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CRISIS MANAGEMENT

“There is no longer any such thing as strategy, only crisis management”
(Robert McNamara, 1962)

“After twenty years of smooth crisis management, doubts are being raised as to the allegedly infinite capacity of modern diplomacy to cope with the increasing crises.”
(Daniel Frei, 1982)
INTRODUCTION

Life and crisis were born together and they will live together, till the last sunset. The concept of crisis was born with man, however, its evolution, development and connotations have frequently changed and its horizontal, as well as, vertical expansions and applications are extending day by day, with a fast speed. Manifold and multidimensional communication revolution from era has enhanced the speed of crisis and given it many new shapes. It is a very interesting phenomenon that inventions, discoveries, concepts, hypothesis and terminologies etc. are coined or designed for one specific field, but then they outgrow and enter into many other fields and areas, carrying different meanings, perceptions and interpretations. It is also important to keep in view that linguistic aspects of the terminologies also play a vital role correct interpretation of terminologies.

The caveman did face the crises and probably, the crises for him were the inhospitable environment for his survival. To manage the crisis he did take some steps also. Resultantly, today we are safe in our houses, during wind storms, snow storms, floods and many other natural hazards. There was a time when the man believed in superstitions only. With the passage of time, his experiences and observations proved that many things were just fiction and he could manage many challenges to his survival, which apparently looked to be unmanageable by him. This was beginning of the journey towards factual knowledge and scientific research. Even when the knowledge was well developed, un-scientific and quickly drawn conclusions ruled the intellectual world. It is an undeniable reality that man is very fond of demonstrating his strength and might, to dominate the others. From Habeel and Qabeel, till this movement, this war is continuing and is unending. Generally speaking, crises originate from the acts and behaviour of the human beings.

The concept of crisis became mature after the 1962 Cuban Crisis. Since then, a lot has been written on crisis and it has now become a proper area of study in many countries of the world. The term 'crisis' has become so popular that it is being implied in every field. It is also a big reality that today we are a society, for whom, everything is business and the term “crisis” has also been hijacked by this dominant force. The term ‘crisis’ is also being used in Political Science, Management Sciences and International Relations but different words are being used, which create confusion in clearly understanding the concept of crisis. Terms like ‘Risk and Risk Management’ Disaster and Disaster Management’, conflict, conflict resolution, ‘Crisis Coping’ and ‘Crisis Management, are quite often used in the pertinent literature.

Another aspect also deserves our attention. Since, the terminology related to crisis was basically associated with Cuban Crises, that were real crisis international crises, hence, the term ‘crisis management has been popularly associated with international crisis only. We need to understand that crisis prevail at every level of human life.

In our course we will try to understand the concept of ‘Crisis’ and methodology of ‘Crisis Management’. We will not focus alone, on business or international level. We will restrict to individual and collective levels of human life and practical aspects of the crisis at the national level. Crisis can be divided into two main categories i.e., natural and un-natural (man made). Un-natural crisis are purely created by abnormal human behaviour. Nuclear explosions, over industrialization, dumping of chemical waste, changing the courses of natural water sources, destroying the mountains and forests etc. Natural crisis also occur due to abnormal climatic conditions, weather, disturbance in seasons or calamities like earthquakes, floods, drought, famine, abnormal rains or temperature etc.

Every country in the world has its own peculiarities, climate, circumstances, societal behaviour, systems and sub-systems. It is hence, realistic that a particular country should collect data pertaining to her own land and devise concepts, methods of analysis, decision making process and research skills matching the domestic requirements. It is a standard trend that almost, the whole third world teaches and practices the concepts, theories, doctrines and methodologies, formulated or designed by the West, to meet their own requirements. However, there are countries, who have realized this factor and have started formulating their own concepts and methodologies at theoretical as well as practical level. Countries like Thailand and Hong Kong are eliminating western theories from their syllabi. Keeping this need in view, we will focus on Pakistan, barring few classic examples of global level.

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Our beloved homeland, The Islamic Republic of Pakistan is a small model of the globe. It has been blessed with balanced four reasons, its temperature vary from $55^\circ c - 40^\circ c$, it comprises all types of land forms i.e., deserts, dry mountains, green mountains and snow bound mountains, popularly known as “roof of the world”. It has got rivers, ocean and the best canal system. As far as our economy is concerned, Pakistan is basically an agrarian economy but is not void of industry. Our human resource also varies in life style, habits, cultures and physical as well as mental abilities. Keeping in view, so many diversified factors, no external doctrine or analysis can fully help us, to manage critical situations. We need to resort to self-awareness and self reliance. We need to find out our own solutions to our problems and crises. Considering all these realities, we will focus ourselves to Pakistan only, but we must not remain ignorant about, what all advancements are taking place in the world.

Last of all, we will make an effort to bring a change in our thinking process. We must not get satisfied, only with the general meanings of a word, a term or a concept. Unless, the terminologies and concepts are thoroughly studied and analytically perceived, the desired results cannot be achieved. If you attentively go with this course, you will find a pleasant change in your thinking and your personality. It will un-earth the secret that you have tremendous potential to manage many crisis, by yourself, rather than knocking at other doors.

I wish you best of luck, good speed towards achievements and bright future. Never neglect Pakistan. It is our MOTHERLAND.

Sincerely

Dr. Zafar Cheema
## Abbreviations

Used in the Various Dictionaries

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DEFINITIONS & DIMENSIONS

The definitions and dimensions of crisis, according to various sources are discussed in this part. The word ‘crisis’ originates from Greek language ‘Krisis’ and for the first time it was used in medical sense. It meant “the turning point in the course of a disease, when it becomes clear, whether the patient will recover or die.” Definitions and terminologies are related to the development of society and various prevalent and new fields. With the passage of time many changes occur in the original concepts and definitions. This phenomenon will be very clearly understood when you carefully go through the following definitions that vary from source to source, area to area and time to time. You will also observe modifications, alterations and horizontal as well as, vertical changes. While studying crisis management, quite often, we find the terms like “Crisis, Crises Management, System, Analysis, Decision Making, Research, etc. It is therefore, essential to have a very clear perception of these terms. You will find definitions from various sources given below.

1. The Oxford English Dictionary, Oxford

a. CRISIS; According to the above dictionary in the present times, the concept of crisis is generally understood as, “A vitally important or decisive stage in the progress of anything; a turning-point; also, a state of affairs in which a decisive change for better or worse is imminent; now applied esp. to times of difficulties, insecurity, and suspense in politics or commerce.” The term ‘crisis’ was used in eighteenth and nineteenth century, by various people, at various occasions, in the field of politics and legal judgments. Some of the examples are as under:-

b. Legal Judgments

This is the Crisis of Parliaments; we shall know by this if parliaments live or die. (1627 A.D Sir B. RUDYARD in Rushw. Hist. Coli.I. (16 9) P. 301)
The time bet Wixt Wicklife and Trevisa was the Crisis of the English tongue. (1661 FULLER Worthies 1.204)
Great Crises in Church and State. (1715 M. DAVIES Ath. Brit. 1.346)
To escape a crisis so full of terror and despair. (1769 Juniun Lett. i. Io)
There is said to be a commercial crisis when a great number of merchants and traders, at once, either have, or apprehend that they shall have, a difficulty in meeting their engagements. (1848 MILL Pol. Econ. III. Xii)
The layer of snow had been in a state of strain, which our crossing brought to a crisis. (1860 TYNDALL Glac. i. xxvii 202)
The ordinary statesman is also apt to fail in extraordinary crises. (1875 JOWETT Plato (ed. 2) III.174)

2. The Imperial Dictionary of the English Language – 1902

a. CRISIS; “Any serious state of things, or the point of time when an affair has reached its height, and must soon terminate or suffer a material change; a turning-point.”

b. “The change of a disease which indicates its event; that change which indicates recovery or death. It is sometimes also used to designate the symptoms accompanying the crisis.”

Examples:

“This hour’s the very crisis of your fate.”(Dryden).
“Nor is it unlikely that the very occasions on which such defects are shown, may be the most important of all—the very times of crisis for the fate of the country.” (Brougham)
3. Webster’s New International Dictionary of the English Language – 1939
This dictionary has further enhanced the use of the term “crisis” and given its connotation in other fields also, including medical science.

a. **General:** “The point of time when it is decided whether any affair or course of action must go on, or be modified or terminate; decisive moment; turning point; also, a state of things in which a decisive change one way or the other is impending.”

b. **Medical:**
(1). That Change in a disease which indicates whether the result is to be recovery or death; sometimes, also, a striking change of symptoms attended by an outward manifestation, as by an eruption or sweat. “Till some safe crisis authorize their skill”. (Dryden)

(2). One of the painful Paroxysmal attacks occurring in cases of loco-motor ataxia, etc.

c. **Astrology:** “The effect produced by a planetary or other conjunction, determinant of a critical issue.”

d. **Finance:** “The culminating point of a period of business prosperity, at which the business organism breaks down and a period of liquidation ensues.”

e. Obstacle, a decision, a criterion

In this dictionary, use of various terms in French language as well as, English language has been given. Very brief meaning of terms has also been given which helps us in understanding the French terminology, which is quite often used by various English writers also.

“crisis, pl. crises [kri’si:s, -iːz], s. Crise f (d’une maladie, etc.). The present acute c., 1a crise qui sévit actuellement. Cabinet c., crise ministérielle. Things are coming, drawing, to a crisis, 1e moment décisif approche. To pass through a c., passer par uno crise. To end a c., mettre fin à, dénouer, résoudre, une crise.”

5. Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences – 1963
The encyclopaedia treats it very briefly and it restricts the definition only to economic discipline.

“A crisis may be defined as a grave and sudden disturbance of economic equilibrium.”

