

TEACHING SCRIPT

SUBJECT

Psychology of crisis

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1. EMOTIONS

Definitions of emotions. Emotion and motivation, emotion and feeling.

In terms of definition, modern psychologists define emotion as a complex complex of bodily and mental changes, including physiological stimulation, feelings, cognitive processes, and behavioral reactions performed in response to a situation, perceived as important to a person. Physiological stimulation includes neuronal, hormonal, visceral and muscular changes. Feelings include both the general affective state (good – bad, positive – negative) and a specific emotional tone, such as joy or disgust. Cognitive processes include interpretations, memories, and expectations. External behavioral reactions may be expressive (crying, laughing) and/or action-oriented (call for help).

As important, we can perceive the situation consciously or unconsciously.

- according to J. Reykowski:

emotions – specific processes of internal regulation, including physiological, sensory, cognitive and behavioral changes that occur in response to events that are significant to the individual, his health or personality.

- according to Toby and Cosmides:

emotions – a mechanism created in the path of evolution; adequate response to problems that need to be solved.

- according to Frijda:

emotions – usually the result of a (un)conscious evaluation of an event as significantly affecting the objectives/interests of the subject; perceived as positive/negative (event consistent/non-objective); essence: activation of preparedness for the implementation of the action programme; trigger a priority for a specific action to which it gives urgent status; experienced as a special type of mental state; they are often accompanied by somatic changes, mimic and pantomime expressions, and behavioral reactions.

- in general:

emotion – a subjective mental state that triggers a priority for the associated program of action; her feelings are usually accompanied by somatic changes, mimic and pantomime expressions, and behaviors.

emotion and Motivation:

emotion comes down to reacting to certain stimuli

motivation → refers to situations involving human action

emotions and feelings:

emotions = Dimensions: affective + content + automatic stimulation,

- according to James:

feeling – a certain state appearing in response to a certain stimulus, which is more than an impression; it follows physiological response. the effect of reflection, cognitive processes, animals do not have them, secondary emotion, social, subjective state, effect of the action of emotions.

- Features of a good theory of emotion in the proposal of R. Lazarus.

A good theory of emotions should:

- 1) Recognise the definition of emotion
- 2) Give information that will allow you to distinguish what is and what is not an emotion
- 3) to give instruments to answer the question of whether the emotions are separate or continuous
- 4) to answer the question of what is the role of physiology and tendencies to act in emotions
- 5) provide ways to interact with each other different emotions, answer the question whether there are any opposing
- 6) Answer the question about the relationship of emotions with motivation and cognition
- 7) characterise the relationship between biological and socio-cultural foundations and emotions
- 8) to include the role of awareness and evaluation in emotions

- 9) to address the issues of emotion
- 10) Regarding Emotional Development
- 11) Regarding the impact of emotions on human functioning and well-being
- 12) Concerning the impact on emotions and their changes through psychotherapy

- Evolutionary Concepts of Emotion, McDougall, James-Lange.

The McDougall concept:

— instinct = hereditary pattern of behavior triggered by specific stimuli, which has 3 components: perceptive, emotional, behavioral

man is the most emotional animal

— emotions formed in us to survive

The James-Lange concept:

William James maintained that our body reacts, and then we feel an emotion: We feel sad because we cry, angry, because we are beating, frightened, because we tremble.

— the source of emotions is feedback from changes occurring in the body

Carl Lange presented similar views in the same year as James

— the perception of the stimulus induces the stimulation of the autonomic system and other activities of the body that lead to the experience of a particular emotion

— peripheral organic theory → attributes the most important role in the chain of emotions to visceral reactions caused by autonomic nervous system activities that occur in relation to the central nervous system on the periphery.

- A phenomenological concept, Giorgi.

From a phenomenological perspective:

the experience of emotions is treated as something integral to self-existence (personality) and with methods of evaluation and behavior towards others and with the moral dimension of these behaviors.

— individual “living experiences” or ways of understanding oneself and opinions, shaped on experiences of participation in a given social environment, are the key to capturing emotions
emotions are individual symbolic interpretations of oneself, others and the social environment.

— bringing emotions to the level of behavior, physiology does not reflect their nature

— individual interpretation of bodily sensations indicates emotion

emotions are processes

— in emotional experience, the central object is the “I” that experiences feelings.

emotions are not a linear consequence of events and reactions, but they emerge from the “hermeneutic circle” in which emotional thoughts merge and proceed together and are a reaction to previous interpretations, understandings and experiences.

— emotions lead to self justification (justification “me”) – they are ways of justifying (explaining) one’s own behavior in the current life situation

— the surviving component is the basic dimension of emotions

- Behavioral Concepts, Watson

Watson:

father of Behaviorism

— subject of Psychology: anything you can touch when stimulus leads to behavior

— by repeating behaviors we learn something, including emotions

— by the contact of a neutral stimulus with a negative stimulus, the former acquires the characteristics of the second

— we learn easily, we learn harder

— there are 3 congenital emotional reactions: fear, rage, and love – from which the other emotions come from

— behaviour is shaped under the influence of the environment

- Physiological Theories, Cannon-Bard, Lindsley, Plutchik

Cannon and Bard's Central Nervous Process Theory:

Walter Cannon rejected the peripheral concept of emotion and James-Lange's theory in favor of a centralist approach focusing on central nervous system activities.

— Cannon fired charges against James-Lange's theory, based on experimental evidence and logical analysis

— He put forward four main pleas in law:

- 1) visceral activity was not related to emotional experience – experimental animals did not cease to react emotionally even after surgical separation of their internal organs from the central nervous system.
- 2) visceral reactions in different stimulant situations are similar – the same rounding of the heart accompanies the exercise of aerobics, love and escape from danger – but do not lead to the same emotion resulting from obtaining feedback on how we react
- 3) Many emotions cannot be distinguished solely on the basis of their physiological components, and therefore a person cannot experience different emotions only by “reading” visceral reactions that are poorly differentiated.

The reactions of the autonomic nervous system are usually too slow to be a source of emotion, triggered in a fraction of a second.

— for an emotion to occur, the brain must intervene between input (stimulation) and output (response); it is particularly necessary to involve the thalamus and the cerebral cortex. Signals from the thalamus reach one area of the brain, evoking a feeling of emotion, and into another area with emotional expression.

Philip Bard also concluded that visceral reactions do not play a central role in the sequence of processes leading to emotion.

— the emotion stimulus exerts a dual effect at the same time, causing both physiological stimulation through the sympathetic nervous system and a subjective experience of emotions

through the cortex. The emotional stimulus triggers two simultaneous reactions, arousal and experience of emotions, none of which is the cause of the other.

- Lindsley's Theory (Motivative Activation Theory):

- includes not only stimulant states that are commonly recognised as emotions, but also states that are not treated as emotional

- the activation system consists of 2 neuronal formations:

- 1) retinal system → merging pulses and sending them to the hypothalamus, and then to the structures of the interbrain and the nuclei of the hill → activation of all parts of the cerebral cortex

- 2) Fiber system – design stimulation by the nuclei of the hill to the cerebral cortex → stimulates the brain as a whole

- there are different activation levels on the continuum: lack of arousal

- very intense arousal

- activation (high – low) – a physiological process taking place in the central nervous system, which can be recorded with the help of EEG

- emotional stimulation (large – small) – indicates psychic manifestations of activation

- behavioural excitement (large – small) – general characteristics of forms of external behavior, taking into account: mobility, tempo, energy

- aspects of motivation:

- 1) General vigilance (readiness) and activation process → components of dynamics and level of energy behavior

- 2) sharpening and focusing activity on those indicators that are related to the purpose of maintaining/realising the need

- The Psychoevolutionary Theory of Emotions by R. Plutchik:

- emotions – the primary source of the development of many other mental processes; subjective states to which we attribute different terms

— included among the so-called expressive theories, emphasising the fundamental importance of expression both in emotion and in adapting to the environment

— emotions played a key role in evolution → survival and development

— verbal expressions of emotion may be an attempt to deliberately mislead

— emotions can be suppressed

communication of emotions depends on the specific history of the individual and on the ease of using the word

— emotion can be inferred from indicators other than verbal statements → children, infants, animals

— emotions are rarely experienced in pure form → a mixture of emotions

— indicators of Emotion:

- own verbal statements about internal states

- express Forms of Behavior

- other people's • reactions

— emotions can be described in various forms:

- using the language of one's own feelings, which allows to identify emotions → the level of subjective language

- using behavioral terms typical for ethological/comparative psychology

- in terms of reaction effects (in function categories) → functional language

— emotions that occur at every level of phylogenetic development indicate the type of basic emotions

— each emotion has its own inherent patterns of expression to perform adaptive tasks.

— adaptive behaviour – reactions of a nature:

- destruction

- securing

- reproductions

— cognitive processes remain at the service of emotions and biological needs stimulus → cognitive evaluation of stimulus → primitive emotion directed by internal mechanisms → forms of behavior on the primal emotion → function that the behavior fulfills

- Cognitive concepts, Arnold, Schachter, Lazarus, Mandler, Frijda.

M. Arnold:

— emotion – a perceived tendency towards anything intuitively judged as good (beneficial) or from anything intuitively judged as bad (unfavorable); this quest/detachment (aversion) is accompanied by patterns of physiological changes conducive to (organising) approach/detachment – they are different for different emotions

— the course of the emotional process:

1) Something must be known (perceived and intuitively judged as good/bad for the viewer) before it is desirable/awakens anxiety

2) Before an emotion arises, first what is known must be assessed in terms of the impact it may have on the perceiver.

3) the evaluation depends on the memory of similar events from the past, so previous assessments and expectations are important

4) The difference in emotions is due to the variety of estimates
neutral reception → evaluation → tendency to action → emotion → action controlled by emotion

Stanley Schachter (the two-factor theory of emotions/Lazarus-Schachter's emotion theory):

— the experience of emotions is the cumulative effect of physiological arousal and cognitive evaluation, both of which are necessary for the occurrence of emotions

— stimulation is always generalised and undifferentiated and appears first in the sequence of emotional processes

— cognitive processes are used to determine how this ambiguous internal state will be called.

- organic, visceral factors interact with mental factors, resulting in emotion
- so when the sympathetic system is stimulated without a known, specific source, then the person will look in an environment of appropriate, attention-catching cognitive elements that he will be able to use to name this arousal and give it emotional meaning.

Richard Lazarus:

emotional experience cannot be understood only in terms of what is happening in a person or in his brain, but it is due to current interactions (transactions) with the environment that is being evaluated.

