INTRODUCTION

Insurgency began in Mizoram on 1966 when a demand was made by MNF (Mizo National Front) for creating a sovereign state of Greater Mizoram, which would be independent from India. The MNF wanted that Greater Mizoram should include the borderline territories of Tripura, Manipur and Cachar district of Assam. The Government of India sent in many Army battalions and Para-Military forces to Mizoram to counter the insurgency and to restore peace, most of which stayed on till after normalcy returned. Mizoram became a battleground for the MNF and the Indian Army and the sufferings of the innocent and the loyal citizens knew no bounds. Many lost their lives at the hands of both the fighting forces and many people were detained for years together in jails or in bunkers under deplorable conditions. However, after some years, negotiations for restoration of peace were initiated and ultimately a Peace Accord between the MNF and the Government of India was signed on 30th June, 1986, and Mr. Laldenga (the President of MNF), with all of those agreements the MNF were given an interim Government of the Mizoram state. The election of the first Mizoram Legislative Assembly was held on I6th February, 1987 and Mizoram became a full-fledged State from 20th February, 1987 as stated earlier (Lalnithanga, 2005).

Insurgency has become household language today, as media highlighted many countries facing insurgency within their country Insurgency has existed throughout history but ebbed and flowed in strategic significance. Today the world has entered another period when insurgency is common and strategically significant. Current British military doctrine defines insurgency as "an organized movement aimed at the overthrow of constituted government through the use of subversion and armed conflict. It is an armed political struggle, the goals of which may be diverse. Generally, an insurgent group attempts to force political change by a mixture of subversion, propaganda, political and military pressure, aiming to persuade or intimidate the broad mass of the people to support or accept such change." (Sheryington, 2005). Current events in Iraq have forced the British Army to re-

examine this definition: 'Insurgency is competition involving at least one non-state movement using means that include violence against an established authority to achieve political change' (Marston, 2005). The verbosity of the definition tells the practitioner that insurgent movements will use all methods and tactics at its disposal to achieve a political aim. Bard O Neil offers a less prescriptive synopsis: "Insurgency may be defined as a struggle between a non-ruling group and the ruling authorities in which the non-ruling group consciously uses political resources organizational expertise, propaganda and demonstration) and violence to destroy, reformulate, or sustain the basis of legitimacy of one or more aspects of politics." (O'Neill, Bard E. 2005). In short, the insurgent demonstrates that he is capable of prosecuting a broad tactical battle as part of a politically strategic campaign. Examining the evolution of this capability over the 20th Century is best focused by looking at four issues: the conditions from which revolt appeared; the insurgent leader's strategy and operational philosophy; the tactics that were employed; the outcome of the campaign and the way that it affected subsequent insurgencies (Sheryington, 2005).

An insurgency is a rebellion against a constituted authority (for example an authority recognised as such by the United Nations) when those taking part in the rebellion are not recognized as belligerents (Sheryington, 2005). Not all rebellions are insurgencies, because a state of belligerency may exist between one or more sovereign states and rebel forces. For example during the American Civil War, the Confederate States of America, was not recognized as a sovereign state, but it was recognized as a belligerent power, and thus Confederate warships were given the same rights as United States warships in foreign ports.

A variety of terms, none precisely defined, all fall under the category of insurgency: rebellion, uprisings, etc. No two insurgencies are identical. The basis of the insurgency can be political, economic, religious, or ethnic, or a combination of factors. Insurgency is a movement - a political effort with a specific aim. An insurgency, or insurrection, is an armed uprising, or revolt against an established civil or political authority (Sheryington, 2005). Persons engaging in insurgency are called insurgents, and typically engage in regular or guerrilla combat against the armed forces of the established regime, or conduct sabotage and harassment in the land in order to undermine the government's position as leader; the government established

by an invading force counts as "collaborators", not "established authority". An insurgency differs from a resistance both in its political overtones and in the nature of the conflict: an insurgency connotes an internal struggle against a standing, established government, whereas a resistance connotes a struggle against invading or occupying foreign forces and their collaborators.

Nationalism appears to be the guiding force that Clausewitz discusses for the insurgency activity that took place in the Napoleonic era. This was as true in his day as it is today. It is true that many of the Communist insurgencies particularly in Cuba and Vietnam also utilized in the concept put down by Communist theorists both publicly and in many cases privately. Nationalism was the driving force behind the rebellion towards an occupying power, such as the French, American or in the Cuban case a puppet régime of the Americans. Tribal conflicts, as seen in the Arab revolt as well as and currently within Iraq today, are examples of nationalism on a smaller scale. People who are invaded by a military power will in the future be likely to resort to a guerrilla style campaign in an attempt to wear down their opponent and make it politically impractical for them to stay on (Lammy, 2005)

In discussing about insurgencies it is necessary to explain the difference between insurgency and terrorism as it is often assumed that insurgency and terrorism are identical.

If no single definition of terrorism produces a precise, unambiguous description, we can approach the question by eliminating similar activities that are not terrorism, but that appear to overlap. For the U.S. military, two such related concepts probably lead to more confusion than others. Guerilla warfare and insurgencies are often assumed synonymous with terrorism. One reason for this is that insurgencies and terrorism often have similar goals. However, if we examine insurgency and guerilla warfare, specific differences emerge.

Terrorism is defined by Title 22 of the U.S Code (2002) as, "politically motivated violence perpetrated against non-combat targets by sub national groups or clandestine agents, usually intended to influence an audience".

A key difference is that an insurgency is a movement - a political effort with a specific aim. This sets it apart from both guerilla warfare and terrorism, as they are both methods available to pursue the goals of the political movement.

Another difference is the intent of the component activities and operations of insurgencies versus terrorism. There is nothing inherent in either insurgency or guerilla warfare that requires the use of terror. While some of the more successful insurgencies and guerilla campaigns employed terrorism and terror tactics, and some developed into conflicts where terror tactics and terrorism became predominant; there have been others that effectively renounced the use of terrorism. The deliberate choice to use terrorism considers its effectiveness in inspiring further resistance, destroying government efficiency, and mobilizing support. Although there are places where terrorism, guerilla warfare, and criminal behavior all overlap, groups that are exclusively terrorist, or subordinate "wings" of insurgencies formed to specifically employ terror tactics, demonstrate clear differences in their objectives and operations. Disagreement on the costs of using terror tactics, or whether terror operations are to be given primacy within the insurgency campaign, have frequently led to the "urban guerilla" or terrorist wings of an insurgency splintering off to pursue the revolutionary goal by their own methods.

The ultimate goal of an insurgency is to challenge the existing government for control of all or a portion of its territory, or force political concessions in sharing political power. Insurgencies require the active or tacit support of some portion of the population involved. External support, recognition or approval from other countries or political entities can be useful to insurgents, but is not required. A terror group does not require and rarely has the active support or even the sympathy of a large fraction of the population. While insurgents will frequently describe themselves as "insurgents" or "guerillas", terrorists will not refer to themselves as "terrorists" but describe them using military or political terminology ("freedom fighters", "soldiers", "activists"). Terrorism relies on public impact, and is therefore conscious of the advantage of avoiding the negative connotations of the term "terrorists" in identifying themselves (Sheryington, 2005).

Terrorism does not attempt to challenge government forces directly, but acts to change perceptions as to the effectiveness or legitimacy of the government itself. This

is done by ensuring the widest possible knowledge of the acts of terrorist violence among the target audience. Rarely will terrorists attempt to "control" terrain, as it ties them to identifiable locations and reduces their mobility and security. Terrorists as a rule avoid direct confrontations with government forces. A guerilla force may have something to gain from a clash with a government combat force, such as proving that they can effectively challenge the military effectiveness of the government. A terrorist group has nothing to gain from such a clash. This is not to say that they do not target military or security forces, but that they will not engage in anything resembling a "fair fight", or even a "fight" at all. Terrorists use methods that neutralize the strengths of conventional forces. Bombings and mortar attacks on civilian targets where military or security personnel spend off-duty time, ambushes of undefended convoys, and assassinations of poorly protected individuals are common tactics (Walter, 1998).

Insurgency need not require the targeting of non-combatants, although many insurgencies expand the accepted legal definition of combatants to include police and security personnel in addition to the military. Terrorists do not discriminate between combatants and non-combatants, or if they do, they broaden the category of "combatants" so much as to render it meaningless. Defining all members of a nation or ethnic group, plus any citizen of any nation that supports that nation as "combatants" is simply a justification for frightfulness. Deliberate de-humanization and criminalization of the enemy in the terrorists' mind justifies extreme measures against anyone identified as hostile. Terrorists often expand their groups of acceptable targets, and conduct operations against new targets without any warning or notice of hostilities (Sheryington, 2005).

Finally, the difference between insurgency and terrorism comes down to the intent of the actor. Insurgency movements and guerilla forces can adhere to international norms regarding the law of war in achieving their goals, but terrorists are by definition conducting crimes under both civil and military legal codes. Terrorists routinely claim that were they to adhere to any "law of war" or accept any constraints on the scope of their violence, it would place them at a disadvantage vis-à-vis the establishment. Since the nature of the terrorist mindset is absolutist, their goals are of paramount importance, and any limitations on a terrorist's means to prosecute the struggle are unacceptable (Hoffman, 1998).

Guerrilla warfare refers to conflicts in which a small group of combatants including, but not limited to, armed civilians (or "irregulars") use military tactics, such as ambushes, sabotage, raids, the element of surprise, and extraordinary mobility to harass a larger and less-mobile traditional army, or strike a vulnerable target, and withdraw almost immediately, it is a form of irregular warfare (Creveld, 2000).

Fundamentally Guerrilla warfare is a political war. Therefore, its area of operations exceeds the territorial limits of conventional warfare, to penetrate the political entity itself: the "political animal" that Aristotle defined (Mulgan, 1974).

In effect, the human being should be considered the priority objective in a political war. And conceived as the military target of guerrilla war, the human being has his most critical point in his mind. Once his mind has been reached, the"political animal" has been defeated, without necessarily receiving bullets.

Guerrilla warfare is born and grows in the political environment; in the constant combat to dominate that area of political mentality that is inherent to all human beings and which collectively constitutes the "environment" in which guerrilla warfare moves, and which is where precisely its victory or failure is defined.

This conception of guerrilla warfare as political war turns Psychological Operations into the decisive factor of the results. The target, then, is the minds of the population, all the population: our troops, the enemy troops and the civilian population (The official CIA manual).

As discussed above Insuregncy is not identical with terrorism, during Mizoram insurgency the type of combat used was more inclined towards the type of Gorrilla warfare. Since the strategy and tactic used by the Mizo army focus around the use of a small, mobile force competing against a larger, more unwieldy one, as of the Gorrilla warfare which tended focuses on organizing in small units, depending on the support of the local population, as well as taking advantage of terrain more accommodating of small units.

Mizoram Insurgency

Since this research is related to Mizo insurgency it is necessary to highlight some background of the Mizos and Mizo insurgency. Mizoram occupies the southern part of the Northeast India. It is bounded by Assam, Manipur and Tripura on the north and part of western side and Bangladesh on the west and Myanmar (Burma) on the East, having a total boundary length of 630 miles—with Bangladesh and Myanmar. It is geographically situated between 22°20'and 24°27'(N) and 92°20'and 94°29'(E) latitudes. The tropic of cancer runs through the territory. Mizoram is a mountainous region. The climate in Mizoram is pleasant to cool in the upper reaches and humid in the plains but still tolerable. The winter temperature varies from 11 degree Celsius to 24 degrees and in the summer the range is 18 to 29 degrees which makes the state fairly comfortable throughout the year. The average rainfall is 254 centimetres every year. But in the southern part of the state it rains more. Mizoram has hill ranges running from north-south. The state is divided into eight districts:

1) Aizawl
2) Champhai
3) Kolasib
4) Lawngtlai
5) Lunglei
6) Mamit
7) Chhimtuipui
8) Serchhip

With an area of 20,987 sq. km, Mizoram has a population of 891,058 (Eight lakh ninety one thousand and fifty-eight) people according to the 2001 census. The density of population is 42 persons per sq. km. Out of 891,058 population 459,783 are males and 431,275 are females. Mizoram at present is a highly educated state with high literacy levels, and what is more, the level of literacy among the women is also high, which hardly obtains anywhere in India. The main languages spoken are Mizo and English. According to the 2001 census, the percentage of literacy in Mizoram is 88.49. Due to the high literacy rate it attained second position in literacy rates in India next to the state of Kerala. It was already high in the decadal census when the literacy

in the state was 81.23 per cent. About 90.69 per cent of males are literate and 86.13 per cent of women can read and write.

Mizoram or Zoram as it is sometime called is unique in many ways. The dwellers of the state are known commonly as Mizo. The history of the origin and coming of the Mizo to their present habitat is shrouded in mystery. No systematic research has been made so far. There is no recorded history. As per the oral tradition, the Mizo ancestors emerged from a cave or rock known as Chhinlung somewhere in China. They moved through Tibet into the Hukwang valley in Burma over time, following the Chindwin into the Kubaw valley to enter the Lushai Hills in the 18th century. It is accepted that Mizo are of Mongoloid stock and are believed to have immigrated into their present habitat, possibly sometime between 1400 and 1700 or 1800 AD from the upper Burma. However, the Mizo historians such as K. Zawla (1974) and Rev. Liangkhaia (1938, reprint2002), who wrote "Ancient History and Culture of the Mizo People" and "History of Lushai" have argued that the Mizo were in the Chin Hills in Burma from 1400AD to 1700AD and their gradual movements of migration started between 1700 and 1730 or 1740 AD. But in the absence of any written history, more accurate dates about the movement cannot be envisaged. The Mizo, however, migrated from Burma for mainly two reasons— pressure of the Chin or the stronger clans of Burma and the pressure of over population. Thus the Mizo are not only concentrated in the present state of Mizoram, but also in the states of Manipur, Cachar District of Assam, Chittagong hill tracts and Chin Hills (Burma).

The Mizo as a whole possess a unique social system, which although patriarchal, yet the women play a key role in the social affairs and in the process of betterment of the society. But, when looking at the inheritance law of the society the Mizo women lived a lower status, especially in the inheritance of property rights, they have not much inheritance right. The Mizo law of inheritance is simple. As a rule, the property of a father goes to the youngest son. The father may, however, give shares to other sons also. If there is no male issue, the property goes to the next of kin on the male side. The Mizo society did not provide for inheriting any property by the women. In fact the women were confined to the kitchen and the field and had no voice in the day to day affairs of the village. But in the family, the women do exert a lot of influence on their men folk and Mizo men in general are very much attached to

their women. Before the annexation of the Lushai hills, due to fear of attacks from enemies, Mizo selected village sites on top of the hills from where they could observe enemy movements. Stockades used to be constructed for the protection of their village. There are very few springs at higher altitudes and hill tops in Mizo Hills, and as such, Mizo have to depend on rain water for irrigation and drinking purposes.

Traditionally the Mizos (which literally means "hill people") were subject to the authority of the chiefs where chiefs had a preeminent position. The chiefs were the supreme ruler of each of their own jurisdiction. The chief enjoyed various privileges, such as the allotment of land to the people for cultivation and the exaction of taxes. The chief was the father and protector of the Mizo society. The Mizos were a migratory tribe and the various clans and sub clans moved from one place to another in search of subsistence, that is, Jhum land, along with the chiefs. They got settled in places which were selected by the chiefs. The chiefs created the boundary pillars to enforce their jurisdictions. The land *(ram)* belonged to the chief who was the absolute ruler of his *ram.* In the beginning the selection for a chief was based on the power and ability of a person who had a capacity to command a large number of people and to repeal any attack by other chiefs or enemies as the early Mizo society lived a life of inter-clan clashes. Safety was need of the common people from the invasion of the neighbouring villages. The chieftainship thus, originated in the physical and intellectual power of any person. The strength of a person and his ability to protect the people from the dangerous threats of the opponents is a necessary criterion to become a chief of any village. It thus appears that the institution of chieftainship emerged out of the collective needs of group life which characterized tribal living. There is no definite record regarding when the institution took concrete shape. But it is asserted that it happened at an early stage of evolution in their group life. Most of the historians of Mizo origin traced back the origin of chieftainship to the days of Zahmuaka who had six well-built sons. One of his descendants was Sailova from whom the Sailos of today trace their descent. In the long run, the Sailos became the most powerful chiefs and they ruled practically over the entire Mizoram at the time of the advent of the British.

