CHAPTER -I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction
1.2 Smoking and Personality
1.3 Smoking and Frustration
1.4 Cigarette Smoking
1.5 Personality
1.6 Frustration
1.7 Type of Cigarette Smokers
1.8 Personality Factor
1.9 Frustration Factor
1.10 Statement of the Problem
1.11 Significance of the Study
1.1 INTRODUCTION

Smoking is the devastating addiction in the world. Smoking is the worldwide Psychological and social problem. Smoking affects the personality as well as social status. It leads to frustration and sometimes to complete depression. Smoking leads to serious health problems which damage society and country at large. Though this is major addiction in the society but which is preventable. It needs to study and to propagate in the society, by which awareness can be created in the society and this life threatening addiction can be controlled. Keeping this fact in the mind this research work is carried out.

There are different factors behind smoking. People smoke because of boredom, because of depression, for just fun, for social company, to just impress the ladies and even to see how smoke comes out from the mouth. There are lots of psychological factors behind smoking but major negative result of the smoking is that affects people’s personality in negative ways and this is the main object behind this study.

Frustration is state of mind in which a person lacks enthusiasm. The motivational factor cannot motivate him because he got negative impression about that. May be because of his own capacity or any other factor he could not achieve goals and gets frustrated. Simply frustration is the outcome of obstacles which not be overcome and lead to frustration. Then the bad circle starts for life. Circle of smoking and frustration. Smokers say they smoke because of frustration and study found that smoking affects personality frustrate the person. People get addicted such way that they cannot live without smoking though they know that smoking is harmful for their health.
and for their social status. Even smoke faces the early morning problem. They cannot go to the toilet without having a smoke. Surgeons and physician agreed and reiterated that smoking is dangerous to health. Psychologist found various factors of smoking which negatively affects personality.

There are a lot of definitions of personality and they all are important because of the wideness of this concept. Broadly personality is supreme realization of self. It gives experience and confidence to that person. It gives idea of his behavior in the society. It shows openness of that person. Personality shows Consciousness and agreeableness of the person. Some important Personality Factors are Neuroticism, Extroversion, Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. These all factors make an individual personality.

The concept frustration is defined by various psychologists. Frustration factor are Regression, Fixation, Resignation, Aggression. The main aim of this study is to see the effects on personality due to smoking with special reference to frustration.

1.2 SMOKING AND PERSONALITY

The many personality characteristics described in the psychological literature, many involve relatively subtle distinctions and observer insights and few are significantly related to smoking. The most often reported personality difference between smokers and non-smokers is that although both groups contain all type of introverts and extroverts, the men extraversion is higher for smokers than non-smokers. Why people differ in this characteristic
is unknown, but it has been suggested that introverts and extravert differ constitually in how much external stimulation their central nervous systems require to attain that optimal level of activation which enables them to function at their best. External stimulation which sends cortical arousal messages to the brain from the reticular activating system sub centers makes the introvert over aroused. The same stimulation applied to the less responsive central nervous system of the extrovert may bring him from a sluggish, under aroused condition to his optimal level of arousal.

Furthermore among extroverts who smoke, there should be a greater need for other stimulation to replace nicotine’s contribution when they are smoke deprived than when they have been smoking.

To the extent that smoker’s personality and life styles differ from those of non smokers, (Dunn 1973) Smokers' personalities may further contribute to the smoker being viewed as socially abnormal. The smoker population who has such psychosocial disorders is likely to be small; any difference between smoker and nonsmoker populations would likely strengthen the negative bias towards smokers in general.

Smoking affects people’s personality in negative ways. It is a shared-experience amongst all smokers that they reminisce about the times they had not known about smoking, their younger years, how different they were, how they felt no sort of pull or addiction to this dangerous, commercialized and legalized drug. First emotion was the rush, then the guilt, then the pain, and then denial and all this goes on in the haze of a vicious circle that swirls and distorts one’s self completely. Everyone remembers the time they did not
smoke. They used to hate it, hate it when their fathers smoked and hated the smell in a public place. They were innocent, they used to look down upon smokers, and raise cancer-awareness bill boards in school projects. Then they tried it and got hooked and crooked and cooked. Now they cannot remember how it felt to be innocent and pure, literally, as the damage inflicted by smoking even one cigarette on the lungs cannot be reversed by any means. Many begin this habit in a guilt-trip kind of thing, they hide, and they enjoy doing it because it is prohibited. Many stupid youngsters start smoking to act macho and impress girls only to fall face first in dirt and realize that it is turn-off number one on every girl’s list.

Every smoke faces the early morning problem. They cannot go to the toilet without having a smoke. Thus the average smoker takes the first breaths of the day through a filter that hardly filters any of the hundreds of deadly toxins it contains. They know it contains bad things and slowly over time they do realize that it is indeed true that smoking destroys your stamina, lung-capacity, athletic ability, libido and sexual ability and general facial appearance too. Smokers age faster as wrinkles appear faster on their visages. They always suffer from bad breath and would either annoy everyone they talk to or constantly be bothered by chewing mints mouth-fresheners. The money cost is a matter of grave concern for many. Kids who steal money to buy cigarettes get their personalities badly bent by such an act.

Some wise man had once said that if the cost of buying cigarettes is a concerning matter than you definitely should not smoke. Many poor people of limited means also get hooked on to blowing money of cigarettes and it acts
like the affect of alcohol on an irresponsible husband who beats his wife. People waste money, health, time, relationships, opportunities because of this and this realization, and what follows it - whether a correction in the habit or a continuation of the same path on ignorance and carelessness, makes them see cigarettes either as something horrific or something bad but un-avoidable.

Many get hospitalized after quitting smoking; such is the intensity of the addiction to the man-made drugs and chemicals.

1.3 SMOKING AND FRUSTRATION

Frustration is directly proportional to cigarette smoking. All the smokers out there will be in agreement with this fact. It is a general slogan of all the smokers that because they smoke of frustration and stress. Cigarette smoking is the number one preventable cause of premature death in the United States (Bartecchi, MacKenzie, & Schrier, 1995), smoking continues at a high rate. Adolescent smoking rates actually increased in the 1990s (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1998). This trend might continue, as marketing practices by the tobacco industry have been linked with smoking uptake among adolescents (Sargent, 2000). Given that most smokers begin smoking at an early age (Bartecchi, MacKenzie, & Schrier, 1995) and that early onset is associated with heavier smoking in later years (Everett et al., 1999), there is a great need to understand factors associated with the initial decision to begin smoking as well as its maintenance. Numerous theories have been proposed to explain the initiation and maintenance of smoking behavior in both adolescents and adults. For example, Perry, Murray, and Klepp (1987) have suggested that adolescent smoking serves a number of purposes, often
associated with specific developmental tasks. They noted that smoking may be a coping mechanism for dealing with boredom and frustration; a transition marker or a claim on a more mature, adult status; a way of gaining admission to a peer group; and a way to have fun, reduce stress, or maintain and increase one's personal energy.

The maintenance of smoking behavior has found that smokers see their habit as having a calming effect (Leventhal & Avis, 1976), and pleasurable relaxation is the most frequently cited motive for smoking, particularly for younger smokers (Klitzke, Irwin, Loinardo, & Christoff, 1990). Smoking can also be a quick and easy coping strategy for students who have low self-image or who experience frequent dysphonic states (Semmer, Cleary, Dwyer, Fuchs, & Lippert, 1987). Personality factors, such as neuroticism, negative effect, hopelessness, and general psychological disarray, have also been found to be integral in the maintenance of smoking (Breslau, Kilbey, & Andreski, 1993). Jackson (1998) has suggested that some children show a propensity for later, adolescent smoking as early as third grade by being cognitively susceptible, or lacking a firm commitment toward not smoking. Others have suggested that depression plays an important role in both the initiation (Kandel & Davies, 1986) and maintenance (Anda et al., 1990) of smoking.

Depression has been found to have a strong association with cigarette smoking (Covey, Glassman, & Stetner, 1998.). Adults who are depressed are 40% to 50% more likely to smoke than adults who are not depressed (Schoenborn & Horm, 1993). Depressive symptoms have also been found to
predict continued smoking in adolescents (Zhu, Sun, Billings, Choi, & Malarcher, 1999). Dalack, Glassman, Rivelli, Covey, and Stetner (1995) found that even after a recovery from major depression (diagnosed), smokers often remained symptomatically depressed. Interestingly, smokers who are depressed tend to smoke more cigarettes than more emotionally stable individuals who smoke (Spielberger, 1986). In addition, depressed individuals are less successful in their efforts to stop smoking (Curtin, Brown, & Sales, 2000; Vazquez & Becona, 1999) and more prone to depression following smoking cessation (Covey, Glassman, & Stetner, 1998). According to the DSM-IV, "depressive symptoms post cessation may be associated with a relapse to smoking" (American Psychiatric Association, 1994).