- emotions appear only in such systems of relationship between the individual and the environment, which for the individual are the source of potential benefits/damages

- emotions are the basic evolutionary and adaptive system of the subject and depend on motivational, cognitive and remedial actions that direct the subject to the essential properties of the environment; the entity analyses events in terms of their impact on the psychobiological condition

- the assessment of the validity of an event shall determine the basic relational theme of the extent of the entity's alignment with the circumstances of the situation; emotions indicate the type of harm/benefit; knowledge of the relational topic allows to explain and predict the emotions that can be aroused in a given situation; the essence of relationality: 2 people in the same external situation can see it differently.

the relationship between emotion and relational meaning is congenital and species-specific

- remedial processes can change the content, sign and intensity of experienced emotions
- the differentiation of emotional processes depends on the differentiation of the process of assessing the relationship between the individual and the environment

- the assessment of the event/object is the result of the actual properties of the environment and the characteristics of the assessor

- primary assessment process:

- target Adequacy Check → Harmful/Profitable
- objective consistency assessment → event zooms/departures from target

- assessment of the type of ego involvement

secondary evaluation process – Criteria:

- responsibility → degree of control over the situation
- options for determining the choice of strategy to solve the problem
- options for determining the choice of emotional tension control techniques
- anticipating the effects of actions taken in a given situation

Mandler:

— if the activity is disrupted, a state of arousal arises, the size of which depends on the suddenness of the occurrence of the event and discrepancies with the expectations, course and results of cognitive development of incompatible information.

information in accordance with the anticipation scheme

→ positive emotion and very low level of arousal

information that is not inconsistent to a small extent

→ positive emotion and increased emotional arousal

largely inconsistent information

→ launching an alternative schema

→ assimilation of incoming information and a significant degree of emotional arousal

→ developing a new scheme (an attempt to accommodate incoming information) and a very

high level of stimulation

→ positive emotions (effective) → negative emotions (ineffective)

Frijda:

— determines emotions due to its adaptive functions

— 2 aspects of emotions:

- assessment of events as (non-)relevant, (un)pleasant
- arouse certain physiological reactions, behaviors, survival

— phases of the emotional process:

- 1) Analyser → what happens inside and outside
- 2) Comparator → Evaluation of the Event
- 3) Diagnosis → Evaluation of an event in terms of the possibility of doing something about

it

4) Evaluator → What are the requirements of the situation, the seriousness of the matter

5) Proposer → development of a specific action plan 6) generator of physiological changes

→ causes these changes 7) actor → action

— rights:

- 1) Situational importance
- 2) Engagement
- 3) directly perceived reality
- 4) Changes
- 5) Habits
- 6) Comparative Feelings
- 7) The Emotional Contrast
- 8) Hedonistic asymmetry
- 9) Behavior of the Emotional Moment
- 10) Close up in yourself
- 11) Considering the Consequences
- 12) Minimum load
- 13) maximum profit

The origin of emotions

Basic emotions, mention at least three proposals and Ekman's position.

basic emotions and derivatives:

— according to Ekman:

- fear
- anger
- sadness
- joy
- disgust

•he wondered if it was an emotion at all. he then crossed out from this list the basic ones, experienced and recognised by all people, culturally universal; distinguished on the basis of facial expression

— according to Izard:

- fear
- anger
- sadness
- joy
- disgust
- surprise
- shame
- guilt
- interest
- contempt

in order to consider emotion basic, the following conditions must be met:

- 1) The specificity of the neuronal substrate
- 2) Distinguishable subjective quality

— according to Plutchik:

- fear
- anger
- sadness
- joy
- acceptance
- disgust
- anticipation
- surprise

basic emotions are those observed at different levels of phylogenetic and adaptive to the struggle of the individual and the species for survival.

— derivative emotions

- love
- fear
- anger
- sadness

basic • happiness, because they come to mind the fastest

The Biological Basis of Emotion

Objective: deepening knowledge from the lecture on the importance of the activity of individual systems and brain structures in the experience of emotions and physiological patterns of selected emotions.

The biological context. Nervous and endocrine processes in emotions.

Recognising that LeDoux (2000) or Panksepp's postulates are justified in the presentation of the brain mechanisms of emotions, a strategy was adopted according to which the systems in the

brain, which are involved in emotions, and then presented the individual brain mechanisms of the more important emotions, will first be characterised by special characterisation.

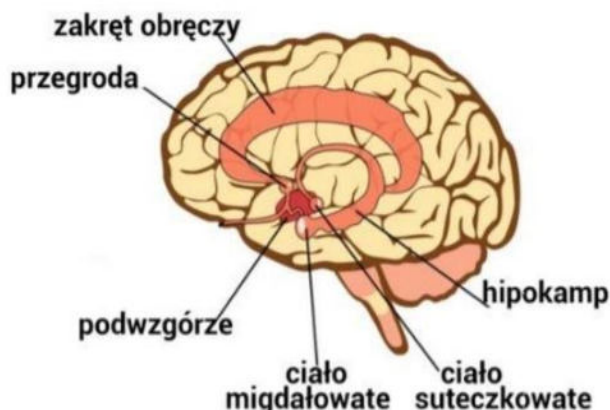


Figure 1. View of the brain with marked areas that are involved in emotional processes. Most of them are inside the brain hemispheres.

The brain is shown above, highlighting those areas that are attributed importance to the generation of emotional states.

The amygdala – its main role is to analyse and integrate complex sensory stimuli and mediate in the transmission of impulses between cortical sensory areas and the motor and autonomous system, hypothalamus and midbrain, i.e. converting stimuli from the outside world into meaningful information and triggering emotional processes. It also plays an important role in conditioning the response of fear, and its damage interferes with the acquisition of new conditional fear reactions and responses already created.

Patients with damaged amygdala do not recognise visual emotional stimuli, and in behavior they exhibit apathetic and emotional indifference (Aggleton, Mishkin, 1986).

The hypothalamus – regulates important vital functions of the body (heart action, blood pressure, water and food intake), in addition, it controls emotional reactions and the autonomic nervous system (sympathic and parasympathetic).

In the midbrain, there are important centers for coordinating defense behavior, and in its abdominal part, the concentration of neurons forming part of the so-called reward system. Significant gray irritation causes patients to feel e.g. anxiety, anxiety.

The hippocampus plays an important role not only in modulating emotional reactions, but also in the course of memory processes, and more specifically in the acquisition of declarative memory (LeDoux, Phelps, 2005). An important role in the acquisition of individual experience, by creating associations between stimuli causing fear and situational context. The anterior hill nuclei – the largest part of the brain, the efficacious bodies that are part of the hypothalamus and the rim bend belonging to the cortical part of the olfactory brain, contain clusters of neurons involved in prescribing impulses between the cortex, the hippocampus, the hypothalamus and the hill, and form connections called the emotional circle of Papez. He discovered that damage to one of the components of this system, the bend of the rim, leads to emotional disorders, apathy, depression, and loss of emotional spontaneity (LeDoux, 2000).

Cerebral cortex: associative or auditory prefrontal cortex plays an important role in generating and modulating emotional states. In the cortical process, it is possible to extinguish unreasonable emotional reactions, for example fear in response to stimuli that do not signal a threat. Thanks to cortical processes, it is possible to extinguish unjustified emotional reactions, such as fear in response to stimuli that do not signal a threat.

Reward layout – combines with the experience of positive emotional states, connecting with the so-called reward layout (Zagrodzka, 2000; Health, 1986), discovered by electrical stimulation of certain areas of the partition, some parts of the hypothalamus, the semi-laying nucleus and the frontal cortex. Stimulation of these areas causes a feeling of pleasant relaxation: and even bliss.

The positive emotions caused by music and in mothers watching photos of their newborn children are combined with increased activation of the frontal cortex (Burgdorf, Panksepp, 2006). Positive emotions are also accompanied by a decrease in the activation of the amygdala.

Fear System – The main structures of involvement in the triggering and modulation of fear are the hypothalamus, the pericardial gray being plays a major role in triggering a coordinated and targeted defensive response.

On the other hand, the amygdala plays the most important role in identifying hazard signals and transmitting impulses to these structures.

A special role in the system of fear is played by the prefrontal cortex, which consists of regulating the emotions of fear.

The system of rage – involves similar structures as the system of fear (Panksepp, 1998) primarily the hypothalamus, the gray perihydrate and the amygdala, (which exercises control over anger, mainly through replacement inhibition. The amygdala exercises control over anger, mainly through inhibition descends (Panksepp, 2005). Other reports indicate that abnormal abdominal work of the temporal lobes, mainly amygdala, such as epilepsy, is associated with an increase in aggressive behavior. (Kalat, 1988).

This system is not yet fully investigated, and the conclusions gathered were mainly based on a study in which some areas of the hypothalamus were electrically irritated, and which triggered a reaction of rage and attack, but not targeted at any particular object.

When do emotions appear?

Mechanisms of emotion – the psychological aspect

Emotions are a mechanism created by evolution. It appeared very often in the living space of many hundreds of generations as an adequate answer to the problems that need to be solved.

The body that had to make decisions about escaping from a predator, reacting to strangers, caring for offspring, or acquiring a sexual partner, initially exhibited various behaviors – J.Tobby and Leda Cosmides (1990).

In the course of evolution, such emotional reactions and related actions were selected, which were effective. The functionality of these emotional reactions, however, concerns the former human environment, not our present, penetrated by civilisation and technology, surroundings. For example:

If panic fear sometimes leads to a freezing reaction in motion, then such behavior had a deep biological meaning when our ancestor met with a predator attacking a target that is moving. If, on the other hand, today the frightened passerby dies still at the sight of the car approaching it, it is, of course, difficult in such a case to talk about the functionality of the emotional reaction.

Biochemical Processes in Emotions

Neurons, i.e. nerve cells, each of which is a separate morphological unit, contact each other via synapses, which are specialised structures.

In larger vertebrates, including humans, only a few nerve structures have electrical synapses, in which the transmission of signals is of an electrical nature. Most synapses operate based on chemical processes, while the transmission of impulses between cells occurs under the influence of electrical impulses reaching the synaptic end of the cell. A triggered chemical, a neurotransmitter that is located in the synaptic gap, acts on receptors in the synapse of the other neuron, exciting the impulse.

This way of conduction is slower than electric, but its advantage is that it can be regulated by chemicals released in the body. (e.g. taking a specific drug that is a chemical that improves mood or reduces unpleasant tension).

Numerous studies show links between the experience of various emotional states and changes in neurotransmitters such as dopamine, noradrenaline, adrenaline and serotonin. In addition, the neuronal system controls the secretion of hormones, some of them, as cortisol have a reversible effect on the work of the nervous system, acting similarly on neurotransmitters.

