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Abstract

2 Emotion regulation is critical for adolescent functioning. Theories on the subject have 3 evolved rapidly in recent years and have led to a more contextualized and dynamic conceptualization of emotion regulation processes. In this paper, based on the distinction 4 between emotion regulation strategies and abilities, we propose future directions for research 5 on emotion regulation development in adolescence. We first present evidence that emotional, 6 7 cognitive, and social changes that occur in adolescence are central in emotion regulation 8 development. We then review empirical findings on emotion regulation development by tying 9 them to their conceptual foundations. We discuss their limitations and argue that building better 10 conceptual clarity is essential to study emotion regulation. Because current knowledge on recent 11 concepts that emerged in adult-based models remains limited and contested in adolescence, we 12 end this article by discussing new research perspectives to provide a better understanding of the 13 topic. We stress the need for researchers in the field to adopt a more contextualized and person-14 oriented approach, to combine different time scales and methods, and examine the predictors 15 of emotion regulation as well as its outcomes.

16 Keywords: emotion regulation, adolescent development, development in context, review

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The development of emotion regulation in adolescence:

what do we know and where to go next?

Emotion regulation, defined as "the process of modulating the occurrence, duration, and 19 20 intensity of internal states of feeling (both positive and negative) and emotion-related 21 physiological processes" (Morris et al., 2017, p. 1), comprises both extrinsic (e.g., parents and peers) and intrinsic (e.g., psychosocial adjustment strategies) processes that are responsible for 22 23 accomplishing one's goals when approaching emotions (Thompson, 1994). Emotion regulation 24 is particularly critical during adolescence to cope with its many changes and new emotional situations. Major developmental tasks in adolescence involve significant regulatory challenges. 25 26 Indeed, many adolescents experience heightened emotional sensitivity along with an immaturity of their regulatory processes, often accompanied by risk-taking behaviors (e.g., 27 Casey et al., 2015). Emotion regulation is crucial for adolescents' psychosocial adjustment 28 29 given its consequences for social relationships, well-being, psychopathology, and maladaptive 30 behaviors (e.g., Eichengreen et al., 2022; King et al., 2022; McRae, Jacobs, et al., 2012; Nelis 31 et al., 2011, Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012; Zyberaj, 2022).

32 Since the late 20th century, an increasing interest in the study of emotion regulation has led to significant advances when considering adult literature and models. Emotion regulation 33 34 models can be divided into two categories: (1) models centered on emotion regulation strategies 35 (e.g., Gross, 2015a, 2015b), which describe how individuals regulate their emotions; and (2) models centered on emotion regulation abilities (e.g., Preece et al., 2018), which focus on 36 individuals' effectiveness in regulating their own emotions. Although these models respectively 37 38 address different aspects of emotion regulation, they are not mutually exclusive (Tull & Aldao, 2015). Emerging concepts are at the intersection of these two approaches, such as emotion 39 40 polyregulation (i.e., using multiple strategies to face an emotional event, Ford et al., 2019), or

emotion regulation flexibility (i.e., using different strategies depending on the emotional
context and the person's goals, Aldao et al., 2015; Bonanno & Burton, 2013).

43 Conceptual frameworks on emotion regulation in adolescence are scarce (Hollenstein & 44 Lanteigne, 2018). Existing models are designed to be parsimonious and focus specifically on developmental dynamics in this period. There are a large number of empirical studies in 45 46 adolescence, but they do not consider the theoretical distinction between strategies and abilities, 47 along with proposals for clarifications in methodological designs and interpretations. This 48 absence of distinction leads to confusion in the existing literature and does not provide a precise picture of the development of emotion regulation (e.g., concluding about the effectiveness of a 49 50 given strategy without including contextual and emotion-specific aspects). Adolescents learn 51 how to use new strategies such as cognitive reappraisal effectively (e.g., Silvers, 2022), along with the development of more complex abilities (e.g., emotion polyregulation and flexibility). 52 53 However, the literature in youth has focused mainly on how children develop regulatory 54 abilities (e.g., controlling behavior) and specific strategies (e.g., expressive suppression) rather 55 than how they are managed in adolescence once developed at a primary level. We argue that 56 research on emotion regulation in adolescence would benefit from more conceptual clarity.

57 This article reviews our current understanding of emotion regulation in adolescence and 58 proposes future directions. We first examine the developmental changes in adolescence that are 59 relevant for emotion regulation. We then review existing knowledge about emotion regulation in adolescence, focusing on conceptual distinctions and limitations in the current literature. To 60 61 include recent concepts from adult models such as emotion regulation flexibility and emotion polyregulation in a coherent framework, we posit that emotion regulation abilities can be 62 divided into two categories: goal-pursuit and effectiveness abilities. We finally suggest new 63 64 perspectives for research on emotion regulation in adolescence in light of the importance of its

contextual aspects, the different processes and time scales of emotion regulation, and focusingon both its predictors and outcomes.