Despite the significant body of literature associating depression with smoking, the nature of this relationship remains unclear, and theories attempting to explain the observed correlation are sometimes contradictory. Proposed theories include both non-causal and causal relationships between depression and smoking. A non-causal relationship suggests that a predisposition of common factors, such as psychological vulnerabilities, contributes to the observed correlation between smoking and depression for adults (Breslau, 1995) and adolescents (Koval, Pederson, Mills, McGrady, & Carvajal, 2000). For example, Hughes (1988) proposed that low self-esteem might act as a common predisposition for both depression and smoking. Causal theories, in contrast, suggest a direct link between depression and smoking. Many of these theories propose a biological link. Ingesting nicotine through smoking has been thought to be an attempt to self-medicate one's
negative affective states (Eysenck, 1973; Hughes, 1988; Warburton, Wesnes, & Revell, 1983). In fact, Sachs (1996) has argued that nicotine may be an effective antidepressant. Balfour and Ridley (2000) propose that depression sensitizes people to stress and that drugs such as nicotine, which stimulates dopamine release in the forebrain, can relieve stress. They also suggest that chronic exposure to tobacco smoke may elicit serotonin-related changes in the brain that cause increased depression when smoking ceases. In short, the relationship between smoking and depression is complex, and most likely involves both causal and no causal explanations.

### 1.4 CIGARETTE SMOKING

The surgeon general has determined that cigarette smoking is dangerous to health. Cigarette smoking is not a minor habit or vice; physicians join the surgeon general in describing it as a major cause of lung cancer and heart disease. Even those smokers who know these facts continue their habit because they cannot stop. Cigarette smoking is the largest preventable risk factor for morbidity and mortality in developed countries. Dramatic changes in the prevalence of cigarette smoking in the second half of this century in the United States and India have reduced current smoking levels to approximately one quarter of the adult population and have reduced differences in smoking prevalence and smoking-attributable diseases between the sexes. Current smoking in the United States is positively associated with younger age, lower income, reduced educational achievement, and disadvantaged neighborhood environment. Daily smokers smoke cigarettes to maintain nicotine levels in the brain, primarily to avoid the negative effects of nicotine withdrawal, but
also to modulate mood. Regular smokers exhibit higher and lower levels of stress and arousal, respectively, than nonsmokers, as well as higher impulsivity and neuroticism trait values.

Nicotine dependence is the single most common psychiatric diagnosis in the United States, and substance abuse, major depression, and anxiety disorders are the most prevalent psychiatric co morbid conditions associated with nicotine dependence. Studies in twins have implicated genetic factors that explain most of the variability in vulnerability to smoking and in persistence of the smoking phenotype. Future research into the causes of smoking must take into account these associated demographics, social factors, co morbid psychiatric conditions, and genetic factors to understand this complex human behavior. Only about 2 percent of all smokers do so intermittently and occasionally; most people who smoke become regular users sooner or later. Three or four casual cigarette smoked during adolescence is signs that people become regular smokers as adult. The active ingredient in cigarette which creates dependence is nicotine. While there are many reasons for a smoker’s habit, dependence upon nicotine is the most critical. The definition of addiction offered earlier generally involves both withdrawal symptoms and tolerance. When people who smoke regularly are denied nicotine, they exhibit physiological withdrawal symptoms. When smokers are deprived of their drug they become nervous, drowsy, anxious and lightheaded, develop headaches and exhibit a loss of energy and fatigue. Cigarette smokers also develop a tolerance to nicotine.
Investigators have directed their principle consideration to cigarette smoking, because the health consequences attributed to it far exceed those due to smoking cigars and pipes. Clinical pathological and epidemiological evidence indicates that cigarette smoking is the main cause of lung cancer in men. The risk of developing lung cancer increases with the number of cigarettes smoked per day and the duration of smoking and it diminishes with cessation of smoking. Cigarette smoking appears to be much more important than other factors. The lung cancer risk for pipe and cigar smokers appears to be only slightly greater than for the nonsmoker, and it is clearly much less than for cigarette smokers.

**History of cigarette**

The cigarette found in Mexico in 1518 resembled the 20th century product, although the crushed tobacco was stuffed into a hollow reed or wrapped in a vegetable product, probably corn husk. According to tradition, paper- wrapped cigarettes were developed in the 16th century by beggars of Seville, Spain, who rolled discarded cigar butts in scraps of paper. The cigarette, this time in paper, returned to Mexico well before 1765 when Visitor General Jose de Galvez confiscated large quantities of cigarette paper in Jalapa and established a government tobacco monopoly. Meanwhile the cigarette, along with the Middle East. As early as 1845, French smokers preferred America’s Maryland or Virginia tobacco because that grown in France was too acrid. It is known that Baron Josef Huppmann established the Ferme cigarette factory in St. Petersburg, Russia in 1850. The popularity of filter tipped cigarettes stemmed from the health controversy over cigarette
smoking. In the United States the controversy began in 1952 and reached a climax with the surgeon general’s adverse report issued in 1964.

1.5 PERSONALITY

The word ‘personality’ derives from the Latin word ‘persona’ which means ‘mask’. The study of personality can be understood as the study of ‘masks’ that people wear. These are the persona that people project and display, but also includes the inner parts of psychological experience which we collectively call our ‘self’.

Personality is the supreme realization of the innate idiosyncrasy of a living being. It is an act of high courage flung in the face of life, the absolute affirmation of all that constitutes the individual, the most successful adaptation to the universal condition of existence coupled with the greatest possible freedom for self-determination (Carl Gustav Jung, 1934)

Personality is “I”. Adams suggested that we get a good idea of what personality is by listening to what we say when we use "I". When you say I, you are, in effect, summing up everything about yourself - your likes and dislikes, fears and virtues, strengths and weaknesses. The word I is what defined you as an individual, as a person separate from all others.” (Schultz & Schultz, 1994).

The following is a representative subset of those definitions:-

➢ “Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.” (Allport, 1937).
“Personality is a system of relatively enduring dispositions to experience, discriminate, or manipulate actual or perceived aspect of the individual’s environment” (Bronfenbrenner, 1951)

“Personality is the most adequate conceptualization of a person’s behavior in all its detail that a scientist can give at a moment in time.” (McClelland, 1951).

“Personality is the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize a human life.” (Sullivan, 1953).

“Personality is a person’s unique pattern of traits.”(Guilford, 1959).

“Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person’s character temperament, intellect and physique, which determines his unique adjustment to the environment.” (Eysenk, 1970).

“Personality is the culmination of all the relatively enduring dimensions of individual differences on which he can give at a moment in time.” (Byrne, 1974)

“Personality is the record of an individual’s experience and behavior, together with the psychophysical systems contributing casual determination to the record, and the individual body within and through which the systems and record, and exist and function. Some causal determination is found within the record itself.” (Cartwright, 1979).
“Personality represents those characteristics of the person or of people generally that account for consistent patterns of response to situations.” (Pervin, 1980).

"Personality is not an existing substantive entity to be searched for but complexes construct to be developed and defined by the observer." (Smith & Vetter, 1982).

“Personality is a dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create a person’s characteristic patterns of behavior, thoughts, and feelings.” (Carver & Scheier, 2000)

Type of personality Ancient Greek philosophers such as Hippocrates 400 BC and Galen, 140/150 AD classified 4 types of "humors" in people. Each type was believed to be due to an excess of one of four bodily fluids, corresponding to their character. The personalities were termed "humors".


In Ayurvedic medicine (used in India since ~3000 BC), in which there are three main metabolic body types (doshas) - Vata, Pita, & Kapha.

Jungian psychological types are probably the most widely used and amongst the best-known in everyday life. Jung's typology emerges from Jung's deep, holistic philosophy and psychology about the person. Jung's typology is not, unfortunately, always included in mainstream personality courses, because it wasn't empirically-driven. Jung viewed the ultimate
psychological task as the process of individuation, based on the strengths and limitations of one's psychological type.

