



**ISCTBL 2022**  
INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE

Универзитет „Гоце Делчев“ –  
Штип

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Shtip

Факултет за туризам и бизнис  
логистика

Faculty of Tourism and  
Business Logistics

**Петта Меѓународна Научна Конференција  
Fifth International Scientific Conference**

**ПРЕДИЗВИЦИТЕ ВО ТУРИЗМОТ И БИЗНИС  
ЛОГИСТИКАТА ВО 21 ВЕК  
CHALLENGES OF TOURISM AND BUSINESS  
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## PANEL SESSION

### **Challenges and implications of COVID-19: reducing disparities and addressing distributional impacts in different sectors**

Session chair: Tatjana Boshkov, Assoc.professor and Dean at Faculty of tourism and business logistics, „Goce Delcev University – Stip, N. Macedonia

#### Panelists

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2. Prof. Dr. Madalina-Teodora Andrei, Ph.D., “Spiru Haret” University, Faculty of Geography, Bucharest, Romania
3. Prof. Dr. Mirela-Elena Mazilu, Ph.D. Department of Geography
4. Director of Research Center in Innovative and Regional Tourism, University of Craiova, Romania
5. Dr. Nikolina Vrcelj, Ph.D., Executive Director, Association of Economists and Managers of the Balkans, headquartered in Belgrade, Serbia
6. Prof. Dr. Kemal Cebeci, Marmara University, Faculty of Economics, Department of Public Finance, Director of MIRDEC, Istanbul, Turkey
7. Prof. Dr. Rabi Narayan Kar, Ph.D., FCS, Professor-Principal SLC, University of Delhi, Delhi, India
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10. Prof. Dr. Kanita Imamović-Čizmić, Ph.D., Department of Legal and Economic Sciences, University of Sarajevo-Faculty of Law, BiH
11. Prof. Dr. Slagjana Stojanovska, Ph.D., Integrated Business Faculty, Skopje, Republic of N. Macedonia
12. Prof. Dr. Slavi Dimitrov Ph.D., Department of Tourism, Deputy Dean of the Faculty of Economics, "St. Cyril and Methodius" University of Veliko Tarnovo, Bulgaria
13. Dr. Žarko Rađenović, Research Associate, University of NišInnovation Center, Serbia
14. Prof. Dr. Boban Melovic, Ph.D., Vice-Dean for international cooperation, Faculty of Economics Podgorica, University of Montenegro

#### **Moderators**

##### **First session: Business logistics and business administration**

Natasha Miteva, PhD, Vice-Dean for Education, Faculty of Tourism and Business Logistics, Goce Delcev University – Stip, N. Macedonia

##### **Second session: Tourism, hospitality and gastronomy**

Natasha Miteva, PhD, Vice-Dean for Education, Faculty of Tourism and Business Logistics, Goce Delcev University – Stip, N. Macedonia





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**ФАКУЛТЕТ ЗА ТУРИЗАМ И БИЗНИС ЛОГИСТИКА**  
**FACULTY OF TOURISM AND BUSINESS LOGISTICS**

**ПЕТТА МЕЃУНАРОДНА**  
**НАУЧНА КОНФЕРЕНЦИЈА**

**FIFTH INTERNATIONAL**  
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30 април, 2022, Штип / Shtip, April 30<sup>th</sup>, 2022

## EMOTION SYSTEM AS A SUB-SYSTEM OF PERSONALITY

**Aleksandra Zezova**

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### Abstract

If one accepts that the emotion system is an important sub-system of personality, and that inter-individual differences traceable to this system are important for describing individuals, it follows immediately that, to attain its goals, personality psychology must consider the emotions. Since its beginnings as a sub-discipline of psychology personality psychology has aimed at two different though related goals. The first goal is to construct a general theory of the person, understood as the integrated whole of the several sub-systems of the mind. The second goal is to describe and explain the interesting psychological differences between individuals, that is, the relatively stable psychological attributes that allow us uniquely to characterize individuals and to distinguish them from each other. Although there is as yet no generally accepted theoretical definition of emotion, there is widespread agreement among emotion researchers that the objects of their inquiry are, centrally, the transitory states of persons denoted by ordinary language words such as 'happiness', 'sadness', 'fear', 'anger', 'pity', 'pride', 'guilt', and so forth. There is also agreement that emotion episodes normally occur as reactions to the perception or imagination of 'objects' (typically events or states of affairs), and that they have both subjective and objective (intersubjectively observable) manifestations. In accordance with this conclusion, most classical personality theorists proposed an affective (or affective-motivational) system as a core system of the mind; and most taxonomic systems of personality descriptors include a sub-set that refer directly or indirectly to emotions. Nonetheless, the in-depth investigation of emotions from a personality perspective has only begun fairly recently, in the wake of an upsurge of interest in the emotions that arose in the 1980s and continues to this day. Since that time, the two historically largely separate fields of personality psychology and emotion psychology have become increasingly integrated, to the benefit of both fields.