6. Webster’s New World Dictionary of the American Language – 1972

a. **Etymology.** The dictionary first of all gives the etymology of the word ‘crisis’ as under. It then explains the use of this word in other fields of knowledge.

“cri-sis (kri’sis) n., pl. -ses (-sēz) [L.< Gr. krisis < krinein, to separate < IE. * (s) kreu-, to sift, separate < base *(s) ker-, to cut, whence L. cernere, to separate, G. rein, pure]

b. **General**
(1). “A turning point in the course of anything; decisive or crucial time, stage, or event.”

(2). “A time of great danger or trouble, whose outcome decides whether possible and consequences will follow (an economic crisis).”

c. **Medical**
(1). “The turning point in the course of a disease, when it becomes clear whether the patient will recover or die.”

(2). An intensely painful attack of a disease; paroxysm.
   a. Medical. “Crisis A turning point in the course of a disease.”
   b. Psychology. “The psychological events associated with a specific stage of life, as an identity crisis or developmental crisis.”

8. The Random House Dictionary of the English Language - 1983
   a. Medical
      (1). “The point in the course of a serious disease at which a decisive change occurs, leading either to recovery or to death”.
      (2). “The change itself.”
   b. Social Sciences
      (1). “A stage in a sequence of events at which the trend of all future events, esp. for better or for worse, is determined; turning point.”
      (2). A condition of instability, as in social, economic, political, or international affairs, leading to a decisive change.
   c. Literature. “The point in a play or story at which hostile elements are most tensely opposed to each other.”

   “A decisive moment; a time of danger or great difficulty.”

10. The New Lexicon Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language – 1987
    In this dictionary, the author has given a general definition and has also added ‘Crisis Centre’ and ‘Crisis Theology’. During the thirty years war, covering the first half of twentieth century, the hunger, poverty, perils, privations, destruction, devastations and sufferings had virtually deprived humanity of all types of survival resources. Consequent to such conditions, suicide had become a very common method to end the miserable life. Keeping In view these conditions, many governments had established anti-suicide establishments to help those, developing the tendencies to commit suicide. In this dictionary, the author has also included the theological (religious) aspect.
    a. General. “The turning point in a disease, the decisive moment, esp. in a tragedy, a time of danger or suspense in politics etc. to bring to a crisis to bring (affairs) to a culminating point [L. fr. Gk krisis, decision].”
    b. Crisis Centre. “Anti-suicide establishment, available for advice by telephone to anyone in a depression crisis.”
    c. Crisis Theology. “Theology whose point of departure is man’s awareness of the inner contradiction in his nature. It is particularly associated with Barth”.

    The Cambridge Encyclopaedia has for the first time used the complete term ‘Crisis Management’. According to the author the term was for the first time used by Mr. Robert McNamara (The then American Secretary) during the management process of ‘Cuban Crisis’. The author has also explained the concept of ‘Crisis Theology’.
    a. Crisis Management. “A term first employed by Robert McNamara shortly after the 1962 Cuban missile crisis. It implies, given the limited information about other actors, and their unpredictability, that long-term strategic planning cannot provide the basis for action. Crisis between states can be resolved only by managing them as they arise. (Cuban Missile Crisis; McNamara, Robert S)
    b. Crisis Theology. A type of Protestant theology initiated after World War 1 under the
The term ‘Crisis’ essentially applied to the judgment (Gr krisis) of God upon all merely human social, moral, and religious endeavours. The approach exercised a decisive influence on the Declaration of Barmen (1934) which, in opposition to the readiness of the so-called ‘German Christians’ to integrate the racialist ideology of the German National Socialists into Christian doctrine, affirmed Jesus Christ as God’s sole and sufficient revelation and denied any revelations in nature, history, or race apart from him (Theological connotation).

a. Social Sciences/ International Relations. “A time of acute difficulty or danger, especially on a national or international scale: e.g. The Cuban missile crisis of 1962.”

b. Medical
(1). “The turning point for better or worse in an acute disease, e.g. pneumonia”.
(2). A sudden attack of pain, distress, etc. (via Latin from Greek krisis decision).

Essential English Dictionary plus Language in Action Supplement 2003
a. A crucial stage or turning point in the course of anything.
b. A time of extreme trouble or danger. [Greek krisis decision]”

The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles
b. Pathology. The point in the progress of a disease when a change takes place which is decisive of recovery or death; also, any marked or sudden change of symptoms, etc.
c. Astrology. Said of a conjunction of the planets which determines the issue of a disease or critical point in the course of events – I663.
d. Transformation and figuration. A turning-point in the progress of anything; also, a state of affairs in which a decisive change for better or worse is imminent. 
Example. e.g. “The ordinary statesman is also apt to fail in extraordinary crises” (JOWETT)

An English-Persian Dictionary
The substitutes of the word ‘Crisis’ in Persian language are as under:

CRISIS: 
Ma’rakah. معرکه (Critical point of a disease),
Hangáma– هیگمه (Sudden challenging happening)
Buhrán. برّان (pl. Bahârîn).
17. CONNOTATIONS / APPLICATION

Going through the various definitions, pertaining to various eras, it has become evident that the word ‘Crisis’ is now being used in almost all areas of study. Following areas have been covered by the definitions/explanations that we have studied so far.

- a. General Use involving various fields
- b. Medical Sciences
- c. Psychology
- d. Social Sciences
- e. Political Science
- f. International Relations
- g. Industry
- h. Finance
- j. Business
- k. Religion
- l. Literature
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CONFLICT AND CRISIS

Conflict and crisis are two terms which are used very frequently in political science, as well as, international relations. Many a times students and readers confuse these terms with each other. It must be clear that they are absolutely two different concepts.

1. **Conflict**. According to “Handbook of conflict resolution” authored by Christopher Mitchell and Michael Banks:-

“Thinking about conflict resolution, conflict management or alternative dispute resolution (ADR) is today experiencing a boom, in terms both of its literature and its practical application in many countries. As the bibliographies in this work indicate, the past decade has witnessed the maturing of conflict analysis as an inter-disciplinary field. There has been a considerable output from sociology, combined with the flowing of contributions in social psychology and psychotherapy, substantial work in political science and anthropology, successful commercialization in business studies and even some serious interest within the conservative redoubt of academic international relations.

On the organizational side, mediation and the many techniques associated with its use in interpersonal and inter-group disputes, such as conciliation and counselling, arbitration, reconciliation and reparation, have rapidly become institutionalized, particularly in Europe and North America. They are now widely established in the areas of family breakdown community conflict race relations environment disputes and industrial unrest.”

Peter Wallensteen explains concept in a much clearer form in his book “Understanding conflict resolution”. He says:-

“We can preliminarily define conflict resolution as a situation where the conflicting parties enter into an agreement that solves their central incompatibilities, accept each other’s continued existence as parties and cease all violent action against each other. This means, of course, that conflict resolution is something that necessarily comes after conflict. It means that we first need to have concepts and tools for the analysis of conflict. This is what conflict theory is all about. It talks about the parties accepting each others’ continuous existence as parties.”

The concept of conflict clearly indicates that it is a ‘dispute’ that involves two or more parties. These parties, at any cost, want to retain their existence as independent parties. The conflict may start from family level and cover up-to Cyprus or Kashmir dispute. According to Peter Wallensteen:-

“We arrive at a complete definition of a conflict as a social situation in which a minimum of two actors (parties) strive to acquire at the same moment, in time, an available set of scarce resources.”

The above sited information explains that conflict has to have essentially, at least, two parties or actors. The conflict also does not define or lay down any time limits or critical emergency, demanding immediate resolution.

2. **Crisis**

---

1 Christopher Mitchell and Michael Banks, Handbook of conflict resolution, Pinter, Wellington House, London, 1996 page xi
We have observed that conflict is mostly in the shape of disputes and differences. On the other hand crises, have altogether different connotation. The crises may or may not have more than one party. The keyword in defining the crises is ‘time stress’. Phil William explains it as under:-

“This instrumental use of the term (crisis) is merely one cause of its linguistic proliferation. Equally important is the fact that it can be used to describe such a wide variety of different situations. It is possible, for example, to talk of an emotional crisis or a financial crisis; the former perhaps precipitated by the latter in some instance. Furthermore, the term can be applied equally well at the global level as at the individual level. The crisis of capitalism, the crisis of civilization, the energy crisis and the environmental crisis are all terms used in relation to problems that have a global or near-global range. In addition to varying in scope, however, crises appear to vary enormously in duration. Thus, one very eminent historian has described international politics during the interwar period as ‘The Twenty Years Crisis’, while for other analysts the term denotes an event or situation that is confined within a much shorter period of time, and is measured in days or weeks rather than Years. The fact that the term is so elastic in its interpretation almost certainly contributes to its over-zealous adoption.”

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4 Phil William, Crisis Management (Confrontation and Diplomacy in the Nuclear Age), Martin Robertson & Co. Ltd, London, 1976, Page 20

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CONCLUSION

After going through all the above sited definitions following three points clearly come out.

1. Definitions keep going through changes, alterations, modifications and even they are rendered obsolete and totally replaced by new definitions. This phenomenon is a continuous process, consequent to changes in the development process of the world.

2. The terms also keep changing horizontally and vertically. One particular term which is basically designed for a specific subject is also extended to other subjects. The term crisis was initially used only for critical or turning point of a disease but today it is being used, in almost all the subjects of the world. It has even travelled to streets and a common man also uses this term, giving it his own interpretations. Vertically speaking it covers the whole range from ‘Cuban Crises’ to a vegetable shopkeeper and horizontally it extends from international relations to all fields of knowledge. This makes it essential to differentiate its interpretations and connotations. It should be noted that when, one particular terminology is used in various areas / subjects, its meanings also change, according to the requirement of the subject.