Myers-Briggs developed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, a commercially available questionnaire, which is widely used in business and training, etc. and which provides information and exercises for better understanding one's own personality type and others with whom the individual interacts and works.

Keirsey has renamed and reconceptualized the Jungian types, but they relate very closely to the Jungian types. Keirsey refers to "temperaments" rather than personality.

Meyer Friedman, an American cardiologist, noticed in the 1940's that the chairs in his waiting room got worn out from the edges. They hypothesized that his patients were driven, impatient people, who sat on the edge of their seats when waiting. They labeled these people "Type A" personalities. Type A personalities are work-aholics, always busy, driven, somewhat impatient, and so on. Type B personalities, on the other hand are laid back and easy going. "Type A personality" has found its way into general parlance.

Block (1971) identified 5 personality types among male participants in a study. These types were found only to exist in mostly white, intelligent and relatively affluent males. A number of subsequent studies conducted in the 1990s; however seems to bear out three of Block’s 5 identified types:
Much personality research has studied the origin, nature and consequences of single traits, such as introversion. Funder (2001) focuses on three single traits that have received wide attention and have been the subject of investigation in hundreds of studies: Conscientiousness, self-monitoring, authoritarianism.

The personality trait of authoritarianism has been extensively studied since the 1950's. Much initial research was done as a reaction to the outrages which occurred in Nazi Germany during WWII. Authoritarianism began to be studied in order to try to understand its nature and its origin. Authoritarianism is felt to lie at the heart of racial prejudice. Think of the stereotypical "Hitler", and you have the authoritarian personality. The Authoritarian personality may be described a person who is unthinking and inflexible, aggressive, worshipful of authority above, contemptuous of those below, fascinated by power, cynical, and may be sexually repressed. The origins of authoritarianism have been studied but it has been difficult to determine whether adult authoritarianism is attributable.

The trait approach to personality is one of the major theoretical areas in the study of personality. The trait theory suggests that individual personalities are composed broad dispositions. Consider how you would describe the personality of a close friend. Chances are that you would list a number of traits, such as outgoing, kind and even-tempered. A trait can be thought of as a relatively stable characteristic that causes individuals to behave in certain ways.
Eysenck’s theory is based primarily on physiology and genetics. Although he is a behaviorist who considers learned habits of great importance, he considers personality differences as growing out of our genetic inheritance. He is, therefore, primarily interested in what is usually called temperament.

Eysenck is also primarily a research psychologist. His methods involve a statistical technique called factor analysis. This technique extracts a number of “dimensions” from large masses of data. For example, if you give long lists of adjectives to a large number of people for them to rate themselves on, you have prime raw material for factor analysis.

Imagine, for example, a test that included words like “shy,” “introverted,” “outgoing,” “wild,” and so on. Obviously, shy people are likely to rate themselves high on the first two words, and low on the second two. Outgoing people are likely to do the reverse. Factor analysis extracts dimensions factors such as shy-outgoing from the mass of information. The researcher then examines the data and gives the factor a name such as “introversion-extroversion.” There are other techniques that will find the “best fit” of the data to various possible dimensions, and others still that will find “higher level” dimensions -- factors that organize the factors, like big headings organize little headings. Eysenck's original research found two main dimensions of temperament: neuroticism and extroversion-introversion.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism is the name Eysenck gave to a dimension that ranges from normal, fairly calm and collected people to one’s that tend to be quite
“nervous.” His research showed that these nervous people tended to suffer more frequently from a variety of “nervous disorders” we call neuroses, hence the name of the dimension. But understand that he was not saying that people who score high on the neuroticism scale are necessarily neurotics only that they are more susceptible to neurotic problems.

Eysenck was convinced that, since everyone in his data-pool fit somewhere on this dimension of normality-to-neuroticism, this was a true temperament, i.e. that this was a genetically-based, physiologically-supported dimension of personality. He therefore went to the physiological research to find possible explanations.

The most obvious place to look was at the sympathetic nervous system. This is a part of the autonomic nervous system that functions separately from the central nervous system and controls much of our emotional responsiveness to emergency situations. For example, when signals from the brain tell it to do so, the sympathetic nervous systems instructs the liver to release sugar for energy, causes the digestive system to slow down, opens up the pupils, raises the hairs on your body (Goosebumps), and tells the adrenal glands to release more adrenalin (epinephrine). The adrenalin in turn alters many of the body’s functions and prepares the muscles for action. The traditional way of describing the function of the sympathetic nervous system is to say that it prepares us for “fight or flight.”

Eysenck hypothesized that some people have a more responsive sympathetic nervous system than others. Some people remain very calm during emergencies; some people feel considerable fear or other emotions;
and some are terrified by even very minor incidents. He suggested that this latter group had a problem of sympathetic hyperactivity, which made them prime candidates for the various neurotic disorders.

Perhaps the most “archetypal” neurotic symptom is the panic attack. Eysenck explained panic attacks as something like the positive feedback you get when you place a microphone too close to a speaker: The small sounds entering the mike get amplified and come out of the speaker, and go into the mike, get amplified again, and come out of the speaker again, and so on, round and round, until you get the famous squeal that we all loved to produce when we were kids. (Lead guitarists like to do this too to make some of their long, wailing sounds.)

Well, the panic attack follows the same pattern: You are mildly frightened by something crossing a bridge, for example. This gets your sympathetic nervous system going. That makes you more nervous, and so more susceptible to stimulation, which gets your system even more in an uproar, which makes you more nervous and more susceptible. You could say that the neuroticistic person is responding more to his or her own panic than to the original object of fear! As someone who has had panic attacks, I can vouch for Eysenck’s description -- although his explanation remains only a hypothesis.
Extraversion-introversion

His second dimension is extraversion-introversion. By this he means something very similar to what Jung meant by the same terms, and something very similar to our common-sense understanding of them: Shy, quiet people “versus” out-going, even loud people. This dimension, too, is found in everyone, but the physiological explanation is a bit more complex.

Eysenck hypothesized that extraversion-introversion is a matter of the balance of “inhibition” and “excitation” in the brain itself. These are ideas that Pavlov came up with to explain some of the differences he found in the reactions of his various dogs to stress. Excitation is the brain waking itself up, getting into an alert, learning state. Inhibition is the brain calming itself down, either in the usual sense of relaxing and going to sleep, or in the sense of protecting itself in the case of overwhelming stimulation.

Someone who is extroverted, he hypothesized, has good, strong inhibition: When confronted by traumatic stimulation such as a car crash the extravert’s brain inhibits itself, which means that it becomes “numb,” you might say, to the trauma, and therefore will remember very little of what happened. After the car crash, the extrovert might feel as if he had “blanked out” during the event, and may ask others to fill them in on what happened. Because they don’t feel the full mental impact of the crash, they may be ready to go back to driving the very next day.

The introvert, on the other hand, has poor or weak inhibition: When trauma, such as the car crash, hits them, their brains don’t protect them fast
enough, don’t in any way shut down. Instead, they are highly alert and learn well, and so remember everything that happened. They might even report that they saw the whole crash “in slow motion!” They are very unlikely to want to drive anytime soon after the crash, and may even stop driving altogether.

Now, how does this lead to shyness or a love of parties. Well, imagine the extrovert and the introvert getting drunk, taking off their clothes, and dancing buck naked on a restaurant table. The next morning, the extrovert will ask you what happened and where are his clothes. When you tell him, he’ll laugh and start making arrangements to have another party. The introvert, on the other hand, will remember every mortifying moment of his humiliation, and may never come out of his room again. I’m very introverted, and again I can vouch to a lot of this experientially Perhaps some of you extroverts can tell me if he describes your experiences well, too assuming, of course, that you can remember you experiences.

One of the things that Eysenck discovered was that violent criminals tend to be non-neuroticistic extroverts. This makes common sense, if you think about it: It is hard to imagine somebody who is painfully shy and who remembers their experiences and learns from them holding up a Seven-Eleven. It is even harder to imagine someone given to panic attacks doing so. But please understand that there are many kinds of crime besides the violent kind that introverts and neurotics might engage in.
Neuroticism and extroversion-introversion

Another thing Eysenck looked into was the interaction of the two dimensions and what that might mean in regard to various psychological problems. He found, for example, that people with phobias and obsessive-compulsive disorder tended to be quite introverted, whereas people with conversion disorders (e.g. hysterical paralysis) or dissociative disorders (e.g. amnesia) tended to be more extroverted.