**Key words:** *emotion system, functional effect of emotions, emotional dispositions*

### Introduction

The emotion system seems to consist at its core of a mechanism that (1) monitors the relevance of cognized events for the person's desires or motives, and (2) communicates detected motive-relevant changes to other personality sub-systems and simultaneously proposes particular action goals (Frijda 1994; Reizenzein 2009). It needs to be emphasized, however, that the described effects of emotion on thought and action are by no means inevitable. Rather, the person can to a considerable degree decide to heed versus ignore the 'suggestions' made by her emotions, as well as control or regulate the emotions themselves. As Frijda put it, 'people not only have emotions, they also handle them' (emphasis added). Even radical hedonist theorists usually do not claim that humans are slaves to their momentary emotions but instead emphasize, for example, that people can decide to tolerate a current unpleasant feeling if they believe that this will spare them greater pain in the future. Today, the dominant theory of emotion generation is the cognitive or appraisal theory of emotion (e.g., Lazarus 1991; Ortony, Clore and Collins 1988; Scherer 2001). Appraisal theory assumes that emotions arise if an event is appraised in a motive-relevant manner, that is, as representing an actual or potential fulfilment or frustration of a motive

(desire, wish). The appraisal of an event determines not only whether or not this event elicits an emotion, but also which emotion it elicits. Hedonically positive (i.e., experientially pleasant) emotions occur if an event is evaluated as motive-congruent, whereas hedonically negative (experientially unpleasant) emotions occur if an event is evaluated as motive-incongruent. The further distinctions between emotions depend, first, on the kind of evaluation made, for example, on whether an event is evaluated as just personally undesirable or as morally wrong (Ortony, Clore and Collins 1988). Secondly, they depend on particular factual appraisals, including the appraisal of the event's probability, unexpectedness, controllability, and the appraisal of one's own or other people's responsibility for bringing it about (see Ellsworth and Scherer 2003).

The relations between appraisals and specific emotions have been spelled out in several structural appraisal models. In addition, attempts have been made to develop information-processing models of appraisal and emotion. An important assumption shared by most of these information-processing models is that appraisal processes can occur in different modes. Of particular importance is the distinction between non-automatic and automatic modes of appraisal and, hence, of emotion generation. Whereas non-automatic appraisal processes are conscious inference strategies, automatic appraisals are unconscious and are 'triggered' fairly directly by the perception of eliciting events. Like other mental processes, initially non-automatic, conscious appraisals can become automatized as a result of their repeated execution. Automatic appraisals can explain why emotions frequently follow eliciting events rapidly.

### **Functional effects of emotions**

Traditionally, psychologists have tended to emphasize the negative, maladaptive effects of emotions. However, during the past twenty-five years, the view has increasingly gained acceptance that, notwithstanding their occasional negative consequences, emotions are over-all adaptive. The adaptive effects of emotions are their (evolutionary) functions: the reasons why the emotion system came into existence in the first place. The two main, over-arching functions of emotions are widely thought to be the motivational and the informational functions of emotions. The motivational function of emotions consists in their adaptive effects on motivation (the action goals of the person) and, thereby, on action itself. Two main routes from emotion to motivation have been proposed (Reisenzein 1996). According to the first route, emotions influence motivation by becoming goals of action – states one seeks to regulate by one's actions. These theories assume that one ultimate goal or basic motive of humans, if not their only basic motive, is the desire to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain (displeasure). The hedonistic desire can be activated by both actual and anticipated emotions: Negative feelings generate a desire to reduce them (if present) or to avoid them (if anticipated); positive feelings generate a desire to maintain them (if present) or to bring them about (if an opportunity arises). Note that these hedonistic desires can also influence cognitive processes, including appraisals. For example, the unpleasant feeling of fear elicited by a threatening event may motivate the person to avoid thinking about the event, or to try to actively reappraise it in more benign terms. There can be little doubt that emotions influence motivation partly through the hedonistic route. Rather, according to these theorists, at least some emotions (e.g., fear) evoke adaptive action tendencies (e.g., to flee or to avoid) directly, that is, without the mediation of hedonistic desires. This non-hedonistic theory of the emotion-action link seems better able than the hedonistic theory to account for the motivational effects of some emotions, such as the effect of pity on helping and of anger on aggression. The informational function of emotions consists in their making adaptively useful information available and/or salient to other sub-systems of personality (e.g., Forgas 2003; Schwarz and Clore 2007). To illustrate, nervousness experienced when meeting a stranger can inform the decision-making system about the subconscious appraisal of the encounter as threatening. Similarly, a pleasant feeling experienced when reflecting on a possible course of action may signal the subconscious approval of the action. In addition, emotions can increase the salience or apparent plausibility of 'emotion-congruent' interpretations of

ambiguous events. Although the resulting 'emotion-tinged' event interpretations may appear biased and even irrational, it can be argued that this biasing effect of emotions on cognitions is adaptive in many evolutionarily significant situations. Both the information provided by feelings and their effect on event interpretations can, indirectly, again influence action.