The Mizo form a close-knit society; they are classless and casteless. The society is cohesive and in times of crisis they have the capacity to rise as one

community to safeguard and protect their identity and their social and cultural life. The notable feature of the Mizo society is of the so-called 'tlawmngaihna' which means 'service above self or 'to sacrifice oneself for the good of others'. It is a value system which is very old, yet promoted in such a way that the society absorbs within its fold the modern social impact without sacrificing the core value of the custom. P.R. Kyndiah, the ex-Governor of Mizoram state in his statement about this system observed that "the core element which constitute the base and thrust of the society lies in the observance of tlawmngaihna an ancient code of ethic and conduct in which even today the Mizo of the present generation are ardent believers". One writer remarked, "All voluntary services are rendered by the Mizo people under this useful custom of tlawmngaihna, which is continuing till now in Mizo society." This value system is one of the important factors which safeguarded Mizo society from class distinction (Patnaik, 2000).

The social life of the Mizo since the advent of Christianity experienced a constructive changes. The society is decorated by the church, which has an imminent influence on the life of the people. Before the advent of Christianity, the Mizo who then considered themselves as powerful militant people took great pride in subduing their rival tribes and raiding their neighbours. Apart from the inter-clan clashes, raids were directed towards the people in the plains of Cachar, Manipur, Sylhet, Tripura and the Chittagong Hill Tracts. It was one of such attacks on 27th January 1871. The Mizo killed a British named James Winchester at Alexandrapore and abducted his daughter Mary. The abduction of Mary Winchester heralded a new era in the history of the Mizo people. A millionaire in London, Robert Arthington having heard about the incident organized a missionary society called 'Arthington Aborigines Mission'. On the 11 January 1894 two missionaries, F. W. Savidge and J.H. Lorraine sponsored by the society arrived at Sairang near Aizawl to start the work of spreading the gospel among the Mizo. Special revivals brought about phenomenal success of the gospel preaching in Mizoram and by the end of the Second World War in 1945, the whole land comprising Mizoram embraced Christianity and the percentage of Christian religion has come up to 95 per cent as of now (Lalthangliana, 2001).

The history of the Mizos can be divided into three broad periods; the Pre-British Period begins with the origin of the Mizos shrouded in mystery and culminates

with the 'Chin-Lushai expedition' of 1889-1890; the British Period (1890 – 1947) begins with the annexation of Mizoram by the British Authority in 1890 and comes to its end along with Independence of India in 1947; and the Post-Independence Period (1947 – till date) witness the vast array of development in the social, political, economic and religious sphere at both the individual and population level, since the Indian Independence of 1947 perturbed by the period of insurgency.

The Anglo-Mizo interaction was recorded as early as 1822 (Lloyd, 1991). The Mizos frequently raid the plain area adjacent to their settlement that was under the British Administration. The earliest record of such raid within the British Territory took place in 1826, and was against the wood-cutters who failed to pay the price of safety to the chief in whose territory they conducted the operation (Mackenzie, 1979).

The first British Expeditionary Force went into the Lushai Hills in December 1844, as a retaliatory measure against a Lushai raid in British territory. The advent of the British into Mizoram brought about many changes into the political lives of the Mizo. As a result of the second military expedition of the government of British India by 1889-90, the whole Mizoram was annexed to British for administrative purpose. (The Government of British-India on the 11th September, 1889 decided to send expeditionary operation against the Mizos with the objectives: to punish the tribes that raids British Territory, subjugate the neutral tribes in the region, and to establish semi-permanent posts to ensure pacification as well as recognition of the British regime (Reid, 1978). The expeditionary operation was named 'Chin-Lushai expedition 1889-1890' and this resulted in the subjugation of the Mizo chiefs and the annexation of Mizoram in 1890.) The Lushai (Mizo) Hills were formally included in British India under the proclamation by the Governor General of India-in-Council on September 6, 1895" divided into two parts, viz. North Lushai Hills as a part of Assam and South Lushai Hills as a part of Bengal for administrative purpose. A political officer was in-charge of North Lushai Hills District whereas the South Lushai Hills District was under the charge of the superintendent. The District administrators, therefore, carried out administrative work but did not interfere much in the internal affairs of the Lushai. The Lushai chiefs carried on their rule in their villages under the guidance and instruction of the District administrators. For more convenience the South and North

Lushai Hills were amalgamated as one Lushai Hills District of Assam on 1 April, 1898.

During the British Rule, chiefs were retained, but the chiefs are heavily burdened with taxes, forced labour and punishment (The Tribal Research Institute, 1980). The people became critical of the existence of chieftainship; that gained impetus with the political activities in 1946 (Sangkima, 1992). In 1947, Mizos became free from the clutches of the British and Mizoram became an integral part of India. The formations of the Mizo District Council (1952) abolished chieftainship and its replacement in the form of Village Council revived the hope in the Mizo to regain the administration of Mizoram in their hands that was not imminent.

The Mizo National Famine Front dropped the word 'famine' and a new political organization, the Mizo National Front (MNF) was born on 22 October 1961 under the leadership of Laldenga Mizo with the specified goal of achieving sovereign independence of Greater Mizoram. The Mizo National Front was outlawed in 1967. The demand for statehood gained fresh momentum. A Mizo District Council delegation, which met prime minister Indira Gandhi in May 1971 demanded full fledged statehood for the Mizos. The union government on its own offered the proposal of turning Mizo Hills into a Union Territory (U.T.) in July 1971. The Mizo leaders were ready to accept the offer on the condition that the status of U.T. would be upgraded to statehood sooner rather than later. The Union Territory of Mizoram came into being on 21 January, 1972. Mizoram has two seats in Parliament, one each in the Lok Sabha and in the Rajya Sabha

Statehood was a prerequisite to the implementation of the accord signed between the Mizo National Front and the Union Government on 30 June 1986. The document was signed by Pu Laldenga on behalf of the Mizo National Front, and the Union Home Secretary R.D. Pradhan on behalf of the government. Lalkhama, Chief Secretary of Mizoram, also signed the agreement. The formalization of the state of Mizoram took place on 20 February 1987.

In 1955 Mautam (famine) broke out in Mizoram, the famine was caused by the profuse flowering of a thorny bamboo which occurs at intervals of 40 to 50 years. When the bamboo flowers, the rats gorge themselves on the bamboo seeds, multiply

and then destroy all crops, thus causing famine. The Mizo National Famine Front (MNFF), a political party with the objective to help the famine stricken was established in 1959 by Laldenga. ". He and his youthful followers went from village to village, providing food to the hungry, winning their confidence and telling them of the mis-rule that had brought nothing but misery to the people. The famine was over. Laldenga converted the "Mizo Famine Relief Front" into the "Mizo National Front" (MNF) with the objective to strive for the 'Sovereign Independence of Mizoram' in 1961, with Laldenga as its first President. The MNF soon covered the whole of Mizoram and became a formidable force. The MNF submitted a memorandum to the Government of India seeking to represent the case of the Mizo for freedom and independence. The Government of India sends Pataskar Commission to Mizoram in 1966, met by the MNF with a memorandum, but the visit was perturbed by the outbreak of disturbance on 28 February, 1966 leading to the declaration of Mizoram as 'disturbed area' under the Assam Disturbed Area Act, 1955 and the Armed Forces (Assam and Manipur) Special Power Act, 1958. On February 28,1966, the MNF in one sweep it killed all it thought were working against the movement and wiped out the rudimentary police force. The insurgency had started with a bang. The only place where the government held out was the Assam Rifles headquarters in Aizawl town. The very next day on March 1, 1966— Laldenga declared independence and an underground Government of the MNF was formed. Immediately, the Government of India rushed security forces to Mizoram and by June, 1967, the backbone of the armed revolt had been broken. The insurgents took to the jungles and kept ambushing and killing men of the armed forces, started collecting taxes at the point of gun and ran a parallel government (Lalnithanga, 2005).

Since then the Indian troop moved into the district and the MNF volunteers with their leaders went underground. In the wake of MNF insurgency, political parties including the Indian Nation Congress which was set up in 1961 and headed by A. Thanglura could not make much headway. On 1st March 1966, the government was in for the unkind surprise to find the MNF insurgents launching raids on almost all the Security Posts simultaneously all over the Mizo Hills. "That was the Operation Jericho in action." And thus began one of the series of longest negotiations in the history of the country. They dragged on for more than ten years and witnessed a

number of failures in between. The ban of MNF under the Unlawful Activities (Prevention) Act of 1967 came sooner than expected.

The security forces met the challenge efficiently. Ironically, they were operating in their own country against their own countrymen. As such they had to use force with discretion. They had to distinguish friend from foe and this was a difficult task. Even those Mizos who were sick of the hostiles and their methods of extorting taxes dared not divulge information about the insurgents for fear of reprisal. It was under such circumstances that the system of grouping of the villages was resorted to. The population of Mizoram, which was scattered over the countryside, was shifted to Group Centres set up near the main roads and the inhabitants of these centres were supplied with identity cards. Thus every man in the village was accounted for. A dawn-to-dusk curfew was imposed and all were expected to come back to their centres from work by evening. The new faces had to establish their credentials by producing identity cards. Those who could not were suspected to be "insurgents" and were arrested (Lalnithanga, 2005).

The nation was stunned. It appeared for a while that insurgency had triumphed and Mizoram was in for a period of the law of the jungle.

There was one basic difference between the insurgency of Mizoram and that of other areas of the north-east like Nagaland and Manipur. In these areas, the insurgents were concentrated in the jungles and their activity was confined mostly to ambushes. In Mizoram, while they had their bases in the jungles and did occasionally resort to ambushing their main centre of activity was the capital, Aizawl, itself. It was under such circumstances that the security of the town was entrusted to the CRPF. Soon this force was guarding, not only water supply and other vital installations of the capital, but also the local police headquarters, the Secretariat, the Legislature and residences of top officers of the government and members of the Mizoram Ministry.

During 1966 to 1970, the MNF fought with the Indian Army and hundreds of people lost their lives and thousands of them were imprisoned and may be referred to as the 'Dark Period' of Mizoram.

Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi's election to power following his mother's death signaled the beginning of a new era in Indian politics. Pu Laldenga met the prime

minister on 15 February 1985. Some contentious issues which could not be resolved during previous talks were referred to him for his advice. With Pakistan having lost control of Bangladesh and no support from Pakistan, the Mizo National Front which had evolved from the Mizo National Famine Front after the great famine of 1958 used the opportunity that had now presented itself. New Delhi felt that the Mizo issue had been dragging on for a long time, while the Mizo National Front was convinced that disarming; to live as respectable Indian citizens, was the only way of achieving peace and development. Statehood was a prerequisite to the implementation of the accord signed between the Mizo National Front and the Union Government on 30 June 1986. The document was signed by Pu Laldenga on behalf of the Mizo National Front, and the Union Home Secretary, Mr R.D. Pradhan on behalf of the government. Pu Lalkhama, Chief Secretary of Mizoram, also signed the agreement.

While the MNF kept its part of the bargain, the Centre initiated efforts to raise the status of Mizoram to a full fledged State. A constitution Amendment Bill and another to confer statehood on Mizoram was passes in the Lok Sabha on 5 August 1986.

The formalization of the state of Mizoram took place on 20 February 1987. Chief Secretary Lalkhama read out the proclamation of statehood at a public meeting organized at Aizawl, Assam Rifles' parade ground. Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi flew in to Aizawl to inaugurate the new state. Mr Hiteshwar Saikia was appointed as Governor of Mizoram.

The Mizo Accord so far remains the only successful accord in the country. Security experts even refer to it as 'the only insurgency in the world which ended with a stroke of pen'. This accord seems to be the longest peace accord that has stood the test of time in the North East India. Contrary to the popular belief in the mainland, Mizoram exudes a semblance of peace and amity in the region. The pace of development in the region is far better than other neighbouring states. Save for a few infinitesimally small segment of population, which is minor aberration, the Mizo Accord serves as a model of Peace in the region. Whatever little pockets of resistance that exist at the moment may be due to slow pace of integration of the people living in the hinterland.

The important groups of the Mizo civil society such as the Church, the YMA and the MZP now play a crucial role in sustaining the peace process that heralded following the signing of the peace accord twenty years ago. It is observed that these organizations work in tandem without contradicting each other's objectives. The transition from tradition to modernity and the process of development have been in progress with minimal tension in the society. This is owing to the cohesive nature of the Mizo community. The homogeneity of Mizo community is also a contributing factor in sustaining peace. The impact of Christianity in providing an identity to the Mizos as an ethnic community provides a fillip to the peace process as well.

Culture difference problem:

Before looking into the psychological impact of the insurgency let's have a brief discussion on acculturation which seem to be the major reason for the ignition of the insurgency. At that time when insurgency began, many government employees were from outside of Mizoram, most of them are Indian whom the Mizo refer to them as 'Vai', many shops and businesses were also run and owned by these 'Vai'. The Mizo feels that these foreigners might eventually obliterate them. So, the Mizo does not want to be in a potpourri with outsider especially the 'Vai' since their culture is extremely different from the Mizo culture, the majority of the Mizo people feel that it was impossible to coexist with the 'Vai'.

Major human activity involves interactions between one individual and another in dyadic or group situation, in which individual stable pattern of behavior (personality) is the centre of all organizational or group behavior. In group behavior interpersonal relations processes as social influence, social motivation, interpersonal attraction, social cognition and so on, that will influence all members who belongs to that group: Individual react to other as in-group or out-group members that would decide type of action to exert differently as a form of acculturation.

Culture refers to "*a set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterizes an institution, organization or group*" (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). Individual behaviour in the process of culture is the interplay of four systems namely: "behavioral system" (biological needs), the "personality system" (an individual's characteristics affecting their functioning in the social world), the "social system"

(units of social interaction, especially social status and role), and the "cultural system" (norms and values that regulate social action symbolically). In which social classification such as 'ethnocentrism" play important role in the process of social and cultural change as individuals often rank one's own group or race superior to those of other group or races (Drever, 1952). The present study was designed to explore the psychological functions of the culture of Mizo, who has experienced 20 years insurgency and also gone through the stages and processes of the acculturation (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952).

The social and cultural change can be explained with cultural appropriation, cultural imperialism, and cultural assimilation are often used in explaining interaction among cultures. Cultural appropriations is the adoption of some specific elements of one culture by other cultural group and may be behavior of other's culture and are typically imported into the existing culture, but can imply a negative view towards acculturation from a minority culture by a dominant culture (Alcoff, 1998). Cultural imperialism is the practice of promoting the dominant culture or language of nation which may be economically or militarily to weaker one. Cultural assimilation is a political response which encourages absorption of the minority into the dominant culture. The Mizo, historically isolated having their distinct culture from the dominant cultures of India, had gone through all of those cultural change processes in becoming the citizens of India. This social cultural change processes would provide bases for psychological, psychosocial and behavioural problems in the project population of study as a process of acculturation in a form of insurgency.

Acculturation is a complex, psychosocial phenomenon that involves individual and group-level changes in cultural patterns for ethnic minorities as a consequence of contact with the ethnic majority (Chun, Organista, & Marin, 2003). Acculturation is often conceptualized in psychological research as an individual-level variable (Graves, 1967).Acculturation is a state in which the amount of culture-related values, beliefs, affects, customs, and behaviors, adapted or endorsed by a minority/immigrant individual that are held by or norms of the majority/host culture (Ward, 1996). It is a process of cultural change that results from repeated direct contact between two distinct cultural groups (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987) in which members of one cultural group adopt the beliefs and behaviors of another group (Birman, 1994), the

hostile groups often acculturate to one another (McGee, 1898). Thus, acculturation is a process of psychological and behavioral adjustment, adaptation, assimilation, individual experience when being confronted with social and cultural changes in their cultural surroundings (Berry, Pootinga, Segall & Dasen, 1992). Cultures are often adaptations to the different types of environment such as the physical environment, social niche, intra-cultural niche and the inter-cultural niche that required different cultural adaptations (Diamond, 1999; Edgerton, 1971; O'Kelly and Carney, 1986; Triandis, 1994; Witkin and Berry, 1975). In the same line, the aim of socialization in all society is to induce individuals to conform to major ways of society where they belong, the maladaptive conformity and independence min interest of cross cultural study (Ash, 1951).

In adapting to new culture, people will select activities which maximize pleasure and minimize pain while ecosystem model begins with the postulates basic ecological-economic factors govern patterns of socialization that in turn determine the level of conformity (Mead, 1961). Cross cultural study may attempt various aspects of group functioning: the nature of pressures imposed by groups on deviant members to elicit adherence to group norms (Coon, 1946); the power of the group of produced behavior attitude and value exchange by means of group decision (Lewin, 1947); and the effects of variations in leadership and communication structure on group productivity and morale (Brehmer, 1970).