Here’s his explanation: Highly neuroticistic people over-respond to fearful stimuli; If they are introverts, they will learn to avoid the situations that cause panic very quickly and very thoroughly, even to the point of becoming panicky at small symbols of those situations they will develop phobias. Other introverts will learn (quickly and thoroughly) particular behaviors that hold off their panic such as checking things many times over or washing their hands again and again.

Highly neuroticistic extroverts, on the other hand, are good at ignoring and forgetting the things that overwhelm them. They engage in the classic defense mechanisms, such as denial and repression. They can conveniently forget a painful weekend, for example, or even “forget” their ability to feel and use their legs.

Psychoticism

Eysenck came to recognize that, although he was using large populations for his research, there were some populations he was not tapping. He began to take his studies into the mental institutions of England. When
these masses of data were factor analyzed, a third significant factor began to emerge, which he labeled psychoticism.

Like neuroticism, high psychoticism does not mean you are psychotic or doomed to become so only that you exhibit some qualities commonly found among psychotics and that you may be more susceptible, given certain environments, to becoming psychotic.

As you might imagine, the kinds of qualities found in high psychoticistic people include certain recklessness, a disregard for common sense or conventions, and a degree of inappropriate emotional expression. It is the dimension that separates those people who end up institutions from the rest of humanity.

Hans Eysenck was an iconoclast someone who enjoyed attacking established opinion. He was an early and vigorous critic of the effectiveness of psychotherapy, especially the Freudian variety. He also criticized the scientific nature of much of the academic varieties of psychology. As a hard-core behaviorist, he felt that only the scientific method (as he understood it) could give us an accurate understanding of human beings. As a statistician, he felt that mathematical methods were essential. As a physiologically-oriented psychologist, he felt that physiological explanations were the only valid ones.

Phenomenology and other qualitative methods are also considered scientific by many. Some things are not so easily reduced to numbers, and factor analysis in particular is a technique not all statisticians approve of. And it is certainly debatable that all things must have a physiological explanation
even B. F. Skinner, the arch-behaviorist, thought more in terms of conditioning a psychological process than in terms of physiology.

And yet, his descriptions of various types of people, and of how they can be understood physically, ring particularly true. And most parents, teachers, and child psychologists will more than support the idea that kids have built-in differences in their personalities that begin at birth (and even before), and which no amount of re-education will touch. Although I personally am not a behaviorist, dislike statistics, and am more culturally oriented that biologically, I agree with the basics of Eysenck’s theory. You, of course, have to make up your own mind.

In 1936, psychologist Gordon Allport found that one English-language dictionary alone contained more than 4,000 words describing different personality traits.\(^1\) He categorized these traits into three levels:

- **Cardinal Traits**: Traits that dominate an individual’s whole life, often to the point that the person becomes known specifically for these traits. People with such personalities often become so known for these traits that their names are often synonymous with these qualities. Consider the origin and meaning of the following descriptive terms: Freudian, Machiavellian, narcissism, Don Juan, Christ-like, etc. Allport suggested that cardinal traits are rare and tend to develop later in life.\(^2\)

- **Central Traits**: These are the general characteristics that form the basic foundations of personality. These central traits, while not as dominating as cardinal traits, are the major characteristics you might
use to describe another person. Terms such as intelligent, honest, shy and anxious are considered central traits.

- **Secondary Traits**: These are the traits that are sometimes related to attitudes or preferences and often appear only in certain situations or under specific circumstances. Some examples would be getting anxious when speaking to a group or impatient while waiting in line.

Raymond Cattell’s Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire Trait theorist Raymond Cattell reduced the number of main personality traits from Allport’s initial list of over 4,000 down to 171, mostly by eliminating uncommon traits and combining common characteristics. Next, Cattell rated a large sample of individuals for these 171 different traits. Then, using a statistical technique known as factor analysis, he identified closely related terms and eventually reduced his list to just 16 key personality traits. According to Cattell, these 16 traits are the source of all human personality. He also developed one of the most widely used personality assessments known as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF).

The Five-Factor Theory of Personality, Both Cattell’s and Eysenck’s theory have been the subject of considerable research, which has led some theorists to believe that Cattell focused on too many traits, while Eysenck focused on too few. As a result, a new trait theory often referred to as the "Big Five" theory emerged. This five-factor model of personality represents five core traits that interact to form human personality. While researchers often disagree about the exact labels for each dimension, the following are
described most commonly: Extroversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness.

1.6 FRUSTRATION

Frustration a common emotional response to opposition. Related to anger and disappointment, it arises from the perceived resistance to the fulfillment of individual will. The greater the obstruction, and the greater the will, the more the frustration is likely to be. Causes of frustration may be internal or external. In people, internal frustration may arise from challenges in fulfilling personal goals and desires, instinctual drives and needs, or dealing with perceived deficiencies, such as a lack of confidence or fear of social situations. Conflict can also be an internal source of frustration; when one has competing goals that interfere with one another, it can create cognitive dissonance. External causes of frustration involve conditions outside an individual, such as a blocked road or a difficult task. While coping with frustration, some individuals may engage in passive-aggressive behavior, making it difficult to identify the original cause of their frustration, as the responses are indirect. A more direct, and common response, is a propensity towards aggression.

The word frustration is one of the many psychological concepts originating in everyday speech that is all too susceptible to radically different meanings. Even psychologists have used the term in many different ways, sometimes referring to an external instigating condition and sometimes to the organism's reaction to this event. Amsel's (1958) discussion of frustrate no reward used this latter usage, whereas Dollard and his colleagues were careful
to speak of frustrations only in the former sense, as external occurrences. For them, a frustration was "an interference with the occurrence of an instigated goal-response at its proper time in the behavior sequence" (Dollard et al., 1939). It is important to spell out just what is involved in this definition, because a truly adequate test of the Yale group's thesis obviously requires establishing what they regarded as a frustration.

A frustration is an external circumstance or an act of another person which prevents the satisfaction of an aroused motive. An adolescent may want to drive the family automobile to a dance, but be frustrated because the automobile is out of order or because his father forbids him to use it. Frustrations usually lead to increased effort, to anger and aggressive impulses or to immature and ineffective behavior, but they do not often result in serious psychological difficulties. Some frustrations are even socially constructive, for they may cause the person to discover new solutions to problem.

To the individual experiencing frustration, the emotion is usually attributed to external factors which are beyond their control. Although mild frustration due to internal factors (e.g. laziness, lack of effort) is often a positive force (inspiring motivation), it is more often than not a perceived uncontrolled problem that instigates more severe, and perhaps pathological, frustration. An individual suffering from pathological frustration will often feel powerless to change the situation they are in, leading to frustration and, if left uncontrolled, further anger.

Frustration can be a result of blocking motivated behavior. An individual may react in several different ways. He may respond with rational
problem-solving methods to overcome the barrier. Failing in this, he may become frustrated and behave irrationally. An example of blockage of motivational energy would be the case of the worker who wants time off to go fishing but is denied permission by his supervisor. Another example would be the executive who wants a promotion but finds he lacks certain qualifications.

If, in these cases, an appeal to reason does not succeed in reducing the barrier or in developing some reasonable alternative approach, the frustrated individual may resort to less adaptive methods of trying to reach his goal. He may, for example, attack the barrier physically or verbally or both.

Frustration can be considered a problem-response behavior, and can have a number of effects, depending on the mental health of the individual. In positive cases, this frustration will build until a level that is too great for the individual to contend with, and thus produce action directed at solving the inherent problem. In negative cases, however, the individual may perceive the source of frustration to be outside of their control, and thus the frustration will continue to build, leading eventually to further problematic behavior.

Stubborn refusal to respond to new conditions affecting the goal, such as removal or modification of the barrier, sometimes occurs. As pointed out by Brown, severe punishment may cause individuals to continue no adaptive behavior blindly: “Either it may have an effect opposite to that of reward and as such, discourage the repetition of the act, or, by functioning as a frustrating agent, it may lead to fixation and the other symptoms of frustration as well. It follows that punishment is a dangerous tool, since it often has effects which are entirely the opposite of those desired.
When people perceive that they are being prevented from achieving a goal, their frustration is likely to turn to aggression. The closer you get to a goal, the greater the excitement and expectation of the pleasure. Thus the closer you are, the more frustrated you get by being held back. Unexpected occurrence of the frustration also increases the likelihood of aggression.