67 Normative changes related to emotion regulation during adolescence

68 Adolescence is a developmental period characterized by emotional, cognitive, neurological, and social changes that underpin emotion regulation development (Hollenstein & 69 Lougheed, 2013). Adolescents experience different changes in intensity and lability depending 70 71 on the emotion considered. For instance, Maciejewski and colleagues (2015, 2017) reported 72 negative quadratic evolutions in the intensity of anger, sadness, and anxiety during adolescence, 73 with a peak of intensity in middle adolescence for anger, and in late adolescence for sadness 74 and anxiety. Lability of anger and sadness decreases linearly during adolescence. However, lability of anxiety follows a cubic shape, with the highest peak in early adolescence and the 75 76 lowest peak in late adolescence. These peaks of emotional intensity and lability are thought to 77 be elicited from new situations (e.g., first romantic relationship, vocational related questioning, 78 Larson & Ham, 1993). Importantly, it should be noted that emotional development appears to 79 occur in an emotion-specific manner, suggesting that emotion regulation may take place in a 80 similar fashion (e.g., De France & Hollenstein, 2022).

The development of emotion regulation is linked closely to higher cognitive processes 81 82 such as executive functions (e.g., Gross, 2015a; Thompson, 2011). Executive functions 83 encompass an array of cognitive processes that enable individuals to control their thoughts and 84 actions to pursue goal-directed behaviors (Miyake & Friedman., 2012). These functions are essential in multiple aspects of emotion regulation during adolescence (e.g., Steinberg, 2008). 85 86 Indeed, functions such as inhibition, set-shifting and updating continue to develop throughout this period, up to adulthood (e.g., Boelema et al., 2014; Carriedo et al., 2016; Theodoraki et al. 87 88 2020). Considering the crucial role of goal-directed behaviors in the successful use of emotion regulation strategies, it is safe to assume that executive functions development allows 89

90 adolescents to use more and more cognitively complex strategies adapted to each situation. 91 Thus, executive functions are likely to contribute to increase the repertoire of strategies in 92 adolescence (i.e., the number of strategies that adolescents can use). Accordingly, individuals 93 during late adolescence are more likely to mobilize emotion regulation strategies to deal with 94 situations characterized by high emotional intensity in a socially appropriate manner (Lennarz 95 et al., 2018). In the same way, recent studies with adolescents showed age-dependent relations 96 between executive functions and the use of different emotion regulation strategies (Fombouchet 97 et al., 2022). These relations are supported by neural circuits that are partially overlapping and 98 continue to develop until adulthood (e.g., Pozzi et al., 2021). Studies also indicated that the 99 prefrontal cortex, which neurologically supports executive functions and emotion regulation 100 aspects (i.e., modulation of intensity and duration of negative emotions, implementation of 101 strategies such as cognitive reappraisal; Zelazo & Cunningham, 2007) follows a long and 102 protracted development until the mid-twenties (Crone & Steinbes, 2017; Theodoraki et al., 103 2020). Neuroimaging studies showed that adolescents exhibit increased amygdala activity and 104 reduced prefrontal cortex activity during the use of emotion regulation strategies compared to 105 adults, resulting in lower effectiveness of emotion regulation (e.g., Stephanou et al., 2016). This 106 gap between the activation of emotional processes and their regulation leads to what authors 107 pointed out as a maladaptive shift during adolescence that is characterized by greater reliance 108 on maladaptive strategies such as rumination (Cracco et al., 2017; Zimmermann & Iwanski, 109 2014). Finally, adolescence also is characterized by strong age inter-group and individual 110 variabilities in executive and emotion regulation performance (e.g., Best & Miller, 2010; Crone 111 & Steinbeis, 2017; Hughes, 2011; Theurel & Gentaz, 2018).

In adolescence, social contexts appear to be more salient and elicit more intense emotions, which may challenge the use of emotion regulation strategies and emotion regulation abilities. Indeed, there is growing evidence suggesting that neural circuits supporting affective

115 responding are highly sensitive to contextual influences, especially during adolescence (Guyer 116 et al., 2016). The adolescent brain is attuned to social stimuli, which facilitates flexible 117 responding among salient and changing social contexts (Crone & Dahl, 2012). However, this 118 flexibility also is associated with vulnerabilities: adolescents assign elevated reward value to 119 peers, which results in greater response to the potential rewards of risk taking (Blakemore & 120 Robbins, 2012; Casev et al., 2015). During adolescence, emotional stimuli or events lead to an 121 increased reactivity of the limbic system, due to the immaturity of the prefrontal regions, and 122 thus of the executive functions. The prefrontal cortex is still partially immature in adolescence, which would explain the greater propensity of adolescents to present typical difficulties in 123 124 regulating their emotions.

Nelson and Guyer's (2011) have described adolescence as a period of 125 126 neurodevelopment that aligns with social reorientation, in which peer social interactions are 127 becoming increasingly important. Indeed, the increase of brain activation within the affective 128 domain corresponds to patterns of social salience and behavioral engagement. Subcortical 129 structures may be more sensitive to cues related to peer acceptance in early adolescence and to 130 intimacy in late adolescence (Nelson et al., 2016). Thus, the heightened sensitivity to rewards 131 and the emotions elicited in social contexts may influence emotion regulation in adolescence, 132 particularly goal-pursuit abilities such as emotion regulation flexibility. Indeed, exploring the 133 contexts of peers and romantic relationships may not only create risks, but also may contribute 134 to the development of new emotion regulation strategies and their flexible use, depending on 135 the contexts. These neurological and cognitive changes are supported by empirical research that 136 focus on changes in social relationships during adolescence, in relation to emotion regulation.