3. The meanings, applications and understanding of various definitions and terminologies also have geographical dimension. They vary from continent to continent, country to country and even in the various geographic locations of one country. As the world is divided into the developed, developing and underdeveloped countries, they all have different understanding of different terminologies. Although it is not a general rule yet, it does exist.

To perceive any concept clearly, the reader must explore all possible sources, in order to know the variations and different connotations, based on geographic dimension, field of knowledge and specific era.
LEVELS, TYPES & CAUSES OF CRISSES

LEVELS OF CRISIS

Crises have no limits, no boundaries and no fixed timings. As we have gone through the definitions and concept of crisis, it occurs abruptly, swiftly and un-alarmingly. It does not give enough warning to react or resort to stereo type methods of management. Crises are also not bound to any field of life, time or any particular natural and unnatural level. They can occur at any time, at any level and in any field / area. Some of the levels are briefly discussed below.

1. **Individual Level.** Man and planet are together since the creation of this universe. They are inseparable from each other. Man lives his life at many levels and the nature prevails everywhere, at all levels. The two basic levels of human life are individual level and collective level (as member of human society). It is a strange phenomenon that most of the people complete their life on this earth even without defining any aim of life. They are ridden by the winds of desires, emotions and circumstances. There may be a handful number of people who are equipped with futuristic vision and long term planning to achieve the aim which they clearly define. Most of the people do not do that. Individuals therefore, frequently come across crises in their life. Mostly these crises are accepted as destined whereas, these may be manageable with bit of effort or planning. We shall mostly restrict ourselves to our country only. Most of our population is rural based where there is dearth of facilities or at least lack of basic facilities like education, health facilities, limited earning and very few employment opportunities. All these things create crises at one stage or the other. On the other hand if we go through the world history, the big cities have hardly produced a towering personality in terms of leadership, intellect, craftsmanship or even business. Most of the towering personalities belong to rural areas that they had defined an aim of life, planned their efforts and executed them while negotiating obstacles, odds and inhospitalities en-route to their destination. ‘Life is not a bed of roses’ is good enough proverb to be remembered. If we don’t use our potential and energy in a judicious and planned manner, we are bound to face crises.

2. **Collective/Organizational Level.** Crises do occur at collective level also. The collective level entails an organizational level; be it a social system, an industrial group, a huge business organization, a university, a small market or even an intellectual or political organization where a number of people or participants, hold various portfolios. There can be a number of factors which can create crises at these levels e.g., human resource, finances, management, technical problems, un-usual occurrences etc.

3. **Geographic Level.** Geography plays a very vital role in human life. Life cannot exist without water, oxygen, food and shelter. If anything goes wrong in the usual functions of nature, crises will be there. Weather, climate and natural hazards can cause even un-manageable crises. A volcano, severe snow storm, fast wind storm, heavy floods, heavy rains and abnormal winters or summers can always create very serious crises. Tsunami and earthquakes etc. are other examples. The geographic level will pertain to area, which is affected.
4. **Administrative Levels.**

**a. Local Level.** Geographically speaking sometimes the crises are localized as they affect small local areas. These crises are comparatively easy to manage and they render lesser damage e.g. some small area may be affected by a local earthquake, local flood, some disease or some loss to crops etc.

**b. National Level.** Crises can extend up to national level also. These may relate to abnormal temperatures, prolonged or reduced seasons, abruptly changing weather conditions, epidemics, law and order situations, political turmoil or certain overflows of international critical situations.

**c. Trans-national Level.** When the crises cross the boundary of one nation or country and start affecting the neighbouring nations or countries we called them trans-national crises. At present a classic example of the trans-national crises is the prevailing crises in Afghanistan which are adversely affecting Pakistan also.

**d. International/Global Level.** At this level the crises affect the whole world or the globe. Environmental damage by the western and developed countries due to discharge of poisonous gasses and heat, which is widening the existing black holes and creating new black holes also, or chemical wastage which is contaminating the oceans, atomic explosion and reduction of forests etc, are the biggest roots of global crises. Likewise monopoly over certain life necessities, by few countries, enjoying full control over them, paralyses the whole world. Global warming is the biggest alarm for the whole world to face unimaginable crises.
TYPES OF CRISES

Although there is no hard and fast rule to categorise types of crises yet, they can be generally categorised as given below. This division helps us in understanding the concept in a better way.

1. **Social Crises.** Man is a social animal and he is mired in the race to distinguish his superiority using his colour, creed or even geographic dislocations. Its a well known fact that the human instincts play a dominate role in his behaviour. ‘Survival of the fittest’ is an old saying which is applicable today and will be equally applicable tomorrow also. Its a very strong instinct which contributes a lot towards any type of crises. Values, religion, norms and traditions and many such like sentiments become a source of crises at social structure level. These crises can be termed as social crises that have caused even many wars.

2. **Economic Crises.** Napoleon said, “Armies march on their stomach” which means that food is the first human need. Concepts of many other thinkers like Karl Marx, Lenin, Sigmund Freud etc. revolve around the economic needs only. Even the religious thinkers lay stress on the need of economic prosperity which is ultimately human prosperity. Economic crises can always create fatal consequences. In the modern world economic struggle has become the foundation for the survival of a family or a state.

3. **Political Crises.** Political crises are another type of crises. Great Britain, Germany, Russia, Korea, Sri Lanka and many other countries have seen the worst type of political crises. Political crises always prevail in the world in one country or the other and in one form or the other.

4. **Moral Crises.** Every nation and country has its own written or un-written moral and ethical rules and systems which are always very dear to that society. A successful and peaceful co-existence is strongly supported by the moral system of any society. If this system collapses it can seriously and instantly damage the other systems of the society which can create serious crises for the nation or state.

5. **Educational Crises.** Along-with its traditional and conventional education every nation, needs the education which is call of the day. This is mathematically applicable in today’s world when a global culture is fast developing and everyone is required to be equipped with the education required by the contemporary society. It is being said that to excel in any field in life, one has to equip himself, with the standards by a global citizen, otherwise he will remain in crises. In this new emerging reality is neglected, and the old, obsolete and rigid education systems are followed, the nation will lack behind. Such a situation can assume the form of crises, which are termed as educational crises.

6. **Internal Crises.** Since there are many systems and sub-systems on which a nation runs therefore, it is indispensable to keep them ideally functioning as integral components of each other in order, to run the nation or the country in a smooth way. If some serious malfunctioning enters any of the such systems it can create crises. It is just like a computer views.

7. **External Crises.** Crises can be created by the external forces also which has always happened in the course of history. Wars, Calamities, conspiracies and terrorism etc., can create crises in any nation or country. The source of such crisis is outside the demarcated boundaries of the state. Many states/societies of the world are victims of external crises at present.
CAUSES OF CRISIS

Crisis are a constant phenomenon of our times. They never appear with the same familiar face. There are several causes which can cause crises at any moment. These causes include human behaviour, natural happenings and many invisible factors. Some of the causes are briefly explained in this portion.

1. **Climatic Reasons (Global Warming).** Climatic reasons can be one of the major causes of crises anywhere in the world. People of Europe can bear the hot sun to a specific degree of heat and beyond that life is threatened. In Africa it is other way round. Human scientific development is delivering very tasty fruits to human beings but massive industrialization is rendering irreparable damage to human life also. Global warming is very relevant example. If the temperature of the universe keeps rising as being expected by the scientists, the poles will melt and the universe will face un-exampled crises.

2. **Media.** Media has always been making and altering the public opinion. In this way it is the most potent weapon to be used to create, enhance or boost up crises. Today our world is virtually being controlled by the stronger medias. There are many nations who fastly accept, whatever, is fed to them to believe. Many a times foreign medias or even own motive oriented media sources feed such information that can become a source of crisis.

3. **Propaganda.** Propaganda is a proper weapon, to create crises in the targeted societies. This weapon is in use since centuries but today it has become very effective weapon as the media has become unimaginably fast and quick effective. Both, print and electronic media are used as a tool. It is also said that media is the vehicle for the propagandists. It shows one killed and frightens one hundred millions. Everyone does not have the means and ability to verify the truth and the aim behind the propaganda.

4. **Critical Happenings.** Occasionally some very serious incidents take place which create crises. If a dam breaks it can wash away countless settlements. An earthquake can jam all other activities of a nation. If oil carrying ships go on a strike for few days, the wheel of the globe will be jammed for months together. A large scale act of sabotage or terrorism can instantly create crises.

5. **In-efficiency.** It is self explanatory that if inefficient people handle sensitive and essential systems, the systems can break down at any moment.

6. **Lack of Managerial Skills.** Right man for the right job is the golden principal to avoid crises. If ill trained, ill educated and un experienced people are employed to manage the systems, which are beyond their abilities, it will always be a major potential cause for crises.

7. **Lack of Motivation.** If one is not convinced of the job which he is performing, he will always show slackness and lack sense of responsibility. Hence, absence of devotion and commitment leads to failures.

8. **Poor Leadership.** Leaders are the captains of the ships. An able captain will always take the ship to safe shores and a poor captain will leave the ship at the mercy of deep waters and high waves.