The acculturation process can be analyzed two ways, (i) the *unidimensional* (Berry, 1987; Ryder, Alden, & Poulhus, 2000) model views acculturation as cultural transformation along with one continuum with native culture as a starting point and a host culture as destination point with biculturalism as the midpoint of this continuum, (ii) The *bidimensional* model of acculturation allows individuals to select different components of both the host and ethnic cultures in such a way that increasing identification with one culture does not require decreasing identification with the other. Individuals in the process of acculturation face two general issues: whether to maintain the cultural identity and characteristics of the culture of origin, and whether to participate in the "larger society" (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987). While performing acculturation, individuals maintained some aspect of her/his culture of origin as he/she acquires aspects of the dominant culture (Berry, 1994; Szapocznik &

Kurtines, 1979). The forgoing theoretical foundation may laid foundation stone in explaining the causes of insurgency in Mizoram as Mizo standing at the cross road of two cultures, having strong attachment to the heritage culture and geographically distanced from the main Nation, are likely to strengthen their willingness to maintain the heritage culture as reflected in the fight for sovereignty.

Studies may revealed the root causes of insurgency that bicultural individuals are often found to be in-authentic, with insecure self-identity (Nash and Shaw, 1963) and conflicting situation (Fong, 1965); often viewed as a new self-identity that often hostile, and incapable of bicultural integration (Bochner, 1982; Sue & Sue, 1971). The individuals' adaptations involving psychological acculturation had been previously thought to inevitably bring social and psychological problems (Malzberg, & Lee, 1956) reflected with the vulnerability to interpersonal problems (Ryder et al, 2000; Searle & Ward, 1990). The two major factors of Psychological problems among international students are: (i) intrapersonal which have roots within the self and includes personality traits, and (ii) interpersonal which can include environment and cultural milieu or surroundings (Sandhu, 1994).

When an individual encounters a dominant culture and engages in the process of acculturation may experienced tension which is known as 'Acculturative stress' (Berry & Kim, 1988) as individuals' attempts to resolve the differences between their culture of origin and the dominant culture (Rudmin, 2003); that may result in anxiety, depression, psychosomatic symptoms, identity confusion (Williams & Berry, 1991), and negative psychological consequences (Park, 1928). However, researches now agreed that immersion of different culture can have a positive effect on psychological functioning and well being (LaFramboise, Coleman & Gerton, 1993).

An individual psychological adaptation to acculturation included that learning new behavioral repertoire, may refers as (i) 'behavioural shifts' (Berry, 1980b), (ii) 'culture learning' (Brislin, Landis & Brant, 1983) and (iii) 'social skills acquisition' (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). The acculturation process may also involve unlearning of aspects of culture of origin, 'culture shedding' (Berry, 1992) accompanied by moderate 'culture conflict', when incompatible behaviors create difficulties for the individual; the outcome can involve greater conflict and the individual may experience 'culture shock' (Oberg, 1960) or 'acculturative stress' (Berry, 1970; Berry,

Kim, Minde & Mok, 1987). So, taking leads from the available literature, it is obvious that the same process of acculturation stress and cultural conflict is apparent as the may causes of the outbreak of insurgency in Mizoram.

The common agents of acculturation may portrayed in the form of refugees, indigenous people, immigrants, sojourners, students, guest workers, or asylum seekers as acculturation stress resides among them. A biological factors and heritability factor may contribute up to 50% in the variance of attitude, and such relationship are religiosity, job satisfaction and vocational attitude and interest (Averey, Bouchard, Segal, & Dawes, 1982), authoritarianism (Scarr, 1981), liking of jazz, attitudes towards capital punishment and many others. But the present study concentrated on the environmental factors, the individual's interaction with other in his social word and the culture where he belongs play a crucial role in forming the individual's behaviour.

So, Acculturative stress may caused by variation in individual and group levels of acculturation such as "*Reference Group Effect*" (Heine et al, (2002) as the host culture also may compare the minority groups with the host culture norm and find different kind of doubt; '*Ultimate attribution Error*" is when an individual explain the behaviors of their own and other social group is often ethnocentric for example if regarded negative act is performed by an out-group member, may attributed as dispositional factors in comparison to the same act carried out by an in-group member as situational actor, as such the same action is attributed differently depend upon the culture group(Pettigrew,1979; "*Social Identity Theory*" (SIT: Tajfel, &Turner, 1979), derived largely from biased comparisons on salient dimensions that are favorable to the in-group and unfavorable to the out-group; and "*Social Dominance Theory*" (SDT; Pratot et al, 1994) proposed those higher status groups are more egocentric than lower status in trying to maintain their power through a process known as 'Behavioral Asymmetry'. The above models such as "Reference *Group Effect, Social Dominance Theory, Social Identity Theory, Ultimate attribution Error'* provided theoretical foundations for determining the root cause and impact of insurgency in Mizoram as effect in making decision in determining about the Non Mizo that affected their perception, the root cause and impact of insurgency.

Acculturation is an increasingly important topic on these reasons: (a) New technologies for high-speed, high-volume transportation and communication make it increasingly easy for cultures to be in contact worldwide; (b) war, political oppression, economic disparities, and environmental pressures produce millions of new migrants annually; (c) regional and global free-trade arrangements encourage international marketing and international recruitment of skilled personnel; and (d) the liberal political ideologies of the dominant, developed nations cause their governments, their minorities, and their academics to attend to acculturative rights and remediation (Rickard, 1994).

Different cultures have different psychosocial functions,, and individuals differences occur in different cultures (Diamond, 1999; Triandis, 1994; Witkin and Berry, 1975; Perkins, 2000), the essential core of culture consists of traditional ideas and especially their attached value (Kluckhohn, 1951). A value is a concept explicit or implicit, distinctive of individual or characteristics of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and end of action (Kluckhohn, 1951). Cultural Anthropologists see the individual as a culture carrier and informant who can provide information about a group's values, when speaking about his own (Zavalloni, 1980) and also cultural value may be preservation of native culture and transfer to next generation (Harris & Verven, 1998). Psychologists are trying to understand in detail the basic processes that occur in the living organism: his perception, learning, attitude, value, emotions, motives, and feelings of an individual; and the different individual's social interaction in his social environment.

Attitude is the central core of human actions, if misguided their attitudes such as nationalism, racism or religious fanaticism; and may ready to die for their convictions such as kill, persecuted, inflict suffering. In order to change a particular attitude, one needs to know which function it serves. Even a particular attitudes toward favour of restaurant for food tasty (utilitarian) or you want to cast the impression (social identity) of being one of the people who frequently restaurant (Shavitt, Swan, Lowrey, &Wanke, 1994). The international conflict reflects value differences as Gulf War is mutual miscalculations (Steward, 1991).

A person's attitude toward a particular attitude object may influence his behaviour toward the object. Attitudes do not only influence behaviour and other

attitudes, it also determines how to process information regarding the object (Pratkanis, 1989). Individual often searches for and selects information that confirms their beliefs and attitudes rather than information that may disconfirm them. Moreover, people tend to interprete information in the line of their attitude even if it is unavoidable information (Hastorf & Cantril, 1954). On all these reasons, the psychological importance in determining the root causes of insurgency in Mizoram was very apparent, and also it deserved in-depth study on the psychological effects it build-up among the people of Mizoram by protecting their personal space and territory to preserve their serenity.

Attitudes and Value are the result of early socialization like other behavior such as frustration (Kardiner, 1939) and impulse structure is the outcome of the patterns of child rearing practices. The interaction of individual and culture to which he belongs formed the individual's behaviour and cognition (Bandura, 1978, 1986) effectiveness, biology and the social environment (LaFromboise, Coleman and Gerton (1993). Being a social animal, a person' social and physical environment such as social interaction, social dependence, social influence, social cognition and interpersonal relation with other members who share the same environment and can affect his behaviour, as well as the physical environment where he can have maximum pleasure will determine his bahaviour, that will obviously lead to protect his personal space and territory to retain his contentment.

Personal space (Katz (1937) is a boundary regulation mechanism to achieve desired levels of personal and group privacy that regulates how individuals will interact with other member within or outside own culture. It is an evolutionary process to control interspecies aggression to protect against threats to autonomy and thereby to reduce stress (Howard, 1973). Personal space has two primary purposes: (1) protective function and serves as a buffer against potential emotional and physical treats; (2) Communication channel which are employed in different distances with other person that depending upon the quality of relationship. Size of personal space is largely influenced by learning experiences, individual differences, gender, race, culture, and personality (Montagu, 1971). Hall (1966) proposes four zones of interpersonal distances for American people which are intimate distance, personal distance, social distance, and public distance. The optimal personal spaces depend on

situational condition (e.g. attraction) and individual differences (e.g personality). When optimal range of personal space is there, homeostasis is maintained, if not a variety of adverse response may occur but inappropriate distancing often has negative consequences.

Altman's (1975) privacy regulation model implies inadequate personal space will elicit boundary control mechanism, and inadequate personal space leads to an aversive feeling state and coping responses that attempts to reassert freedom; and may evoke fear, discomfort, and feeling of aggression or threat (Evans, et al 1972). Perceived inadequate personal space is due to a combination of objectives physical distance, situational and social conditions (Zakay, Hayduk, & Tsal, 1992) various types of coping are employed which may or may not success (Dabbs, 1971). Degree of friendship and similarity affect interpersonal positioning, and then types of interaction and size of personal space that anger leads to closer distance for retaliation or to farther distances for protection (O'Neal, et al, 1980). Several studies suggest that maintaining inappropriate interpersonal distance is associated with considerable stress, lowering attraction, negative inferences and compensatory behaviour (Dabbs, 1971) if they are not liked culture (person).

The effect of being invaded on flight behaviour was studied by Felippe and Sommer (1966) and found that invaded subject will employ coping behaviour of avoiding the situation (left the place) and more negative inferences (Smith, & Knowles, 1979). The invaded person will experience higher levels of physiological arousal than non invaded person (Evans & Howard, 1972), could lead to aggression (Ryden, Bossenmaier, & McLachlan, 1991), less helping behaviour (Smith and Knowles, 1979), more upsetting to be invaded by a male than female (Kmiecik, et al. 1979), degree of invader action affects the degree of negative inferences, no apparent or inappropriate reasoning of invasion increase negative inference (Smith and Knowles, 1979). Individual are willing to defend their territories from invasion by resorting to aggression as each individual have their own territory.

Territory behaviour is practiced by animal and human, but as it is visible, relatively stationary, visibly bounded and tend to be home centered, regulating who will interact (Sommer, 1969). Territoriality is asset of behaviours and cognitions a person or a group exhibits, based on perceived ownership of physical space (Altman

and Chemers, 1980) which important motives and needs for organism and includes occupying an area, establishing control over it, personalizing thoughts, beliefs, or feelings about it and in some cases defending it (Brown, 1987; Taylor, 1988). As the limited space of the Earth and natural resources were share by all creatures, the instinctive behaviour of human and animal mark off their turf to keep others out and respond with vocal warnings and bodily threat to invaders (Ardrey, 1966; Lorenz, 1965) that driven to defend their territorial claims, and conflicting over it. On the other hand, territoriality is learned behaviour originated from past experiences and also through cultural practices e.g. nomadic is relatively a territorial while others are highly territorial. Protecting territoriality (Carpenter, 1958) among the species is depend on nature of selected functions as mating, food gathering, protecting food supply, shelter, rearing young, social status and social roles, leading to feeling of distinctiveness, privacy, and sense of identity; but human territoriality is rooted in survival needs, and also associated with higher order need (e.g self image recognition; Gold, 1982) as it has higher order of cognition than animal. Human very rarely resort to aggression to defend their turf. They usually deal with territorial invasion with laws that defend territorial rights rather than brute force (Brown, 1987). Human territorial defend may be seen in the form of conflict between nations or the outsiders were greeted with aggression always. Different types of behaviour were often engage to communicate territorial claim if could not preserved dispute aggression is more common (Ley & Cybriwsky, 1974) and the invader of the territory are counteract with verbal adjustment response like warning to leave, threatening him as well as physical ones like putting up a fence "no trespassing". The Mizo had a historic control over their Mizoram, and the insurgency may an action of prevention of their personal space or territory from invader or who annexed Mizoram to British Empire (British India); and that anger remains in the inner feeling and just finds a time to act out violently their heightened anxiety as they knowledge about modern civilization or strength of Indian government was far off from their ability of understanding. Anxiety is an emotional state in which people feel uneasy, apprehensive, or fearful when they are invaded or constraint in their environment. Sources of anxiety which were perceived as unpredictable and uncontrollable events heightened anxiety reduce toleration, which are usually counted as threatening or dangerous.

Effects of Insurgency:

Continuous or long-term exposure to the lethal combat environment in which the emergency "fight-flight" response is repeatedly invoked eventually results in performance decrements in virtually every combatant. Such repeated physiological arousal gradually has a conditioning effect on voluntary muscles (increased tension, tremors), involuntary or autonomic responses (tachycardia, increased blood pressure, increased perspiration and respiration), and cognitive responses (anxiety, fear). The loss of comrades not only provokes anxiety about one's own mortality but also represents a loss of social reinforcement with subsequent anger and depression. During World War II, Sobel (1949) referred to such casualties as "the old sergeant syndrome." In one model of depression, the hormonal regulatory system of the hypothalamus has become disturbed from higher cognitive and limbic (emotional) inputs. The repeated physiological and cognitive arousal invoked by combat exposure would seem appropriate to such a model.

The present study aimed to find out the psychological outcome of insurgency in Mizoram, it was expected that those who participated in the insurgency movement are likely to have experienced higher psychological effects produced by the 20 years long combat or war so to say, such as, anxiety, depression and frustration as compared with the non participants.

Stress: The heterogeneous syndromes found in low intensity wars that have been labeled loneliness and frustration casualties ("nostalgic casualties") should be added acute stress disorders and chronic and delayed post-traumatic stress disorders (chronic and delayed PTSD). PTSD is usually and appropriately thought of in the context of acute overwhelming stress; however, the frequent morale problems of low-intensity, ambiguous wars may carry over into the postwar lives of the former combatants. The current discontents of these war veterans may find expression in the reappearance or new appearance of symptoms associated with combat: anxiety and fears, automatic hyperactivity, reliving of psychologically traumatic events, and a variety of other malaises. Such symptoms often follow service in wars of high intensity as well, particularly when the outcome was unsatisfactory or there is psychological or financial gain from such symptoms. This was seen, for example, in the large numbers of German veterans of World War I who developed chronic war neuroses (many of

whom would now be labeled chronic post-traumatic stress disorder) compared with the small numbers of such cases following World War II. In both cases Germany lost the war, but one difference was that after World War II veterans were not given pensions for neurotic (nonpsychotic or nonorganic) conditions due to the experience of German psychiatrists who knew of the World War I findings, and due to the general opprobrium earned by the military because of Nazi atrocities.

Stress is an unpleasant state of emotional and physiological arousal that people experience in situations that they perceive as dangerous or threatening to their well-being. A stressor is "any condition which an individual judges as requiring some accommodation or readjustment in ongoing lifestyle or behaviour" (Spradley & Phillips, 1972). Some people define stress as events or situations that cause them to feel tension, pressure, or negative emotions such as anxiety and anger. Others view stress as the response to these situations. This response includes physiological changes—such as increased heart rate and muscle tension—as well as emotional and behavioural changes. However, most psychologists regard stress as a process involving a person's interpretation and response to a threatening event.

Stress is a common experience. We may feel stress when we are very busy, have important deadlines to meet, or have too little time to finish all of our tasks. Often people experience stress because of problems at work or in social relationships, such as a poor evaluation by a supervisor or an argument with a friend. Some people may be particularly vulnerable to stress in situations involving the threat of failure or personal humiliation. Others have extreme fears associated with physical threats— such as snakes, illness, storms, or flying in an airplane—and become stressed when they encounter or think about these perceived threats. Major life events, such as the death of a loved one, can cause severe stress.

Stress can have both positive and negative effects. Stress is a normal, adaptive reaction to threat. It signals danger and prepares us to take defensive action. Fear can motivate us to manage or avoid situations that pose threats. Stress can also fuel creativity and motivate us to achieve. Although stress may hinder performance on difficult tasks, moderate stress seems to improve motivation and performance on less complex tasks. In personal relationships, stress often leads to less cooperation and more aggression.

If not managed appropriately, stress can lead to serious problems. Exposure to chronic stress can contribute to both physical illnesses, such as heart disease, and mental illnesses, such as anxiety disorders. The field of health psychology focuses in part on how stress affects bodily functioning and on how people can use stress management techniques to prevent or minimize disease.