Indeed, parents and peers are important agents in the development of adolescents'
emotion regulation through emotion socialization, and autonomous functioning which is one of
the main developmental tasks in adolescence (e.g., Noom et al., 2001). Emotion socialization

140 is a dynamic process that involves a broad range of social, verbal, and embodied practices, 141 through which caregivers mediate normative ways of interpreting and expressing emotions 142 (Cekaite & Ekström, 2019). Relations with parents evolve in multiple ways during adolescence. 143 First, adolescents spend more time out of the direct monitoring of their parents (Mooney et al., 144 2007), leading to less extrinsic emotion regulation from parents and more intrinsic emotion 145 regulation from adolescents (Cole et al., 2004; Morris et al., 2007). Second, a reorganization of 146 parent-adolescent relations usually occurs which comes from the redefinition of the content of 147 life domains as adolescents' autonomy increases (Smetana, 1988; Smetana & Asquith, 1994; Smetana et al., 2006). This reorganization can be challenging for both parents and adolescents 148 149 and is associated with more frequent conflicts with parents in middle adolescence, which elicit 150 negative emotions (Granic et al., 2003). A moderate frequency of conflicts with parents seems 151 to be a great context for adolescents to express emotion flexibility (Lichtwarck-Aschoff et al., 152 2009). Eventually, relationships with parents evolve to a more horizontal fashion than at the 153 beginning of adolescence. Parental emotion socialization can occur in multiple ways: through 154 parental general practices, through emotion specific practices (e.g., reactions to adolescents' 155 negative emotions) or through parental own emotion regulation (Morris et al., 2017, 2007).

156 During early adolescence (11 to 13 years old), supportive maternal reactions are linked 157 positively to adaptive anger emotion regulation, whereas unsupportive reactions are related 158 negatively to adaptive anger and sadness emotion regulation (Berona et al., 2022). In mid-159 adolescence, adolescents perceive that their parents respond to their negative emotions in a 160 more supportive (i.e., validating and reinforcing emotional expression) than neglectful (i.e., 161 ignoring emotional expression) manner (Miller-Slough & Dunsmore, 2019). Both override (i.e., 162 minimizing the importance of adolescents' emotion) and punitive (i.e., disapproving, mocking 163 or criticize adolescents' feelings) parental responses to negative emotions predict an increase 164 in adolescents' emotion regulation abilities. On the contrary, magnification (i.e., mirror and

amplify adolescents' emotion) and neglect predict a decrease in adolescents' emotion regulation 165 166 abilities (Miller-Slough & Dunsmore, 2019). These results suggest that parental reactions 167 fading away adolescents' negative emotions (override and punitive reaction) may help 168 adolescents to move on or to adapt from an inappropriate emotional expression. In the other 169 way, parental reactions that amplify or ignore adolescents' negative emotion may increase 170 emotional distress. Although, the results of this study have to be carefully interpreted because 171 adolescents' emotion regulation abilities were reported by parents (Miller-Slough & Dunsmore, 172 2019). The way parents regulate their own negative emotions also plays an important role in 173 adolescents' development of emotion regulation. Difficulties in parental emotions regulation 174 are associated with dysregulation in adolescence (e.g., Crandall et al., 2016; Crespo et al., 2017; 175 Saritaş et al., 2013). Overall, research shows that both parents' and adolescents' emotion regulation shape each other, highlighting the active part of adolescent in emotional socialization 176 177 (Morris et al., 2017).

178 Another major social change during adolescence concerns relationships with 179 peers (Collins & Laursen, 2004) which become more intimate (Berndt, 1982) and reciprocal 180 (Youniss & Haynie, 1992), and romantic relationships usually appear (Simon et al., 2008). 181 Unlike the relationships with parents, those between peers are fully horizontal and can 182 be associated with extrinsic emotion regulation (Dixon-Gordon et al., 2015, Miller-Slough & 183 Dunsmore, 2016). In terms of gender differences, adolescent girls who perceive 184 punishing reactions (i.e., a punishment decreasing parental exposure to adolescents' emotions) 185 from their friends experience more emotion regulation difficulties than boys. Girls also perceive 186 a decrease in friends' punishment and an increase in supporting reactions to negative emotions. 187 In contrast, adolescent boys who perceive magnification (i.e., reacting with similar or stronger 188 emotion expression) and overriding reactions (i.e., decreasing or distracting adolescent from 189 his emotions) from their friends demonstrate fewer emotion regulation difficulties and perceive

a decrease in neglect reactions and an increase in overriding reactions (Miller-Slough &Dunsmore, 2019).

192 Parents' and peers' reactions to adolescent's negative emotions are perceived differently 193 by adolescents. In addition, parents' and peers' reactions are linked differently to adolescents' 194 emotion regulation abilities. Thus, adolescents learn how to regulate their emotions according 195 to with whom they interact. As adolescents become more sensitive to social stimuli (Guyer et 196 al., 2016; Nelson et al., 2016; Schriber & Guyer, 2016), this increase may help them to evaluate 197 social demands and opportunities in different contexts, and to implement the most effective 198 emotion regulatory strategies accordingly (Bonanno & Burton, 2013). As peer relationships are 199 less stable than parental relationships, adolescents may perceive peers' punishing reactions as 200 more threatening. For example, perceptions of punishing reactions from parents are linked with 201 fewer emotion regulation difficulties than punishing reactions from peers which are linked with 202 more emotion regulation difficulties (Miller-Slough & Dunsmore, 2019). Thus, emotion 203 regulation strategies such as expressive suppression or concealing may be more effective to 204 maintain relationships with peers than with parents (Perry-Parrish & Zeman, 2011). Hence, 205 emotion regulation flexibility appears crucial in adolescence to maintain positive relationships 206 with both parents and peers, although they differ in terms of characteristics (e.g., hierarchical 207 vs. horizontal relationships; girls vs. boys) and contexts in which they take place (e.g., home 208 vs. school).

