resistance to difficulties and are able to effectively cope with emotions. These people do not torment themselves with past wrongs, they forgive more easily and are able to use the support of loved ones, which protects them from a long-term sense of resentment.

On the other hand, non-secure attachment styles, especially anxious-ambivalent and avoidant, are associated with a higher level of resentment, which manifests itself in difficulties in coping with problems and strong emotions. Women with an anxious-ambivalent attachment style to their mother

tend to be somatised, feel lonely and have difficulty asking for help, which is conducive to perpetuating resentment and a negative attitude to the world.

The avoidant attachment style, both to the mother and the father, correlates negatively with mental resilience, which means greater tendencies to experience internal breakdown and difficulty accepting the past. In the group of men, the negative impact of non-secure attachment patterns on resentment is particularly pronounced, because the lack of love and acceptance from parents reduces their ability to cope with adversity. Men with an avoidant or rejecting attachment style are more likely to experience powerlessness in the face of difficulties, it is more difficult for them to forgive both others and themselves, which is conducive to the accumulation of negative emotions.

Research confirms previous findings that secure attachment promotes mental resilience and reduces the tendency to feel resentment. On the other hand, the lack of stable bonds in childhood makes it difficult to regulate emotions and leads to long-term resentment. Attachment patterns shape how individuals deal with past hurts – people with a secure attachment style are able to draw constructive conclusions, while people with non-secure styles are more likely to have difficulty accepting and forgiving. In conclusion, in research on attachment styles in the family of origin of young adults, resentment emerges as an important construct that requires further scientific exploration.

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