### **Structure of emotional dispositions**

So far, the bulk of the research on emotion-related individual differences has had a descriptive focus; that is, the main aim has been to identify the relatively stable emotional dispositions (i.e., propensities to experience emotions) in which people differ from each other, and to clarify their relations to each other and to established personality traits such as neuroticism or extraversion. One reason why research has concentrated on these questions is probably that they can be addressed without making many assumptions about the structure of the emotion system (as described earlier), or that of personality in general. About all that needs to be done is to measure emotional dispositions reliably, and to analyze the patterns of statistical co-variation among them and to other personality traits. Regarding the structure of emotional dispositions, three main conclusions can be made. First, at least moderately stable, reliable inter-individual differences in the propensities to experience emotions seem to exist for all commonly distinguished emotions (anger, fear, etc.) as well as for sub-types of these emotions directed at particular classes of objects (e.g., fear of dogs, fear of exams). Secondly, dispositions for hedonically positive emotions correlate with each other, and dispositions for hedonically negative emotions do so as well. For example, people who are prone to sadness also tend to be prone to fear, anger and guilt (note that this does not necessarily mean that the corresponding emotional states are experienced at the same time). Thirdly, the two superordinate dispositions to experience pleasant and unpleasant emotions seem to be largely independent (e.g., Diener, Smith and Fujita 1995; Schimmack, Oishi and Diener 2002). Emotional dispositions, at least those that are stable and general, are a species of personality traits. How are they related to the personality dispositions typically featured in trait theories of personality?. In fact, closer inspection suggests that emotional dispositions lie at the core of these taxonomies. To document this claim, let us look at the currently most popular trait model of personality, the Five-Factor Model. The Five-Factor Model of personality posits five main, relatively independent, broad personality dimensions: neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. Of these traits, four (neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness and openness) are related to emotional dispositions. This is suggested by an examination of the theoretical definitions of these factors, by content analyses of the questionnaires used to measure them, and by their correlations to explicit measures of emotional dispositions, such as the trait form of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). Agreeableness is usually defined as a behavioural disposition that contrasts a prosocial, communal orientation towards others with an antagonistic attitude. However, some of the best markers of agreeableness refer to emotional dispositions towards other people (e.g., 'affectionate', 'soft-hearted' versus 'cold'; and empirically, agreeableness has been found to correlate negatively with trait anger and positively with the tendency to experience empathic emotions. In addition, agreeable persons seem to try harder than non-agreeable persons to control the expression of negative emotions. Finally, individuals who score highly on openness to experience seem to be more emotionally sensitive to art and beauty, and to experience a wider range of feelings and emotions than people low on this trait (McCrae 2007). As mentioned before, it is widely accepted today that emotions have adaptive effects, which were the reason why the emotion system (at least its core) emerged in evolution. This raises the question of whether individual differences in emotionality (e.g., fearfulness or irascibility) are likewise, at least in part, the product of natural selection. Although there is now strong evidence for the partial heritability of the Big Five and hence for the heritability of basic inter-individual differences in emotionality, this does not imply that these heritable inter-individual differences are adaptive. On the contrary, it has been argued that the very existence of heritable variation in a trait signals a lack of adaptive significance (Tooby and Cosmides 1990). One strength of the appraisal theory

of emotion is that it can readily explain how inter-individual differences in emotional reactions to the same event arise at the psychological level (Roseman and Smith 2001).