209 Emotion regulation development during adolescence

In adolescence, emotion regulation strategies and abilities may develop together, leading to cognitive and social changes at this period. Many authors consider that emotion regulation becomes more and more efficient during adolescence (e.g., Gross, 2015a). However, studies reported unclear and inconsistent results. Hereafter, we present empirical findings about emotion regulation development as well as the theoretical conceptions to which they can be

215 related. We conclude this section by highlighting current limitations in the literature and by 216 discussing how recent concepts and findings are moving toward integrating emotion regulation 217 strategies and abilities.

218 The development of emotion regulation strategies

219 Developmental studies have documented age-related changes in emotion regulation 220 strategies from childhood to adolescence (Bariola et al., 2011; Cracco et al., 2017; Jaffe et al., 221 2010; Morris et al., 2017). It should be noted these studies focused mainly on the development 222 and outcomes of only two emotion regulation strategies, namely: reappraisal (form of cognitive change) and expressive suppression (form of response modulation). Indeed, most studies on 223 224 emotion regulation strategies in adolescence are based on Gross's (1998) first process model of emotion regulation. This model describes the temporal features of five families of strategies 225 (i.e., situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, and 226 227 response modulation).

228 Research stresses that cognitive reappraisal is a strategy that leads to greater adaptation 229 than expressive suppression (e.g., Gresham & Gullone, 2012; Young et al., 2019). Results 230 concerning age-related changes in the use of these strategies are more nuanced: Reappraisal is 231 a strategy that becomes efficient during adolescence (e.g., Silvers & Guassi Moreira, 2019; 232 Theurel & Gentaz, 2018), whereas expressive suppression is already effective during late 233 childhood (see Gross & Cassidy, 2019 for a review). Gullone et al. (2010) showed that between 234 9 and 15 years, participants resorted less and less to expressive suppression, whereas cognitive 235 reappraisal remained stable. This decrease in expressive suppression matches Gross's (1998) 236 first model, as children and adolescents move toward emotion regulation strategies that generally are considered as more adaptive. However, observations on cognitive reappraisal only 237 238 are partially in line with this model as the use of this strategy is thought to increase throughout 239 adolescence (Chervonsky & Hunt, 2019; Gullone et al., 2010).

240 In Gross' (1998) first model, little attention was paid to contextual aspects of emotion 241 regulation, to what leads individuals to use one strategy over another, and to how these 242 strategies are started or stopped. In Gross's (2015a, 2015b) extended process model, emotion regulation is conceptualized as a dynamic process aiming for a goal which is situation-243 244 dependent. Beyond the use of emotion regulation strategies in negative contexts, developmental changes are related to context characteristics such as specific emotions and emotion intensity 245 246 (e.g., De France & Hollenstein, 2022; Smith et al., 2022). In emotion-specific situations, age-247 related changes have been demonstrated in the implementation of emotion regulation strategies (Zimmermann & Iwanski, 2014): expressive suppression is more likely to be used by 15-year-248 249 old than by 13-year-old adolescents, in fear situations more than in sadness or anger ones. The 250 intensity of negative emotions has been identified as an important factor in the use of emotion 251 regulation strategies during adolescence (Lennarz et al., 2018). When the intensity of negative 252 emotions is low, acceptance (i.e., recognizing and embracing negative emotions) is more likely 253 to be used, whereas when intensity is high, expressive suppression, problem-solving, 254 distraction, avoidance, social support and rumination (i.e., repeatedly focusing on emotional 255 experience, reasons and consequences) are used instead (Lennarz et al., 2018). Although Gross's (2015a, 2015b) extended process model of emotion regulation highlights the 256 257 importance of the characteristics of emotions (e.g., valence and intensity), it only describes the 258 implementation of a single emotion regulation strategy. Furthermore, it does not specify 259 explicitly the factors that may influence the development of these valuation systems, the 260 individual differences in their implementation, and the differences in the effectiveness and 261 outcomes of emotion regulation attempts (Riediger & Luong, 2015).

262 The development of emotion regulation abilities

In adolescence, cognitive and social changes challenge the development of adolescents'
abilities to regulate their emotions. Emotion regulation abilities are defined as the "ways in

265 which individuals understand, regard and respond to their emotional experience" (Tull & Aldao, 266 2015, p. 2). Within this framework, we distinguish two types of conceptualizations that are relevant for adolescents' development: (1) effectiveness abilities and (2) goal-pursuit abilities. 267 268 Effectiveness abilities refer to perceived or observable outcomes in emotion regulation 269 attempts, most notably the control of behavior in emotional contexts and the monitoring of 270 emotions (e.g., Gratz & Roemer, 2004; Hofmann & Kashdann, 2010; Preece et al., 2018). 271 Emotion regulation effectiveness abilities improve with age, awareness of motivation, emotion 272 type and contextual factors (Zeman et al., 2006). Theoretically, adolescents increasingly are able to control their emotions and behaviors. In this sense, a longitudinal study with adolescents 273 274 from 12 to 18 years showed a decrease in dysregulation (Memmott-Elison et al. 2020). In their cross-sectional study, Zimmermann and Iwanski (2014) highlighted age-related patterns in 275 276 effectiveness abilities that sometimes depended on the emotion. Adaptive regulation increased 277 in late adolescence for the three emotions considered (anger, sadness, fear). A similar increase 278 of dysregulation was observed for the emotions of anger and sadness but not for fear. In 279 addition, this study also pointed out a decrease in adaptive regulation between early and mid-280 adolescence, which may be explained by a higher intensity of negative emotions and difficulties 281 in emotion regulation. Given the differences in the use of strategies and levels of abilities across 282 emotions, it appears that specific emotion states moderate the association between strategies 283 and effectiveness abilities.