ION	EMOT	ANGER	FEAR	SADNESS	MILD	JOY OF

MOD EL NAUROENDO CRINOLOGIC AL					
NARA DRENALINA	++	+	0	—	0
OADR ENALINA	+	++	0	—	0
CORT ISOL	0	+	++	0	—
TEST OSTERONE	++	0	—	0	++

Table 1. Neuroendocrine patterns (changes in the level of neurotransmitters and hormones) for different emotions (work). On the podst. Hery, 1986)

Emotion activation systems

— Neural – the structure of nerve connections of the central nervous system. Izard believes that this system is not only the biological basis for emotional processes at “higher” levels, but it is also possible to evoke emotions on their own. An example of this is the activation of emotional states by increasing the level of chemicals affecting the work of neurons.

— Sensomotor operates on the basis of a positive feedback mechanism. In this case, emotions are activated by sensory processes, which are also components of emotions.

— Affective – triggers emotional states in response to biologically important stimuli such as certain flavors or smells and pain. We are dealing with an automatic, reflexive response to such events in the environment.

How do emotions arise?

DIFFERENT SOURCES OF EMOTIONAL EMOTIONS AND THEIR IMPORTANCE FOR PSYCHOLOGIST'S WORK

- Biological Mechanisms of Emotional Emotion
- In addition to automatic responses to an event, emotions are generated by a self-regulatory system based on the internal representation of goals and comparing events with these goals.
- People generate patterns of action plans

Hughlings-Jackson

The lowest parts of the brain are responsible for automatic reactions to simple stimuli.

The upper floor – the younger evolutionary centers – are responsible for emotional reactions

The highest parts of the brain, evolutionarily – the youngest – are responsible for higher mental activities, such as writing poetry or abstract reasoning and controlling lower levels.

This theory was the basis for McLean's theory.

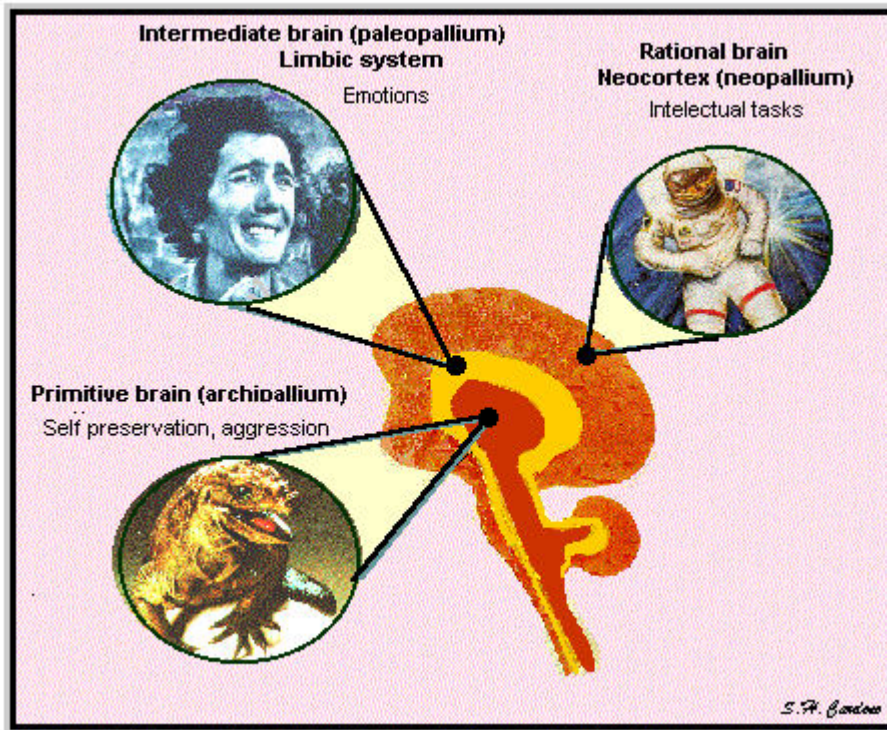
McLean

He assumed that there are three systems in the human brain that are anatomically and functionally diverse. Systems have evolved in different phases of evolution.

- Referring to vertebrates, three main phases of evolution can be distinguished: the oldest part of the brain is the so-called reptilian brain (containing striatums), the second part: palae mammalian brain, or limbic brain, which contains a septum and amygdala, the third part – neo-mammalian brain containing a new cortex
- Older parts are located in the inner part of the brain, newer in the outer
- working at the Laboratory of Evolution and Behavior of the Brain, NIMH, USA, introduced the concept of limbic system in 1952.
- He conducted systematic research on the effects of brain damage on animal behaviour, from lizards to small mammals.

- Additional information was obtained by creating chimeras – fragments of the brain of one animal were implanted with another and its behavior was observed.
- This distinguishes three brain structures, with different functions, a sense of time and space, a kind of intelligence.
- Evolutionarily the oldest is the spinal cord, the brain stem and the midbrain. More specifically, we have:
- The stem and the neural base of the brain, containing all the regulatory and reproductive systems of the body, forms the “Reptilians” (Reptilians, reptiles).
- Reticular formation controls the state of mind arousal, wakefulness and consciousness, sleep, motivation to act.
- Hypothalamus – regulates homeostasis: thermoregulation, biological rhythms, cooperation with the autonomic nervous system, feelings of hunger and thirst.

R syndrome is more primitive than emotion – It implements territorial instincts, aggressive behaviors, ritual (e.g. mating), social hierarchies. Killing in cold blood, like reptiles! Possessive wars in humans, chimpanzees, dolphins are the manifestation of these instincts.

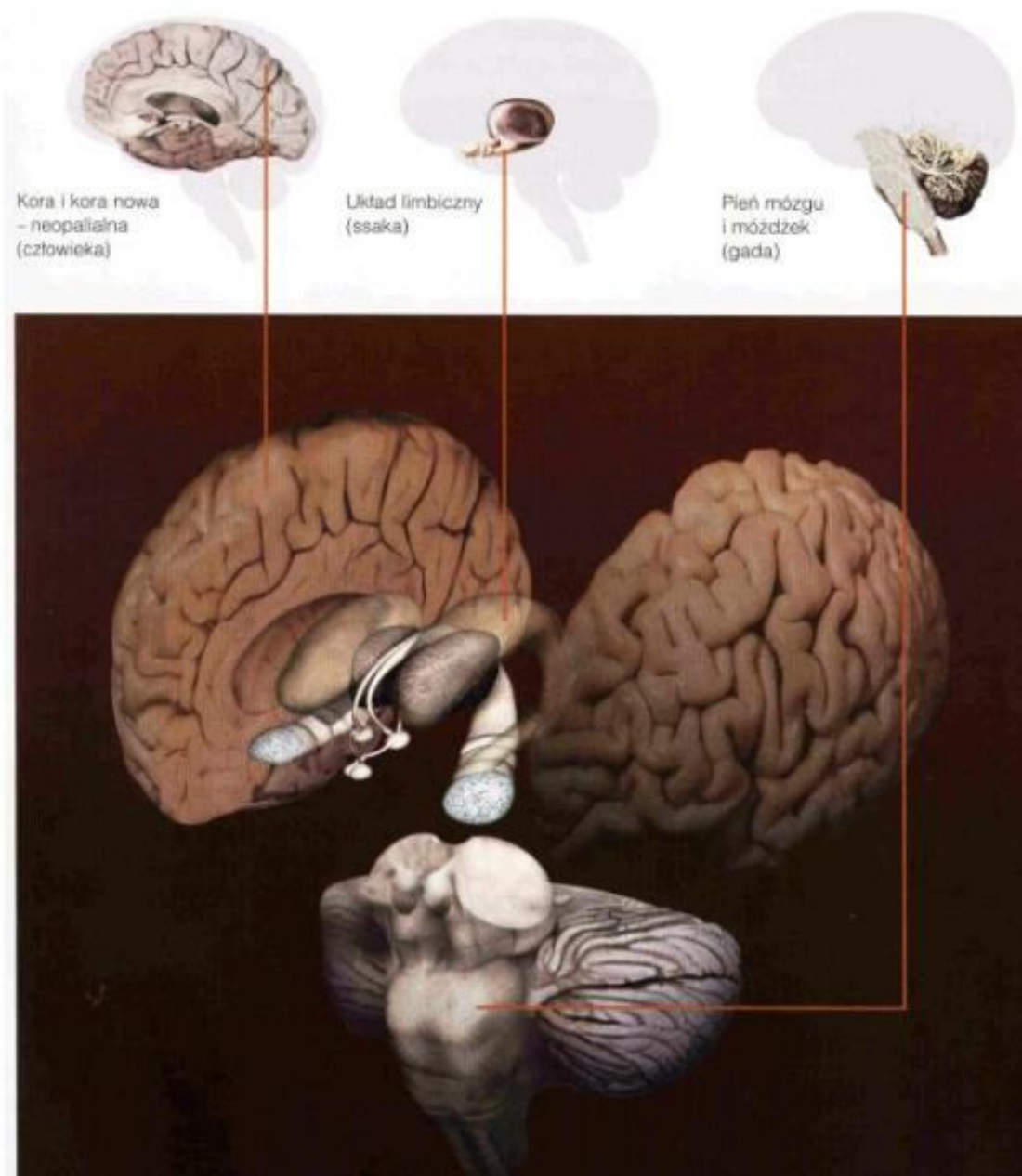


Source: http://wwwold.fizyka.umk.pl/~duch/Wyklady/Mozg/05-2-trzy_mozgi.htm

Ledoux

- The limbic system is poorly developed in reptiles, well in mammals, is ≤ 150 million years old.
- Functions: emotions, protective behaviors, typical instinctive behaviors for a particular species.
- Old cortex, including olfactory bark, reacts to non-specific odor stimulation (more accurate analysis in the hippocampus hook); includes pear bark (Piriform cortex), intravascular bark and adjacent areas
- The hippocampus, forming with adjoining hippocampus formation is a key structure for episodic memory and spatial orientation, was also thought to be responsible for the mechanism of fighting-escape (although the brain stem plays a more important role here).