9. **Systemic Failures.** Barring the natural systems, all systems are designed and created by the human beings. The human element always carries the possibility of flaw in it. Systems are also to be constantly updated, monitored and flaws are required to be removed. If this is not done in an ideal manner, then any system can fail and thus become a cause of crises. It also equally applies to political, social, mechanical, electronic or any other such system. If a power failure occurs in a system which is totally dependent on power, beyond doubt it will collapse and thus create crises.
Conclusion

It is evident from the above study that crises do have their levels, number of types and several causes. Whatever have been concluded is just not a final figure. There can be many more reasons and causes to create crises. It is also important to remember that minute to minute technological, political and economic changes and interactions at domestic and global level keep taking place. The electronic era has changed the speed of life and the fast moving life is becoming faster and faster. Whereas, all experiments and experiences are fulfilling human needs and delivering goods to human life, they are simultaneously becoming potential sources of new crises. It is therefore important to keep a constant eye on the fast coming changes in order to know the new causes being added to the list.
**Introduction:**

God Almighty has created this universe in which nothing can survive, exist or function in isolation. Starting from ant to solar system, everything survives, lives and performs within specified systems. Etymologically speaking, according to ‘The Grolier International Dictionary’ the word ‘System’ originated from “Late Latin Systema, from Greek sustēma, (which means) a composite whole, from sunistanai. to bring together, combine: sun-, together + histanai, to cause to stand”.

In the contemporary era, according to Kitabistan’s New Millennium Practical Dictionary the word ‘System’ means ‘System (sis-tem) n 1. Orderly arrangement (of words, ideas, theories, things, etc.), working together to form a co-ordinated whole 2. methods or principles (of) classification 3. (the system), the human body systematic(-mat-) adj. 1 methodical 2. not unprincipled 3. according to a plan 4. not casual 5. Intentional systematically adv. methodically System n. (also) government systemic adj. affecting entire system

**DEFINITIONS AND DIMENSIONS**

   a. **Origin.** Early 17th century: from French ‘système’ or late Latin ‘systema’, from Greek ‘sustēma’, from sun-‘with’+histanai ‘set up’.
   b. **General.** A set of principles or procedures according to which something is done: an organized scheme or method: a multiparty system of government, | the public school system.
      (2). A set of rules used in measurement or classification: the metric system.
      (3). Organized planning or behaviour: orderliness: e.g. there was no system at all in the company.

2. The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles
   a. **General.**
      (1). An organized or connected group of objects.
      (2). A set or assemblage of things connected, associated, or interdependent, so as to form a complex unity;
      (3). A whole composed of parts in orderly arrangement according to some scheme or plan; rarely applied to a simple or small assemblage of things (nearly= ‘group’ or ‘set’).
      (4). spec. (with this, a possessive, or the like): The whole scheme of created things, the universe.
   b. **Physics.** Group of bodies moving about one another in space under some particular dynamical law, as the law of gravitation; spec. In Astronomy a group of heavenly bodies connected by their mutual attractive forces and moving in orbits about a centre or central body, as the solars. (The sun with its attendant planets, or the planet with its attendant satellites.)
   c. **Biology.**
      (1). A set of organs or parts in an animal body of the same or similar structure, or subserving...
the same function, as the nervous, muscular, osseous, etc. systems, the digestive, reproductive, etc. systems; also, each of the primary groups of tissues in the higher plants.

(2). With the or possessive: The animal body as an organized whole; the organism in relation to its vital processes or functions.

(3). Medical. Introducing vaccine virus into the system (1805 AD).

d. Scientific / Technical. In various scientific and technical uses: A group, set, or aggregate of things, natural or artificial, forming a connected or complex whole. a. of natural objects or phenomena, as geological formations, mountains, rivers, winds, forces, etc.; also lines, points, etc. in geometry.

e. Music.

In ancient Greek music, A compound interval, i.e. one consisting of several degrees (opp. to DIASTEM); also, a scale or series of notes extending through such an interval, and serving as the basis of musical composition.

(2). Applied to †stave, or to a set of staves connected by a brace in a score of concerted music (1672 AD). 6. Gr. Pros, A group of connected verses or periods, esp. in anapaepstic metres (1850 AD).

f. Satellite Systems. First satellite-systems, then planetary systems, then star-systems, then systems of star-sys-tem.

g. Communication / Climate. A system of telegraph wires (1855 AD). The glacier system of the region TYNDALL, Low pressure system or cyclone (1893 AD).

3. The Reader’s Digest Great Encyclopedic Dictionary, 1964

a. General. Complex whole, set of connected things or parts, organized body of material or immaterial things; (physics) group of bodies moving about one another in space under some dynamic law, as that of gravitation, esp. (astron.) group of heavenly bodies moving in orbits about central body; (boil.) set of organs or parts in animal body of same or similar structure or subserving same function, the animal body as an organized whole.

b. Academic. Department of knowledge or belief considered as organized whole; comprehensive body of doctrines, beliefs, theories, practices, etc., forming particular philosophy, religion, form of government, etc.; scheme or method of classification, notation, etc; (crystal) any of 6 general methods or types in which substances crystallize.


a. General. Orderly combination or arrangement, as of parts or elements, into a whole; specifically, such combination according to some rational principle; any methodical arrangement of parts.


c. Natural Science. Any group of facts and phenomena regarded as constituting a natural whole and furnishing the basis and material of scientific investigation and construction: the solar system.

d. Mechanics. The connection or manner of connection of parts as related to a whole, or the parts collectively so related; a whole as made up of constitutive parts: a railroad system.
Methodology. The state or quality of being in order or orderly; orderliness; method: He works with system.

Physiology. An assemblage of organic structures composed of similar elements and combined for the same general functions: the nervous system; also, the entire body, taken as a functional-whole.

Physics. An aggregation of matter, or tending to approach, equilibrium.

Mineral. One of the six divisions into which all crystal forms may be grouped, depending upon the relative lengths and mutual inclinations of the assumed crystal axes.

Geology. A category of rock strata next below a group and above a series and corresponding with a period in the time scale.

Synonyms.
(1). Order. In this connection denotes a fact or result; e.g. these papers are in order.
(2). Method. Denotes a process.
(3). Rule. An established course of things.
(4). Manner. Refers to the external qualities of action, and to those often as settled and characteristic.
(5). Regularity. Applies to even disposition of objects or uniform recurrence of acts in a series.


a. Etymology. [Late Latin Systēma, from Greek sustēma, a composite whole, from sunistantai. to bring together, combine: sun-, together + histanai, to cause to stand.

b. Formal. A group of interacting, interrelated, or interdependent elements forming or regarded as forming a collective entity.

c. Communication. A network of structures and channels, as for communications, travel, or distribution.

d. Intellectual. A set of interrelated ideas, principles, rules, procedures, laws, or the like.

e. Social. A social, economic, or political organizational form.

6. The Grolier International Dictionary, USA, 1984

a. General. A group of related parts which work together forming a whole: A strike disrupted the postal system; a heating| air-conditioning system; the solar system; a computer system; the digestive system; the nervous system.

b. Intellectual. An ordered set of ideas, methods, or ways of working; what are the differences between the American and British systems of government?

c. Informal. The impersonal official forces that seem to govern one’s life and limit one’s freedom: She just blames it all on the system.

7. The Random House Dictionary of the English Language

a. Education. Any assemblage or set of correlated members: a system of currency; a system of shorthand characters.

b. Intellectual. An ordered and comprehensive assemblage of facts, principles, doctrines or the like, in a particular field of knowledge or thought: a system of philosophy.

c. Methodology
(1). Any formulated, regular, or special method or plan of procedure: a system of marking, numbering, or measuring.

(2). Due method or orderly manner of arrangement or procedure: e.g. There is no system in
his work.

d. **Astrology.** A number of heavenly bodies associated and acting together according to certain natural laws: the solar system.
e. **Astronomy.** A hypothesis or theory of the disposition and arrangements of the heavenly bodies by which their phenomena, motions, changes, etc., are explained: the Ptolemaic system; the Copernican system.
f. **Biology.**
(1). An assemblage of parts of organs of the same or similar tissues, or concerned with the same function: the nervous system; the digestive system.
(2). The entire human or animal body: e.g. an ingredient toxic to the system; One’s personality, character, etc : to get the meanness out of one’s system.
g. **Geology.** A major division of rock comprising sedimentary deposits and igneous masses formed during a geological period.
h. **Sports.** Checkers. either of the two groups of 16 playing squares on four alternate columns.


a. **General.**
(1). A method or set of methods for doing or organizing something: a new system of production or distribution.
(2). The manner in which the parts of something fit or function together; structure: disruption of the earth’s weather system. (Global Warming)

b. **Social.** The manner in which an institution or aspect of society has been arranged: the Scottish legal system.
CONCEPT/TYPES OF SYSTEM

1. Concept

The word ‘system’ must have been well understood by now but to understand the real concept of system, much more study is required. Usually, tremendous difficulties are experienced while managing certain crises, merely because of the fact that people fail to understand the ‘system’ or the systems involved in the crises. It is therefore essential that one must have a clear perception of ‘system’ and its connotations.

a. Anatol Rapoport’s Concept. Anatol Rapoport says; “I accept the definition of a system as:- Something consisting of a set (finite or infinite) of entities, among which a set of relation is specified, so that deductions are possible from some relations to others or from the relation among the entities to the behaviour or the history of the system”. (According to Chamber’s Twentieth Century Dictionary)

b. Talcott Parsons’s Concept. A Social scientist Mr. Talcott Parsons, explains system as:- “System” is the concept that refers both, to a complex of interdependencies between parts, components, and processes that involves discernible regularities of relationship, and to a similar type of interdependency between such a complex and its surrounding environment. System, in this sense, is therefore, the concept around which all sophisticated theory in the conceptually generalizing disciplines is and must be organized. This is because any regularity of relationship can be more adequately understood if the whole complex of multiple interdependences of which it forms part is taken into account”. (According to Chamber’s Twentieth Century Dictionary)

c. J.W. Burton’s Concept. J.W. Burton has defined the system as under:-

“The concept of System is well understood: it connotes relationships between units. The units of a system are of the same ‘set’, by which is meant that they have features in common that enable a particular relationship. A telephone system is a relationship between telephones-the units have some special features that make them relevant to the system.”