Goal-pursuit abilities correspond to how individuals access strategies perceived as adaptive and use multiple emotion regulation strategies in various contexts (in continuation of Gross's extended process model; Gross, 2015b). These abilities are decisive in linking emotion regulation abilities and strategy models because they are based on ideas introduced in both conceptualizations of emotion regulation. In this framework, two main abilities can be identified: emotion regulation flexibility and polyregulation (Aldao et al., 2015; Bonanno &

290 Burton, 2013; Ford et al, 2019). Flexibility is an inter-situation implementation of multiple 291 emotion regulation strategies and polyregulation refers to the intra-situation implementation of 292 multiple strategies (Ford et al., 2019). Together, these two types of abilities enable the flexible 293 use of situationally appropriate emotion regulation strategies in order to meet the demands of 294 both the situation and the individual's goals. Although interindividual differences among 295 adolescents are mentioned in the literature, studies on these abilities are scarce and most of 296 them have focused on specific components, such as the repertoires of strategies (i.e., one 297 component of emotion regulation flexibility in Bonanno & Burton's model, 2013). Lougheed 298 and Hollenstein (2012) showed that adolescents who reported using few or no emotion 299 regulation strategies demonstrated the highest levels of internalizing problems. Conversely, the 300 adolescents who mobilized a larger repertoire of emotion regulation strategies reported higher 301 psychosocial well-being.

302 Polyregulation seems to be linked to situations eliciting highly intense emotions (e.g., 303 Aldao & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2013). Such a situation may require the implementation of multiple 304 emotion regulation strategies. Furthermore, polyregulation may be concurrent or sequential 305 (Ford et al., 2019), depending on the characteristics of the emotional context or the regulation 306 goals of the individual. In a stressful situation of waiting for an important oral examination, an 307 adolescent may play on their phone (i.e., avoidance) and text peers in search of their support 308 (i.e., support-seeking) at the same time. Alternatively, they may use reappraisal to modify the 309 evaluation of the situation while waiting (e.g., downplaying the importance of the examination), 310 and then use expressive suppression (e.g., hide fear in front of assessors with a poker face) 311 before entering the room where the examination takes place. However, polyregulation, per se, 312 is not adaptive and may be used by individuals depending on their difficulties in evaluating the 313 best strategy to reach a regulation goal. In line with this hypothesis of emotion polyregulation 314 development during adolescence, Lennarz et al. (2018) showed that adolescents can use

315 multiple strategies sequentially or concurrently when a negative emotion is intense. For 316 example, an adolescent feeling anger because of a bad grade may first implement expressive 317 suppression, for example by not lashing out on the teacher, and then reappraise the event, for 318 example by thinking that the comments on the exam paper will be helpful in the future (i.e., 319 sequential polyregulation). In the same situation, another adolescent may use expressive 320 suppression and rumination together, for example by maintaining a still face while repeatedly 321 thinking about the situation and the negative emotions that are associated with it (i.e., 322 concurrent polyregulation). Such differences in emotion regulation repertoires and emotion polyregulation might be related to different outcomes, depending on the goal activated in a 323 324 particular situation. However, there is a lack of empirical research on these aspects in 325 adolescence.

326 Limitations in existing literature on emotion regulation in adolescence

327 Although emotion regulation abilities and the use of emotion regulation strategies are 328 distinguishable processes, they may share bidirectional relationships (Tull & Aldao, 2015). 329 These links are all the more apparent with goal-pursuit abilities, which are defined on the basis 330 of strategy and abilities models. On the one hand, emotion regulation abilities can be considered as processes that influence the use of emotion regulation strategies and their efficiency in any 331 332 given situation. On the other hand, the repeated use of emotion regulation strategies in different 333 contexts may contribute to reducing or increasing emotion regulation abilities, depending on 334 what is adaptive or not for the individual. As previously mentioned, the development of emotion 335 regulation strategies and abilities during adolescence needs to be described precisely. Beyond 336 a lack of longitudinal studies, this limitation is due partly to a confusion between emotion regulation strategies and abilities. In their study, Zimmermann and Iwanski (2014) labeled as 337 338 strategies all the dimensions they measured, but some items or subscales theoretically should 339 refer to abilities. Their dysregulation subscale theoretically should refer to an emotion

regulation ability (or a lack of emotion regulation abilities), although some items in this subscale also refer to strategies of self-blaming and blaming others. Similarly, the adaptive regulation subscale comprised items measuring strategies of reappraisal or problem-solving, whereas other items referred to abilities such as how adolescents approach their emotions.