- Support (part of the hippocampus), probably associated with the mechanism of waiting and discovering novelties
- Amygdala (amygdala) is the most important structure for the expression and control of fear, aggression, sexual behavior (in castrates of the amygdala testicles decrease by 30 %), memory of emotional events. Current irritation of these areas causes psychosis and hallucinations
- The hypothalamus containing the pituitary gland is responsible for coupling with the endocrine system, it also influences the excitation and expression of stress signals and pleasant emotions (oxytocin, endorphins)
- Mammals experience strong emotions, also in dreams
- New cortex, best developed in primates, its rapid development occurred only a few dozen million years ago, occupies 80 % of the size of mammalian brains (particularly the frontal lobes are expanded)
- Functions: cognitive processes, problem solving, social behavior, culture
- Frontal lobes are strongly linked to limbic structures
- Characteristic of the human brain: differentiation of the hemispheres. The intersection of the nerve pathways causes that information that arrives from the outside world is partially processed on the opposite side and partly on the same side.
- It has been proven that the right hemisphere of the brain is more closely related to the processing of emotions than the left (the right hemisphere has stronger connections to the amygdala).
- Recent research shows that this is mainly about positive emotions.



The limbic system involved in the analysis and expression of emotions includes:

- olfactory bark,
- the bark of the rim bend,
- amygdala testicles,

- hippocampus,
- the hill,
- hypothalamus and a few smaller structures

Psychological Mechanisms of Emotional Emotion

Emotion is a consequence of a person's specific orientation in the environment, his attitude to change (Doliński, 2000)

Lazarus

Cognitive evaluation – recognition by the subject of a specific event as significant from the point of view of its own objectives, interests. Cognitive evaluation is a sufficient and necessary condition for the appearance of emotions.

Primary assessment – determines whether the emotion will appear and its valence (whether it will be positive or negative)

- Orientation whether an event is related to the objectives and interests of the subject (if not, the emotion will not appear)
- Does it increase the likelihood of achieving goals (if not, negative emotions appear)
- The initial assessment concerns both the situation and the general values and awareness of the subject.

Secondary assessment – assessing how a person can solve the problem and deal with the emotional consequences of the problem (personal and environmental resources)

Smith and Elsworth

- Conducted research consisting of reproducing events with experience of various emotions and assessing its conditions

- The patterns of assessment of the situation are strongly related to the likelihood of the appearance of certain emotions.
- Anger was identified with unpleasant events, and other people were responsible for these events.

Parkinson

- Criticism of Lazarus Theory
- Differentiation of information only changes the intensity of the experience, but it has not been proven that it affects the quality of emotions (they are not differentiated in this respect)
- Cognitive processes can direct attention, and thus create different emotions
- No causal relationship has been established between cognitive evaluation of events and the occurrence of emotions
- It may be that cognitive evaluation is the result, or arises during the experience of emotions.
- Research on the key role of assessment in emotions was made on the basis of verbal reports of the subjects, and they may be wrong where the emotion came from.
- Evaluations are “cold” rational processes, while emotions are “hot” processes (e.g. change in cognitive evaluations under the influence of sexual arousal, Ariely 2009)

Oatley and Johnson-Laird

- Theory based on the assumption of two different types of signals transmitted in the nervous system
- Information signals – These messages carry information about events and transmit orders to specific destinations. What caused the emotion or to whom it is directed, has content
- Evolutionarily older and much simpler type of signals; these signals do not convey specific information, they simply exercise control over the brain, giving it various

forms or modality of the organisation; these distinct modality (for joy, sadness) form the basis of emotions and moods. The role is to control the organisation of the brain, it has an emotional color, but there is no other content.

Differences between Primary and Secondary Emotions Ekman



In the 1970s, research by American psychologist Paul Ekman showed that basic emotions are biologically determined and universal, that is, expressed and perceived in the same way in every culture. The basic emotions Ekman described are: anger, fear, sadness, joy, disgust and surprise.

Experiment: In the late 1960s. Ekman and Walter Friesen examined the Fore tribe of Papua New Guinea. The natives had no contact with Western civilisation before. The researchers presented to members of the tribe photos showing the faces of Americans expressing six basic emotions. The task of the subjects was to name and describe them. Ekman and Friesen then told six emotional stories. Each of them was intended to trigger a reaction among the natives. The task of Fore tribe members was to demonstrate facial expressions that correspond to the emotions contained in the stories told. The effects of these studies have been documented photographically and based on them, the researchers conducted similar studies on the American population. The results of these studies confirmed the validity of Darwin's thesis that, regardless of culture, the six basic expressions described by Ekman are unchanged in both expression and reception. Basic emotions are therefore transcultural emotions, while the rest are a product of cultural experience.

- Ekman identified 43 facial muscles that control the expression of human well-being. Without their proper action, expressing happiness, sadness or anger would be impossible.
- Interestingly, using all possible combinations of these 43 muscles, we can make up to 10 thousand grimaces!
- The human face can simultaneously express two emotions using different mimic regions (e.g. eyes expressing anger and lower region of the face – happiness). This is due to the fact that emotions can overlap over time. This type of emotional change lasts for fractions of seconds. You can talk about the phenomenon of microexpression.
- Emotional microexpression is a short, unintentional reaction of facial mimic muscles.

Basic emotions according to Ekman

- Fear
- Anger
- Sadness
- Joy
- Disgust
- Surprise

The Wizards project in the United States has proven that it is possible to learn to recognise such emotions. An hour of professional training is enough to start capturing microexpressions. The ability to capture microexpression makes it possible to slightly improve the effectiveness of attempts to expose a lie. When testing someone's truthfulness, let us not pay too much attention to the eyes of the interlocutor – the lie of a nervous person will lurk in the vibrations of the muscles of his cheeks, mouth and forehead.

Izard

The criterion is also universality of facial expressions and distinctiveness of individual expressions+ 2 additional conditions: specificity of neural substrate and distinctive subjective quality

Basic emotions according to Izard

- Fear
- Anger
- Sadness
- Joy
- Disgust
- Shame
- Guilt
- Surprise
- Interest
- Contempt

Plutchik

- It's not just a human-evolutionary approach.
- R. Plutchnik assumed that basic emotions are those that can be observed at various phylogenetic levels and have an adaptive significance for the struggle for the survival of the individual and the species (i.e. in the Darwinian spirit).

Basic emotions according to Plutchik

- Fear
- Anger
- Sadness
- Joy

- Acceptance
- Disgust
- Anticipation
- Surprise

Basic emotions according to linguists

- Love
- Fear
- Anger
- Sadness
- Happiness

The most common are: joy, fear, anger, sadness.

- The combination of basic emotions leads to the appearance of derivatives (Plutchik).

Derivative emotions according to Plutchik

- Surprise and sadness – disappointment
- Surprise and fear – a sense of humiliation (threat or fear)
- Fear and liking – a sense of surrender
- Fear and disgust – anxiety and caution
- Fear and joy – guilt
- Expecting and Joying – Hope
- Expecting something and evil – anger (rage, fury)
- Joy and acceptance/loving – Love
- Hair and stress – contempt/hostility
- Stress and sadness – remorse
- Joy and anger – pride

According to Kemper, derivative emotions are basic emotions that occur in specific social situations, e.g. guilt: fear of punishment, shame: anger at yourself. Derivative emotions – mixture, composition of basic emotions

James-Langy Theory

- Emotions are perceptions of the states of your own body!
- “If we imagine a strong emotion, and then try to abstract from our consciousness of this emotion all the sensations associated with its bodily symptoms, we will find that there is nothing else” (James 2002, p. 348).
- Peripheral theory, the source of emotions is action, changes in the tension of muscles and internal organs
- Event – behavioral and visceral reaction (physiological) – interpretation of emotions – emotion (I am sad because tears fly)
- Feelings are the most important, they are the basis of personality, individuality, subjectivity, it is under their influence that we take actions to feel emotions

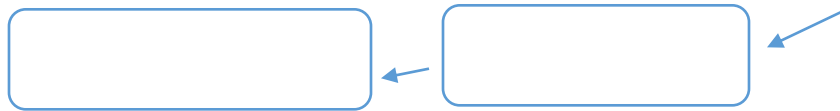
Perception of stimulus

physiological → changes in → perception of physiological changes → feeling

- Feelings – They are the essence of thought and consciousness, give a sense of personal identity, give meaning to the concept of oneself
- Higher feelings: Moral, Intellectual, Aesthetic

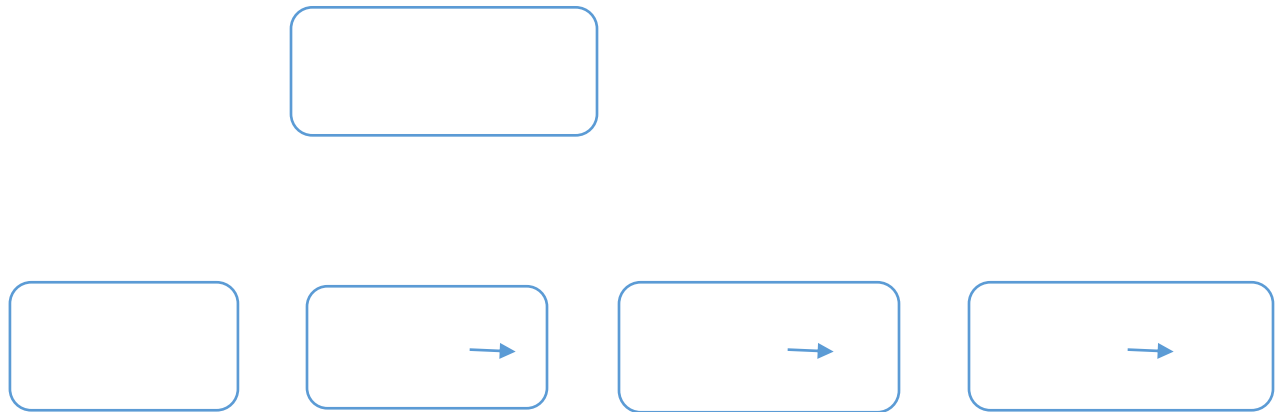
The greater the complexity of emotions, the faster the transition from content registration to emotional response