2. Types of System

Relationships imply communication between units, or transactions and exchanges. It is possible to regard the parts of a static construction as forming a system: an art composition is a set relationship, a chair or a table can be regarded as parts in a relationship, a mobile has some additional features because stress at one point affects others. There is in these cases communication by physical contact. These systems could be termed basic systems, and it is by first examining these, and then other systems of greater and greater complexity, that an analyst is assured that important features of the complex system with which he is concerned are not overlooked.

a. Complex System. A system more complex than a basic system is one in which relationships and transactions between units enable repetitive movement. The movement is one that is relevant to predetermined purposes; examples are a printing press, or a stationary pump. This is an operational system. Functional institutions are of this type. They are constructed for specific purposes, and their use for other purposes is usually limited. For example, the international communications institutions have special operational purposes, as do health, agricultural and others. A great deal of public administration is based upon operational systems of this kind. Their activities are routine, no matter how important they might be, and continue with little external control. They might cease to operate and be dismantled once the purposes for which they were constructed are fulfilled or are no longer being pursued. Though designed for a purpose they can operate without purpose; they can remain in operation after their relevant purpose has been fulfilled, or when the purpose has been eliminated, as is the case with much ceremonial customs.

b. Behavioural Systems. Behavioural systems have a range of capabilities in addition to those of basic and operational systems. The characteristic feature of behavioural systems is that they have abilities to respond to their environment. They may be inanimate; an automated aircraft in flight is a behavioural system capable of self response to the requirements of the environment in relation to a predetermined goal. Animal and vegetable systems respond to their environment. A flower bed is a behavioural system when each bloom has a pollination relationship with others, and all together respond to the environment. In each case, abilities to respond to the environment determine functional capability in relation to the attainment of fixed functions in changing condition.

c. Purposeful Systems. Purposeful systems have in addition a capability to determine goals, to change goals, and to alter means of attaining them. These are the cultural and economic systems of a society. The making and remaking of value judgments, and the use of strategy in the pursuit of values, are the unique features of these highly developed social systems. Controlling systems have also a limited ability to alter the environment as an alternative to response to it, or as a means of avoiding adjustments to environmental demands that are beyond the response capability of the system. The capability of systems to alter their environments rests mainly upon their relative abilities to influence the behaviour of each other. This depends upon a great many factors such as the extent to which the role of the system is important to others, the extent to which its values and needs are shared by others, the number of members within it that are also members of other systems, and its ability to create an image of itself as a system that has these features. In some societies sporting institutions can exercise greater influence on legislatures than social welfare organizations. These capabilities of purposeful and controlling systems make them more intricate and therefore subject to functional disorder; but they are, at the same time, the means of survival, persistence and growth.
“We could construct a model of a world based upon these static, functionally operative, behavioural, purposeful and controlling systems embracing economic, political, social and cultural activities. The map of this society would appear like millions of cobwebs superimposed one upon another, covering the whole globe, some with stronger strands than others representing more numerous transactions, some concentrated in small areas, and some thinly stretched over extensive areas. Each separate cobweb would represent a separate system-trade flows, letters exchanged, tourist movements, aircraft flights, population movements and transactions in ideas, cultures, languages and religions, traffic flows within towns and social interactions within village communities.”

**d. Linked Systems/Administrative Systems.** Linked systems tend to consolidate into administrative units, and this is the case in industry no less than in social life. There are administrative systems including parliaments, cabinets and civil services, and others in industry and finance, that restrain the free interaction of systems. These administrative systems, unlike others, do tend to be confined to conventionalized geographical boundaries that include major clusters of systems. They have power to control the interaction of systems within given areas, thus limiting the consequences of change, or creating crises.

**e.** It would be misleading, however, to regard these concentrations as systems. This may have been the case in a past age when each was relatively self-contained and isolated: the transaction points of systems tended to be within the boundaries of the linked systems. But this is no longer the case. Over the years the cultural unity of communities has been altered by conquest and migration, relationships have been altered and extended, and communications and specializations in the modern world have extended systems beyond conventionalized boundaries. It is not intended to imply that States are no longer significant; on the contrary, their role and range of activities has increased, but it is a role in relation to systems.

**CONCLUSION**

The whole discussion gives a fair idea about the importance of understanding the concept of system/systems. Crises, mostly are created by systemic disorders, starting from a simple pain in the eye or havoc creating thunder storm, or from power failure of a computer system to sudden functional disorders of a gigantic industry. It equally applies to social, political and moral systems. Many a times the natural or geographic systems also become a serious cause of crises. Understanding the system encompasses the whole range starting from an atom and molecule to solar system. The world society also can not be understood if one does not have sufficient knowledge about the concept of system. J. W. Burton has rightly said:-

“World society is perhaps best analysed by considering systems first, and then the role of States, which is the reverse of a traditional approach.”

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ANALYSIS

Introduction

As we have studied that life prevails in the form of systems. The systems comprise many sub-systems, components and essential elements. No system ever remains in the ideal shape for ever. Something goes out of routine, deteriorates, mal-functions or some unexpected fault occurs instantly. Systems range from the simplest to the most complicated ones. At times, it may be easy to identify the fault but sometimes it may demand decomposition of the system to examine every component separately, in order to rectify the fault or overcome the problem. Although this term was formerly used for the mathematical discipline and chemical tests to determine ingredients of some matter, it is now used very frequently and vastly in the social sciences also.

It is interesting to note the following two Urdu verses which provide us the simplest form of ‘Analysis’.

\[
\text{کہا بانکی خاتمہ کیا ہے جوان نے ہر میں کہتا ہے سب ہے نیں زندگی سر میرا کاہلے}
\]

(وہو ان کہا سر میرے گردن قائم)

In this verse Dr. Sir Allama Muhammad Iqbal has given the ingredients of competent leadership which include; ability to see beyond the horizons, logical and pleasant conversation and selfless dedication to the cause. This verse was addressed to the father of the nation Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah. If we study the presence or absence of these ingredients, considering them one by one, in the personality of leader it would be called analysis.

\[
\text{زندگی کیا ہے عاسیار ہے کہم ہے تین نیبہتے}
\]

\[
\text{موت کیا ہے اس کہ اب ایہ بہت بہت پیدا کیا ہے بہت بہت ہے}
\]

In this verse the poet has defined life and death in a chemical way. According to the poet, the life comprises four basic elements i.e. air, water, heat and mud. If they are amalgamated according to a specific ratio they will make life. On the other hand if they are decomposed or separated, the life will come to an end.

These are the simplest examples of analysis. The same method is applicable to all subjects. If we take the example of a business company, it includes several factors; e.g. manpower, procedures, code of conduct, timings, input, ways and means to measure the output finances etc. Likewise if we take the simple example of a field in a village, its yield depends upon a number of factors like the seed, type of land, quality of water, ploughing, intervals of irrigation, use of fertilizers, time of cultivation etc. If all these factors are studied separately, it would be a true example of analysis. The same method is applicable to the systems governing individual and collective lives of the people, political systems, social systems and governmental systems etc.
DEFINITIONS AND DIMENSIONS

**Origin & Etymology:**

According to Watts, analysis means a method that “finds out causes by their effects.” Basically this term was formerly used for the mathematical discipline or it implied the resolution of anything complex into its simple elements, opp. to synthesis; the exact determination of its components.

Originally it is a Greek word “analysis, an-anal-i-sis, n., pl. analyses, an-anal-i-sēz. [Gr. –– Prefix ‘ana’, implying distribution, and ‘lysis’, a loosing, resolving, from lyō, to loosen.] The resolution of a compound object whether of the senses or the intellect into its constituent elements or component parts; a consideration of anything in its separate parts and their relation to each other; opposed to synthesis; the process of subjecting to chemical tests to determine ingredients; a syllabus or table of the principal head of a discourse or treatise.

**Definitions and Connotations according to various dictionaries / sources are given below.**

1. An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English, 1921.

   “analysis. G. ἀνάλυσις, from λύειν, to loose. ananas, Pine-apple, Guarani (Brazil) anānā.”


   a. Short for psychoanalysis. [Greek analysis a dissolving ]
   b. Late 16th cent; via medieval Latin from Greek analusis, from analuein ‘unloose’, from ana- ‘up’+ luein ‘loosen’.


   A method of studying the nature of something or of determining its essential features and their relations.


   a. A method of studying the nature of something or of determining its essential features and their relations.
   b. The separation of a whole into its parts for study or interpretation.


   a. General. The examination and identification of the constituents of a complex whole and their relationship to one another.
   b. Philosophy. Method in philosophy of resolving complex expressions into simpler or more basic ones.
   a. Mathematics
      (1). Ancient. The proving of a proposition by resolving it into simpler propositions already
          proved or admitted.
      (2). Modern. The resolving of problems by reducing them to equations. (1656. A.D.).
   b. Chemistry. The resolution of a chemical compound into its proximate or ultimate
      elements; the determination of its elements, or of the foreign substances which it may
      contain. (1655. A.D.).
   c. Physics (Light). The resolution of light into its prismatic constituents (1831. A.D.).
   d. Literature. The critical examination of any production, so as to exhibit its elements in
      simple form (1644. A.D.).
   e. Grammar
      (1). The ascertainment of the elements composing a sentence, or any part of it (1612. A.D.).
      (2). The resolution of the sentence into elements having definite relations to the whole
          sentence and to each other, as subject and predicate with their respective enlargements.
   f. Qualitative. Analysis determine what the elements of a chemical compound are.
   g. Quantitative. In what quantity each is present, by weight (gravimetrical) or by volume
      (volumetrical).


   Logic. The tracing of things to their sources; the discovery of general principles
   underlying concrete phenomena (1680 A.D.).