Post-traumatic stress disorders (Anxiety disorder) evolved from the Freudian concept of "traumatic neurosis" and technically are part of the combat stress disorders spectrum, of the acute, chronic, or delayed type. The chronic and delayed forms of PTSD (Anxiety disorder) have assumed considerable importance as squealed of combat in Vietnam and in the 1982 Lebanon War. it is important to recognize that PTSD (Anxiety disorder) symptoms can follow any serious psychological trauma, such as exposure to combat, accidents, torture, disasters, criminal assault, and exposure to atrocities or to the squealed of such extraordinary events. POWs exposed to harsh treatment are particularly prone to develop PTSD (Anxiety disorder).

Stress symptoms in wounded and nonwounded soldiers at the 93rd evacuation hospital, Vietnam, January-June 1966 (Not listed in order of prevalence)

A. Stress Symptoms Seen in Wounded Soldiers

The disabling symptoms of wounded soldiers usually developed after hospitalization, or if present when hospitalized, the symptoms persisted or became more severe, requiring neuropsychiatric consultation.

1. Persistent anxiety dreams.

2. Pain in wounded extremity following complete healing.

3. Sensory defects in which the patient claimed hypoesthesia and weakness of an extremity but the neurological examination was negative.

B. Stress Symptoms Seen in Nonwounded Soldiers

1. Somnambulism.

2. Anxiety dreams with talking or shouting.

3. Syncope and vertigo.

4. Narcolepsy-like complaints.

5. Seizures—not proved to be grand mal or petit mal.

6. Musculoskeletal-type complaints, such as low back pain, where the orthopedic examination is   negative.

7. Amnesia, especially following exposure to explosions (mortar, artillery, or mines) but having no concussion.

8. Blurred vision—when the ophthalmologist can find no visual defects.

9. Stuttering, especially following exposure to loud noises or automatic weapons fire.

10. Aphonias or other speech disturbances, such as whispering.

11. Persistent nausea or abdominal pain in which no gastrointestinal disease could be demonstrated by the internal medicine service.

12. Headaches, atypical but severe, persistent, and disabling, most often diagnosed as "tension headache."

13. Loss of hearing—in which ear, nose, and throat examination could find no hearing loss.

Stress casualties of low-intensity combat differ substantially from those of mid- to high-intensity combat, which present primarily with anxiety and conversion and dissociative symptoms. In contrast, low-intensity combat casualties tend to present with "nostalgic" symptoms such as alcohol and drug abuse, venereal diseases, and character and behavior problems of indiscipline.

Ranson(1949) has described a spectrum of symptomatology in combat ranging from "the normal battle reaction" to "the pathologic battle reaction." He observes that:

The normal battle reaction is made up of a variable set of symptoms that arise from (1) moderate to extreme physical fatigue; and (2) extreme, repeated, and

continued battle fear, with (a) marked psychosomatic symptoms resulting from this fear and (b) certain psychological symptoms resulting there from.

Ranson(1949) describes normal psychosomatic response patterns to combat stress to include muscular tension, "freezing" or temporary immobility, shaking and tremors, excessive perspiration, anorexia or nausea, occasionally vomiting, abdominal distress, mild diarrhea and urinary frequency including incontinence of feces or urine, tachycardia and palpitation, hyperventilation to the point of giddiness and syncope, weakness and lassitude, and aches and pains. He also described special psychological considerations in the normal battle reaction including combat sensitization with anticipatory anxiety, sensitization to combat noises, insomnia, diminished drive and initiative, irritability and increasing fear, including fear of showing fear.

By observing how individuals and groups respond to sudden, unexpected trauma outside of war, as well as by noting which interventions are helpful to recovery and which are not, we may be better prepared to reduce and prevent combat stress reactions, war-related post-traumatic stress disorders, and other psychiatric problems associated with exposure to combat.

Commitment may be viewed as the extent to which a person has stakes in a given situation. A worker is more likely to appraise a situation as harmful, threatening, or challenging when the situation involves something that is personally significant. Workers who have put little time, effort, or emotional energy into their work would be less likely to appraise work-related events as stressful and less likely to burn out. Sobel (1949) describes the case of a 29-year-old first sergeant of excellent capabilities who was evacuated for exhaustion:

Subsequently it was discovered that he had carelessly left his company records strewn about a command post and that they had been picked up by a British patrol. This sergeant had been extremely careful with secret information and papers. Despite the diminution in efficiency, as shown by this case, there was no loss of motivation, and these men continued, sometimes desperately, in a job they had become incapable of handling. This led to severe conflict and guilt feelings with the result that their anxiety increased progressively to the point where evacuation became imperative. Guilt over letting their buddies down was a constant feature and was directly

proportionate to the state of morale in the unit, as is the incidence of the entire syndrome.

Despite claims that the most committed workers are at greatest risk for burnout, the dominant view of commitment as a risk factor for burnout is incomplete. In fact, commitment can help mitigate burnout. Research suggests that commitment enhances the ability to cope with a stressful work environment and moderates the adverse effects of occupational stress on job performance. Commitment to army values may protect personnel of all ranks from the development of burnout. Taken together, the results suggest that there may be some optimal level of commitment, and deviations in either direction from the optimum increase an individual's susceptibility to burnout.

During World War I, stress casualties presented with hysterical syndromes, psychomotor disturbances, and fear, as well as depressed affect. The high-intensity combat of the 1973 Yom Kippur War produced similar casualties, and the roughly 2-week period of intense warfare during the 1982 Lebanon War also produced these casualties. Except for that 2-week period, which produced most of the "traditional" (anxiety and fear) stress casualties, engagements in Lebanon were more of a low-intensity, insurgency nature with snipers and booby traps accounting for many casualties. In this situation the development of symptom overlap between Vietnam, overall a classic low-intensity conflict, and the 1982 Lebanon War (ie, social estrangement) is seen. In a review of follow-up studies, Belenky (1986) has detected another similarity between Israeli casualties from the 1982 Lebanon War and U.S. casualties from the Vietnam conflict, namely, the development of delayed stress casualties, which are reported as high in both groups of veterans. These low-intensity warfare casualties, who present with problems that suggest a depressive core and depressive symptoms, were the primary presentation of nostalgia in preceding centuries. Unchecked, these casualties can significantly degrade the combat efficiency of a unit as was seen in the latter phases of the Vietnam conflict.

When distress (detrimental stress) develops and continues over a prolonged period, psycho-physiological disorders – previously called psycho somatic disorders – may develop. Indeed the prolonged or intense stress may damage bodily organs. It is argued that when the individual's response to stress is abnormally intense and

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prolonged; the damage to organ systems can contribute to the disease process. "Thus the psychosomatic symptom emerges as a physiological concomitant of an emotional state. Psychosomatic disorders may affect almost any part of the body, though they are usually found in systems not under voluntary control ... but it is generally believed that the form a disorder takes is due to individual vulnerabilities." Encyclopedia Britannica continues that certain forms of hypertension, respiratory ailment s, migraine, Dermatitis and ulcers may occur. Baum et al. observe that illnesses ranging from coronary heart disease to gastro-intestinal disorders and even cancer may develop in such cases.

Hans Selye (1946) claimed that stress could be caused by a vast number of factors, which he named stressors. He furthermore established that stress was related to the increased secretion of hormones by certain glands thereby causing physiological, psychological and behavioural responses. He identified three stages in the process of prolonged stress, which he called the general adaption syndrome theory or GAS theory.
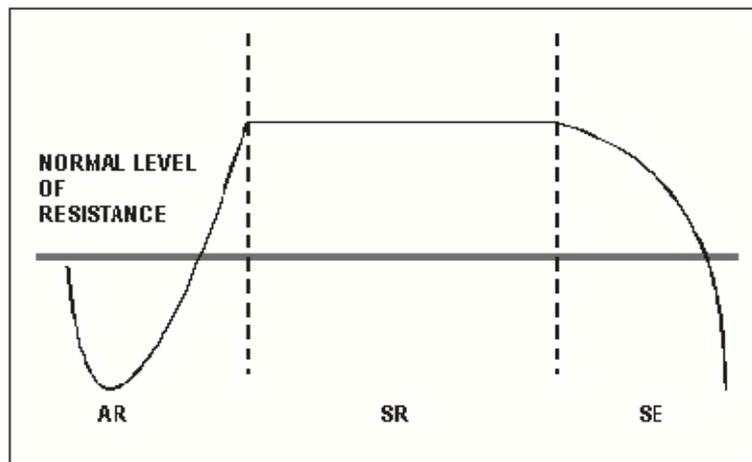

Figure -2: Selye's GAS theory.(Source: H. Selye, The stress of life, p. 87.)

Figure 2 illustrates the three stages. The first stage Selye called the stage of "alarm reaction" (AR), when the first experience of stress is encountered. Although the normal level of resistance will initially tend to drop when the individual takes fright, he so on recovers and the level of resistance then increases to above the normal. The so-called fight or flight principle then becomes applicable. This stage

may be of a limited duration depending on the type of stressor. As the individual continues to experience the stress he or she moves into a "stage of resistance" (SR), meaning that he is becoming adapted to the stressor. This stage will continue as long as the body can handle or cope with the situation or until the stressor disappears. Additional hormones, primarily the adrenalines and cortisones, are required throughout this period to maintain an adequate level of resistance, so that the prolonged stress can be managed. When the body's capacity of producing the increased levels of hormones eventually becomes exhausted a "stage of exhaustion" (SE) sets in and the level of resistance drops drastically.

According to Lazarus, as quoted in Baum et al. (1997), for an event or a situation to be classified as a stressor it must be appraised as either threatening, harmful or posing an excessive demand. Should the situation be perceived as benign it will not be classified as a stressor and therefore no further demand is made on the individual? Theoretically this is the primary appraisal which automatically takes place. The individual is really asking: "What is it going to cost me?" If the situation appears to be harmful or threatening, it is termed a stressful appraisal which will consequently involve a secondary appraisal or evaluation to determine its magnitude. The question asked is: "How am I going to handle this?" o r "Am I able to deal with this?" In other word s the primary appraisal deals with t he question whether the situation is perceived as a stressor or not, the secondary appraisal whether the individual will be able to cope with it. In practice primary and secondary appraisals of a stressor occur practically simultaneously and the two reciprocally influence one another. The appraisal could perhaps be the assessment of a loss already suffered, or it could signify a threat with possible future dangers; alternatively it might be a challenge which the individual feels he is able to cope with or overcome.

After the stressor has been appraised according to the above outline, the individual moves into coping (or managing) behaviour. The method of coping may vary. Firstly it could change the stressor it se lf, for example by simply closing a door if the stress is a draught in the neck. Secondly more information or clarification might be sought so as to decide on the best course of action. Thirdly it may simply be ignored as some problems tend to solve themselves. However, denial can also lead to

circumstances where the problem is increased. Lastly the decision may be to live with the situation or to try to deal with it – to accept the fact and cope with it accordingly.

Burnout is similar to chronic combat stress reaction in that it is a state of hypo arousal that occurs as a result of chronic exposure to stressors. The signs and symptoms of the two syndromes are similar.

Manifestations of chronic combat reaction include depression, paranoia, decreased tolerance for frustration, excessive complaining, and withdrawal from social interaction, sleep disturbances, weight loss, and abuse of alcohol and drugs. The differences between burnout and chronic combat stress reaction may be more quantitative than qualitative, the two conditions differing in intensity of the stressor (combat versus more mundane peacetime occupational stressors) and intensity of the response (Jones, 2000).

Anxiety: It is obvious those feelings of apprehention will set-in in the presence of intense feeling of stress. War has a heart pounding impact on the effect on everyone, especially to those who are experiencing it up-close. The effect is at most to those who are involved in the war, like those who fought in the war and their family and relatives. War and it related activity, as also in the case of Mizo insurgency which the present study centered on, causes separation of family members, death, injuries, sickness, fright, alarm, panic, worry and so on, that give rise to anxiousness and feeling of apprehension.

The physical symptoms of anxiety reflect a chronic "readiness" to deal with some future threat. These symptoms may include fidgeting, muscle tension, sleeping problems, and headaches. Higher levels of anxiety may produce such symptoms as rapid heartbeat, sweating, increased blood pressure, nausea, and dizziness. Anxiety is a state of fear and apprehension, which is doubtlessly common during war. In contrast anxiety disorders are manifestations of anxiety and distress in situations which would not contrast anxiety disorders are manifestations of anxiety and distress in situations which would not lead to anxiety symptoms at times when no immediate danger exists. Again symptoms may include a faster pulse, increased blood pressure, sweating, intestinal discomfort and muscular tension. Other likely signs are insomnia, forgetfulness, irritability and panic (Smith, 2008).

Weinstein and Drayer (1949) distinguished the anxiety states of combat from those of civilian life by the following characteristics of combat anxiety: (a) the extraordinary precipitating factors in the perils and hardships of the combat environment, (b) symptom plasticity, (c) the importance of hostility and guilt, which is more immediately apparent than in most neuroses in civilians, and (d) the fact that they are in large part group phenomena. The soldier is a member of a closely knit, interdependent group, and group effectiveness and attitudes as well as ability to identify with the group modify significantly the soldier's capacity to withstand the traumas to which he is subjected.

Anxiety is a psychological and physiological state characterized by somatic, emotional, cognitive, and behavioural components. There are three reasons for the motivation of fear and anxiety from the cognitive perspective; loss of control, inability to make a coping response, and state anxiety versus trait anxiety. Loss of control refers to a situation when there are unpredictable or uncontrollable events in one's life which lead to anxiety and/or depression. As a result, feelings of helplessness develop. The unpredictability which may be associated with a task may cause anxiety (Seligman, 1975) The root meaning of the word anxiety is 'to vex or trouble'; in either the absence or presence of psychological stress, anxiety can create feelings of fear, worry, uneasiness and dread (Bouras and Holt, 2007) Anxiety is considered to be a normal reaction to a stressor. It may help a person to deal with a difficult situation by prompting one to cope with it. When anxiety becomes excessive, it may fall under the classification of an anxiety disorder. The intensity and reasoning behind anxiety determines whether it is considered a normal or abnormal reaction (Phil, 2009).

Anxiety is an emotional state in which people feel uneasy, apprehensive, or fearful. People usually experience anxiety about events they cannot control or predict, or about events that seem threatening or dangerous (Ohman, 2000). For example, students taking an important test may feel anxious because they cannot predict the test questions or feel certain of a good grade. People often use the words *fear* and *anxiety* to describe the same thing. Fear also describes a reaction to immediate danger characterized by a strong desire to escape the situation.

Bar-On and colleagues, as cited in Belenky (1986), have reviewed the predominant symptoms described in U.S. and Israeli casualties in World War I, World

War II, Vietnam, and the Arab-Israeli wars of 1973 and 1982. These symptoms were grouped by Jones. These listings are not actual and should be viewed as showing tendencies only. When the anxiety and fear categories are collapsed, these symptoms are found to predominate in all U.S. wars except the Vietnam conflict. Even in the Vietnam conflict, an examination of psychiatric syndromes among soldiers seen at a rear-echelon care facility staffed by a mobile psychiatric detachment (KO Team) early in the war before drug abuse and disillusion became widespread reveals a large number of anxiety-type symptoms. In non wounded soldiers, Bowman (1967) found predominance of dissociative, anxiety, and conversion symptoms, and in wounded soldiers anxiety dreams and neurological symptoms. Similarly, Jones (1985) found that anxiety and fear symptoms predominated in combat soldiers in Vietnam.

The epidemiology of psychiatric casualties among troops in battle has been examined in numerous studies since World War I. Such studies tended to emphasize the psychiatric casualties that resulted from battlefield stress even though casualties resulting from less dramatic causes had been recognized since World War I. These less dramatic casualties presented with problems of alcohol and drug abuse, disciplinary infractions, venereal diseases, and "self-inflicted" medical disorders (for example, malaria from failure to use prophylaxis). Not until the Vietnam conflict were these casualties recognized as potentially serious causes of ineffectiveness. Although the casualties that occur during actual engagement with the enemy may present the traditional picture of battle fatigue (e.g., anxiety, fatigue, and conversion and dissociative syndromes), the majority of neuropsychiatric cases in low-intensity combat present a picture similar to those that occur among rear-echelon troops in wartime and among garrison troops during peacetime (venereal diseases, alcohol and drug abuse, and disciplinary problems, often related to personality disorders). It is not surprising then that various authors have called such casualties "guerrilla neurosis," "garrison casualties," "disorders of loneliness," and "nostalgic casualties." U.S. Army field manuals refer to them as "misconduct stress behaviors" (Jones, 1977).