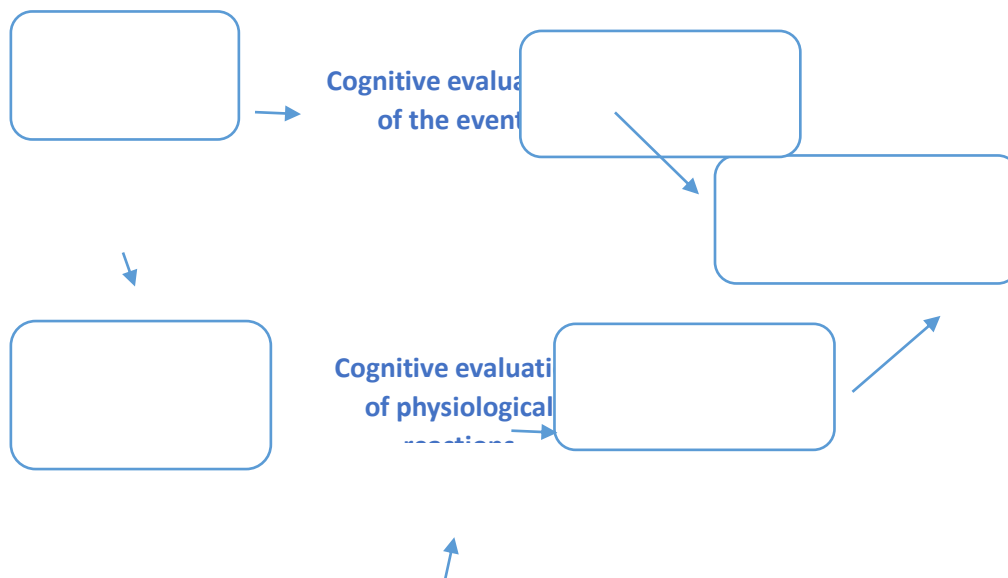
Cannon's Theory by Barda

- Cannon-Barda's theory of emotions states that stimulating events triggers feelings and physical reactions that occur simultaneously.
- For example, seeing a snake can trigger both a feeling of anxiety (emotional reaction) and an accelerated heartbeat (physical reaction). Cannon-Bard suggests that both of these reactions occur simultaneously and independently. In other words, physical response is not dependent on emotional response and vice versa
- When a trigger event occurs, the hill can send signals to the amygdala. The amygdala is responsible for processing strong emotions such as fear, pleasure or anger. It can also send signals to the cerebral cortex that controls conscious thought. Signals sent from the hill to the autonomic nervous system and skeletal muscles control physical reactions. These include sweating, shaking, or muscle tension. Sometimes, Cannon-Bard's theory is called the Tale Theory of Emotion.
- The centre of emotion is the hill.
- Bark inhibits emotions
- Damage to the bark causes the hill to be released from its control (greater influence of affect on behavior)
- Emotional stimulation is spilled and non-specific – it does not generate emotional states
- Different emotional states are associated with the same arousal



Schachter and Singer's Theory

In order for the emotional state to arise, the following conditions must exist – the subject must be able to stimulate the process of cognitive analysis of the physiological changes occurring and external situations in which these changes occurred, verbally mark the state in which it was found. Erroneous explanation and misconception of one's own physiological arousal may, in some cases, help reduce the intensity of experienced emotions.





Plutchik's Theory

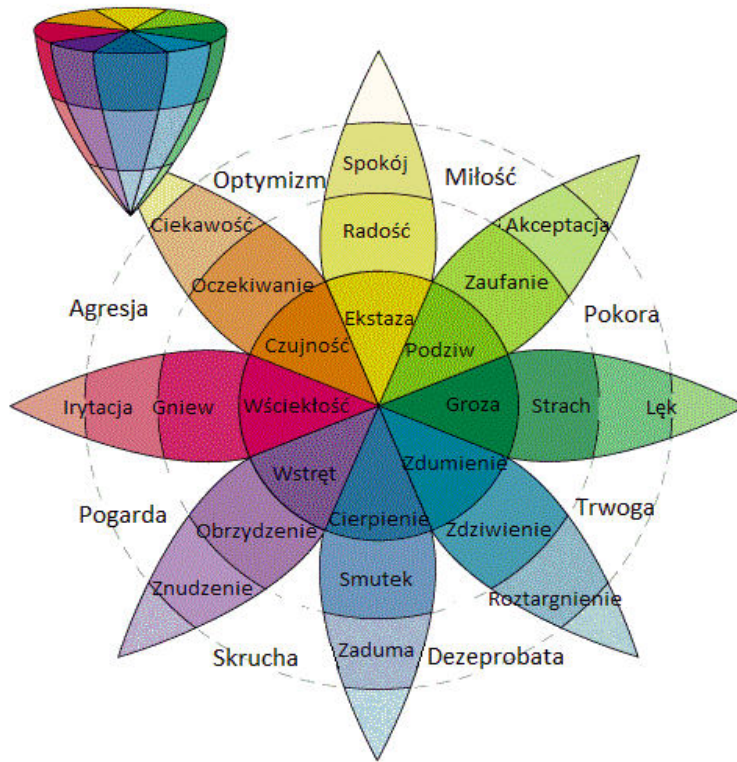
Between 1960 and 1980, the American psychologist Robert Plutchik developed a theory of emotions in which he proposed the existence of eight basic emotions, evolutionarily naturally developed. These emotions are innate and directly relate to adaptive behaviors that are designed to help survive. All other emotions arise from them.

The basic emotions are arranged into four diades of opposing emotions

It is impossible to raise both at the same time.

- Surprise vs Expectation
- Disgust vs. liking
- Fear vs anger
- Sadness vs Joy

The three-dimensional Plutchik diagram describes the relationship between different emotions, analogous to the colors on the wheel. The vertical dimension represents the intensity, and the horizontal wheel represents the degree of similarity. The emotions opposite on the wheel are opposite emotions. According to Plutchik, we cannot experience them at the same time. In a two-dimensional projection of a diagram, emotions in empty spaces form the basic diades that are a mixture of two basic emotions.



Frijda's Theory

Functional shot – determination of emotions due to their functions

Two main aspects of emotion:

Event assessment – significant/negligible, pleasant/unpleasant

Arousing physiological functions, behavior and survival

Emotions – a mechanism indicating that an event is important for the interests of the individual (positive – on the way to the goal; negative – threatening events, the need to restore well-being)

Rights of Emotion according to Frijda:

- THE LAW OF SITUATIONAL IMPORTANCE

The first rule is closely related to the meaning of the situation, which determines whether an emotion will occur at all, and if so, what one. At the root of every emotion are both new and unexpected events. This law is based on Richard Lazarus' theory of emotions.

➤ RIGHT OF ENGAGEMENT

Another law refers to the fact that emotions are a kind of response to those events that play an important role for a given person, while the whole emotional charge is based on engagement.

➤ THE LAW OF A DIRECTLY PERCEIVED REALITY

The third principle is that events that trigger certain emotions in a person must be perceived as real, and the intensity of an emotion is directly reflected in the sense of reality.

➤ THE LAW OF CHANGE OF HABIT AND COMPARATIVE FEELING

This right is related to the evaluation of an event, which depends on the conditions under which the event occurs. In this way, if there is such a situation that the change is greater than the person expected, the emotion is stronger.

➤ THE LAW OF HEDONISTIC ASYMMETRY

According to the fifth rule, all positive emotions, compared to negative ones, quickly disappear (the negative ones persist for a long time). This mechanism is related to the fact that each of us quickly gets used to various types of events that cause positive emotions, and we do not get used to the negative ones.

➤ THE LAW OF EMOTIONAL MOMENT

This law concerns the persistence of memory traces associated with feeling emotions. Subsequent emotional experiences are just as strong as in the original situation that triggered them.

➤ THE RIGHT TO SHUT UP IN YOURSELF

The seventh rule states that the dominant emotional state tends to subjugate both the thoughts and actions of a person, as a result of which the willingness to act caused by emotions equates to other actions and goals.

➤ THE RIGHT TO CONSEQUENCES

The eighth rule refers to the fact that an emotional reaction also contains a control element. Emotional control is about predicting the negative consequences of an emotional reaction.

➤ LAW OF MINIMUM CHARGE

This law applies to the interaction of emotional and cognitive processes, which are to lead to an appropriate assessment of situations when emotional tension is as low as possible.

➤ THE LAW OF MAXIMUM PROFIT

The last rule is related to the assessment of the situation in order to obtain the greatest emotional gain.

The Theory of Lazarus

In fact, for Lazarus it is very important to understand the quality of relationships.

- Emotion is a relational event, it is a relationship, a certain arrangement, nothing can be understood if one does not understand them from the side of the relationship – the relationship between me and certain events.
- What is important to a person and determines the quality of the relationship must also be related to the personal interest
- If it is not related to personal interest, it does not trigger an emotional state.
- On the one hand, it is important to understand emotions that emotions are relational states. On the other hand, it is important that the interaction must be related to personal interest.
- Personal interest is determined by the ability to manage events and requirements. Each emotion is characterised by a specific kind of relational meaning. The point is that every emotion is characterised by a basic relational theme. The relational topic is, for example: for the emotions of anxiety, the primary relational theme is the situation in the face of an uncertain event.
- Depending on what content this event has, it triggers a certain behavior style. To understand how emotion is generated, it is necessary to consider three basic elements. They describe how emotions arise.
- The basis of emotions is the evaluation process, the evaluation process. It involves many components.

In general, the evaluation process includes:

- primitive assessment (primary)
- secondary assessment

They also belong as a consequence of:

- remedial measures

These three elements form the theory of emotions.

They enable:

- social contacts,
- defence against threat,
- obtaining food,
- childcare and procreation
- division of labour,
- hunting, collecting food,
- preparation and sharing of food,
- raising children,
- competition and aggression

Mechanism of cognitive evaluation

Cognitive evaluation is the recognition by an entity of a particular event as significant from the point of view of its own goals and interests. (R. Lazarus, 1991).

It consists of:

- Primary evaluation is a process that determines whether an emotion will occur, and if so, what its valence will be. (Emotion can only occur if the event is related to these values. However, it should be remembered that these can be both specific goals and interests resulting from the current

activity (e.g. passing an exam, picking up a girl), as well as more general values – absent at a given moment in the field of consciousness of a functioning person (e.g. saving life, maintaining personal dignity). If the operator has come to the conclusion that the event in question is related to its objectives and interests, it in turn answers the question whether it increases or reduces the chances of its realisation.

The question arises:

What, if any, can be done in this case?

When considering the possibilities of dealing with the problem, it reviews the so-called personal resources and environmental resources (does what is happening in the environment facilitate or make it difficult to cope with the situation?)

- Secondary assessment consists of the consideration by a person of how he can deal with the problem in himself, as well as the emotional consequences of the occurrence of this problem – secondary evaluation determines the emergence of emotions.
- The evaluation determines whether the emotion will occur and what it will be.
- Hope – occurs when the circumstances of an event create an opportunity to achieve a positive goal under certain conditions.
- Sadness – occurs when it is not possible to deal with a given problem (low state of personal and environmental resources)
- Fear will occur when the subject comes to the conclusion that it does not have the potential to deal with the unfavourable situation.
- Anger occurs when the subject finds that the cause of the unfavourable situation is someone else

Duration of emotional phenomena according to K.Oatley and Jennifer Jenkins (1996)

- Mood – is an affective state with valence (positive or negative) and intensity (usually small), also containing more or less crystallised expectations of feeling states consistent with their valence in the near future.