344 One of the main issues we identified in studies on emotion regulation in adolescence is 345 the use of measures originally designed for adults, within the framework of the first models of 346 emotion regulation such as the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire for Children and Adolescents 347 (Gullone & Taffe, 2012) and the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (CERQ, 348 Garnefski et al., 2001). First, these questionnaires assess a limited number of strategies, with 349 reference to Gross' (2001) first model. For instance, the CERQ evaluates nine strategies, 350 categorized as adaptive vs. maladaptive because most of them belong to the same families of 351 strategies and are highly correlated. Second, these questionnaires are designed for adults, 352 meaning that the strategies examined in these questionnaires are not necessarily part of the 353 repertoires of adolescents or those that they use mostly when dealing with emotional events 354 (e.g., social support-seeking). Third, emotional characteristics such as the regulation of specific 355 emotions and emotional intensity are not taken into account in most of the studies with adolescents. Finally, measures of emotion regulation strategies in general negative contexts 356 357 cannot provide knowledge about goal-pursuit or effectiveness abilities. These limits need to be 358 addressed in order to assess whether adolescents are efficient at regulating their emotions.

Interestingly, conceptualizations of emotion regulation, both for strategies and abilities, are evolving toward a more dynamic approach. Emotion regulation involves neurophysiological, cognitive, behavioral and social components. Although it is generally accepted that adolescence constitutes a specific period for the development of emotion regulation, information on the developmental trajectories of the multiple emotion regulation processes is lacking. Most studies are cross-sectional, which may confound age differences with

365 cohort effects and does not allow direct investigation of how specific processes such as 366 strategies, effectiveness and goal-pursuit abilities change with age. The different processes 367 involved in emotion regulation also rarely are distinguished explicitly, and a limited number of 368 strategies is investigated. Therefore, the issues of how adolescents mobilize various strategies 369 when experiencing new and different contexts, how efficient they are at it, and how emotion 370 regulation aspects change during adolescence in relation with other constructs remain elusive.

371 Future directions for studying emotion regulation during adolescence

372 In this article, we focused on voluntary and explicit emotion regulation. However, 373 implicit and more automatic forms of implicit emotion regulation have been discussed in the 374 literature. Contrary to explicit emotion regulation, implicit processes are engaged without 375 explicit instructions to modulate emotional responses, and individuals report a very poor awareness of such modulation (Gyurak et al., 2011). As the habitual use of emotion regulation 376 377 strategies prompts real-time emotion regulation unintentionally when confronted with 378 emotional situations, the habitual use of specific strategies is considered to be a form of implicit 379 emotion regulation (Zou & Yuan, 2022). Nevertheless, the habitual use of emotion regulation 380 strategies can be made explicit by asking participants about their emotion regulation processes 381 in a short-time scale (Silvers, 2022). Definitions and models of emotion regulation strategies 382 and abilities may still be valid at the implicit level, but studies on these aspects of emotion 383 regulation remain scarce, especially in the period of adolescence.

In this section, we propose four research directions. First, we stress the need to move toward a more contextualized approach to emotion regulation strategies and abilities in order to understand better the relations between these two fundamental aspects of emotion regulation in adolescence. This contextualized approach might allow researchers to capture the development of understudied aspects of emotion regulation such as goal-pursuit abilities (e.g., emotion regulation flexibility, emotion polyregulation). Second, we promote and discuss the

relevance of studies including the different time scales of emotion regulation (i.e., real time and developmental scale). Third, we argue that using mixed methods is critical to capture the various aspects of emotion regulation. Fourth, we highlight the necessity to investigate how developmental processes relate to emotion regulation in order to understand better the mechanisms underlying age-related changes and interindividual differences in emotion regulation during adolescence. These directions should help improve our knowledge of the development of the multiple processes that are involved in emotion regulation in adolescence.

397 Moving toward a contextualized emotion regulation framework in adolescence

398 As highlighted in the present article and by other authors (e.g., De France & Hollenstein, 399 2022, Smith et al., 2022), the development of emotion regulation is related to discrete emotions 400 (e.g., sadness or anger), their characteristics (e.g., valence, intensity) and contextual factors 401 (e.g., academic or interpersonal context). Theoretical advances in emotion regulation have led 402 to the conceptualization of key abilities in assessing the effectiveness of emotion regulation in 403 various emotional situations and contexts (e.g., at school, with parents). Measuring goal-pursuit 404 abilities such as emotion regulation flexibility or emotion polyregulation requires evaluating 405 strategies in different meaningful contexts. In Bonanno and Burton's (2013) model, emotion 406 regulation flexibility is subserved by three components that may explain interindividual 407 differences in emotion regulation: individual context sensitivity, repertoire and feedback. 408 Similarly, emotion polyregulation (Ford et al., 2019) involves the use of multiple strategies 409 when experiencing an emotional event and depends on the goals activated in a given situation. 410 Existing knowledge on cognitive, socio-cognitive and neurological changes as previously 411 reported suggest changes in emotion polyregulation and flexibility during adolescence. 412 Nevertheless, these changes have yet to be documented.

Few studies have focused both on emotion regulation strategies and abilities in specific contexts experienced by adolescents. Therefore, there is an urgent need for cross-sectional and

415 longitudinal studies measuring these aspects of emotion regulation, in order to understand better 416 how adolescents regulate their emotions in interaction with meaningful contexts. In emerging 417 adults, Dixon-Gordon et al. (2015) found different patterns of emotion regulation strategies in 418 academic and interpersonal contexts. Future studies also should evaluate the efficacy - real or 419 perceived - of emotion regulation, and explore how the development of emotion regulation 420 strategies and abilities is shaped by experiences and contexts such as romantic relationships, 421 interactions with peers and parents, academic or extracurricular activities. These studies would 422 help to identify general trends, as well as interindividual differences in contexts that are critical 423 for the development of emotion regulation during adolescence.