One study showed that approximately five decades after the Korean War, surviving male Australian veterans are experiencing markedly worse psychological health, as indicated by excessive levels of anxiety, PTSD and depression, compared with a group of similarly aged Australian men who were residing in Australia at the

time of the Korean War. In the Korean conflict, three fairly distinct phases are reflected in the varying types of casualties reported. The mid- to high-intensity combat from June 1950 until November 1951 was reflected in traditional anxiety-fatigue casualties and in the highest rate of combat stress casualties of the war, 209/1,000/y in July 1950. Most of the troops were divisional, with only a small number being less exposed to combat. This was followed by a period of static warfare with maintenance of defensive lines until July 1953 when an armistice was signed. The gradual but progressive buildup of rear-area support troops was associated with increasing numbers of characterological problems. Norbury (1930) reported that during active combat period's anxiety and panic cases were seen, while during quiescent periods with less artillery fire the cases were predominantly characterological. Following the armistice, obviously, few acute combat stress casualties were seen. The major difference in overall casualties other than surgical before and after the armistice was a 50% increase in the rate of venereal disease among divisional troops.

Jones (1985) found that anxiety and fear symptoms predominated in combat soldiers in Vietnam. In contrast, combat-support soldiers were more likely to present with what Jones referred to as "disorders of loneliness," which may be the modern analog of the "nostalgia" of previous centuries.

The "short-timer's syndrome," the development of superstitious dread that one's chances of being killed are increased followed by phobic anxiety and attempts to avoid all risks even when called for by the military mission, was described as a frequent occurrence in most combat and many combat-support soldiers in Vietnam in the final weeks before rotation home. This syndrome had been described in other situations in which exposure to combat is limited by length of time (9 month of combat in the Korean conflict) or number of missions (a fixed number of bombing runs by aircrews during World War II). Its appearance in Vietnam was, therefore, not surprising; however, its widespread occurrence, affecting even those in minimal danger, may have reflected disaffection and a sense of hopelessness in fighting the war.

When such repeatedly traumatized combat veterans emerge as psychiatric casualties, they usually present with some variant or mixture of anxiety or depressive

symptoms. The "startle reaction," for instance, may represent conditioned muscle tension and other physiological arousal to loud noises (as from exploding mortar, artillery, or bomb attacks). Soldiers presenting with lethargy, decreased self-esteem, and insomnia may be responding with depression to repeated losses and fatigue from repeated arousal. In one model of depression, the hormonal regulatory system of the hypothalamus has become disturbed from higher cognitive and limbic (emotional) inputs. The repeated physiological and cognitive arousal invoked by combat exposure would seem appropriate to such a model.
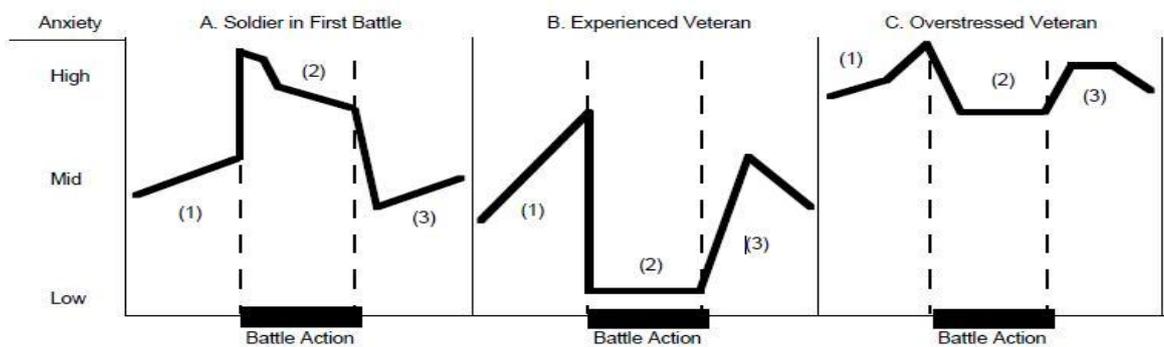

Figure- 1: Anxiety, fear, and arousal at different stages in combat tour. A soldier new to battle is more likely to break down than an experienced soldier; however, a soldier exposed to combat for a long period of time is also likely to be a stress casualty (Reprinted *from US Department of the Army. Leaders' Manual for Combat Stress Control. Washington DC: DA; 1994. Field Manual 22-51: 2-10).*

According to Selye (1946), initial exposure to a stressor is associated with increased resistance as the person tries to overcome the threat associated with the stressor. Prolonged exposure to the stressor eventually leads to the depletion of adaptive resources, to the breakdown of resistance, and finally to a state of exhaustion. The progressive erosion of coping resources is apparent in the following description of soldiers suffering from old sergeant syndrome:

With self-esteem as the mainstay of their personalities, they were able to resist the terrific onslaught of the combat environment. During their early combat careers they proved themselves able to "take it," but once a break in efficiency occurred, self-

confidence became progressively weakened. Yet responsibility was not slackened but often was increased. Forced to carry the same or a heavier load in the face of death and destruction, a cycle between increased responsibility and hesitancy to accept it was set up. This conflict was productive of a progressive and insidious type of anxiety.

Sobel (1949), described the loss of group cohesion in soldiers suffering from old sergeant syndrome. These soldiers had been either original members of their divisions or had been with their divisions for an extended period. These soldiers were survivors in that they were among the few remaining long-term members of their unit. They had close bonds with the few remaining unit old-timers and spent a great deal of time with them relating battle experiences. These discussions made them feel less vulnerable by reminding them that they had survived so many battles. However, as attrition of the long term unit veterans occurred, these soldiers failed to form strong bonds to new soldiers. This failure contributed to the erosion of self-confidence, to weakened defenses against anxiety, and to other manifestations of a severe battle reaction. Sobel noted that "loyalty to the group" was the final defense against anxiety that was weakened before breakdown.

PTSD is an anxiety disorder that sometimes affects people who have survived life-threatening events, such as combat, violent crimes, terrorist attacks or natural catastrophes. Symptoms can be mild or severe and include nightmares, flashbacks, depression, anxiety, anger and extreme avoidance behavior.

It is one type of anxiety but the symptoms are to the extent to beyond normal level. During and after war or combat PTSD (Anxiety disorder) is commonly suffered by both civilians and combatants alike. It can be said that they are closely related with each other. Therefore, it is required to highlight PTSD (Anxiety disorder) when discussing anxiety during war.

A study released April 17 by the Rand Corp. reported that 18.5 percent of the 1.6 million U.S. troops who have served in Iraq or Afghanistan -- or 300,000 people -- said they had symptoms of depression or PTSD (Anxiety disorder) because of their overseas service.

Nineteen percent -- 320,000 -- reported they had suffered head injuries, which, research shows, sharply increases these troops' likelihood of later developing PTSD (Anxiety disorder). Only about half the troops had sought treatment for their mental health or head wounds, according to the report.

So far, about 120,000 Iraq and Afghanistan veterans have sought help from the Department of Veterans Affairs for mental health complaints, including depression and alcohol abuse. Of that number, about 70,000 have been diagnosed with some level of PTSD (Anxiety disorder), VA records show.

In an interesting sociological and psychodynamic analysis of 1,200 U.S. Marine Corps and U.S. Navy personnel serving in the Vietnam combat zone, Renner suggested that the true picture was not one of diminished psychiatric casualties but rather of hidden casualties manifested in various character and behavior disorders. These character and behavior disorders were "hidden" in the sense that they did not present with classical fatigue or anxiety symptoms but rather with substance abuse and disciplinary infractions. Renner (1873) developed evidence supporting an explanation of character and behavior disorders based on a general alienation of the soldier from the goals of the military unit. He contrasted support units with combat units, noting that the former faced less external danger, allowing greater expression of the basic alienation that he regarded as present among virtually all U.S. troops in Vietnam. He attributed this alienation to the lack of group cohesiveness largely resulting from the policy of rotating individuals and disillusionment with the war after 12 months. The result was that the prime motivate behaviors became personal survival, revenge for the deaths of friends, and enjoyment of unleashing aggression. These in turn produced not only disordered behavior reflected in increased character and behavior disorder rates but also feelings of guilt and depression. Alienation from the unit and the U.S. Army led to the formation of regressive alternative groups based on race, alcohol or drug consumption, delinquent and hedonistic behavior, and countercultural life styles.

Depression: For many years, those who joined the Mizo army were separated from their homes and families, not being able to see love ones was stressful enough, not only was that, they were on a constant move all the time as they were hunted by the Indian army and relentlessly battling with them, sometimes they went

on without proper food for days, which was very stressful for them and for some it further led to depression. Same stressful feelings happened with the family and friends of the Mizo army at home, not being able to see their love ones for a long time and not knowing they were death or alive might hugely contributed to the feeling of depression.

Depression is characterized by a dejected mood, a loss of motivation and a disinclination on the par t of the individual to become involved in the events around him. It can furthermore be experienced as tiredness, a feeling of worthlessness and hopelessness, a loss of concentration, appetite, or sexual desire, sleeping problems and a general tendency to withdraw from others. During a guerrilla war, combatants suffering from these adverse symptoms are naturally unable to function as they should and would probably be classified by Hans Binneveld as "psychologically wounded" (Binneveld, 1997).

Major depressive disorder (also known as clinical depression, major depression, unipolar depression, or unipolar disorder) is a mental disorder characterized by a pervasive low mood, low self-esteem, and loss of interest or pleasure in normally enjoyable activities. The term "major depressive disorder" was selected by the American Psychiatric Association for this symptom cluster under mood disorders in the 1980 version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-III) classification, and has become widely used since. The general term depression is often used to describe the disorder, but as it is also used to describe a depressed mood, more precise terminology is preferred in clinical and research use. Major depression is a disabling condition which adversely affects a person's family, work or school life, sleeping and eating habits, and general health. In the United States, approximately 3.4% of people with major depression commit suicide, and up to 60% of all people who commit suicide have depression or another mood disorder.

Major depression is a serious illness that affects a person's family, work or school life, sleeping and eating habits, and general health. Its impact on functioning and well-being has been equated to that of chronic medical conditions such as diabetes.

A person suffering a major depressive episode usually exhibits a very low mood pervading all aspects of life and an inability to experience pleasure in previously enjoyable activities. Depressed people may be preoccupied with, or ruminate over, thoughts and feelings of worthlessness, inappropriate guilt or regret, helplessness, hopelessness, and self hatred. Other symptoms include poor concentration and memory, withdrawal from social situations and activities, reduced sex drive, and thoughts of death or suicide. Insomnia is common: in the typical pattern, a person wakes very early and is unable to get back to sleep. Hypersomnia, or oversleeping, is less common. Appetite often decreases, with resulting weight loss, although increased appetite and weight gain occasionally occur. The person may report multiple physical symptoms such as fatigue, headaches, or digestive problems; physical complaints are the most common presenting problem in developing countries according to the World Health Organization's criteria of depression. Family and friends may notice that the person's behaviour is either agitated or lethargic. Older depressed persons may have cognitive symptoms of recent onset, such as forgetfulness, and a more noticeable slowing of movements. In severe cases, depressed people may have symptoms of psychosis such as delusions or, less commonly, hallucinations, usually of an unpleasant nature.

The following studies indicated how much depression engulfs soldiers during the past wars.

During World War I when the military population in France of U.S. soldiers averaged 200,000 persons, the incidence of hospitalized "psychopathic states" was 5 per 1,000, comparable with the overall rate for "character and behavior disorders" in overseas areas in World War II of about 4 per 1,000. However, because diagnostic practices in World War I and World War II differed markedly, true comparability may not exist. The difference in types of casualties in garrison settings was observed by Salmon and Fenton (1929) who commented that the cessation of hostilities did not reduce the need for psychiatric beds -

A number of more recent cases showed simple depression…An intense longing for home was characteristic of this condition. It resembled a set of reactions to which the term "nostalgia" used to be applied and is common in all military expeditions when a period of intense activity is succeeded by an uneventful one.

Severely disabled soldiers—those with amputations, severe thoracic or abdominal wounds, widespread burns, blindness, and brain or spinal cord injuries—generally cannot be returned to combat; thus early psychiatric treatment is often needed in long-term treatment centers to help the veteran adjust to the disability. A variety of psychological responses similar to those described by Kubler-Ross in the dying patient will be encountered: denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance.

The symptomatology associated with nostalgia was consistently compatible with modern descriptions of depression, with complaints, for example, of "moroseness, insomnia, anorexia, and asthenia" in a report by Sauvages (1768). Even this early there were observations that nostalgia might be feigned as a method of avoiding duty. A French physician, De Meyserey, who published a treatise on military medicine in 1754, observed that war and its dangers always produced a fruitful crop of malingerers who must be discriminated from soldiers with "true nostalgia."

Frustration: Frustration is an emotional response to circumstances where one is obstructed from arriving at a personal goal. The more important the goal, the greater is the frustration. It is comparable to anger and disappointment. Sources of frustration may be internal or external. Internal sources of frustration involve personal deficiencies such as a lack of confidence or fear of social situations that prevent one from reaching a goal. Conflict can also be an internal source of frustration when one has competing goals that interfere with one another. External causes of frustration involve conditions outside the person such as a blocked road; or conditions linked to the person's actions but not directly such as lack of money, or lack of sexual activity. In psychology, passive-aggressive behavior is a method of dealing with frustration. According to N.E. Miller (1941) "frustration produces instigation to a number of different types of response, one of which is instigation to some form of aggression."

To the individual experiencing frustration, the emotion may more times than not be attributed to external factors, which are beyond their control. Although mild frustration due to internal factors (e.g. laziness, lack of effoert) 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 behaviour. An individual may react in several different ways. He may repond 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. Anotherexample 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 barrieer or in developing some reasonable alternative approach, the frustrated individual may resort to less adaptive methods of trying to reach hi goal. He may, for example, attack the barrier physically or verbally or both.

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) identified several aspects of the thwarting that presumably affected the strength of the resulting instigation to aggression, giving special attention to (a) the strength of the drive whose gratification was blocked, (b) the degree of interference with this drive satisfaction, and (c) the number of frustrated response sequences. Taking these up in order, the analysis proposed that (a) the greater the satisfaction anticipated on attaining their objective, the more aggressively inclined people will become when kept from reaching their goal; (b) the strength of the resulting instigation to aggression will be reduced by whatever partial gratifications are obtained; and (c) the frustration-generated aggressive inclinations will summate over repeated instances of unsatisfied expectations. In regard to the latter proposition, the Yale group suggested that each thwarting might well leave some residual instigation to aggression, although they also recognized that the leftover

aggressive inclinations probably subside to some degree with the passage of time (Dollard et al., 1939, pp. 31–32). But when these residuals are present, they presumably become added together, so that prior frustrations can intensify the aggressive reaction evoked in the immediate situation. The blockage of a goal reaction generally will not induce interpersonal hostility or aggression unless when they were unexpected (Baron, 1977. The occurrence of aggressive behaviour always presupposes the existence of frustration and the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression (Dollard et al., 1939).

Freud (1933) has also suggested frustration- regression hypothesis that frustration could cause an individual to revert to modes of action that had characterized his behaviour to earlier developmental stage, display 'primitive' behaviour patterns (Barker, Dembo & Lewin,1941). A person may revert to an old, usually immature behaviour to ventilate feelings of frustration and causes problems in the individual's life. According to Dembo and Lewin (1956) the character of regressive behaviour is defective speech , homesickness, escapist attitude, lack of self control thinking , excessive day dreaming etc.

Maier (1956) makes it clear that frustration is a terminal responses and not a means to an end, and fixated behaviour deriving from frustration as being Stereotyped and extremely persistent. It is the state in which an individual becomes obsessed with an attachment to another person, being or object (in human psychology): 'A strong attachment to a person or thing, especially such an attachment formed in childhood or infancy and manifested in immature or neurotic behaviour that persists throughout life'.

Frustration has its own system. It has four modes of reactions to a situation - Aggression, Resignation, Fixation, and Regression. Aggression indicates frustration dynamics in hostile situation, resignations the extreme escapism from reality, regression is the condition to go back and fixation is the compulsive type of behaviour (Chauhan & Tiwari, 1972).

In Resignation behavioural, there is extreme elimination of needs, no plans, no future orientation, withdrawal from social contacts, isolation, lack of interest in

surroundings etc. Persons who are severely frustrated in a given situation may try to escape or withdraw from that situation, resigned to the fact that their conditions are more likely to worsen than to improve as one suspects that they are fallen prey to other of the powerful nationalist elites. Resignation may also refer to: state of uncomplaining, utter frustration.