- Emotional disorders – are subjectively unpleasant sensations, lasting weeks, months, and sometimes even years, disturbing the subject in effective functioning,

Influence of moods and emotions on judgments and social behavior

In her research (Strelau, 380 pp.) Alice Isen (1984) formulated the principle that because one of man’s motivations is the desire to maintain a positive mood, people avoid behaviors that can lead to lowering. This is not only about engaging in emotionally expensive forms of helping other people with a positive mood are also, for example, little inclined to take serious financial risks. (Isen and Geva, 1987).

Mood	Spontaneous reaction (automatic process)	Deliberation reaction (controlled process)
Positive	Increased likelihood of involvement in assistance (compatibility rule)	Increased likelihood of involvement in the provision of assistance, provided that this does not lead to a decrease in mood (mood-sustaining strategies)
Negative	Decrease in the likelihood of involvement	Increased likelihood of involvement in the provision of

	in assistance (compatibility rule)	assistance, provided that this activity can lead to an increase in mood (mood support strategies)
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2. REGULATION OF EMOTIONS

The regulation of emotions is unconscious and automatic. In the first period of a person's life, emotional regulation is primarily about lowering the level of arousal. Babies exhibit many behaviors that allow them to achieve this effect. They consist of either directly emitting self-respiring reactions (e.g. finger sucking) or triggering behaviors in the social environment that will result in a decrease in the tension experienced by the infant (crying/crying that causes the reaction of others).

Over time, the child develops more complex, individualised and less automatic ways of regulating emotions – playing with toys in order to arouse positive feelings or suppress negative feelings, moves towards stimuli that are a source of pleasure and distances from those that cause negative sensations. However, this does not mean that the automatic regulation of emotions ends at a certain period of ontogenesis. Biological mechanisms, which generally do not allow for too long a strong emotional arousal, because it would be too harmful to the body, it defends itself by arousing the emotion braking centers that are found in the limbic system of the brain. Their activation leads to a gradual extinction of arousal.

The automatic reaction in the evolutionary past of humans was often an optimal behavior. In the case of feeling the strongest threat, we can talk about the emergence of the phenomenon of

denial – denial is an unconscious state by the subject of non-acceptance of threatening information with unequivocally negative effects.

Regulating emotions at the automatic level can also have a more complex character. For example, feeling a strong fear in exaltation conditions – after all, fear is a factor that reduces our ability to think precisely and clearly formulate our thoughts. Still, people reveal a fairly strong exam anxiety in the face of a task that diagnoses their intellectual abilities. This fear, on the other hand, becomes weaker when it is said that its results are not influenced by the emotions felt by a person.

Subjective self-control of emotions

The term self-control can mean very different phenomena. To avoid confusion, we will rely on M. Kofty's proposal, modifying as a bit in the direction suggested by the authors of newer works in this field (Frijda 1986, Walden and Smith 1997).

Emotional self-control will be understood as a relatively constant property of personality, which determines the frequency and intensity of such emotional experiences, thoughts and behaviors associated with them, which comply with social standards or standards approved by the subject. Actions (or reactions) of self-control are the manifestation of behavior by the subject in accordance with these standards, while processes (or mechanisms) of self-control are reactions initiated by the subject, through which he achieves convergence between his own emotional behaviors, thoughts and affective feelings, and accepted internal standards (internalised principles of functioning) or external principles approved socially.

3. SELF-REGULATION

The third component of psychological competence is self-regulation, i.e. the ability to recognise the state of arousal and regulate it so as to optimally manage your level of arousal and energy (as defined by Dr. Stuart Shanker). In order to illustrate the impact of arousal and energy on human functioning, Robert Thayer, author, among others, is the author of the study. Self-regulation refers to the action of the autonomic nervous system in regulating the level of stimulation. He developed a self-regulatory method, which assumes that difficult behavior is the result of stress overload, i.e. an unbalanced balance between the state of arousal and the amount of stimuli experienced. It therefore indicates that the way to change negative behavior can be support in identifying sources of stress and helping to balance tension and energy levels.

He identified five areas of stress:

- biological (unmet basic needs – sleep deprivation, hunger, noise, difficulties in sensory integration);
- emotional (excessive emotions that hinder rational thinking);
- social (observation or struggle against violent conflicts and behaviour);
- cognitive (information overload);
- prosocial (excessly sensed emotions of others due to empathy and care).

Support yourself and others using the self-reg method:

1. Read the signs of stress and name specific behaviors, avoiding evaluations, meaning stress behaviour – unlike Misbehaviour, i.e. inappropriate, “naughty” behavior.
2. Identify stressors, i.e. factors that cause stress in particular areas.
3. Reduce stressors (of course, those that can be reduced and unnecessarily increase tension – e.g. if a person is sensitive to sounds, can use earplugs when hungry – eat).
4. Take a moment to reflect to develop self-awareness (often we need help in naming and combining stimuli with one’s own well-being).

5. Find a way to calm and regenerate the energy of yourself or the other person (not something that will only bring temporary relief, such as eating a chocolate bar). In my therapeutic work, I encourage participants to create a “stress coping box” or “psychological pharmacy”. Children can be advised to use a shoe box and various “treasures”, colour papers, etc. In the case of adolescents and adults, it is enough to draw up a list of calming activities. They may include, for example: listening to music, drawing, counting breaths, talking to a friend, writing in a diary, dancing, nap, hot bath, etc.

Selected concepts of emotional regulation

The concepts of emotional regulation try to answer questions about the properties and components of emotions subject to regulation, about the role of cognitive processes in the regulation of emotions, about the role of the social environment in the formation of regulation as a competence, as well as about the criteria of optimal and disturbed regulation of emotions.

Reviewing and summarising a number of the subject matter of the Thompson Regulation definition in the literature (1994, 1999; Thompson, Clarkins, 1996) points out that the regulation of emotions is not a uniform phenomenon and also answers the question: what is regulated? The regulations may be subject to: content, intensity and duration of emotions, but also: neurophysiological components of emotions, attention processes, interpretation of emotion-inducing events, interpretation of own internal indicators of excitation, access to sources of external support, emotional requirements of the environment in which the individual lives to best suit individual needs and characteristics, and expression of emotions. According to Thompson, triggering and sustaining emotional arousal are just as important as inhibition and suppression, and regulation includes both acquired emotional management strategies, but also a variety of external influences through which a given emotion is regulated – especially important at infancy but existing throughout life.

A structural approach to Dodge and Garber (1991; Dodge, 1989; in Górska, 2004) is a concept of regulation that addresses the issues of components of emotions subject to regulation. The authors cite the Lang model, distinguishing three components of reaction to stimuli: neurologic-biochemical (studies of this type of reaction concern especially the autonomic nervous system and

neurohormonal regulation), behavioral-expressive (especially mimic expression) and cognitive-experience (estimated on the basis of descriptions of emotional states). The emotional response in these components occurs simultaneously. In this light, Dodge defines emotional regulation as “the process by which stimulation in one response system leads to a change and transformation in another system of responses” (Dodge and Garber 1991, p. 6). Emotional regulation can occur on three levels:

1. between the components of the reaction to stimuli (e.g. creation of cognitive strategies to halt and inhibit impulsive behavior);
2. adjusting one aspect inside one of the three components of the reaction to stimuli, according to another aspect in the same component;
3. interpersonal regulation, between the person and the social environment.

Cicchetti, Ackerman, and Izard (1995) consider regulation as a phenomenon between the cognitive and emotional systems. The main function of the emotional system is to motivate and organise behavior. This system consists of separate components such as neuronal processes, expressive behavior, and emotional states. The emotional and cognitive systems interact with each other, but they are characterised by a certain degree of independence, which is greater in early childhood and decreases with age and mutual coordination of systems. From this perspective, this coordination between cognitive and emotional systems is a central aspect of emotional regulation. The central construct explaining the process of regulating emotions are cognitive-affective structures. Each emotion is linked to certain other emotions and connects with specific thoughts and memories to form a cognitive-affective structure (some structures may also be innate; Cr. Cicchetti, Ackerman, Izard, 1995). This structure is motivational, so it also combines with certain actions, which gives a sequence: emotion-action. The emotion-knowledge-action sequence is organised into a pattern that characterises an individual style of adaptation to e.g. frustrating situations and contributes to the development of personality

In the developmental approach to the regulation of emotions (Thompson, 1994, 1999; Thompson, Clarkins, 1996) discusses the interpersonal interactions between mother and child. First, it is assumed that the main task of parenting is the presence of a guardian ready to lead the

emotional experience of the child. Parents usually fulfill this task by directly intervening in the child's experience of emotions, modeling and selectively reinforcing positive expression, evoking emotions through empathy or by social referencing; Walden, 1991), verbal instructions on the child's proposed regulatory strategy, controlling opportunities that could evoke emotions in a child. Secondly, the developmental approach highlights the importance of the child's maturity, which influences the ability to regulate. Maturity arises as a need to regulate emotions in a child, an increasing repertoire of regulatory strategy, emerging ability to adapt strategies to a given situation and requirements, increase the flexibility of converting one mode of regulation to another, the ability to predict and evaluate the success of regulation. Looking at the regulation of emotions from a development perspective allows to emphasise the following aspects:

- regulation is a certain competence which an entity acquires from the earliest stages of development and develops with the development of personality;
- arises in the child's interaction with the guardian and, as a consequence, it can be assumed that it is interpersonal, i.e. it occurs in the communication space of two people;
- regulation is considered functionally as a tool for achieving personal goals;
- regulation does not always act as a process that adapts an individual to the environment (may be non-adaptative) or is sometimes non-functional.

Cole, Michel, Teti (1994) define emotional regulation as a process that takes place between the emotional patterns of an individual and the demands of context, and argue that the mode of regulation should be flexible enough to allow the individual to react spontaneously and at the same time tolerated by the social environment. Optimal regulation is spoken of when basic emotional patterns do not interfere with the functioning of attention, social relationships, and at the same time the individual shows flexibility in regulating expression and emotional experience. A person may poorly or excessively regulate the intensity of a certain emotion and at the same time exhibit appropriate regulation in the case of another emotional state.