### **General desires and beliefs as personality determinants of emotions**

One strength of the appraisal theory of emotion is that it can readily explain how inter-individual differences in emotional reactions to the same event arise at the psychological level (Roseman and Smith 2001). Appraisal theory postulates that emotions arise if an event is appraised as motive- congruent or motive-incongruent, and that the intensity of the resulting emotions depends on the strength of the motive, or the subjective importance of the goal (i.e., the content of the desire) at stake. Motive and goal theorists commonly assume that the goals that a person has in a specific situation (e.g., a student's goal to pass a particular examination) are derived from more fundamental goals for which the specific goals are viewed as means to ends. At the top of the motive hierarchy are presumably a set of basic desires which constitute the ultimate sources of human motivation (e.g., Reiss 2000). These assumptions entail that the emotional reaction to a concrete event should be influenced by the degree to which superordinate desires are affected by this event, as well as the strength of these desires. Beyond relating positive and negative emotions to desire fulfilment and desire frustration, respectively, appraisal theorists have linked particular emotions to particular kinds of desires (e.g., Lazarus 1991). An important distinction in this context is that between wanting versus diswanting a state of affairs (Roseman 1979), or between having an approach goal versus an avoidance goal. It has been proposed that qualitatively different positive and negative emotions are experienced if an approach versus an avoidance goal, respectively, is attained or non-attained. To illustrate, assume Oscar has informed Liz that he intends to visit her. If Liz wants Oscar to visit (approach goal) she will be happy if he comes and disappointed if he does not; whereas if Liz diswants Oscar to visit (avoidance goal), she will be dismayed if he comes and relieved if he does not. Several theorists proposed (a) that the pursuit of approach versus avoidance goals activates one of two different, basic motivational systems, a behavioural approach system (BAS) or a behavioural inhibition (BIS) system; and (b) that people differ in central parameters of these systems, specifically in the relative strength of their general approach and avoidance motivation. If so, these inter-individual differences should be related to the intensity of the emotions connected to the attainment or non-attainment of approach and avoidance goals. Supporting this assumption, found that a measure of inter-individual differences in general approach motivation (BAS sensitivity) predicted the intensity of sadness and anger in response to frustration (the non-occurrence of an expected positive event). There is also evidence that appraisal-related, general beliefs influence emotional reactions to events. The two general beliefs that have been most extensively researched in this regard are (a) optimism (versus pessimism), defined as a generalized expectancy for positive (versus negative) outcomes and (b) general self-efficacy, defined as a person's generalized belief in her ability to reach her goals and to master difficult or stressful situations (Bandura 1997; Schwarzer and Jerusalem 1995). Optimism has been found, for example, to correlate negatively with depressive symptoms and negative habitual mood, but positively with positive habitual mood. General self-efficacy has been found, for example, to be associated with lower state anxiety during a stressful cognitive task (Endler, Speer, Johnson and Flett 2001) and lower levels of depression and anxiety in medical patients. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that optimism and general self-efficacy affect emotional states at least partly by influencing the appraisals of events; it should be noted, however, that direct evidence for this mediating path is so far scarce. Furthermore, this is most likely not the only causal path through which optimism and general self-efficacy influence emotions.

For example, compared to pessimists, optimists also use more active coping strategies aimed at eliminating or reducing problems and negative emotions. Other general beliefs that have been found to predict the emotional reactions to events include interpersonal trust, hostility and sensitivity to injustice. General interpersonal trust was found to moderate the effects of a

violation of the social norm of equality on negative emotions. Hostility, defined as a disposition whose core is the general belief that other people are unworthy and likely to be sources of frustration and aggression, was found to predict state anger caused by negative interpersonal events (see Aquino, Douglas and Martinko 2004; Smith 1992). Sensitivity to injustice, a disposition characterized among others by the belief that one is frequently the victim of unfairness, was found to predict state anger caused by a concrete unfair treatment.

### Conclusion

As mentioned, people are not slaves to their emotions and in fact often try to control their emotions and their effects on thought and action. This consideration suggests that the personality determinants of emotions may also comprise habitual strategies, or 'styles' of regulating emotions and of coping with emotional events, a suggestion that has been explored in numerous studies. Emotion regulation and coping styles have been investigated for emotion in general, for groups of emotions (in particular stress-related emotions), and for specific emotions, notably anger, anxiety and depression. Research on habitual tendencies of 'handling' anger initially distinguished two coping styles: anger-out (showing overt, aggressive reactions) and anger-in (suppressing the overt expression of anger; Spielberger 1999). Neither of these strategies is very effective in reducing anger, however. More recent research has taken a broader range of anger regulation strategies into view (Linden, Hogan, Rutledge et al. 2003), including effective anger-reduction strategies such as non-hostile feedback and humour. A general taxonomy of emotion regulation methods that subsumes the described strategies was proposed by Gross. This taxonomy distinguishes five classes of emotion regulation strategies: situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment (e.g., vigilance versus avoidance), reappraisal and response modulation. In 1990, Salovey and Meyer proposed that the capacity to regulate one's emotions in situationally appropriate ways should be viewed as but one facet of a broader capacity termed emotional intelligence, which they defined as: the ability to recognize one's own and other's emotions, to use the information contained in emotional experience to guide judgement and action, and to manage the experience and expression of emotions. Since then, the concept of emotional intelligence has become enormously popular, and numerous studies have been conducted that related individual differences in emotional intelligence, measured through various tests to a variety of outcome measures. These studies found that emotional intelligence has a small to moderate positive correlation to performance and to mental and physical health. Although measures of emotional intelligence also correlate substantially with measures of more traditional personality dispositions, including coping style appear to retain some predictive validity even when these correlations to traditional measures are taken into account.

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