   Logic. Analysis is the theory of functions and limiting operations on them, continuity,
   differentiation, and integration, treated by the strictest standards of logical reasoning.

   b. Logic. The tracing of things to their sources; the discovery of general principles
      underlying concrete phenomena (1680 A.D.). (Is not the business of the poet? His
      office is to portray, not to dissect MACAULAY.)
   c. Qualitative/Quantitative Analysis. Qualitative analysis determine what the elements
      of a chemical compound are, quantitative in what quantity each is present, by weight
      (gravimetrical) or by volume (volumetrical) N.E.D.
   d. Grammar. Logical, Syntactic, or Sentence Analysis: the resolution of the sentence into
      elements having definite relations to the whole sentence and to each other, as subject
      and predicate with their respective enlargements.
   e. Chemistry. The resolution of a chemical compound into its proximate or ultimate
      elements; the determination of its elements, or of the foreign substances which it may
      contain (1655. A.D.).
   f. Physics. The resolution of light into its prismatic constituents 1831.
   g. Literature. The critical examination of any production, so as to exhibit its elements in
      simple form (1644. A.D.).
   h. Grammar. The ascertainment of the elements composing a sentence, or any part of it
      (1612. A.D.).
j. **Mathematics.**

(1). Ancient α: the proving of a proposition by resolving it into simpler propositions already proved or admitted.

(2). Modern α: the resolving of problems by reducing them to equations (1656.A.D.).


“analysis. G. ἀνάλυσις, from λύειν, to loose. ananas, Pine-apple, Guarani (Brazil) anānā.”

11. The Reader’s Digest Great Encyclopaedic Dictionary, 1964

“anāl’yśis n. (pl. -sēs). Resolution into simple elements; PSYCHOANALYSIS; chemical-, determination of composition of substances; qualitative ~, identification of elements or compounds present; quantitative ~, determination of precise amounts of elements etc. present; (bowling, bowler’s) ~, (cricket), statement of number of balls bowled, wickets taken, runs made, etc. ān´al’yśt n.

One skilled in (chemical) analysis. ānal´ytic adj. Pertaining to analysis. ānal´yt´ic adj. Employing the method of analysis; (of language) using separate words instead of inflexions; ~psychology: see PSYCHOLOGY. ānal´yt´ically adv.”


“anāl’yśis n. (pl. -sēs). Resolution into simple elements; PSYCHOANALYSIS; (math.) branch of mathematics using algebraic and calculus methods; (philos.) clarification of concepts and knowledge; (cricket, also bowling, bowler’s ~) statement of number of balls bowled, wickets taken, runs made, etc; chemical~, determination of composition of substances; qualitative~, identification of elements or compounds present; qualitative ~, determination of precise amounts of elements etc. present. ā´naly´st n. one skilled in chemical analysis; PSYCHO-ANALYST. ā´naly´tic adj. Pertaining to analysis; ā´naly´tically adj. Employing the method of analysis; (of language) using separate words instead of inflexions; ~psychology: see PSYCHOLOGY. ā´naly´tically adv.”


a. **General**


(2). the process of separating something into its constituent elements. Often contrasted with SYNTHESIS.

b. **Chemistry.** The identification and measurement of the chemical constituents of a substance or specimen.

c. **Mathematics.** The part of mathematics concerned with the theory of functions and the use of limits, continuity, and the operations of calculus.

d. **Short for PSYCHOANALYSIS.**

(1). Phrases. In the final (or last) analysis when everything has been considered (used to suggest that a statement expresses the basic truth about a complex situation): in the final analysis it is a question of political history.
(2). Origin. late 16th cent; via medieval Latin from Greek analusis, from analuein ‘unloose’, form ana- ‘up’+ luein ‘loosen’.”


“a·nal·y·sis (ə ná·lisis) pl. a·nal·y·ses (aná·lisis:z) n. the process of analyzing (cf. SYNTHESIS) a document setting out the results of this process psychoanalysis * QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS, *QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS [M.L. fr. Gk analusis, a dissolving]”


a. The process of analysing; a statement of the result of this. (Process)
b. Mathematics. The huge mathematical subject which, in the 19th c., emerged from the work of Cauchy and others as the modern version of calculus. Analysis is the theory of functions and limiting operations on them, continuity, differentiation, and integration, treated by the strictest standards of logical reasoning.--analytic/adj., analytical adj., analytically adv.


a. Methodology. [C;U] examination of something by dividing it into its separate parts: The analysis of the food showed the presence of poison.
b. Business. [C] an examination of something together with thoughts and judgments about it: Our analysis shows that the company’s failure was caused by lack of investment.


a. General. The examination and identification of the constituents of a complex whole and their relationship to one another.
b. Chemistry. The determination of the chemical components of a mixture or compound or their relative amounts
c. Academic. The act or process of breaking something up into its constituent elements: compare SYNTHESIS.
d. Grammar. The breaking down of a sentence into its grammatical elements.
e. Linguistics. The use of function words instead of inflections as a characteristic of a language.
f. Mathematics. A branch of mathematics concerned with the rigorous treatment of the ideas of limits, functions, calculus, etc.
g. Philosophy. Method in philosophy of resolving complex expressions into simpler or more basic ones.


a. Academic. The separating of any material or abstract entity into its constituent elements (opposed to synthesis).
b. Literature. This process as a method of studying the nature of something or of determining its essential features and their relations: the grammatical analysis of a sentence.
c. **Presentation.** A presentation, usually in writing, of the results of this process: The paper published an analysis of the political situation.

d. **Mathematics.**
   (1). An investigation based on the properties of numbers.
   (2). The discussion of a problem by algebra, as opposed to geometry.
   (3). The branch of mathematic consisting of calculus and its higher developments.
   (4). A system of calculation, as combinatorial analysis or vector analysis.

e. **Chemistry.**
   (1). Intentionally produced decomposition or separation of materials into their ingredients or elements, as to find their kind or quantity.
   (2). The ascertainment of the kind or amount of one or more of the constituents of materials, whether obtained in separate form or not.


   The separation of a whole into its parts for study or interpretation.
CONCLUSION

While consulting 20 different reference books from the world literature, we have seen that the word ‘Analysis’ was for the first time used in 1581 A.D. At that time this word of Greek language simply meant ‘to loosen’. With the passage of time, the term ‘analysis’ entered into many other areas of knowledge and these days it is found in almost all fields of knowledge. If we list the areas of study in which the term is being used, the list should be as under:-
1. Mathematics.
2. Philosophy.
3. Chemistry.
4. Physics.
5. Literature.
7. Logic.
8. Qualitative/Quantitative Assessment.
9. Methodology.
11. Academic.
12. Linguistics.
13. Presentation.

It must be kept in view that although term ‘Analysis’ retains its basic idea in all areas of study, yet it entails different connotations from subject to subject. As a student of crises management we must know its meaning in all the disciplines and particularly in crisis management.
DEcision

“In most people is little more than awareness of which way the winds of desire blow.”

(A Dictionary of Thought by Bagobert D. Runes, Philosophical Library New York)

Introduction

Decision making is a constant process of our life that has no pauses. At every step of our life, from selection of dinner to driving a motorcar and flying an air craft, we make decisions at every step. To follow academic career, a professional life pursuit, to marry, to live at certain place and to have and have not relations with some people etc are all decisions. From a computer manager to an organizational head and from a clerk, to a head of the state, everyone has to take decisions, in order to run the affairs in a smooth manner. If a family head makes a wrong or bad decision, the sufferings of the family will be proportionate to the degree of the mistake. The same formula is applicable to the national and international level decision making.

Decision making is a difficult job. It demands the ability to observe, define the objectives clearly, ability to plan, understand the ground realities in true sense, have the foresight and futuristic vision to analyse whether a decision will be workable and practicable or otherwise. It is amazing to note that there is not a single human being in the universe, who does not take decisions at every step of life; however, there are hardly few people who take decisions at conscious level and rest are un-consciously ridden, ruled or driven by the decisions of the others, their own desires or tides of the circumstance. Decision making requires awareness, knowledge of the subject, training, planning ability, deliberations and constant research.

Father of the nation Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah said:-

“Even a, bad decision, is better than no decision”.
“Think over hundred times before making a decision. Once made (decision) stick to it.”

To understand the process of decision making it is very important to understand the true meanings of the word “Decision”. Various definitions and perceptions of “Decision” in the reference books, have been briefly listed, in the following paragraphs.

DEFINITIONS & CONCEPTS

1. An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English, 1921.

   a. **Origin/Etymology.**

      (1). “decide. F. décider, L. decidere, decis-, from caedere, to cut. Cf. F. trancher la question, to come to a “decision”.
      (2). Late Medieval English: from Latin decisio; a cutting off. The ability to make quick and definite decisions.


   According to this dictionary “Decision” implies :-
   a. The passing of judgment on an issue under consideration.
   b. The act of reaching a conclusion or making up one’s mind.
   c. A conclusion or judgment reached or pronounced; verdict.
   d. Firmness of character or action: determination.
   e. Boxing. A victory won on points when knock out has occurred. [Middle English decision. from old French decisioun, from Latin decisio. from decidere, DECIDE.]
   a. A choice in favour of a particular object or course of action reached after considering various alternatives.
   b. The act or process of deciding.

4. The New Webster Dictionary of the English Language.
   The act of deciding; determination, as of a question or doubt; final judgment or opinion in a case which has been under deliberation or discussion.

   Settlement (of), conclusion, formal judgment; making up one’s mind, resolve; resoluteness, decided character.”

   Business
   (1). (statistics) Technique of comparing costs of possible courses of action with risks involved, to arrive at a course of action involving minimum-maximum costs with maximum probability of success.
   (2). Body of concepts dealing with making rational choices and evaluating risks.