Frustration is the feeling when we do not get what we want, when something interferes with our gaining a desired and expected goal. Roseinzweig (1944) defines frustration as “frustration occurs whenever the organism meets a more or less insurmountable obstacle or obstruction in its route to the satisfaction of a vital need”. He says that when an individual faces a frustrating situation, his reactions may be favorable or unfavorable and unacceptable. The degree between favorable and unfavorable behavior depends very much on the frustration tolerance of a person. Roseinzweig defined the reactions to frustrations in terms of three directions intropunitive, intropunitive and impunities and the type of reactions as obstacle dominance ego defensive and need persistence. Mostly the physically disabled children are blocked by the frustration and due to the frustration these children attack on others or him/her. The adjustment of these children with the normal group is quite low. The present study focuses on the concept of frustration reactions in physically challenged institutionalized children and also to understand the level and direction of frustration.

Frustration is natural reaction to blockage of needs at any stage of life but the process of normal socialization teaches us to channelize and sublimate the frustration and delay need gratification. Children with special needs are at
a loss because besides the society their own physiology is the blocking factor. In a previous research by Fitchen et al (1991) it was concluded that physically disabled individuals in everyday social encounters, thoughts and feelings were more negative. This suggests that these children will encounter much more negative situations and responses in life. The present research indicates that those children are facing frustration in their environment and they are turning the blame towards their environment and during their own role in it, putting the blame on certain unavoidable circumstances. Their disability is compounded by their institutionalization and the low socio-economic conditions, 9 which form their familial backgrounds. Upadhya and Tiwari (1985) suggested that low socio-economic status is a major contributor to frustration. According to them frustration was negatively related to social recognition, housing, education and recreational facilities and home environment. The children in the institution are living in a segregated world. Their interactions are limited to their peer group, other inmates, the staff and the visitors. Once they move into a normal group they take time in adjusting. Even the normal children sometimes reject such children. Though they accept their disability yet they have a poor self-concept. Sharma, Vaid and Jamwal (2004) too reached similar conclusion that physically disabled children have very poor self-concept. Joiner, Lovett, Linda and Win (1989) indicated that there is a positive relationship between assertive behavior and the degree of acceptance of disability among person’s disabilities. The children in the present study are not assertive. They would rather stay out of the group and observe other’s play, silently. Such factors enhance their own frustrations but
they cannot actively put blame on anybody, though, their frustration at their own disability has been revealed.

The 'frustration-aggression' theory, originally conceived by Dollard et al (1939) but later substantially refined by Berkowitz (1978) and others, states that frustration, caused by 'interference in goal-directed activity', does not automatically result in aggression but produces a 'readiness' for aggression which if 'triggered' can result in aggressive responses. The 'trigger' may be an insignificant element of behavior – such as a casual joke, gesture or mild criticism which would normally be overlooked, but to the frustrated individual may be enough to provoke an aggressive response. The alcohol-induced cognitive impairments identified above – narrowing of the perceptual field and reduced powers of reasoning may increase the likelihood of a frustrated person focusing on this one small aspect of the situation, exaggerating its importance, and responding in an irrational, aggressive manner. Again, however, we must stress that this does not occur automatically or by any means universally, and that other mediating situational and cultural variables, outlined below, are necessary to produce this response.

1.7 TYPE OF CIGARETTE SMOKERS

1. Chain smoker-

Chain smoker is non-stop smoker who lights his next cigarette with what the cigarette he is presently smoking (quantity estimated is more than 3 packs per day.)
2. **Heavy Smoker**-

   Heavy smoker someone who can consume about 2-3 packs per day.

3. **Moderate Smoker**

   Moderate Smoker smokes between 1-2 packs per day.

4. **Light Smoker**

   A light smoker smokes 1/2 to 1 pack per day.

5. **Casual Smoker**

   Casual smoker smokes only to socialize with friends.

**Types of Smokers among College Students**

Nearly one-quarter of college students report smoking cigarettes at least occasionally according to a recent study of University of Delaware students. The study, which surveyed undergraduate students, asked participants how many days in the past month they had smoked a cigarette. Approximately 78% of students reported that they had not smoked at all during the past month, and 22% reported at least one day of smoking during the same time.

1. **Puffer Type** :-

   These smokers per day smoke 1 to 2 cigarettes and 36% students’ smoker in college and context is rarely smokes, possibly while drinking.

2. **Social Smoker Type** :-

   These smokers per day smoke 3 to 9 cigarettes and 25% students smoker in college and context is Smokes on the weekends and socially
3. **Moderate smoker type:-**
   This smoker per day consuming 10 to 19 cigarettes smoke and 14% student’s smoker in college and context is Weekends and weekdays, but not daily.

4. **Heavy Smoker :-**
   This smoker per day smoke 20 to 30 cigarettes and 25% student’s smoker in college and context is Smokes daily or almost daily.

**Recognizing Anti-Smoking Types**

'Dissecting Antismoker Brains' Michael J McFadden deals with the different type of antismoker' and their various personality traits and behaviors.

1. **The Innocents**

   This group, ordinarily lifelong non smokers, would in general normally accept smoking and smokers as part and parcel of the world around them. However because of media coverage and exposure to anti smoking propaganda they have come to believe a health risk is posed by those smoking around them. This may cause them to alter some behavior, for instance a preference for non smoking restaurants, but it will usually not be an overriding factor in their decisions. The quality of the food will outweigh concerns as to whether smokers will be present. In love they would prefer a non smoking partner but will look beyond such matters taking account of the bigger picture. They are unlikely to preach to a partner who smokes preferring more reasoned persuasion to help them kick 'the nasty habit'. The ranks of
Innocents have grown enormously in the last decade due to media spending by antismoking groups.

2. The Neurotics

Neurotics have significantly greater difficulty than average in dealing contentedly and productively with one or more commonly encountered aspects of life. This difficulty can develop into completely irrational fears, phobias and obsessive compulsive behavior. This group of people is particularly suspect to the hysterical anti smoking crusade and associated over the top propaganda. Not too long ago a person who refused to enter a bar or restaurant for fear of breathing second hand smoke would probably have been considered a prime candidate for some counseling to alleviate their neurosis. However in today's climate that same person, no matter how irrational or unfounded the fear, will find support and be commended for their action. This further fuels the fire inside the neurotic. People from this group of anti smokers are likely to be the ones who verbally abuse smokers who are total strangers to them for using 'cancer sticks'.

3. The Truly Affected

Segments of the population can have allergic reactions to different stimuli such as dogs, pollen, nuts etc. Tobacco smoke can be a trigger for a small segment of the population. For some it is a genuine physical reaction while for others it largely or entirely stems from a psychosomatic foundation. It has to be remembered for people experiencing such reactions they have no way of knowing their true cause and the sensation is real and frightening even if completely psychosomatically based. Incidents of non smokers having a
real adverse physical reaction to low levels of tobacco smoke are extremely rare. However as more smoking restrictions and bans are put in place anti-smoking lobbies are claiming more such incidences are occurring in their efforts to extend or implement bans. Those feeling "truly affected" by tobacco smoke were very rare 40 years ago, but have become much more common today.

4. **The Bereaved**

If we hear a person dies from lung cancer or heart disease the question on people's minds is was he a smoker, If so, ordinary non smokers are content they didn't share this habit with the deceased and are reassured, mistakenly in some cases, that the grim reaper is unlikely to have their name in the pending tray. For the family of the bereaved their anguish is deeper and the need to know why stronger. They are likely to see it in terms of their deceased having being 'killed by smoking' even if medically this is not really known! The understandable anger and emotion over the loss of a loved one may lead them to desire revenge against the tobacco industry. Unable to get at the tobacco companies the bereaved may move into the circles of the anti-smokers, accepting their propaganda and advocating support for smoking bans and taxes as a means for them to get back at the faceless tobacco corporations.

5. **Ex-Smokers and Victims**

It's not unusual to hear it said that tobacco is "more addictive than heroin." However millions world-wide every year manage to quit without going into convulsions, writhing in agony on the floor, hospitalization, or forced incarceration. Millions of other smokers manage their habit, smoke
very little or consciously choose light brands. Though the addictiveness of smoking is over exaggerated the fact remains many smokers have great difficulty in quitting the habit. For many smokers the process of quitting involves demonizing tobacco and all experiences of it in their mind. This visualization of tobacco as evil strengthens their effort to quit, but after they have done so the devil remains inside urging them back to tobacco. These ex smokers can then expend considerable energies on a mission to eliminate the sight and smell of smoke from the entire world around them and make life hell for smokers in their path. Another group of ex smokers quit as a result of adverse health which they attribute to smoking. Some are genuine in their motivation and desire to prevent others from a similar fate. Then there are those that simply resent that others continue to smoke with no adverse consequence and then become embittered and fully signed up members of the anti smoking brigade.