424 Furthermore, we believe that moving toward a contextualized approach to emotion regulation necessarily involves the use of a person-oriented approach (e.g., Bergman & 425 426 Wandby, 2014). Until now, most studies on emotion regulation have used a variable-oriented 427 approach, testing associations between separate variables (e.g., linking one emotion regulation 428 strategy with an outcome). In contrast, the person-oriented approach considers patterns and assumes that grouping people according to similar profiles can help to predict outcomes better 429 430 (Laursen & Hoff, 2006). The size of the repertoires of emotion regulation is related to 431 adolescents' adaptation to their environment, as shown by person-oriented studies (e.g., 432 Lennarz et al., 2018; Lougheed & Hollenstein, 2012). Based on a person-oriented approach, 433 studies should characterize emotion regulation profiles that are associated with different levels 434 of adolescents' psychosocial adjustment and personal characteristics (e.g., age, gender). This 435 should contribute to more individualized support and prevention regarding emotion regulation. 436 Indeed, adopting a person-oriented approach can help clinicians on two complementary levels. First, rather than focusing on emotional regulation strategies independently, it is possible to 437 438 consider an individual profile and detect atypical emotion regulation repertoires associated with psychological difficulties or psychopathology (e.g., eating disorders, generalized anxiety). The 439

440 negative effects found in the literature regarding specific strategies such as expressive 441 suppression could refer to limited repertoires of strategies (e.g., over reliance on a specific 442 strategy) or to the association with other strategies that do not help to down-regulate negative 443 emotions (e.g., rumination). Second, targeted intervention programs can be developed in line 444 with the specific needs of particular adolescents, beyond a universal prevention approach. 445 Within a person-oriented approach, adolescents could benefit from programs addressing the 446 effectiveness of specific aspects of abilities related to the pursuit of regulation goals (e.g., 447 Cummings et al., 2023; Modecki et al., 2017). These programs could focus on different 448 components of emotion regulation flexibility such as: (1) expanding the repertoire of strategies 449 (e.g., using role-playing exercises with adolescents so they can try out alternative ways of doing 450 things), and (2) developing the context sensitivity component by focusing on the constraints 451 and challenges induced by different emotional contexts (e.g., interpersonal, academic).

452 Using different time scales for evaluating emotion regulation strategies and abilities in
453 adolescence

454 Emotion regulation unfolds over a relatively short period of time, with significant 455 changes depending on the course of an event: adolescents may begin by using a strategy to deal 456 with an unpleasant event such as a parent's admonition (e.g., expressive suppression), and use 457 another one later when the conversation is over by discussing it with friends (e.g., support 458 seeking). The strategies used by adolescents also may change with age. In the previous example, 459 young adolescents receiving a bad grade may use support seeking, for example by looking for 460 peers who obtained similar grades. As they get older, they may shift to other strategies such as 461 reappraisal, for example by minimizing the importance of this particular grade. This change refers to different sources of temporal variability in adolescent development. Hollenstein and 462 463 Lanteigne (2018) argued that emotion regulation is a process that involves different time scales: the real-time scale where emotion regulation unfolds (e.g., using multiple emotion regulation 464

465 strategies when dealing with an emotional event), and the developmental time scale (e.g., 466 changes in the processes involved in emotion regulation over the course of months or years). 467 Within this perspective, the real-time processes form the developmental-time structures and 468 these developed structures subsequently constrain future real-time processes. We believe that 469 this dynamic system approach is crucial in the study of emotion regulation and even more for 470 understanding its development during adolescence.

471 In this dynamic system approach, the emotional changes experienced during 472 adolescence (e.g., dealing with the impact of puberty) may occur at any time, at different ages which is especially meaningful for the development of goal-pursuit abilities in adolescence. 473 474 These new settings also may introduce expectations for social interactions that adolescents have 475 to follow as they switch from one context to another (e.g., from school to home). Thus, 476 adolescents may exhibit typical variability in the use of emotion regulation strategies or show 477 emotion polyregulation patterns that would be used less by adults who had already experienced 478 similar events.

479 Combining these interdependent time scales is essential to piece together the 480 development of emotion regulation in adolescence. In this perspective, using real-time emotion 481 regulation measures nested within longitudinal measures is required. Studies that focus on the 482 development of specific emotion regulation goal-pursuit abilities such as emotion 483 polyregulation should be conducted using these two different time scales. The microlevel (real-484 time) time scale helps evaluating whether emotion polyregulation is concurrent or sequential, 485 which requires specific designs such as the Ecological Momentary Assessment (see Lennarz et 486 al., 2019 or Smith et al., 2022 for studies conducted with adolescents; Grommisch et al., 2020 487 for a study focused on polyregulation with adults). The macrolevel (developmental) time scale 488 contributes to describing how this ability develops throughout adolescence, which and involves 489 designs repeating phases of intensive longitudinal measures (e.g., several intensive phases per

490 year for several years). Such studies also examine interindividual differences in emotion
491 regulation development and clarify why some adolescents develop their repertoire of emotion
492 regulation strategies sooner than others.