   Decision Theory. Noun [mass noun] the mathematical study of strategies for optimal decision-making between options involving different risks or expectations of gain or loss depending on the outcome. Compare with GAME THEORY. (All That Glitters Is Not Gold.)
WHAT AFFECTS THE DECISION MAKING?

It must be kept in mind that decision making is a difficult job. It involves many factors and dimensions. In the process of decision making one has to guard against many distractions and ensure that the ground realities are not lost sight of. Some of the factors which can affect the decision making are given below.

1. Factors Affecting Decision Making

a. Perception

(1). We see what we want to see. It is a very common tendency that one wants to see, what he likes to see. It is called ‘wishful thinking’. This single syndrome can lead to a disastrous or an absolutely wrong decision. It must always be kept in mind that facts and figures, ground realities, correct data and visible factors are the essential ingredients for making a correct decision. Throughout the process of decision making, the emotional and psychological temptations, keep our attention drifting away from the existing realities and thus de-track us. The decision making always watch against this dangerous tendency.

(2). Incorrect Recognition of Crisis (Situation). Correct recognition or perception of crisis is the fundamental pre-requisite to reach some good decision or at least a workable decision. The world history stands witness to the fact that very usually, the ‘Crisis’ were not recognized correctly and decisions were made, keeping the false or faulty data in view. This phenomenon resulted in devastating results. Many kings lost their kingdoms, many states lost the wars and many companies lost their business and became bank-rupt.

(3). Stereotype Applications. In the fast changing world, crisis always emerge with new face and new dimensions, demanding innovations and new measures for proper resolution. In case of fire, today we have much more modern and effective mechanical and electronic equipment than the past. Likewise the fire has also changed many shapes and brought more challenges which did not exist when there were no multi story buildings, busy business centres, wooden structure and massive use of electricity, gas and fuel. It means that a simple ladder, few buckets of water and a basket of sand will not suffice. We now have to modify our plans, keeping in view the new difficulties which have been brought by the modern constructions and allied facilitations. The simple lesson learnt is that the measures of the past may have become absolutely outdated today and we need to apply new methods and measures to overcome the new crisis.

(4). Getting Out of Perspective. This is another problem which needs to be addressed. It is human tendency to deviate from the actual problem. There are many reasons for this lapse. Crises are a period of extreme anxiety, tension, stress and strain and they demand instant decisions. On the other hand, many a times, the crises management team indulges in un-required, none essential and aimless discussions and arguments. This phenomenon shifts the whole attention from the original aim. One needs to guard against this tendency that crises management process is not the time to prove our credentials, abilities, knowledge and skills which are not appropriate to the prevailing crises.

b. Expression

(1). Inability to Express. Expression is the real essence of understanding or presenting any problem which demands a decision. If someone has grasped and understood the causes of crises very correctly and minutely but he can not express and present them, in the true sense, the vision or perception is of no use. It is therefore, essential that the decision makers must be expert in expression as well. If a patient exactly knows the points of pain in his body but is unable to explain
to the doctor, there are all the chances of administration of a wrong injection or a very harmful
medicine, by the doctor.

(2). **Use of Incorrect Terminology.** It may be appearing very casual and routine type of observation
but the fact remains that every subject has got its own language and terminology. The terms used in
economics cannot be used in medical sciences as the language used in literature cannot be used for
mathematics. It is hence, important that correct terminology should be used, keeping in view the
field being addressed. Jargons, local expressions and invalid abbreviation etc. must be avoided.

(3). **Linguistic Ability.** Whatever language we use for presenting or explaining our problem, we must
have command over that language. Weak linguistic ability will result in, inappropriate use of words
which can mislead the reader or the decision maker.

(4). **Lack of Oral Expression.** Probably we never pay attention to a very usual, very simple but
indispensable aspect that oral expression is of pivotal and vital importance in our lives and
particularly in the process of decision making. More than usual the situation and time factor do not
permit us, in a crises situation to resort to proper written documentation and presentation etc.
These are the occasions when all decisions are taken, based on oral presentations and discussions.
Reluctance, hesitation and inefficient and ambiguous oral expression can lead to big problems in
the process of decision making, one must remember four ‘Cs’ as under:-
C: Clear
C: Concise
C: Comprehensive
C: Complete
c. **Emotions**

(1). **Fear of Making Mistakes.** Emotions are the basic factor in following a course of action and
making a decision. This factor has the strongest effect on the overall personality of any individual
and similarly, during crisis, it affects the decision making process also. The biggest element which
prevails during these tense moments is the fear of making mistakes. In other words one is afraid of
being blamed at the later stage or loosing his/her credibility.

(2). **Impatience.** Crisis management is highly tense and laborious job. At one time many dangerous and
challenging situations crop up, before the crises managers. The loss of life, loss of property,
potential of escalation and changing forms and direction of crises are such things which most
certainly test one’s patience. Under these circumstances if the decision makers or the managers
loose their patience it will drastically affect the whole process of crises management. It would be
most appropriate to remember a very short and simple verse of the Holy Quran that commands, (“God is with those who observe patience.”

(3). **Becoming Anxious.** Its very difficult to watch and observe the unpleasant things happening before
you. One cannot loose sight of human factor. Sometimes the unbearable scenes make a person sad
and anxious. This anxiety can result in drifting away the thought process and concentration of the
managers or the decision makers which can lead to a bad decision or unwanted wastage of time and
efforts. It is therefore important for the people involved in crises management to keep their senses
together and guard against the tendency of being carried away by emotions.
(4). **Avoiding Hard Work.** Crises management is hard and laborious job which demands mental and physical robustness and stamina. This two pronged stamina is not built in a day. It requires constant effort, training and practice. Since everyone is not alike therefore, there are always people who, by nature, try to escape hard work and save their skin. It is advisable that such like people should be sifted away, right at the time of selection of the team for managing some particular crises.

**Climatic Conditions.** Climatic conditions also play a vital role in crises management. Our senses and efficiency is liable to suffer due to inhospitable weather conditions. Freezing cold, scorching sun, ruthless winds and heavy rains etc. are the conditions which certainly affect our five senses and physical ability and thus our efficiency is affected. On the other hand conducive environment are essentially an aid to facilitate our function. Alternatives, eventualities and all such possibilities must be kept in view and arrangements should be kept ready to meet such like situations.

d. **Intelect**

(1). **Lack of Knowledge.** If we tell a vehicle mechanic to write a novel we are asking for too much. He does not have any knowledge of writing a novel. Likewise, if the mechanic in turn tells us to fix the engine; surely! we cannot do it. The simple deduction is that whatever type of crises we are facing, we must possess relevant knowledge about the subject. Lack of knowledge is the first problem in decision making.

(2). **Lack of Creative Thinking.** The syndrome of rigidity is found very common. With the passage of time one develops a mind set and it becomes hard for him to deviate from that thinking style. This is a hurdle in making a correct decision. Creative thinking explores the new possibilities and options. It examines the crises from as many angles as possible. It has also been called divergent thinking. We all have new ideas. We vary, in the quantity we produce in our life time and still more in the quality of those ideas. Those people who have many new ideas with a high rate excellent, once, among them are called creative thinkers. This quality is essentially called in when we need new solutions to typical or old problems. With a little creative thinking the possibilities are endless. Albert Einstein recognized that searching for solutions to new problems required breaking free from old thought patterns. According to him:-

*“The significant problems we face cannot be solved at the same level of thinking, we were at, when we created them.”*  

7 Dandi Daley Macall, Problem-Solving, Ferguson publishing company, Chicago, 2001, p. 36 (For further study chapter 3 of referred book)

(3). **Lack of Logical Thinking/ Scientific thinking.** Scientific thinking goes by many names like logical, critical, analytical, convergent, straight-line and predictable thinking. It follows certain logical and scientific assumptions. What all is given a thought has some basic reason behind it.

Logical/scientific thinking is best used when the problem requires one answer. During crises management there are many components and dimensions which need to be addressed. Every dimension and every problem comprising crises requires one different solution. It is hence important that creative thinking should be skilfully welded together with the logical/scientific thinking.

(4). **Rigidity.** Strictly sticking to only one decision or solution is not helpful at all during crises management. Flexibility will always be the need of the hour as rigidity restricts innovations and quick switching over.

(5). **Not being Methodical.** It must be kept in mind that crises are not usual phenomenon and not

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identical to a common problem. In crises management every major step has to be taken precisely; keeping before some proper and tested method. No hit and trial method should be used.

2. Thinking Skills

a. **Creative Thinking.** Creative thinking demands several elements. Following are however, the most important components of creative thinking. We cannot acquire this skill merely through academic studies. One has to know, rehearse and practice, time and again, in order to acquire this skill.

   **Originality.** No two crises situations can ever be exactly identical. Every crisis therefore, demand absolutely original thinking. Past experiences or conclusions, of course, can be of great help at many occasions but they cannot be applied exactly like mathematical formulas. It makes very clear that every critical situation will demand new and original decisions.

   (2). **Flexibility.** No matter how original or scientific, a conclusion is, it can not prove to be the last word. Many new situations keep emerging at the implementation level which demand quick and practicable measures. The element of flexibility is therefore indispensable. It simply means, having many alternatives and options.

   (3). **Fluency.** Decision makers have to think, decide and disseminate which may be in written or oral form. If the thought are not properly disseminated and certain questions, doubts or ambiguities remain arise, the aim may not be achieved. A good creative thinker has therefore, to be very clear, understandable and fluent in written work or verbal expression.