6. The Controllers

Often due to background insecurities controlling personalities feel a need to exert an abnormal amount of control over the people and world around them. Controllers may be convinced from the media that passive smoking is a health threat or simply see it as a golden opportunity for extra control. In either case they can make life a misery for smokers around them. In relationships and marriages controllers will confiscate cigarettes, force smell inspections on partners, issue punishments for transgressions of both a psychological and physical nature. Their whole aim is control, domination and forcing their will on subjects. Their efforts will not be seen as a vice, but as
virtue when they advance the cause of good health and clean air even though their real motivation is simply the satisfaction gained from seeing others comply to their will. The ultimate goal is the creation of laws and punishments embodying and supporting the controllers' desires.

7. The Idealists

A section of this group are sincere, believing smoking causes disease and suffering and making them feel a need to act. These idealists usually seek constructive and helpful ways to aid those smokers wishing to quit and through education and information persuade people not to start. They do not engage as much in the vilification, demonization and harassment other groups so readily adopt as tactics. But Idealists with strong feelings, even though they are aware the case against secondary smoke is far from compelling, will still use poorly based studies and surveys to further their cause. Idealists are usually people with professional backgrounds or medical doctors. Arrogant and confident their instincts on smoking are right and correct they feel empowered to twist research to suit their needs. Their real power lies in access to politicians and ability to pass spurious junk science as fact.

8. The Moralists

Moralists have always played a role in antismoking crusades. They seek to portray smoking and smokers as a corruptive influence on society. They will claim smoking is a gateway drug and leads to crime. They also fret over the children of smokers and are exponents of making it a crime for pregnant women to smoke; they'll even push for the removal of foster children from the homes of smokers. In the main moralists are puritanical, prissy and of an
unhappy disposition. They see others enjoying themselves and desire to stop whatever they are engaged in as to them it has to be wrong if it involves merriment.

9. The Greedy

Anti-Smoking has become big business worth hundreds of millions a year spent on it in America alone. Many see it as a huge future growth area as "health fascism" goes on a worldwide march. This in turn has attracted the greedy from lawyers, doctors, pharmaceutical companies, advertisement agencies, newspapers, researchers etc all more than willing to jump on the antismoking bandwagon in an effort to get in on the action. Hundreds of millions of dollars have been poured into anti smoking organizations providing them with the clout to make big business take notice. Money is not the only driving force though: the anti smoking lobby is now a great way to further careers and open doors both in academia and politics. The greedy care less about the smoking issue or health, and were it to look as if smoking would be banished completely in the morning they would in a flash be onto some other anti campaign whether it be fighting meat, cars, or alcohol.

1.8 Personality Factor

1.8.1 Neuroticism

This individual is anxious, generally apprehensive, and prone to worry. He sometimes feels frustrated, irritable, and angry at others and he is prone to feeling sad, lonely, and dejected. Embarrassment or shyness when dealing with people, especially strangers, is not a problem for him. He reports
being poor at controlling his impulses and desires, but he is able to handle stress as well as most people.

On the opposite end of the spectrum, individuals who score low in neuroticism are more emotionally stable and less reactive to stress. They tend to be calm, even tempered, and less likely to feel tense or rattled. Although they are low in negative emotion, they are not necessarily high on positive emotion. That is an element of the independent trait of extraversion. Neurotic extraverts, for example, would experience high levels of both positive and negative emotional states, a kind of "emotional roller coaster". Individuals who score low on neuroticism (particularly those who are also high on extraversion) generally report more happiness and satisfaction with their lives.

Like other psychological traits, neuroticism is typically viewed as continuous rather than being indicative of one of two distinct types of person. People vary in their level of neuroticism, with a small minority of individuals scoring extremely high or extremely low on the dimension. Because most people cluster around the average, neuroticism test scores approximate a normal distribution, given a large enough sample of people.

Neuroticism is sometimes called negative affectivity (emotionality) or NA, because of the neurotic person’s tendency to feel anger, scorn, revulsion, guilty anxiety sadness and other negative moods (Watson & Clark 1984). People with high NA frequency feel worried and tense, even in the absence of real problems. They complain more about their health and report more physical symptoms than people with low NA do, yet they are not actually in poorer health (Brettet et al; 1900; Watson & Penneabker, 1989).
Neuroticism appears to be related to physiological differences in the brain. Hans Eysenck theorized that neuroticism is a function of activity in the limbic system, and his research suggests that people who score highly on measures of neuroticism have a more reactive sympathetic nervous system, and are more sensitive to environmental stimulation. Behavioral genetics researchers have found that a significant portion of the variability on measures of neuroticism can be attributed to genetic factors.

Well, the panic attack follows the same pattern: you are mildly frightened by something crossing a bridge, for example. This gets your sympathetic nervous system going. That makes you more nervous, and so more susceptible to stimulation, which gets your system even more in an uproar, which makes you more nervous and more susceptible You could say that the neuroticistic person is responding more to his or her own panic than to the original object of fear. As someone who has had panic attacks, I can vouch for Eysenck’s description—although his explanation remains only a hypothesis.

1.8.2 Extroversion

This person is very warm and affectionate toward others and he sometimes enjoys large and noisy crowds or parties. He is as assertive as most men when the circumstances require. The individual has a low level of energy and prefers a slow and steady pace. Excitement, stimulation, and thrills have little appeal to him and he is less prone to experience feelings of joy and happiness than most men.
The trait of extroversion-introversion is a central dimension of human personality. Extraverts also spelled extroverts tend to be gregarious, assertive, and interested in seeking out excitement. Introverts, in contrast, tend to be more reserved, less outgoing, and less sociable. They are not necessarily loners but they tend to have smaller circles of friends and are less likely to thrive on making new social contacts. Introverts are less likely to seek stimulation from others because their own thoughts and imagination are stimulating enough. A common misconception is that all introverts suffer from social anxiety or shyness. Introversion does not describe social discomfort but rather social preference. An introvert may not be shy at all but may merely prefer non social or less social activities.

Researchers have identified the second personality dimension as Extroversion, with extreme extroverts at one end extreme introverts at the other. Extroverts are very sociable people who also tend to be energetic, optimistic, friendly and assertive. Introverts do not typically express these characteristics, but it would be incorrect to say that they are asocial and without energy. As one term of researchers explained, Introverts are reserved rather than unfriendly, independent rather than followers, even paced rather than sluggish (Costa & McCrae, 1992). As you might imagine, studies find that extraverts have more friends and spend more time in social situations than introverts (Asendorf & Wilpers, 1998).

Eysenck hypothesized that extroversion introversion is a matter of the balance of inhibition and excitation in the brain itself. These are ideas that Pavlov came up with to explain some of the differences he found in the
reactions of his various doges to stress. Excitation is the brain waking itself up, getting into an alert, and learning state. Inhibition is the brain calming itself down, either in the usual sense of relaxing and going to sleep, or in the sense of protecting itself in the case of overwhelming stimulation.

The terms introversion and extroversion were first popularized by Carl Jung. Virtually all comprehensive models of personality include these concepts. Examples include Jung's analytical psychology, Eysenck's three-factor model, Cattell's 16 personality factors, the Big Five personality traits, the four temperaments, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the Myers Briggs Type Indicator, and Socionics.

Extroversion and introversion are typically viewed as a single continuum. Thus, to be high on one is necessarily to be low on the other. Carl Jung and the authors of the Myers-Briggs provide a different perspective and suggest that everyone has both an extroverted side and an introverted side, with one being more dominant than the other. In any case, people fluctuate in their behavior all the time, and even extreme introverts and extroverts do not always act according to their type.

Extroversion is "the act, state, or habit of being predominantly concerned with and obtaining gratification from what is outside the self". Extroverts tend to enjoy human interactions and to be enthusiastic, talkative, assertive, and gregarious. They take pleasure in activities that involve large social gatherings, such as parties, community activities, public demonstrations, and business or political groups. Politics, teaching, sales, managing, brokering, and acting are fields that favor extroversion. An
extroverted person is likely to enjoy time spent with people and find less reward in time spent alone. They tend to be energized when around other people, and they are more prone to boredom when they are by themselves.