493 Combining different methods for assessing emotion regulation in adolescence

494 The use of both experimental measures and self-report and other-report measures would 495 extend our knowledge on the development of emotion regulation strategies and abilities and 496 would be a definite strength for studies on emotion regulation. Self-report and other-report 497 measures are used widely to evaluate emotion regulation in adolescence. They are critical for 498 understanding how emotion regulation unfolds in everyday life. However, they have 499 limitations: adolescents can encounter difficulties in positioning themselves on scales or 500 accessing implicit emotion regulation (Sperduti et al., 2017), these measures are susceptible to 501 social desirability, and they lack precision to evaluate the processes involved in the 502 implementation of strategies as well as their effectiveness. Direct measures (e.g., observation, 503 experimental tasks) are suited better to assess adolescents' efficiency at implementing various 504 emotion regulation strategies (i.e., emotion regulation ability), to compare their efficiency, and 505 to highlight age differences in the ease of their use. Studies have been conducted that request 506 adolescents to use specific emotion regulation strategies (e.g., Theurel & Gentaz, 2018). 507 Although useful, these measures are not suited to evaluate the use of emotion regulation 508 strategies in daily situations, and they cannot assess how adolescents regulate their emotions 509 depending on the context. Indeed, observation protocols struggle to evaluate cognitive 510 regulation strategies whereas experimental tasks can do it but often lack ecological validity. To 511 address these limitations, designs using both approaches may be useful to apprehend relations between specific emotion regulation processes like emotion intensity and emotion 512 513 polyregulation. Investigating this issue would be particularly informative to understand whether

514 the use of emotion regulation strategies in everyday situations is related to the ability to 515 implement the same strategies.

516 Focusing on both predictors and outcomes of emotion regulation in adolescence

Emotion regulation is often considered as a psychosocial adjustment variable. However, the development of emotion regulation is related to emotional, cognitive and social changes that occur in adolescence. Given the implications of emotion regulation in adolescents' socioemotional life, a more comprehensive view of both predictors and outcomes of emotion regulation strategies and abilities is necessary. Most studies on emotion regulation do not rely sufficiently on the conceptual distinctions existing in the emotion regulation literature, nor on the influence of different contexts on the development of emotion regulation in adolescence.

Cognitive development, and more specifically executive functions, also are associated 524 525 with emotion regulation. This is especially the case during adolescence when using emotion 526 regulation strategies (i.e., rumination, suppression, and reappraisal; see Schweizer et al., 2020 527 for a review). For instance, excessive rumination is associated with difficulties in inhibiting 528 repetitive negative thinking (Gotlib & Joormann, 2010). Although emotion suppression implies 529 the inhibition of emotional expressions (Chervonsky & Hunt, 2017), reappraisal requires 530 working memory to update the interpretations of emotional experiences, thoughts, and events 531 (Aldao et al., 2010). Recent advances in the literature (i.e., Pruessner et al., 2020) point the lack 532 of studies in this field, and suggest that interindividual differences in executive functioning also 533 are related to the development of complex goal-pursuit abilities such as emotion regulation 534 flexibility. In their model, Pruessner et al. (2020) argue that inhibition, set-shifting, and 535 updating all contribute specifically to particular aspects of emotion regulation flexibility. Given the theoretical and empirical connections between executive functions and emotion regulation, 536 537 longitudinal research would explain how the development of executive functions contributes to

age-related changes in the efficiency of implementing emotion regulation strategies, in the useof these strategies in emotional contexts and in goal-pursuit abilities.

540 As presented earlier, parents are major partners and contributors to how adolescents 541 develop emotion regulation (Morris et al., 2017). Adolescents' emotion regulation experiences 542 in relation with their parents partly may be similar in other contexts (e.g., romantic or peer relationships). There is currently little data on how these contexts influence the development of 543 544 the different aspects of emotion regulation. To evaluate whether differences in parental 545 practices and in the emotional climate of the family predict interindividual differences in 546 emotion regulation over time, longitudinal studies from childhood to early adulthood are 547 required. Evaluating simultaneously whether parental influences affect the development of 548 emotion regulation abilities and the daily use of strategies in various contexts would be informative for both researchers and psychologists. Finally, peer relationships are one of the 549 550 contexts that drive the development of goal-pursuit abilities and also must be considered. 551 Emotion regulation flexibility is needed as adolescents interact with peers in multiple contexts 552 (e.g., school, social media, extracurricular activities). Similarly, polyregulation arises as new 553 emotionally intense situations (e.g., romantic relationships) occur with peers in adolescence.

554 Conclusion

555 Emotion regulation undergoes many developmental changes during adolescence. In this 556 article, we provided a framework for research on emotion regulation development, based on the 557 review of changes adolescence experience in relation to existing models and research. We 558 particularly focused on making theoretical distinctions that are still rare, notably between 559 emotion regulation strategies and abilities, and pointed out current gaps in the literature. This 560 analysis led to the development of promising avenues for research. Empirical studies need to 561 go further by shifting from static to more flexible, dynamic, and contextualized views of emotion regulation. Indeed, current knowledge on emotion regulation development in 562

adolescence remains quite limited and contested. To provide a better understanding of the 563 564 aspects of emotion regulation development, we stress the need for researchers to rely on up-to-565 date conceptual advances (by adopting a more contextualized approach and distinguishing between emotion regulation strategies and abilities), to use a person-oriented approach, to 566 567 combine different time scales and methods, and to address the major issues of both predictors 568 and outcomes of emotion regulation. Conducting such studies in the upcoming years constitutes 569 a necessary perspective for both researchers and psychologists who work with adolescents. 570 Expanding our knowledge of emotion regulation in adolescence will have strong clinical and 571 public health implications in designing effective interventions and may help prevent typical 572 adolescent problematic behaviors such as poor decision making.

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