The criterion of adaptability and flexibility of regulation also appears in the Block concept (for: Carver, Scheier, 2000; Pulkkinen, 1982). The development of ego structures responsible for

adaptation is due to the configuration of co-institutional factors and socialisation. Ego Control (Ego-Control) defines it as inhibition of impulse expression and treats it as smoke: over-control of impulses – insufficient control of impulses. Excessive control is characterised by excessive impermeability of boundaries manifested in stopping impulses, deferring gratification, inhibition of action and affect, isolation from environmental distractors. At the other end of the continuum there is insufficient control, characterised by excessive permeability of boundaries and its consequence of insufficient impulse modulation, inability to postpone gratification, immediate and direct expression of motives and impulses, and susceptibility to environmental distortions. People whose ego control occupies the means of presented smoke control and inhibit impulses, but they do so moderately and can be described as better adapted than people occupying the ends of the continuum. The flexibility of the ego (i.e. the ability to modify its level of ego control so that the individual can adapt to the requirements of the environment, Ego-Resiliency) is opposed to the ego’s “violence” (Ego-Brittleness). Flexibility means adapting to changing circumstances and environmental conditions, promoting a balance between requirements and the ability to behave, easily recalling the repertoire of problem-solving strategies – including cognitive resources and social support. The “violence” of the ego is the inability to respond to the changing demands of the environment and situations, the tendency to disorganise in the event of stress and changes in life, the difficulty of rebalancing after traumatic events.

The fact of significant differences between individuals (innate and acquired) in terms of regulation may make it difficult or impossible to recognise indicators or predictors of misadaptation or psychopathology. Cole, Michel, Teti (1994) describe the dimensions of emotional regulation that can help clinicians diagnose. Here are the edges of dimensions that demonstrate the development of the ability to regulate emotions; the occupation of this edge on a given dimension is a development task:

Dimension is a development task:

- access to a wide range of emotions depending on the situation;
- modulation of intensity and duration of emotions – reduction of intensity and duration of negative emotions as well as modulation of positive emotions;

- smooth transition from one to another emotional state;
- adapting the expression of emotions to the cultural norms of display;
- ability to integrate mixed emotions, experience different emotions at the same time;
- verbal regulation, i.e. thinking and talking about emotional experience,
- managing emotions about emotions.

Regulating emotions can be disturbed (Fig. 2.1). Each of the concepts of regulation allows different ways to define regulatory disorders, and specific terminology is also used within these concepts. The literature points primarily to the diminution of regulation disorders, which is, on the one hand, insufficient and, on the other hand, excessive regulation of emotions (Tice, Bratslavsky, 2000; Giner-Sorolla, 2001; Block & Block, w: Carver, Scheier, 2000; W: Pulkkinen, 1982; Reykowski, 1992). In addition to this smoke, there are also other errors in regulation, defined as follows:

- inflexibility of emotional regulation (Ego-resiliency – Block & Block, in: Carver, Scheier, 2000)
- poorly selected strategies for regulation (misregulation, in: (Kokkonen, Pulkkinen, 2001).
- dysregulation as defective cognitive-affective structures and directing emotions towards inappropriate goals and immaturity of regulation as a lack of cognitive-affective structures (Górska, 2004; Cicchetti, Ackerman, Izard, 1995);
- regulatory failures concern problems with communication between systems (Cicchetti, Ackerman, Izard, 1995);
- non-adaptive suppression as a regulation of the behavioral component of emotional response (Gross, 1998, 2002)

In conclusion, it can be stated that the regulation of emotions occurs “in the individual”, although in a social context, but it can also be noted that regulation performs certain functions directly aimed at other people. For the process of emotional regulation to occur, there must be many complex processes that can be located in different personality systems. Using development concepts (Thompson, 1994, 1999; Thompson, Clarkins, 1996), as well as concepts emphasising the mutual

influence and coordination of systems according to Dodge and Garber (1991) and Cicchetti, Ackerman and Izard (1995), it can be noted that in addition to the emotional system, there are also systems: cognitive and social. Their mutual cooperation determines the adaptive and functional regulation of emotions:

— interactive social system – is a context for the development of the regulation of emotions, shows standards, requirements and possibilities to achieve individual goals and constitutes the context of interaction of individuals regulating emotions, this system modifies the regulatory processes;

— the cognitive system affects the emotional through cognitive processes and cognitive affective structures;

— an emotional system that regulates itself – a division into components of an emotional response.

Analysing regulatory processes involving both intrapsychic factors (emotions, cognition) and external factors in a direct way (other people) and indirect (internalised standards) it seems important to ask about how the pattern of emotional regulation is shaped. Optimal regulation can be considered both as a product of personality development and as a process – striving or unwilling to stabilise (Thompson, 1994, p. 45). From the point of view of personality psychopathology, the issue of the relationship between regulation disorders and personality disorders is important: whether they are fairly distinct or inseparable or connected in some specific way. At the same time, it is a question about the relationship between personality development and the development of emotional regulation and further on how a given type and style of emotional regulation arise.

4. CRISIS

What is a crisis?

- A crisis is a subjective feeling or experiencing an event or situation as:
- unresolvable (associating a sense of pain and suffering);
- exhaustive resources of the individual (sense of loss of ability to act and ability to control one's own life/self-helplessness);
- exceeding previous ways of dealing with difficulties (life cycle disorder – disorganisation).

According to current psychological concepts, crisis means a temporary state of internal imbalance caused by critical events or life events, requiring significant changes and decisions.

Features of the crisis

- Is a normal phenomenon in a person's life.
- Can meet anyone.
- Is an individual and subjective phenomenon.
- It is about seeing the situation as impossible to solve.
- It occurs when an individual encounters a difficulty that he cannot solve by means used so far.
- Disturbs the balance of the individual.
- Prevents the fulfillment of life's needs and goals.
- Depending on the circumstances, we distinguish different types of crises.
- The crisis is going on phase.
- Can be a phenomenon leading to positive change and development of the individual.

Types of Crisis

The crisis does not distinguish anyone and can happen to absolutely everyone, but it can have different causes and consequences.

Depending on the type of difficult situation, its course or circumstances, we can distinguish several types of crisis situation, namely crises:

- development,
- existential,
- situational,
- environmental.

Developmental crises are all changes taking place in every person's life. These are events that prompt a person to make changes, allowing for a positive solution to a difficult situation and enabling the individual to develop further. They occur both at the stage of the ripening process and during the transformation of the period of puberty.

Types of development crises:

- start/end of school,
- start/end of work,
- getting married,
- the birth of a child,
- leaving the family home.

Difficult situations, characteristic of breakthrough life periods, often caused by internal conflicts about individual values of a given person or associated with fear of making important choices, making decisions or broadly understood change, are called existential crises.

It's about difficult life choices. They are caused by internal conflicts and fear of change. There are questions about the meaning of life.

- Situational crises distinguish from others their unpredictable, sudden and accidental character.
- These are surprising and unexpected situations and therefore generate a strong sense of danger.
- The person experiencing them has no control over them and cannot stop them.

- Due to their specific nature and usually the stricter course of intervention, the interventions carried out should be direct and decisive.
- The main task here is to ensure the safety of the injured person and to master his/her strong emotional reactions.

The situational crises include: **assault, incurable illness, communication accident, rape, death of a loved one, natural disaster or terrorist attack.**

- Crisis situations are often referred to as traumatic crises.
- Not all difficult crisis events are traumatic, so these terms should not be used interchangeably.
- We are talking about a traumatic situation when a person witnessed a threat to another person's life or death, or when his or her own life was at risk.
- Traumatic crystals are therefore a type of situational crises, as are environmental crises, which include floods, hurricanes, forest fires or air trumpets, as well as events of biological origin (insect plagues, epidemics), civilisation (chemical leaks, economic crises) and other man-made events (terrorist acts, wars).

Crisis situations:

- Usually sudden, unpredictable and accidental.
- Often surprising and unexpected.
- Out of control, impossible to stop.
- They often have a sharp course.
- These include: job loss, divorce, assault, illness, rape, accident.
- These include traumatic events and natural disasters, wars, terrorist attacks.
- Emotions and Behavior of a Person in Crisis
- One of the most difficult and at the same time the most important elements of intervent work is to deal with the emotions of a person in crisis.
- The responses to the crisis are very individual and therefore difficult to predict.
- Very intense emotional reactions.

- A persistent sense of danger.
- Sense of loss of control, surprise.
- A sense of loneliness and misunderstanding by the surroundings.
- Isolation, apathy and depression.
- Fear, frustration, guilt, sadness, despair, breakdown, confusion, disorganisation, anger, feelings of powerlessness and helplessness.
- Emotional labyrinth.
- The feeling of losing senses, falling into madness

Response to the crisis

Many factors affect how a person reacts to a crisis.

These include individual experiences from the past, the individual's state of health, age, support for significant people, and even a cultural-religious background, or the nature of the event that a person experiences.

Phases of emotional response to a crisis

The warning phase is characterised by the occurrence of warning signals, announcing the occurrence of a crisis situation. The problem, however, is that every person has a natural belief that he is safe and is not in danger, and that crisis situations do not affect him. This feeling allows us to function normally every day, but in the face of crisis it becomes a trap. The belief that misfortune happens to others makes it difficult for us to perceive and properly interpret the signals that predict a critical event. Victims of natural disasters often report that they have noticed unusual signals such as sudden loss of electricity, earth vibrations or strong weather changes, but instead of interpreting them as a sign of an impending hurricane or earthquake, they found a different, more mundane and more acceptable explanation. Before a person understands what is threatening them, they often lose precious seconds or minutes that they could use, for example, to escape.

Shock phase

The critical event is followed by a shock phase.

The injured person does not have access to his own emotions and often describes this condition as emotional freezing and numbness. Her accounts about the event may pass with the actual course of the event or are undergoing constant changes. At this stage of the emotional response, we can also notice changes in the perception of time and space. A person who has experienced a critical situation may feel that time passes very quickly, or be nervous that everything around is going too slowly.

A person in a state of shock does not feel emotion, mainly because all his or her attention is focused on survival and actions aimed at ensuring safety. At this stage, very often there is a denial and denial of what happened. Therefore, a person in a state of shock can behave as if nothing had happened. Such behaviors are often difficult to understand and accept for the environment. A person can behave unusually or even risky, completely disregarding the consequences of their actions or not realising them.

Behaviour of the person:

- Individual and difficult to predict.
- You may be surprising, ill-considered, or even extreme (especially in the shock phase).
- These include: crying, outbursts of anger, screaming, apathy, withdrawal, stupor, excessive arousal, aggressive behavior.
- People in crisis often ask about their loved ones, try to get to them.
- The victims forget about eating, drinking, resting.
- People in crisis can ask for information, ask about the circumstances of the event.
- Unconscious physiological reactions may occur.
- An individual may not be aware of his injuries, not feel pain.
- People in crisis can isolate themselves from people and hide their difficulties.
- They can display variable moods, withdraw from previous decisions.