According to Carl Jung, introversion and extroversion refer to the direction of psychic energy. If a person’s psychic energy usually flows outwards then he or she is an extravert, while if the energy usually flows inwards, the person is an introvert. Extroverts feel an increase of perceived energy when interacting with a large group of people, but a decrease of energy when left alone. Conversely, introverts feel an increase of energy when alone, but a decrease of energy when surrounded by a large group of people.

Most modern psychologists consider theories of psychic energy to be obsolete. First, it is difficult to operationalize mental "energy" in ways that can be scientifically measured and tested. Second, more detailed explanations of extroversion and the brain have replaced Jung's rather speculative theories. Nevertheless, the concept is still in popular usage in the general sense of "feeling energized" in particular situations. Jung’s primary legacy in this area may be the popularizing of the terms introvert and extrovert to refer to a particular dimension of personality.

Hans Eysenck described extroversion-introversion as the degree to which a person is outgoing and interactive with other people. These behavioral differences are presumed to be the result of underlying differences in brain physiology. Extroverts seek excitement and social activity in an effort to heighten their arousal level, whereas introverts tend to avoid social situations in an effort to keep such arousal to a minimum. Eysenck designated
extroversion as one of three major traits in his P-E-N model of personality, which also includes psychoticism and neuroticism.

Eysenck originally suggested that extroversion was a combination of two major tendencies, impulsiveness and sociability. He later added several other more specific traits, namely liveliness, activity level, and excitability. These traits are further linked in his personality hierarchy to even more specific habitual responses, such as partying on the weekend.

Eysenck compared this trait to the four temperaments of ancient medicine, with choleric and sanguine temperaments equating to extroversion, and melancholic and phlegmatic temperaments equating to introversion.

The relative importance of nature versus environment in determining the level of extroversion is controversial and the focus of many studies. Twin studies find a genetic component of 39% to 58%. In terms of the environmental component, the shared family environment appears to be far less important than individual environmental factors that are not shared between siblings.

Eysenck proposed that extroversion was caused by variability in cortical arousal. He hypothesized that introverts are characterized by higher levels of activity than extroverts and so are chronically more cortically aroused than extroverts. The fact that extraverts require more external stimulation than introverts has been interpreted as evidence for this hypothesis. Other evidence of the "stimulation" hypothesis is that introverts salivate more than extroverts in response to a drop of lemon juice.
Extroversion has been linked to higher sensitivity of the mesolimbic dopamine system to potentially rewarding stimuli. This in part explains the high levels of positive affect found in extroverts, since they will more intensely feel the excitement of a potential reward. One consequence of this is that extroverts can more easily learn the contingencies for positive reinforcement, since the reward itself is experienced as greater.

One study found that introverts have more blood flow in the frontal lobes of their brain and the anterior or frontal thalamus, which areas are dealing with internal processing, such as planning and problem solving. Extroverts have more blood flow in the anterior cingulated gyros, temporal lobes, and posterior thalamus, which are involved in sensory and emotional experience. This study and other research indicate that introversion-extroversion is related to individual differences in brain function.

Extroverts and introverts have a variety of behavioral differences. According to one study, extroverts tend to wear more decorative clothing, whereas introverts prefer practical, comfortable clothes. Extroverts are likely to prefer more upbeat, conventional, and energetic music than introverts. Personality also influences how people arrange their work areas. In general, extroverts decorate their offices more, keep their doors open, keep extra chairs nearby, and are more likely to put dishes of candy on their desks. These are attempts to invite co-workers and encourage interaction. Introverts, in contrast, decorate less and tend to arrange their workspace to discourage social interaction.
Although extroverts and introverts have real personality and behavior differences, it is important to avoid pigeonholing or stereotyping by personality. Humans are complex and unique, and because extroversion varies along a continuum, they may have a mixture of both orientations. A person who acts introverted in one scenario may act extraverted in another, and people can learn to act “against type” in certain situations. Jung's theory states that when someone's primary function is extroverted, his secondary function is always introverted (and vice versa).

1.8.3 Openness

In experiential style, this individual is generally open. He has an average imagination and only occasionally daydreams or fantasizes. He is particularly responsive to beauty as found in music, art, poetry, or nature, and his feelings and emotional reactions are varied and important to him. He seldom enjoys new and different activities and has a low need for variety in his life. He has only a moderate level of intellectual curiosity and he is generally middle-of-the-road in his social, political, and moral beliefs.

Openness to experience which in some personality measures is called intellect or imagination, describes the extent to which people are original, imaginative, questioning, artistic and capable of divergent (creative) thinking or are conforming, unimaginative and predictable(Goldberg 1993).

Openness tends to be normally distributed with a small number of individuals scoring extremely high or low on the trait, and most people scoring near the average. People who score low on openness are considered
to be closed to experience. They tend to be conventional and traditional in their outlook and behavior. They prefer familiar routines to new experiences, and generally have a narrower range of interests. They could be considered practical and down to earth.

The openness dimension refers to openness to experience rather than openness in an interpersonal sense. The characteristics that make up this dimension include an active imagination, a willingness to consider new ideas, divergent thinking, and intellectual curiosity high in Openness are unconventional and independent thinkers. Those low in openness tend to be more conventional and prefer the familiar rather than something new. Given this description, it is not surprising that innovative scientists and creative artists tend to be high in Openness (Feist, 1998). Some researchers refer to this dimension as Intellect, although it is certainly not the same as intelligence.

Psychologists in the early 1970s used the concept of openness to experience to describe people who are more likely to use marijuana. Openness was defined in these studies as high creativity, adventuresomeness, internal sensation novelty seeking, and low authoritarianism. Several correlation studies confirmed that young people who score high on this cluster of traits are more likely to use marijuana. More recent research has replicated this finding using contemporary measures of openness.

1.8.4 Agreeableness

This person easily trusts others and usually assumes the best about anyone he meets. He is very candid and sincere and would find it difficult to
deceive or manipulate others, but he tends to put his own needs and interests before others'. This individual holds his own in conflicts with others, but he is also willing to forgive and forget. He is quite proud of himself and his accomplishments, and happy to take credit for them. Compared to other people, he is hardheaded and tough-minded, and his social and political attitudes reflect his pragmatic realism.

People who are high on the Agreeableness dimension are helpful, trusting and sympathetic. Those on the other end tend to be antagonistic and skeptical. Agreeable people prefer cooperation to competition. Those low in Agreeableness like to fight for their interests and belief. Researchers find that people high in Agreeableness have more pleasant social interactions and fewer quarrelsome exchanges than those low on this dimension (Berry & Hansen, 2000; Cote & Moskowitz, 1998; Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001).

1.8.5 Conscientiousness

This individual is reasonably efficient and generally sensible and rational in making decisions. He is moderately neat, punctual, and well organized, and he is reasonably dependable and reliable in meeting his obligations. He has a moderately high need for achievement, but he can also set work aside for recreation. He is average in self-discipline and generally finishes the tasks he starts. He is reasonably cautious, and generally thinks things through before acting.

It describes the extent to which individuals are responsible or undependable; are persevering or quit easily; are steadfast or fickle; are tidy or
careless; are scrupulous or unscrupulous. The conscientiousness dimension refers to how controlled and self-disciplined we are. People on the high end of this dimension are organized, plan oriented and determined. Those on the low end are apt to be careless, easily distracted from tasks, and undependable. Little wonder that those low in Conscientiousness tend to have more automobile accident (Arthur & Graziano, 1996). Because the characteristics that define Conscientiousness often show up in achievement or work situations, some researchers have referred to this dimension as will to achieve or simply work.

1.9 Frustration factor

1.9.1 Regression

Regression has been defined here as a change which is opposite to development. Development includes some or all of the following changes: increase in variety of behavior, increase in degree of hierarchical organizations, extension of area of activities and interests including time perspective, and increased weight of organizational dependence relative to simple dependence. Regression, therefore, can be related to some or all of these changes in the opposite direction.