Aggression as a behavioural phenomenon indicates that Aggression Behaviour may stem from learned habits of responding as well as from excessive (Bandura 1965). It may be expressed in terms of irritation; quarrelling and fighting, disrespect to elder's negative reaction to traditional and believes etc. Berkowitz (1965a) proposed: (a) that frustration induces an emotional reaction – anger – that "creates only a readiness for aggressive acts"; and (b) that "aggressive responses will not occur, even given this readiness, unless there are suitable cues, stimuli associated with the present or previous anger instigators. Objects having some connection with aggression generally may also have this cue property". Furthermore, Berkowitz sought to restrict the universal claim that all aggression presupposes frustration by suggesting that in the absence of frustration, exposure to suitable cues can lead to the formation and evocation of aggressive habits.

The most basic precondition for insurgency is frustration and the belief that this cannot be ameliorated through the existing political system. This may be widespread among a population or limited to radical elite which then has to convince the more passive population of the need for violent change. A conspiratorial history and culture are also important. In such societies, insurgents can utilize or take over existing patterns of underground activity, webs of secret societies, or widespread criminal activity. A society already accustomed to conspiratorial activity is a naturally fertile ground for insurgency.

There are several studies in the literature offering evidence that high levels of aggressive drive can be anxiety arousing (Schachter (1957) found a trend in his data indicating that the subjects rated as being moderately angry after frustration manifested a nor-epinephrine-like physiological response, whereas the subjects rated as being either mildly or intensely angry, showed an anxiety type of physiological reaction (epinephrine-like). Along similar lines, Hokanson (1961) demonstrated that the subjects who admit to strong feelings of anger on personality tests manifest more

of an anxiety type of physiological response following frustration than do the subjects who get low aggression scores on the tests. The study provides further evidence in support of the contention that anxiety results in reduced manifestations of overt hostility. There is ample evidence suggesting that increase in systolic blood pressure is a reflection of anxiety (Schachter, 1957); thus the significant negative correlation between systolic increases during frustration and subsequent pressure exerted per shock in the high anxiety condition indicates that the greater the physiological manifestations of anxiety during an instigation to aggression, the less the vigor of post-frustration hostile acts. Another line of indirect evidence pertaining to the reduction in aggressive tendencies, presumably because of the arousal of anxiety, comes from the significant negative correlation between pressure exerted per shock and ratings of anger felt during frustration. It will be recalled that this anger rating was obtained after that subject had an opportunity to administer shocks to the experimenter. The negative relationship thus indicates that the greater the vigour of the subject's response while he was aggressing against the frustrator, the less his subsequent rating of how angry he was during frustration, as if the previous anger were now being denied. This finding conforms to Berkowitz' (1958) contention that high intensity of aggressive behaviour may provoke guilt and/or aggression-anxiety which in turn tends to reduce subsequent manifestations of aggression. Of added interest are the correlations between pressure per shock and systolic changes occurring during and after the expression of aggression towards the experimenter. The pattern of changes indicates that the vigour of response is positively correlated with increase in systolic blood pressure during the actual expression of aggression, but negatively correlated with elevation of blood pressure when the aggressive behavior is completed. These findings suggest that while overt aggression may momentarily increase certain physiological activities, it is also associated with a later reduction in those activity levels. Worchel (1957) suggested a similar cathartic-like reduction in "tension" following the expression of aggression in his study of frustration produced interferences with intellectual performance. The present findings are only suggestive, however, owing to the possible operation of sequence effects and homeostatic controls on the course of blood pressure during the latter part of the experiment. The overall results of this study suggest that both number of aggressive acts and the vigor with which aggressive behavior is carried out may be reliable indicators of hostile motivation.

While neither measure provided entirely consistent data, their potential usefulness in studying the relationship between physiological and behavior processes in the area of aggression is indicated.

Frustration is one among many dynamic factors that influence behavior, and in the flow of life it rarely if ever exists without the blending of other factors. Although the authors of Frustration and Aggression have recognized that "a number of antecedent conditions must sometimes all be present before any instigation occurs", they have not adequately, recognized other complicating factors, and have too largely ignored the correlative complexity of expression of aggression. No aggressive act is the simple atomistic expression of feeling toward another as the catharsis view assumes. Therefore it is not true that the expression of hate or antagonism necessarily releases and dissipates that feeling.

As Dollard pointed out in Social Forces, our hurting others may make us fear them, and therefore cause us to be stirred up further. Perhaps people realize that whatsoever they sow, that shall they also reap. Hate still leads to hate. It is probably not true as Gardner Murphy has claimed that "Most people forget that the gun kicks when fired . . ." The fact is that most people do realize that the gun does kick when fired and that is the reason that the expression of hate makes one hate more. The tension of our feelings may also not be released because we may have a sense of guilt or shame from hurting others. Apparently, in an attempt to be scientifically universal, the aggression hypothesis of the Yale group has been formulated in such an abstract form that it has been stripped of the human variability necessary for it to be psychologically valid. Neither frustration nor aggression is a simple entity to which a specific remedy such as catharsis is applicable in all cases. The theory of catharsis has about as much validity for behavior as castor oil has as a medicine. Because castor oil may be useful for treating certain cases of constipation, we would not be warranted in using it to cure flat feet. Frustration often results in aggression, but frustration does not necessarily cause aggression. Moreover, aggression can occur in the absence of frustration. This conclusion is in agreement with Sargent's view that "Certain kinds of behavior which are definitely aggressive seem to be the socially sanctioned ways of behaving in some communities (e.g., a tough city slum area or a primitive culture).

Such behavior may well be learned and practiced without having its origin, necessarily, in frustration"

The concept that unacceptable aggressive or hostile impulses that may be "displaced" to targets more suitable than the original one has been with us in psychology at least since the writings of Sigmund Freud. However, it is primarily as a result of the explicit formulation of frustration-aggression theory that concerted experimental test of this proposition has been attempted in diverse areas. One specific formulation derived from these conceptualizations is that increasing personal frustration may have, as one consequence, an increase in expression of prejudice. Such a theoretical notion has been referred to as a "scapegoat" theory of prejudice.

There is notable finding in an experiment done by Cowen, Landes and Schaet (1959) that there is the significant increase in anti-Negro feelings following experimental induction of frustration. Such a datum offers additional support for the existence of the scapegoat phenomenon and is quite consistent with earlier findings of Miller and Bugelski (1993). Of incidental interest is the consistent trend observed on three of the subscales for male subjects to show greater prejudice (as well as greater increase in prejudice following frustration on the Anti-Negro scale) than do females. This finding too is in line with empirical evidence and theoretical expectations discussed elsewhere.

According to one view (Geen, 1975), frustration results in aggression when it increases arousal in the presence of cues associated with aggression. Recent reports indicate that the extent to which frustrating events are perceived as aversive and thereby increase arousal is a function of the extent to which such events are perceived as controllable (Glass, et al, 1973). Perception of controllability is related to the characteristics of the particular situation in which frustration occurs. Such perception, however, may have personality as well as situational determinants. Specifically, one's locus of control (Phares, 1976), that is, trans-situational beliefs about one's ability to exercise control over outcomes, may influence the extent to which frustration results in aggression. Those who generally do not believe they can control outcomes (external locus of control) are expected to exhibit greater aggression in response to frustration than those who generally believe they can control outcomes (internal locus of control). Kiran Bhalia and Sanford Golin, University of Pittsburgh experiment

tested this hypothesis. Their experiment was concerned with the cognitive control of frustration-produced aggression. Their finding results showed that generalized expectancies about one's ability to control outcomes can influence aggression in response to frustration in a manner similar to that previously reported for situational induced expectancies about controllability (Donnerstein & Wilson, 1976): The less the believed control, the greater the aggression.

In their now classic monograph, Frustration and Aggression, Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrcr, and Sears (1939) hypothesized that the total strength of the "instigation to aggression" within an individual is a positive function of three aspects of the frustrations he had suffered: "1) the strength of the instigation to the frustrated response, 2) the degree of interference with the frustrated response, and 3) the number of frustrated response-sequences". The finding made by Leonard Berkowitz is consistent with the frustration-aggression hypotheses advanced by Dollard, Doob, et al. (1939). The 'Repeated frustration and expectations in hostility arousal' paper by Leonard Berkowitz suggested that unexpected frustrations produce a stronger aggressive reaction than anticipated frustrations because, as a result of the hypothesized contrast effect, the former probably are evaluated as being more severe.

Dollard et Al (1939), argued that *'the occurrence of aggression presupposes frustration [...] Frustration produces instigations to a number of different types of responses, one of which is an instigation to some form of aggression'*.

There was some evidence supporting this hypothesis. Doob and Sears (1939) reported that when participants were asked to imagine frustrating and non-frustrating situations, they generally felt angry in the frustrating situations.

This hypotheses was attacked because it failed to account for justified and unjustified frustration. When Doob and Sear's experiments were redone with justified frustration, then anger decreased significantly.

Other critics pointed to environmental cues to aggression, such as Berkowitz's aggression effect. When participants were electrocuting each other, the presence of a weapon, a symbol associated with aggression and violence, the levels of electrocution increased.

Given these criticisms, Berkowitz reformulated the theory. Berkowitz's "*behaviorist/neo-associationist*" position argues that aggression is a more general example of the relationship between unpleasant stimuli and negative affect. Negative affect is simply unpleasant emotions and feelings, such as anxiety, anger, annoyance, or pain. This negative affect can trigger either "fight or flight", as well as a set of associated thoughts and reactions related to such experiences. Whether fight or flight occurs depends on a number of factors. These can include:

- How the individual examines and controls their feelings

- How the individual analyses the situation

In some instances, this process of deliberation may be rather short or may be avoided altogether. There is a variety of evidence that supports Berkowizt's theory. People have often been seen to attack a target even if they know that attacking a target can not remove the negative affect - for example, when a motorist attacks his/her car out of frustration.

Soldiers less exposed to combat and presenting with personality problems may be called loneliness and frustration casualties. Huffman reported that only 48 of 610 soldiers (8%) seen in Vietnam from 1965 to 1966 suffered combat-related stress, while Jones found combat-related stress in 18 of 47 soldiers (38%) seen in a similar hospital setting (September–December 1966). These 18 cases, however, were given character and behavior disorder diagnoses.

Burnout is similar to chronic combat stress reaction in that it is a state of hypo-arousal that occurs as a result of chronic exposure to stressors. The signs and symptoms of the two syndromes are similar. Manifestations of chronic combat reaction include depression, paranoia, decreased tolerance for frustration, excessive complaining, and withdrawal from social interaction, sleep disturbances, weight loss, and abuse of alcohol and drugs. The differences between burnout and chronic combat stress reaction may be more quantitative than qualitative, the two conditions differing in intensity of the stressor (combat versus more mundane peacetime occupational stressors) and intensity of the response.

Empirical study of college student's hypothetical responses to aggression from another nation state examined personality styles in addition to experimental condition -Persons higher in dominance almost always advocated for more aggressive retaliation than those who were more submissive. A similar but less robust or reliable trend was found for greater aggression in more conservative students than those that were more liberal -Anticipated reactions were similar for military and terrorist attacks. -Men and women showed similar levels of conflict in their reactions, unless a peace treaty was in place, in which women were more forgiving and men more aggressive.

Jager (1981), however, found no common pattern in attitudes toward violence, neither ambivalence nor attraction, among the West German terrorists. Some individuals reported a strong prior aversion to aggression.

In the case of the Mizo insurgency, the Mizo army after years of combat with the Indian army did not meet any of their demand and they did not win any of what they were fighting for. It was believed that the Mizo armies were very much frustrated and their frustration further let to aggression which means more violence.

Some psychologists see aggression mainly as the result of the frustration and anger produced in the individual as his desires are thwarted, at first by parents, and later, by others who have more power, by society's customs and laws, and by biological limits.

Many psychologists see aggression as the result of our id's drive for pleasure (the primal motivation). In cases, the ego may realize that it can let the id run free (a powerful nation may, for example, overpower a weaker one). If the ego sees no strategic reason to restrain the id, and if the superego is able to be convinced to step aside (excluding the intended victim from its moral protection, perhaps by accepting a propagandistic, demonized portrait of the enemy), then aggression may be unleashed. Just the same as a child who wants a shiny toy may push away a weaker child who is already playing with that toy, one nation or group of people, may fall upon another.

On the other hand, if the id, with its primal desires, is too tightly repressed by the ego, or superego, in response to external conditions or moral indoctrination, it may seethe within the human psyche, until, unable to bear the pressure of denial any longer, it explodes outwards in rebellion, overpowering the ego's attempts to restrain

it, and launching the individual or nation into irrational and counterproductive forms of aggression, in its desperate effort to attain what is beyond its reach, yet too ardently desired to accept living without. In the process, rationality is lost, or relegated to second place. Unable to stop the madness, reason then attempts to wrap the madness up within a new sense of order and logic, giving an apparently rational form and aim to something that is utterly unreasonable.

Another psychological theory for explaining the manifestation of human aggression that aggression links to the preservation of individual self-esteem. Whereas many scholars and scientists understand the link between aggression and the instinct for physical self-preservation, this theory maintains that it is the individual's quest to love himself - which is a crucial motivational component of his ability to preserve his life - that is the source of much of our aggression. These psychologists believe that when our self-love is threatened, aggressive instincts are awakened within us, as a tool for the defence of the self. The attacks which trigger the rise of this aggression in us could be in the form of criticism, humiliation, indifference, deprivation, abandonment, or betrayal: anything that makes us feel less worthwhile, less valuable, and on some level, less deserving of life. Furthermore, the attacks do not have merely to be against us. These theorists maintain that during the course of our lives, we transfer much of our self-love to others - a form of bonding that also enlarges our identity, fusing us emotionally with others. Thus, we may come to love our family, and our country, as other aspects of our new, enlarged selves. Naturally, if these are threatened or criticized, our aggressive instincts may be unleashed, just as surely as if we, ourselves, were under attack. According to these theorists, although the drive to love the self exists to motivate the drive to preserve the self, the drive to preserve one's self-love is actually stronger than the drive to preserve one's life. Frequently, psychologists have found, aggression may be "displaced", directed not against what has truly provoked it, but against a substitute target. Thus, the man mistreated at work, may vent his anger, not against his boss, but against his wife, his kids, his dog. In the same way, a people essentially enraged by the dynamics of its own society, may have its aggression channelled against another society that has nothing to do with its own dilemma. In fact, this is a way that clever leaders, sitting on top of unjust systems which abuse their own people, have often diverted the

aggression that could have produced rebellions against *them*, against innocent peoples and nations, instead.

According to Sociobiology theory, genetic dynamics, applicable to human beings as well as animals, have rooted aggressiveness deeply into our biological nature. Yet the sociobiologists insist that this aggressiveness is not all-powerful, but only one component of our human nature, a resource that is triggered in certain situations, and one which can, at least, be partially offset by other innate "biological" components of our mind, including our capacity to reason (which also has great "survival value").

In the case of human beings, the sociobiological dynamics which are said to have shaped us are deemed to be even more complex. Being "social animals", our biological resource of aggressiveness inherited from more primitive life forms on the evolutionary ladder, has become adapted to group life. Since the ability of humans to cooperate in social groups was crucial to the survival of our species, the same as with the wolf pack or baboon tribe, we developed ways of managing the manifestations of aggressiveness within the social group, so that it could continue to function coherently and effectively, providing us with its benefits. Rather than fighting against one another for the resources needed to sustain life, members of the group cooperated to procure resources for the entire group, which, therefore, became the unit of survival (this is a development which we are said to have inherited from certain forms of apes, which also lived in social groups). In cases, the "ranges" of particular human groups developed into "territories" (which some forms of "solitary" animals also claim). These "territories" might then be defended against other human groups, in order to guard the resource base of the group.

Certain behavioural propensities, including the capacity for aggression, are common to virtually all humans. This does not mean that they are genetically determined. "Human nature" is a consequence of common genetic factors and of ubiquitous factors in the environment. The combination of genetic endowment and environmental encountered in development that may leads presence of aggression in every individual. But that does not mean that aggressive behaviour stems from an innate "drive" that must be discharged in some way; there is neither psychological (Berkowitz, 1993) nor cross-cultural evidence for such a view. Humans have the

capacity to be aggressive and altruistic, cooperative and cantankerous; the behaviour shown depends on a host of developmental, experiential, social, and circumstantial factors.

Within that framework, aggressive acts are seldom due solely to aggressive motivation; other motivations are usually present. For instance, the behaviour may involve an attempt to acquire an object or situation, which for present purposes we may call acquisitiveness. There may also be a tendency to show off — assertiveness. Furthermore, aggression usually involves risk of injury for the attacker, so that it is combined with self-protective or withdrawal responses. Thus, whether or not aggression actually occurs will depend not only on the individual's aggressiveness, but also on motivations of other types.