- They may have difficulty sleeping, lack of appetite, memory problems, concentration, attention, no action or activity.
- There may be recurrent, intrusive memories and nightmares, and strong anxiety reactions to circumstances reminiscent of a critical event.
- The shock phase lasts relatively short. We can talk about the end of it when a person begins to feel emotions. The victim confronts what has happened to him and begins to realise the negative consequences of the event.

Early Response Phase to the Crisis

- The phase of early response to a crisis lasts from 6 to 8 weeks and is extremely difficult for the victim, as there are strong and very burdensome emotions – such as fear, sadness, anger, fear or helplessness.
- A person experiencing a crisis loses a sense of control over their lives.
- For a person in crisis, the most important thing is specific information about what happened.
- So it may ask you, among other things, why the event occurred, what caused it, or what caused the loss. Having this information allows you to fill in memory gaps that are natural in a situation of severe stress. Systematic, structured knowledge of a crisis situation, especially in a state of total disorganisation and chaos, is necessary to regain a sense of balance.

The Late Response Phase to the Crisis

The phase of a late response to a crisis can take up to several years and is difficult to locate within a certain time frame. At this stage, there may be permanent changes in the perception of yourself, your life and the ways to deal with difficulties.

Constantly returning to a crisis event, feeling a growing tension and constant fatigue can lead to a change in relationships with close people and cause health problems. The long-term consequences of a crisis can be sleep and concentration disorders, difficulties in performing daily

activities and other activities, depressive symptoms, intrusive images of a critical event, difficulties in maintaining relationships with loved ones, withdrawal from interpersonal contacts. At this stage, very often a person also gives up any attempts to change and improve his situation.

- These emotional reactions may persist for 6-8 weeks from the moment of the crisis and are considered to be “normal in an abnormal situation” during this period.
- This means that they are typical of crisis events and do not necessarily indicate the occurrence of permanent, pathological changes.
- It is worrying that they occur eight weeks after the critical event.
- In the face of a difficult situation, some may not show any symptoms of a crisis response or may have a much lower intensity.
- The starting point is the awareness that a crisis situation is a subjective, individual assessment of a given event as a threat.

5. CRISIS INTERVENTION

— Crisis intervention is understood as the first psychological assistance provided to a person in crisis.

— It consists of providing emotional support, as well as taking measures to restore a person’s pre-crisis equilibrium.

— It is a practical form of aid focusing on the source of the crisis and its problem, exploiting the resources and capabilities of an individual in a crisis situation.

— Crisis intervention is an interdisciplinary impact involving the capabilities of other aid institutions – as well as the social environment of a person experiencing a crisis – in order to resolve the crisis and to restore the individual’s sense of agency and influence.

— A person in crisis experiences many difficult emotions preventing their daily, normal functioning, which is why the main purpose of crisis intervention is to alleviate these unpleasant symptoms.

— In the case of the school environment, the list of potential emergencies is endless, and the person affected by the crisis can be both a student who has suffered an accident or lost a parent, as well as students whose colleague committed suicide, a teacher whose child committed suicide.

Objectives of crisis intervention:

- Provision of psychological first aid.
- Providing emotional support.
- Implement measures to restore pre-crisis balance.
- Relief of symptoms.
- Identification of resources and sources of support.
- Ensuring safety.
- A person in crisis regains a sense of power and influence on his or her own life.
- Develop new, more adaptive coping strategies.
- Prevention of the onset of mental disorders.

Teachers often believe that they do not have the competence to provide assistance, while already having an in-depth, open discussion with students about their problems can be an effective form of intervention. Intervent facilitates the identification of such resources and demonstrates the advantages of using them.

The support of the environment is also crucial for the victims. People who can count on the help of loved ones cope much better with the crisis and recover faster. The source of support can be family, friends and strangers.

The most important thing is to show the victim's understanding, warmth and care, respect his feelings and listen to his needs. People in crisis often feel alienated, other, worse, marked. That is why it is so important for the school community to show them understanding and openness, to support them in returning to balance. For this to happen, it is necessary to have an atmosphere of acceptance and respect, sincere conversations, joint search for solutions, and the creation of rules with which all members of the community identify.

- Conducted immediately, at the latest within 24 to 72 hours after the critical event occurred.
- Short-term and time-limited aid.
- Frequency of meetings tailored to the needs of the injured party.
- Aid focused on current difficulties, “here and now”.
- Clearly defined and defined objectives of intervention.
- Work based on reality and facts.
- Includes the family and loved ones of the victim.
- Engages various services.
- Action-oriented work

Stages of crisis intervention

1. Defining the problem

Find out:

What happened?

When and where did the event occur?

How many victims are they and who are they?

Who meets their basic needs?

Where and how can victims get help?

Who else is helping, who is involved in providing support?

Is the crisis over? This information will enable you to assess the situation as well as answer possible questions from a person in a crisis situation, and reliable information is a key element of a successful intervention. The first stage of crisis intervention is to diagnose the problem, i.e. to determine the source of the crisis from the perspective of the person experiencing it. In order for your intervention to be effective, you need to make an accurate assessment of the problem with which a person is in a crisis. The victim may have trouble naming their difficulties. Your task at this stage is to help him formulate the problem. Ask the person to describe what they have experienced

and tell as much as possible what happened. Active listening techniques and the use of open questions will be helpful here. Show understanding and patience, do not chase or criticise the victim. Give him time and emphasise that you understand that it is difficult for him, while praising that he is doing well. Avoid suggesting an answer or guessing, and remember that by having information about the event from the perspective of the victim, you have the opportunity to properly identify the source of the crisis.

2. Ensuring safety

— It is important at this stage to assess the physical and mental safety of the person concerned.

— Do not start psychological intervention until you are sure that the life and health of a person in crisis is not in danger.

— Ask her if something hurts her – such questions allow the injured person to realise something he did not realise before.

— Ask your interlocutor where he would feel the safest at this point, and try to take him to this place. Assure him that he is safe, if true, and discuss with him the necessary safety rules if the threat has not completely ceased. Provide all possible information that can increase a person's sense of security in a crisis.

— Share the facts about the incident itself, get information about what is happening to the injured person's loved ones and other participants in the event.

— Take care of practical issues such as a place of refuge, transport, telephone to loved ones, but do not take any decisions and actions without consulting the interested parties. Support a person in a crisis, giving them a sense of security, but do not take away their sense of control.

Treat people with respect and take into account the culture they come from. If you're not sure, ask, but never assume that others think the same way you do. Consider issues related to clothing, language used, courtesy forms, closeness and religion. In some cultures, touching another person is a big intact, in others women are not allowed to talk to strangers, some religions exclude

certain foods. Never judge others or impose your own beliefs on them, be careful with any religious references.

3. Providing support

— Convince a person in a crisis that they are important to you, that you care about their safety and that you want the best for them. Introduce yourself and explain your role.

— Ensure safety.

— Take care of basic needs (drinking, eating, rest). •

— Take care of a secluded and comfortable place to talk.

Respect the private boundaries of the interlocutor.

Be honest, don't lie and make up.

— Assure the interlocutor of your discretion and warn of its possible limitations.

— Show that you are listening carefully.

— Show support and respect the emotions of a person in crisis.

Respect the right of a person in crisis to make decisions on their own.

— Be aware of your limitations, beliefs and prejudices, try to control them.

— Make sure that the person knows that you will still be available to them when they need

it.

Stay calm and be patient.

Normalise emotions.

— Inform about the circumstances of the event, the next steps, the state of other people, etc.

— Praise resourcefulness and notice the strength of the victim.

— Take into account the cultural, age and gender differences of a person in a crisis.

What not to do?

— Do not give false information or make promises that you cannot keep.

— Do not press or provide assistance without the explicit consent of the person in crisis.

— Do not force a person in crisis to share what they have experienced.

— Do not judge.

Do not be impatient or impatient.

— Do not question the words of the interlocutor, respect his point of view.

Don't comfort or give advice.

— Do not touch the victim if he or she does not expressly wish to do so.

— Do not crowd the emotions of the injured person and do not deny them.

Do not use specialised vocabulary.

Don't tell other people's stories.

— Avoid terms: victim and survivor.

Do not decide for a person in crisis.

— Do not interrupt, do not guess, and do not end the sentence for the injured party.

Say:

You are safe (if that is true).

I'm glad you're here.

I'm glad you agreed to talk to me.

I'm sorry it happened to you.

It's not your fault (if that's true).

Your reaction is not strange in such a difficult situation.

It must have been very difficult for you to see/hear/feel.

I can't imagine how you can feel right now.

You're not crazy.

— Things may not get back to normal completely, but over time you will feel better.

— Can I help you in any way?

There's nothing wrong with crying. Tears are needed too.

I'm here for you.

Don't say:

— I understand.
You're lucky to...
It'll take some time, but you'll finally get over it.
I know how you feel.
Don't worry, everything will be fine.
— You must be strong.
— Calm down and relax.
Don't cry, don't scream, don't be nervous.
You must not say so/think.
— Apparently that was supposed to be the case.
— Be glad you're alive.
— Don't think about it.
— You shouldn't feel that way.
— It's not that bad.
— Get yourself together

4. Identification of resources

- In order to help a person in a crisis look at the possibilities of dealing with a difficult situation, it is necessary to identify the resources they have.
- Find out as much as possible about the family situation (and in the case of adults – professional) of the victim and think about who of your loved ones or friends can help her. Also take into account the financial, local, health and legal situation of the person concerned.
- Ask the victim how he has dealt with problems in the past. Maybe some strategies or behaviors can be useful this time. Or maybe even knowing that she has been doing well in the past will be a great source of motivation for a person? Remember that although your task is to help the injured person find the sources of support and show possible ways to deal with

problems, it is the person in crisis who is the source of all the necessary information for you. Therefore, listen to her carefully and collaborate with her every step of the way.

5. Development of an action plan

- Once you have information on proven ways to solve problems, you can, together with a crisis person, create an action plan that will help them regain their sense of control, influence and ability to deal with difficulties independently and independently. Let a person decide for themselves first on the smallest issues. Thanks to this, it will gradually be able to make decisions on matters of increasing importance. Your task is to support a person in a crisis and accompany them in taking active actions concerning their own future, i.e. to give them the opportunity to choose, to encourage them to find solutions and to strengthen any behaviour aimed at improving their situation. Together, set the goals and the next steps to achieve them. Consider resources and anticipated difficulties and consider alternatives and plans B.

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