To understand how temporary regression is brought about by situational factors, it is necessary to refer to certain constructs, for example, to those concerning degree of differentiation, organization, and unity of a whole which have been discussed. Originally, our experiment was designed to test the prediction that tension in strong frustration leads to a dedifferentiation of the
person and therefore to regression. The regression has been found. However, the experiments have shown that, aside from dedifferentiation, other factors may enter. In other words, there are several possibilities of explaining the observed regression in a situation such as the one studied here. We will leave it open which single factor or which specific constellation of factors has caused the results. Probably different factors were important for different subjects. One of the best symptoms for the increasing differentiation of the life space (including the person and the psychological environment) during development is the increasing variety of behavior. In the frustration situation the richness of the play activity definitely decreases. Stereotypy is increased particularly in the case of barrier behavior.

If the regression is caused by dedifferentiation of the individual, the dedifferentiation is probably brought about by the emotional tension (Dembo 12). We will see that the degree of differentiation of a whole is inversely related to the strength of pressure of tension when the tension passes certain limits which are determined by the strength of the boundaries of the natural parts of the whole. Constructiveness in play also decreases with the strength (potency) of frustration.

A decrease in the variety of behavior must also be expected if a part of the whole is kept in a fixed state. This follows from certain properties of a dynamic whole. The amount of decrease depends upon the extent of the fixed areas, their degree of centrality, and their divergence from the normal level. Frustration involving a particular goal keeps a certain area of the person in a state of more or less permanent tension. The variety of pattern should
therefore decrease in the case of other activities. This decrease should be greater with the involvement of a larger number of parts of the person with a higher degree of centrality, and with a heightened tension. The experimental results are well in line with these theoretical considerations. It has been shown that emotionality increases with increasing potency of frustration. This would indicate that a decreasing variety of behavior may be due to dedifferentiation of the person as the result of emotional tension, or to the "freezing" of certain parts of the person as a result of preoccupation.

One of the outstanding characteristics of emotionality is the increase in the weight of simple dependence (spreading of tension) relative to organizational processes which are in line with requirements of reality (are adaptive in nature). Indeed, both the emotionality and the amount of regression change with the potency of frustration. In a somewhat different way the disorganization can be derived from the overlapping situation between play and barrier behavior. To be governed by two strong goals is equivalent to the existence of two conflicting heads within the organism. This should lead to a decrease in organizational unity according to our theoretical considerations.

Finally, certain disorganization should result from the fact that the motor system loses to some degree its character of a good medium because of these conflicting heads. It ceases to be in a state of near equilibrium. The demands on the motor system made by one head have to counteract the influence of the demands of the other head. This is an additional factor which hampers organizational. The extension of the life space, particularly in the
psychological time dimension, is one of the essential properties of development.

We have seen that planning presupposes time perspective. On the average, constructiveness is higher in the long than in the short play units. Therefore a decrease in the extension of time perspective might properly be regarded as a regression. In the frustration experiment, the experimenter interrupted the elaborate play with the beautiful toys and ordered the child to move to the other side of the partition. In the previous free play situation and in pre-frustration, the child had not been interrupted. The interference at the end of the pre-frustration situation may have shattered the belief of the child in the security and stability of his situation. If the possibility of a superior power, such as that of the experimenter, interfering at any moment continued, it might not seem worthwhile to start a long-range plan. This should lead to a weakening of the connection between the reality and reality levels and to a narrowing of the life space with respect to the extension of the level of reality (level of expectation) into the psychological future. It is possible to attribute regression in the frustration situation of least partly to the lack of security.

Closely related to this aspect of the situation is the change in "freedom of expression." The child's relation with the experimenter, as well as his other symptoms indicates that the child in the frustration situation feels more restricted. This is tantamount to saying that the child feels he is not permitted to reconstruct his reality level according to the wish level or to his more intimate needs. We have seen that this should lead to a lowering of the constructiveness level. The decrease in time perspective during play can be
related in part directly to the greater emotionality in frustration. It is known that a strong emotion tends to narrow the extension of the psychological situation.

### 1.9.2 Fixation

Fixation in psychoanalytic literature means either an unreasonable or pathological attachment to some other person or the persistence of emotional responses at the childhood level until such behavior becomes strikingly immature. To illustrate the first sense of the term an adult man who exhibits a dependent little boy relationship to his mother would be regarded as manifesting a mother fixation. As an example of the second meaning temper tantrums by a middle-aged man may represent the persistence of temper outbursts from childhood, and as such would be considered to represent fixated behavior.

In the theories of Sigmund Freud and his followers, the commonest forms of fixation are those that occur during a specific phase of personality development and cause delay or distortion of subsequent stages of development. Fixation at the oral stage of development for example, is alleged to occur as a consequence of undue parental anxiety and pressure about weaning or sometimes about thumb-sucking. So great issues is made of the child’s oral behavior that this behavior becomes a symbol sucker or a blanket chewer and develop so-called oral traits of personality. It is the Freudian theory that adult personality patterns often include little areas of such inappropriate and immature behavior, representing fixation from earlier stages of development. Of special interest is the persistence in adult of the childhood
fascination with such actions as peeping exhibiting sexual regions of the body or using obscene language to strangers. Another use of the term fixation is in psychological learning theory. Here fixation refers to the strengthening of a learned response. In reinforcement theories, it is hypothesized that those responses that lead to the satisfaction of a motive are learned, while those that lead to no useful purpose in satisfying a motive.

1.9.3 Resignation

Resignation is an emotionally tinged attitude shown by cessation of active response to a situation which we have previously been making efforts to alter. In resignated behavior we obtain extreme elimination of needs, no plans, no definite relations to the future either no hopes at all or hopes which are not taken seriously (Zawadski and Lazaresfeld, 1935). The designated behavior possesses of limitation of all needs, no plans, no definite relations to future, withdrawal from social contacts, frequent and serious consideration of committing suicide, longing for loneliness, retreaters, returning within one’s self, lacks interest in surrounding.

1.9.4 Aggression

Aggression" is a familiar term in common parlance, as well as a key concept in the study of human behavior. In conversation, we may use the word "aggressive" to define a person assaulting another, a carnivorous animal seeking prey, even a storm wreaking havoc on the earth it passes. For our purposes, the more narrow definition used in psychology is most appropriate. Aggression is behavior whose intent is to harm another. More specifically, aggression is defined as "any sequence of behavior, the goal response to
which is the injury of the person toward whom it is directed. You may notice that this definition, even on the surface, possesses a conceptual challenge.

Aggression in psychology is a disorganizing emotional response which is elicited structure behavior. Though in popular usage the term has a wide connotation in psychological and psychiatric literature it usually denotes an unreasoning hostility that may be directed against of his general situation or even toward some aspect of his general situation, or even toward himself. It also denotes the presence of underlying frustration in the person of who is aggressive.

Although humans share aspects of aggression with non-human animals, they differ from most of them in the complexity of their aggression because of factors such as culture, morals, and social situations. A wide variety of studies have been done on these situations. Culture is a distinctly human factor that plays a role in aggression.

Frustration is another major cause of aggression. The Frustration aggression theory states that aggression increases if a person feels that he or she is being blocked from achieving a goal (Aronson et al. 2005). On study found that the closeness to the goal makes a difference. The study examined people waiting in line and concluded that the 2nd person was more aggressive than the 12th one when someone cut in line (Harris 1974). Unexpected frustration may be another factor. In a separate study, a group of students were collecting donations over the phone. Some of them were told that the people they would call would be generous and the collection would be very successful. The other group was given no expectations. The group with high
expectations was much more upset and became more aggressive when no one was pledging (Kulik & Brown 1979).

There is some evidence to suggest that the presence of violent objects such as a gun can trigger aggression. In a study done by Leonard Berkowitz and Anthony Le Page (1967), college students were made angry and then left in the presence of a gun or badminton racket. They were then led to believe they were delivering electric shocks to another student, as in the Milgram experiment. Those who had been in the presence of the gun administered more shocks. It is possible that a violence-related stimulus increases the likelihood of aggressive cognitions by activating the semantic network.

1.9 Statement of the problem

“To study the effect of smoking on personality and frustration”

1.10 Significance of the study

- This study provides quantitative data on effect of different Smokers and Nonsmokers on personality factors and frustration factors.

- The study highlight the importance of the smoking (smokers & Non smokers) as a field of inquiry for our profound understanding of the nature, prediction of personality and frustration.

- The study may point out the importance of newly introduced Bio-psychological field

- The study provides bring an impetus for future experimental studies regarding the effect on prediction of behavior on the bases of smoking (smokers & nonsmokers).