Individual aggression is often categorized into a number of types. For instance, one system distinguishes "instrumental aggression," deliberate and concerned primarily with obtaining an object or position or access to a desirable activity; "emotional aggression," hot-headed and angry; "felonious aggression," occurring in the course of a crime: and "dissocial aggression," regarded as appropriate by the reference group or gang, but not so regarded by outsiders (e.g., Tinklenberg & Ochberg, 1981). Such categories, though useful for some purposes, usually turn out to be less clear-cut than they might appear for an obvious reason: a variety of motivations may contribute to a single act, and they may be present in various strengths and combinations. The very fact that such categorization systems can be only partially satisfactory is in itself an indication of the motivational complexity of even apparently simple aggressive acts.

It is convenient to divide the factors contributing to an aggressive act into three categories, with dialectical relations between the levels of social complexity operating in each case. These three categories follow:

Ontogenetic factors. The tendency of an individual to behave aggressively depends in part on genetic factors and in part on experience. Physical aggressiveness tends to be greater in boys than in girls, to increase with age up to adolescence or early adulthood, and then to decline. In our own culture, attention has focused on the roles of classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and observational learning, and

on relationships within the family. These affect both motivational propensities and the acquisition of cognitive capacities, the latter including abilities for conflict resolution. Relationships with individuals outside the family may also be important, including especially those who serve as role models and the peer group with its norms. The behavior of the socializing agent, whether intra- or extra-familial, will be influenced by the norms and values of the group and the society to which the agent belongs, and these norms and values may differ with the nature of the targeted individual. Thus parents may apply different norms for boys and girls, or for firstborns and later looms. Furthermore, the norms and values operating will be influenced by, and will influence, the mass media and other channels of social influence. Thus, the aggressive propensities of individuals can be understood only through the dialectical relations between individuals, their relationships and group membership, and the socio-cultural structure or structures operating.

Predisposing factors. Across societies, violence is more frequent in those that tolerate or extol violent acts by individual or state, do not distribute income or wealth equitably, and lack social and political institutions linking their members in networks of communal obligation (Gartner, 1996). However, the issues here are complex. While political violence may provide a context for increase in criminal violence (e.g. Liddell, Kemp & Moema, 1991; Straker et al., 1996), homicide rates tend to decrease in countries actually at war, probably because of the increased integration (Lester, 1992). After the war, however, homicide rates tend to increase. In addition, the propensity of an individual at any particular time may be influenced also by a variety of contextual factors, including the current social situation and its attendant norms, and the presence and density of other individuals.

Eliciting factors. Whether an aggressive act is actually elicited depends on further factors, including the individual's current motivational state; frustration of current goals; pain, fear, and other aversive factors; and arousal, the nature of the opponent or victim, and the availability of weapons. It depends also on a variety of inhibitory factors, such as fear of punishment and the possibility of alternative courses of action (Goldstein, 1986).

The extreme of the continuum from individual aggression to international war can be distinguished by three criteria:

First, international war involves conflict between societies, each of which is itself complex and consists of many overlapping groups. Any negotiations between potential combatants take place not between unified nation states but between large bureaucracies representing diverse interests (Druckman & Hopmann. 1989). Indeed maintaining the integration of the groups within each side of the conflict may be a major preoccupation for leaders.

Second, the role of leaders is paramount, both political leaders and military leaders at every level.

Third, and most importantly, international war is best seen as an institution. The concept of institution perhaps needs some elaboration here. In our society, marriage is an institution, with husband and wife as constituent roles. Each role has certain rights and duties associated with it. Parliament is an institution; with a large number of constituent roles — prime minister, ministers, members of Parliament, members of the voting public, and so on. Again, the incumbents of each role have certain duties that they are expected to perform, and certain rights consequent upon their roles. In the same way, war must be seen as an institution with a large number of constituent roles, those of politicians, generals, officers, soldiers, munitions workers, transport workers, air raid wardens, doctors, nurses, and many others. Indeed, virtually every member of the civilian population may come to have a role in total war. Each role is associated with its particular rights and duties, and it is the individuals' duties in the roles that they occupy in the institution of war that primarily motivates their behavior. Satisfaction in duty well done contributes to self-esteem.

The motivations that are responsible for individual aggression play little part in total war. Hope of material gain is unimportant, at any rate amongst the combatants. Hope of increasing the status that the institution of war can confer with promotion or decoration may play a minor role. Fear is certainly an issue, and can contribute to defensive aggression, though the excessive arousal associated with fear reduces military efficiency (Marshall, 1947). The issues involved in the formation and dynamics of groups, discussed in the last section, are of course relevant at every level in the complex organization of societies at war. Loyalty to and a tendency to cooperate with comrades may be a major issue, though this is to be seen as part of the combatant's duty. But aggressive motivation is seldom an important issue in

international war, and when it is, as at My Lai, it is often not condoned. It is most likely to be important in short-term interactions, especially in religious and ethnic wars, but the primary motivation stems from duty associated with the role occupied in the institution of war. International war may cause aggression, but aggressiveness does not cause war.

There are people in every society--usually young males--with a propensity for aggression and violence. Insurgency attracts them since it is more prestigious and legitimate than crime, and has a better chance of gaining internal or external support. It offers them a chance to justify imposing their will on others. This is amplified when a nation has a long history of violence or major military demobilization which increases the number of thugs and puts many of them out of work. In many parts of the world, whole generations have never known a time without brutality and bloodshed. Sierra Leone is a perfect example of this.

Wiener and his colleague, (2001), used the "non-moral" framework of evolutionary psychology to explain the occurrence (and non-occurrence) of "coalitional aggression," a term they use to refer to war and other forms of collective aggression.

Stated simply, the male age composition hypothesis claims that "countries with relatively large numbers of young males are more likely to experience episodes of coalitional aggression."

Pointing to war's long history, Christian Mesquida and Neil Wiener (2001) called war a "natural phenomenon, in accord with human nature and part of human nature." He explained that human (especially young male) tendencies to engage in coalitional aggression must be an advantageous trait; if it were not, natural selection would have ensured the trait's extinction by now. Instead, Christian Mesquida and Neil Wiener (2001) suggested that coalitional aggression appears to have evolved over the years, with human physiology and chemistry adapting to maximize capabilities for war. In particular, "sexual selection" accounts for coalitional aggression: young men use the resources available to them to attract a mate and reproduce. Males with a high social status (as judged by their culture) are preferred as mates, and in many cultures men can raise their status through war. In poor countries,

aggression may be the only resource young men possess to gain a spouse. "Advantaged females" mate with "advantaged males," and consequently the genetic, cognitive, and emotional make-up that supports coalitional aggression is passed on to the next generation. Although war is dangerous, "failure to take risky behaviour leads to a worse consequence—failure to reproduce," Wiener (2001) explained.

A distinct branch of the psychological theories of war are the arguments based on evolutionary psychology. This school tends to see war as an extension of animal behaviour, such as territoriality and competition. However, while war has a natural cause, the development of technology has accelerated human destructiveness to a level that is irrational and damaging to the species. The earliest advocate of this theory was Konrad Lorenz (1996).

These theories have been criticized by scholars such as John G. Kennedy, who argue that the organized, sustained war of humans differs more than just technologically from the territorial fights between animals. Ashley Montagu strongly denies such universalistic instinctual arguments, pointing out that social factors and childhood socialization are important in determining the nature and presence of warfare. Thus while human aggression may be a universal occurrence, warfare is not and would appear to have been a historical invention, associated with certain types of human societies (Montague, 1979).

Repression by foreign occupation or by colonial powers has given rise to a great many national liberation movements that have sought recourse in terrorist tactics, guerrilla warfare, and other political means. Despite their use of terrorist methods, some liberation movements enjoy considerable support and legitimacy among their own constituencies, and sometimes also from segments of international public opinion.

Terrorism can increase communal identity even when few members of a community consciously support political violence. Ethnic terrorists have an advantage over other terrorists: their agenda usually has some resonance with a preexisting, well defined group of people. Thus, their own acts are often considered retaliation or rebellion against repression rather than acts of random violence.

When repression comes from a rival population, ethnic identity is particularly likely to become defined in opposition to both the state and rival communities. This change can lead to a stronger, more distinct identity among nonmilitant as well as greater support for an insurgency or terrorist group.

There are important controversies over dynamics of terrorism which have not yet been formally addressed in quantitative social research. We suggest a class of stochastic models for social contagion which may help to shed light on theses controversies. Empirical estimates of model parameters were obtained from data on international terrorism in 16 countries over 1968-1978. We find some evidence suggesting that the tendency of acts of terrorism to incite further violence is more easily reversed in less democratic, poorer, and less well educated societies. This suggests that reversal of a terrorism 'epidemic' is more likely under conditions facilitating repression than reform, and that more open societies face particular difficulties in responding to terrorism effectively.

A psychological phenomenon has been observed when traditional values appear threatened by rapid social change; for some there is a hardening of established attitudes, a move to a reactionary posture. Thus there is a polarization of attitudes and a psychological blueprint for deviant, even violent, behavior. The psychology of the group involved in protest, demonstrations, and even rebellion can be traced by some to the humans being's secret love of violence, which is often denied and which they tend to repress, but which becomes manifest in activities as diverse as lynching, boxing, and football. One form of mental illness that seems most applicable to the terroristic character is paranoia. However, middle-class idealistic students are most fascinated by Marxism, especially the words and thoughts of Trotsky, Lenin, and Lao Tse-tung, but by traditional communism, which they perceive as merely another form of bureaucratic repression (Hassela, 1997).

Insights into the mind of the terrorist and the origin of terrorist organizations are also provided by studies of the various defense mechanism that are so basic in our studies of the human psych, particularly the ego defense mechanisms of projection, denial, repression, displacement, rationalization, and reaction formation.

In 1938, P.Eisenberg and P.F.Lazarsfeld published a 'final' statement of social psychological theory of unemployment (in Inter-war Britain) and so completed the only systematic analysis of the effects of unemployment on the individual and the family. The theory suggested that men and women went through 'stages' in their reaction to unemployment- from optimism to resignation and despair and these stages were accompanied by a progressive deterioration in the individual's social and intellectual capacities.

After years of violence and war the people of Mizoram were very sick of war which was believed to have led them to feeling of frustration, which may be in the form of resignation, repression, fixation and aggression.

A resignation is the formal act of giving up or quitting one's office or position. Resignation may also refer to: state of uncomplaining, utter frustration. Unprotesting acceptance of something: agreement to something, usually given reluctantly but without protest.

According to the behavior (reactive drive) theory approach frustration-thwarted expectation; the inability to reach a desired state- is the cause of aggression. According to the social learning theory approach, an aversive experience- which leads to a desire to terminate it – produces arousal. Frustration or anger also produces arousal; but – as Bandura shows- not all arousal produces frustration or aggression, yet all frustration produces arousal. The instinct theory – viewing aggression as a primary drive that initiates behavior – would surely also accept that arousal must occur in order to translate the drive state into actual behavior. Aggression with the aim to dominate (described by Lorenz) or the aggressive behavior in the Freudian approach must trigger the same sequence- arousal followed by behavior- regardless of whether the initial stimulus was a signal from another animal or an internal imbalance.

Arousal can be accounted for by accepting the concept of a basic curiosity drive. The need to know – to make sense of the world around us and our position in this world – could in itself account for arousal, whenever incoherent perception of an individual and his environment occurs. As Berlyne (1971) have shown arousal to be high whenever uncertainty is high- especially within a situation perceived to have

marked consequences, such as any combat situation might involve. Thus, signals challenging the territorial imperative, the desire for stability of existing mores, or the thwarting of needs- all trigger the need to reestablish equilibrium to attain a coherent perception.

Taggert, Carruthers and Somerville (1978) have shown that adrenaline exertion- a clear index of arousal- is associated with both aggression and uncertainty. One can assume that such arousal must also be associated with other coping strategies.

If we look at the seven examples of coping behavior listed by Bandura, we see that three of them would be classified as "aggressive" according to the mapping strategies: aggression, performance, and constructive problem solving. Four styles of behavior have in common the avoidance of conflict and aggression: dependency, withdrawal and resignation, psychosomaticization, and self-anesthetization. The first group is aimed at the modification of the aversive stimulus; the second, at adapting to it.

While many are strengthened by the challenges of combat, others return with a changed view of themselves and the world around them. For some, reactions to their experiences may be short-lived (perhaps lasting the first few months of reintegration back into civilian life). For others, healing may require long-term vigilance and care (lasting months, years and even decades).

Typical symptoms of combat-related PTSD (in no particular order, with additional symptoms to follow): Survivor guilt, Cynicism, Frustration, Fear, Negative self-image, Problems with intimacy, Distrust, Loneliness, Suicidal feelings, Preoccupation with thoughts of the enemy, Revenge fantasies, Addiction, Alcoholism, Thinking that feelings are meaningless, Feeling powerless or hopeless, Resignation ("don't care").

In his fascinating book The Last Great War, published a fortnight ago, Adrian Gregory and friends (1979) shows that the notion that Britain was carried to war on a wave of patriotic enthusiasm is false. The crowds that gathered around Buckingham Palace and in Downing Street when war was declared seem to have been more curious than excited. Most people appear to have greeted the war with resignation or dismay.

Nor does voluntary enlistment provide clear evidence of enthusiasm. It is true that some wanted to fight, and others saw war as a more exciting prospect that working in a dead-end office job. But they showed that voluntarism wasn't all that it seemed. For many men fighting was the only employment on offer. The largest numbers volunteered not at the very beginning of war, but after the disaster at Mons on August 24th, when it became clear that there was a genuine threat to national defense.

During and immediately after the experience of intense fear, helplessness, or horror the individual is consumed by the need to cope, and might function effectively or even heroically. For example, during a firefight, the soldier fires back, and may even charge the enemy.

Stress Coping strategies: Coping depends largely on the resources that the individual has at his disposal, which is his general resistance resources (GRRs). When there are not enough resources available coping is not possible and the situation may turn into one of distress. This links with Selye's GAS theory (Figure 2 above). At the stage of alarm reaction (AR) the fight or flight response manifests itself. If the stressor persists and there are sufficient GRRs to deal with the stressor, coping becomes effective. That is when the individual enters into the SR. Resources during this stage may be of a material nature which would include money, clothes, food or goods. Alternatively they may be physical in context such as health, diet or attractiveness. Social position and personal qualities including leadership, self esteem and optimism may also be valuable assets to help an individual to cope with stress. Other factors that are regarded as resistance resources are educational background and a sound general knowledge of affairs and even cultural buttresses such as traditions, customs and rituals. The more GRRs a person has to his disposal the greater his chances become to succeed in coping with stress.

Once coping is successfully accomplished or completed the individual will return to normal physiological and psychological levels, in other words he or she has adjusted to the situation. However, if the individual fails to cope, stress will continue and the individual eventually moves into the stage of exhaustion (SE). The

consequences of prolonged stress will follow. These range from physiological illness to psychological changes in mood such as depression, anxiety and even burnout.

It is generally recognized that while the body responds to a challenge or a threat by, for example, faster heart beat, increased blood-pressure and rapid breathing, an individual may also experience secondary or associated effects, such as irritability or loss of appetite. Baum et al. stated that stress responses go far beyond the activation of the hormonal systems and the organ systems which are subsequently affected. They claimed that in a situation of stress the whole body reacts. Nearly all hormones, most muscle groups, the digestive as well as the immune systems are affected. When a stressful situation demands sudden action, a feeling of excessive fatigue can often be experienced afterwards. These responses are all part of stress. Thus, it is important to note that, while stress may help an individual to perform better when under threat, it may also cause certain adverse secondary effects. Aside from the wear and tear on the body that is generated by repeated or prolonged stress, other less desirable out comes may result . These may range from physiological dysfunctions to tissue damage or may even result in death. Furthermore, physiological stress, the increased body alertness that has been discussed here, may lead to psychological and emotional stress, inducing other cognitive and emotional experiences such as fear, depression, worry, sleeplessness, crying spells and frustration. On the other hand, once a stressful task has been successfully completed, the individual often feels emotionally good about it. The psychological after-effects of distress have been widely researched and include frustration, aggressiveness, helplessness, withdrawal and decreased sensitivity to others. There is additional evidence that anxiety, fear or symptoms of apprehension experienced at high stress levels frequently result in acute episodes of panic. Baum and his friends (1997) added that depressive disorders may also occur. For such an individual the future looks bleak and he believes nothing can be done to change this condition. It has, moreover, been found that in cases where individuals were able to cope successfully with their stress, there were fewer negative after-effects.

According to Sheridan and Radmacher (1992) coping can be either problem focused or emotion-focused depending on the type of stressor involved. If the manner of coping is problem focused it signifies gathering information of the problem,

considering the available resources and planning the use of the resources. If, on the other hand, coping is emotion focused the style of the individual involved may vary. A common coping strategy is simply by avoidance or denial of the stressor. Other emotion focused strategies include exercise, humour, work and hobbies. It is usually adopted when the stressor cannot be changed or eliminated.

The term resistance resources also require some explanation. According to the Merriam Webster dictionary a resource can be a source of supply or of support; it can be a source of wealth; it can be an element to which one has recourse to in difficulty and it can be the ability to meet or deal with a situation. The term resource, in its literal sense, means "to raise again" and is derived from the word "resurrection". Stress resistance resources – also called general resistance resources – refer to those resources which the individual may call upon to help him to deal with the stress he experiences. They are sources from which he can draw, just as water is drawn from a well, when it becomes needed. In this study the term general resistance resources (GRRs) will generally be used.

Sheridan and Radmacher (1992) classify resistance resources in a number of categories: Firstly, there are the material resources which would include items such as money, food, clothing and shelter. For the burghers in the guerrilla phase of the war it would also have included objects such as arms and ammunition, horses and a variety of everyday articles which would have made their life easier for them. Secondly there are the physical resources, which include the positive physical attributes of an individual such as his strength, his health or attractiveness. From the perspective of burghers in the veldt, this would have involved qualities such as their physical endurance and the ability to ride and shoot. Intrapersonal resources are the next category and refer to the inner strength that helps an individual to withstand life's daily onslaughts. These include characteristics such as his self acceptance, ego - integrity and ego -identity, giving the individual a stable yet dynamic and flexible sense of the self. These are partly inborn characteristics, but they mostly develop under specific circumstances. Sheridan and Radmacher (1992) identify educational resources as the fourth category. Knowledge is regarded as a particularly valuable resource, *as* it is often a tool whereby material resources may be obtained. Possessing a wide-ranging knowledge was of great importance during the guerrilla war. Finally

there are cultural resources which include traditions, customs and rituals. These resources frequently help the individual to a better comprehension of the implication of the events taking place. It helps to understand that there are certain details that can be relied upon not to change despite the circumstances. At the time of the Anglo-Boer War religion, and spiritual matters, the importance of the republican flag, the observance of 16 December as Dingaan's Day were all cultural resources which provided important emotional support.

This classification of resistance resources are not necessarily the only correct one, but it does supply a convenient base from which to work. It is however always vital to realize that certain resources may give rise to others. For example, inborn physical strength would probably induce greater self confidence within the individual. This classification should therefore be regarded as flexible and subject to change.

Soldiers less exposed to combat and presenting with personality problems may be called loneliness and frustration casualties. Huffman (1970) reported that only 48 of 610 soldiers (8%) seen in Vietnam from 1965 to 1966 suffered combat-related stress, while Jones (1977) found combat-related stress in 18 of 47 soldiers (38%) seen in a similar hospital setting (September–December 1966). These 18 cases, however, were given character and behavior disorder diagnoses.

Coping style means a characteristic or typical manner of approaching or confronting a stressful situation and dealing with it, so it fits nicely with the person-situation approach. There are particular types of situations, such as emergencies, when specific coping behaviours are more likely to be effective and required than other behaviours (i.e., situations where problem-focused responses are more desirable than emotion-focussed responses). If there is a fire in your apartment, it is more effective to try to escape than to screech wildly. In other stressful situations when a variety of coping responses are possible, individual coping styles or preferences may play an important role. Persons may have preferred coping styles, but situational demands may "override" and interact with their preferences. As we shall see shortly both persons and situations affect coping styles. We will focus on three personality styles: task-oriented (or problem focussed) coping, emotion-oriented coping and avoidance-oriented coping.

Task-oriented coping is concerned with purposeful task-oriented efforts focussing on solving the problem, cognitively restructuring it, or attempting to change the situation. *Emotion-oriented* coping is concerned with self-oriented emotion reactions. The goal is to reduce stress, but this is not always accomplished. Responses include emotional reactions, self-preoccupation, and fantasizing. At times, emotion-oriented coping may increase stress. *Avoidance-oriented* coping involves activities and cognitive changes concerned with avoiding the stressful situation, which can occur via *distraction* or *social* diversion.

In order to assess the interaction model of stress, anxiety and coping, it is necessary to have a reliable and valid measure of the key concept of coping, to parallel the reliable and valid anxiety measures. "The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations" (CISS; Endler & Parker, 1999) is a multidimensional measure of coping that has three 16-item factors: task-oriented coping, emotion-oriented coping; and avoidance coping, with the last factor having two sub-factors, namely distraction and social diversion. Persons are asked to indicate, on five-point intensity scales, how they generally react to difficult, stressful or upsetting situations. Items include "schedule my time better", "become very upset", and "take time off and get away from the situation".

An essential ingredient for adjustment is social support. We all need someone to turn to for assistance and emotional calming. Another important factor is how much control we have over our lives. Can we control situations we encounter and how do we cope with them? How do we cope with situations we cannot control?

In a recent study conducted in Berlin, Germany, by Schröder, Schwarzer and Endler (1997), it is found that recovery from surgery of patients undergoing cardiac bypass surgery was facilitated by personal and social resources such as perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and social support. Patients (302 men; 79 women) were surveyed once before and twice after surgery (5-10 days after; and one and one half years later) regarding the quality of life. Their partners (spouses) were surveyed at Time 1. Patients' recovery from surgery at Time 2 and readjustment to normal life one- and one-half years later (Time 3) "could be partly predicted by spouses' perceived self-efficacy and social support as measured at Time 1"

The most efficacious coping style in one situation is not necessarily the most efficacious style in another situation. In a recent study in our laboratory, we examined the effects of experimental and perceived controllability on coping styles and coping efficacy. Forsythe and Compas (1987), and Vitaliano (1990), among others, have discussed the relationships between perceived control of a situation and coping style. In Norman S. Endler's study they examined the congruency ("the goodness of fit hypothesis") between situational and/or perceived control and coping style. They predicted that in situations where participants had control or perceived themselves as having control, task-oriented coping would predominate and coping efficacy would be high. In situations that participants could not control, emotion coping would predominate and coping efficacy would be low.

In their laboratory study (Endler et al., 1997) 80 college students (40 men, 40 women) were asked to solve anagrams of moderate difficulty under conditions of high control ($n = 40$) and low control ($n = 40$) of the stressful situation (solving anagrams under pressure). Two different kinds of control were conceptualized as predictor variables: the participants' subjective *perceived control* of the situation (measured via a 6-item scale) and *experimental control*, defined by the assignment of participants to either a high or low control experimental condition. Participants in the *high control* experimental condition were given no restrictions as to how the anagram task was to be completed (e.g., no time constraints, could solve the anagrams in any order, were permitted to jot down notes, etc.) while participants in the *low control* experimental condition were substantially more restricted in how the task was to be performed.

With respect to experimentally manipulated control (*experimental control)*, analysis of variance revealed that participants in the *high control* condition solved more anagrams than participants in the *low control* condition. There were however, no differences between the experimental conditions with respect to A-state, situation-specific task coping, or situation-specific emotion coping. There were also no gender differences. Participants' subjective perceptions of control (*perceived control*) however, had a much stronger impact. In conducting the analyses, participants who scored among the top third on the perception of control scale ($n = 27$) were compared with participants who scored among the bottom third ($n = 26$). Analyses of variance revealed that higher perceived control is related to solving more anagrams, lower A-

state, less reliance on situation-specific emotion coping and greater reliance on situation-specific task coping. There were no significant main effects for gender. There was however, a significant gender x perceived control interaction effect. When perceived control was low, women relied more on situation-specific task coping than men. When perceived control is high, men rely on situation-specific task coping more than women.

To sum up for both anxiety and situation-specific coping, perceived control is a better predictor than experimental control. For the number of anagrams solved (a cognitive task) both types of control are equally efficacious.

Studies attempting to find predisposition to psychiatric breakdown in combat have revealed more similarities between psychiatric casualties and their fellow soldiers than differences. For example, in a comparison of the combat records of 100 men who suffered psychiatric breakdowns requiring evacuation to a U.S. Army hospital in the United States and an equivalent group of 100 surgical casualties, Pratt found no significant difference in numbers of awards for bravery. Glass remarked, "Out of these experiences came an awareness that social and situational determinants of behavior were more important than the assets and liabilities of individuals involved in coping with wartime stress and strain;…" The reliance on screening to prevent psychiatric casualties was recognized as a failure when large numbers of these casualties occurred during fighting in North Africa. Because no provision for treatment had been made, they were shipped to distant centers from which they never returned to combat.

A common thread binding present-day civilian victims of war is that, as a group, they have been unjustly persecuted and, as individuals, they have suffered immensely, with few individuals or groups coming to their aid. Their stark awareness of the world communities' apathy and indifference is shocking for them. Generally, their persecution does not happen overnight. Instead, it is progressive, and there are at least three stages to their experience (Bustos, 1990).

Initially, both social and political changes occur in the person's home country, resulting in ever-increasing levels of political repression and persecution (Van der Veer, 1998). These may include limits to freedom of speech and movement within the

country, as well as general intimidation by police, army, or paramilitary groups. The usual response is passive acceptance, even indifference, because they do not understand what is happening. Denial, suppression, and repression are the common social psychological defenses erected to dismiss the unclear situation from concern (Whitaker, 2000).

At some point, psychological defenses no longer work, as the political and social conditions worsen (Horowitz, 1998). The person witnesses friends and/or family members taken at night or even killed. Survivors have vividly described the psychological trauma of being arrested, being detained, and even being jailed for no substantive reason (Van der Veer, 1998). Both psychological and physical tortures are typically brought to bear on these individuals. Some undergo brutal forms of torture immediately; others experience a more selectively applied torture, not only to break their psychological feelings of well- being, but also to humiliate and degrade their personhood. The torture takes place in an environment where the victim is helpless and completely at the mercy of the torturers (Dahl, 1989). Thus, torture can be used to promote and carry out a systematic policy of intimidating and destabilizing an entire ethnic community or group. The physical torture procedures not only are premeditated, but are creatively designed to produce the most pain and torment possible to the victim (Applegate, 1969).

There likely is no universal method in developing extremist ideas that justifies terroristic acts of violence. However, four observable stages appear to frame a process of ideological development common to many individuals and groups of diverse ideological backgrounds. This four-stage process is a model designed as a heuristic (trial and error) to aid investigators and intelligence analysts in assessing the behaviors, experiences, and activities of a group or individual associated with extremist ideas. Begins by framing some unsatisfying event or condition as being unjust, blaming the injustice on a target policy, person, or nation, and then vilifying, often demonizing, the responsible party to facilitate justification for aggression. To begin with, an extremist individual or group identifies some type of undesirable event or condition ("it's not right"). - While the nature of the condition may vary, those involved perceive the experience as "things are not as they should be." That is, "it's not right." Next, they frame the undesirable condition as an "injustice"; that is, it does

not apply to everyone ("it's not fair"). - Then, because injustice generally results from transgressive (wrongful) behavior, extremists hold a person or group responsible ("it's your fault"), identifying a potential target. - Last, they deem the person or group responsible for the injustice as "bad" ("you're evil"); after all, good people would not intentionally inflict adverse conditions on others. This ascription has three effects that help facilitate violence. First, aggression becomes more justifiable when aimed against "bad" people, particularly those who intentionally cause harm to others. Second, extremists describe the responsible party as "evil"; dehumanizing a target in this regard further facilitates aggression. Third, those suffering adverse conditions at the hands of others do not see themselves as "bad" or "evil"; this further identifies the responsible person or group as different from those affected and, thus, makes justifying aggression even easier.

To deal with stress, people consciously and unconsciously use various methods of coping as essential life-survival techniques (Gottlieb, 1997). Coping is a goal-directed process in which the individual orients thoughts and behaviours toward the goals of resolving the source of stress and managing Emotional reaction to stress (Lazarus, 1993). Coping styles and strategies mediate between antecedent stressful events, and such consequences as anxiety, psychological distress and somatic complaints. There are three basic coping styles: task-oriented coping, emotional-oriented coping, and avoidance-oriented coping (Endler & Parker, 1999; see figure 3). Note that Avoidance-oriented coping further breaks down into social diversion and distraction-oriented coping.

Task–oriented coping is aimed at purposeful efforts to solve problem; emotion-oriented coping is concerned with emotional reactions that are self-oriented; avoidance-oriented coping describes activities and cognitive changes aimed at avoiding the situation via distraction or social diversion. These constructs are assessed via the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS; Endler & Parker, 1999)
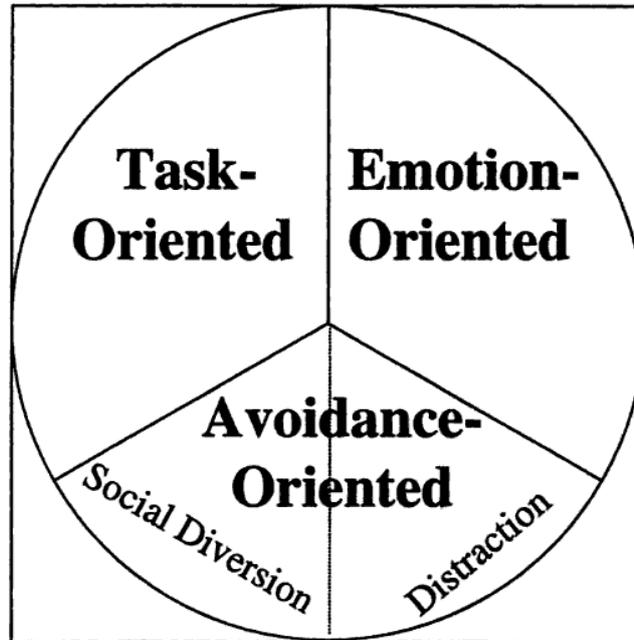
Figure -3 : showing the facets of coping

Task-oriented or problem-focused coping refers to an individual's active efforts to have an impact on, or to deal with, the stressful situation (Endler et al., 1993, 1998; Lazarus **&** Folkman, 1984a). When a person feels competent to handle a stressful situation they typically use a task-oriented response. In other words they take action to meet the requirements of the stressor. This type of response may involve in making changes in one's self, one's surroundings, or both, depending on the situation and circumstances. The action taken could be open (overt) as in showing more affection to a loved one, or it may be hidden (covert) as in lowering your level of expectation or aspiration. The action may involve retreating from, attacking or compromising the problem or situation. If the stressor is a house fire then an appropriate action may be to evacuate (retreat), extinguish the fire (attack), or use a fire extinguisher to clear a path out of the house (compromise). Task-oriented responses tend to deliver positive actions or outcomes, they achieve a goal.

Emotion-oriented or emotion-focused coping involves strategies such as rumination, daydreaming, and efforts to feel differently about the stressful situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984a).Emotion-focused strategies involve releasing pent-up emotions, distracting one-self, managing hostile feelings, meditating, using systematic relaxation procedures, etc.

Avoidance-oriented coping has been conceptualized in two different ways. The most common conceptualization of avoidance coping describes it as efforts to avoid, deny, suppress or anesthetize negative feelings (Fleishman & Fogel, 1994). Generally speaking, this form of avoidance coping has been found to be maladaptive, resulting in greater distress (Billings & Moos, 1981; Fleishman & Fogel, *1994).*

Task-oriented coping is most efficacious in a controllable situation, while emotion-oriented coping is most efficacious in an uncontrollable situation. While avoidance oriented coping may be initially appropriate as a reaction to stress, in the long run task-oriented coping is most efficacious. A number of laboratory studies assessing the multidimensional interaction model are reviewed. These studies have both theoretical and practical implications, and contribute to empirical knowledge about stress, coping processes, and personality.

We use coping strategies to solve personal and interpersonal problems, and seeking to master, minimize or tolerate stress, truama or conflict. Some people will try to get back into the routine of life as soon as possible to regain a sense of control, but others will have difficulty focusing for some time. Both reactions are common responses to crisis. Because everybody experiences stress differently, it is not wise to compare ones "progress" with others or judge other people's reactions and emotions. While many people survive major life stressors without developing significant psychological problems, others may need assistance.

The target research problems and the hypotheses set forth for the conduction of the present study were addressed in the succeeding chapter, the 'Statement of the Problem' .