   (4). **Elaboration.** While disseminating your creative thinking to your associates nothing should be left to their interpretation or understanding. Whatever you have thought it must be elaborated and explained to sufficient extent, thereby leaving no lacunas, for filling in the blanks.

b. **Analytical or Logical Thinking.** Duke of Wellington says

   I mistrust the judgement of every man in a case in which his own wishes are concerned. Our thinking should not be based on day dreaming and fallacies but on analytical and logical realities. One should never make an attempt to rush to the judgement. There could be many explanations to one particular brain wave but it must be questioned ruthlessly, being totally unbiased. Never make quick generalizations but always follow systematic and analytical approach.

Try and practice following suggests steps which are just a guideline.

1. Identify and define the problem.
2. Define goals and objectives.
3. Generate solutions.
4. Raise questions.
5. Make a plan of action.
6. Have alternatives.
7. Identify practical problems.
8. Ask yourself; will it be implement-able?

DECISION MAKING

AT

STATE / INTER STATE LEVEL

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Dandi Daley Mackall, Problem Solving, Viva Books Private Limited, New Delhi, P 54

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Introduction

“Decision-making ranges from the administrative procedures by which messages are distributed and filed, to the quality of perception and interpretation, and the degree to which action is guided by adequate consideration of all possible choices. It includes the execution of the decision, and readjustment to cope with environmental responses to the decision. The decision making process can be faulty at many specific points: any one weakness in the total process can affect the efficiency of the whole. One’s first inclination is to look at the routines, the lower levels of communication processes, the system of receipt of messages, filing, distribution, preparation of submissions for decision, and the routines that follow decision. In the contemporary world these are always under review. In practice, failures are not due to the mechanical systems, and are more frequently due to parts of the total system that is alone overlooked by the decision makers and by operational research consultants. These are the parts which are the responsibility of senior and final decision-makers. Failure here is not acknowledged contemporarily, and when historically revealed, it is interpreted as failure that is beyond human control. “Eayrs has commented, ‘A physician whose patient dies through malpractice or neglect faces an inquest or a suit for damages; an engineer whose bridge collapses through faulty mathematics or through too much sand and too little cement faces a Royal Commission or a penitentiary sentence. But the statesman whose policies bring ruin to a nation does not even ask forgiveness. There is, he says, nothing to forgive.’"

It must never be forgotten that decisions do not come from a single source or single mind. The decision should always be made, by taking all possible factors and elements into consideration. Decisions made in isolation are very usually wrong. In order to examine efficiency in decision-making, how the inter-State system operates, whether the system can achieve consciously stated goals more reliably, whether they can avoid conflicts with other States, the area of choice that decision-makers have must be determined. What authorities should do in particular circumstances, on the basis of some ideology or normative rules, is not immediately relevant: what alternatives exist is the first consideration.

An interaction process within and between systems can be a mechanical one not involving choice. In basic systems this is the case. In social interactions there is at least some part of the interacting process, no matter how small, that does involve alternatives of behaviour. In historical or descriptive studies areas of choice are not apparent: they tend to record choices that were made. In any event, the canvassing of alternatives usually reflects ideological opinion.

1. Area of Choice.

What is required is an analysis of the area of choice of decision-making generally, in the light of which alternatives in particular situations can be examined. A usual means of defining areas of choice is to refer to static and dynamic influences on States over which they have little or no control, and the changing environment that might be more subject to influence, and in relation to which States might be in a position to choose alternative policies. This is an arbitrary distinction useful in describing an environment, but less useful in determining areas of choice. The more direct way is to examine areas of the environment or conditions that are alterable and unalterable by the deliberate decisions and policies of States. This draws more attention to the relationship which is of immediate interest: the relationship between decision-makers of States, and the systems and environments in which they operate.

2. External Condition.

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9 J. Eayrs, Right and wrong in foreign policy, 1965, P.38

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Alterations in environments must be treated as part of the unalterable data to be taken into account within the total decision-making process of States. Authorities may be able to influence the nature of change in some small ways, but not the fact of change. Conditions of extensive and discontinuous change, presenting States with adjustment problems beyond their capacity, might often be held to be a sufficient cause of conflict between States. History draws attention to altering rates of change, and an expectation would be an increase in situations of conflict associated with increased levels of change. Before the First World War, former colonial areas were industrializing rapidly, forcing widespread adjustment upon metropolitan powers, and war accentuated this.

The Great Depression of 1929-31 was evidence of structural maladjustments, and of self-defeating restrictive policies, and its intensity led to further defensive responses. In due course the political effects of restrictive economic policies became apparent. The rise of Hitler to power was against this background. Japan’s demands for a South-East Asian co-prosperity sphere were directly related to the restrictive policies of the West. This was not a case of a war that was inevitable because of some fundamental psychological drives: it was a war occasioned by interactions of a character that led governments to aggressive acts in the protection of their interests. In the contemporary period, the failure of powerful States to adjust to changing circumstances is more in relation to political values than to living standards, but the processes and consequences are comparable. In the period before the Second World War demands for greater participation in internal decision-making were widespread in feudal economies, and even in the major States where minorities were excluded. The war gave opportunities independence movements for electoral reform.

3. Internal Condition of the State.

The internal conditions of the State must also be treated as unalterable for purposes of decision-making. There are changes over periods of time in the abilities of the State to appraise its environment and to adjust to it, and changes in structure. The Keynesian era was one in which insights into financial policy enabled states to adjust to altered economic conditions by means less likely to promote tariff wars. But increased communications have brought States into closer contact, and the process of adjustment remains difficult despite increased governmental controls. Furthermore, governments are now as much concerned to place barriers against ideas as against goods. The State structure, its pressure groups, its nationalism, and its fears of the environment, are unalterable within any span of time that is relevant to decision-making processes. Even State institutions and practices are unalterable. In the party system of politics statements are made more for domestic than for foreign consumption: this affects inter-State relations but cannot easily be controlled. The influence of pressure groups can help to escalate conflict between States once it occurs, but authorities must respond to it. History, tradition, leadership interests, government control of information services, traditional alliances and sentiments, the size of armed forces, religious views, language differences, dependence and interdependence factors, and many others, have a bearing upon the course of State relations. These are of importance to the philosopher, the historian and the political scientist; they are relevant features to point out to students who are studying the behaviour of States. But they are part of the environment which decision makers must accept as unalterable in their day-to-day planning and making of policy. Like gravity and friction. © Copyright Virtual University of Pakistan
in the operation of a machine, they are factors to be taken into account and offset: they cannot be eliminated, and their presence is felt most when the machine is operating under stress or during crises.

4. Approach of Political Realism.
This is an approach of political realism, though different from that of the classical school of realists. They were realistic in facing up to the nature of Man and the State, from which they drew conclusions about the nature of society. This approach takes the objects of their realism as unalterable data. Attention is confined to those decisions and acts that are within the capability of States in their contemporary environment. This realism also requires the exclusion of many areas that may be within the decision-making capability of States over long periods. For example, educational systems—even the kind of history textbooks used—have an important bearing on international society, but in practice changes in culturally based educational policies do not take place within a time span relevant to the avoidance or resolution of a conflict, or the management of inter-State relations.

5. Alterable factors.
Alterable factors are probably few and insignificant. To base an analysis of decision-making upon them may seem at first sight to be reducing it to an unreasonable level of detail. It may seem to exclude all manner of variables that have traditionally been regarded as directly relevant. More radical decisions, for example the creation of federations, the elimination of States or some types of States, the creation of supranational organizations, disarmaments or arms control, or single-tax, give more scope for imagination, and may seem more relevant to the problems of international relations than an examination of decision-making by States in a very restricted area of choice. But in the real world of politics it is not possible to decree that in the interests of avoiding a Third World War and its consequences, States must be disarmed, or that certain types of systems must be eliminated. Sweeping descriptions and generalizations about the behaviour of men and States in international society, and bold solutions to problems, have been a feature of most studies of international relations. They no longer satisfy the student who wants a clear picture of the movements of history, and who wants to see at the micro-level what the processes are that give rise to these broad movements, and in this way to see at which points, if any, systems can be altered or influenced by deliberate decision.

6. At the Macro-level
At the Macro-level the relevant questions to ask are: why do States enact unacceptable roles? Why do they pursue policies that provoke aggressive responses? Why do they endeavour to deny participation to those seeking it? What are systemic influences? What is the result when States resist them? These questions can be answered only in part at the macro-level by postulating systemic and States needs and interests. But the processes that lead systems to change, that give rise to States responses, that finally render States and systems, or States and States in conflict, can be seen only at the micro-level of decision making. This is to some extent true of any system: a breakdown is obvious, but the reasons for it usually require more exact attention. This level of analysis involves empirical studies, hypotheses and reality testing, and is recent in the study of International Relations. The questions at the micro-level are: how are the decisions taken within political
systems? What use is made of information? How accurately is the external world perceived? What capability do States have of responding to their environment, and of altering their response?

That the range of choice in the making of decisions is narrowly limited at any given point of time might be discouraging: no easy and quick solutions to serious political problems can be contemplated. But even the limited range of choices that exists at a particular time is responsible over long periods of time for systemic changes, and for resistances by States to systemic changes that ultimately lead to conflict between them. If States finally become irrelevant to world society, if supranational authorities are created or if disarmament occurs, this will no less be due to decision-making processes – to limited choices made at many points of time. For these reasons the details of decision-making – trivial matters in comparison with the great movements of history – are of particular interest in the study of international politics and conflict.

CONCLUSION

Decision making is a tedious process and it involves manifold abilities. Particularly, in the context of the crises management it involves many challenging factors. It is a tough job and demands physical as well as, mental presence, robustness, strong nerves, creative and logical thinking and updated knowledge of all dimensions of the crises. Decision making in this particular situation also demands skills and expertise in a variety of fields. The most important thing is innovation, originality and ability to make minute to minute decisions to overcome moment to moment, upcoming novel situations. Constant monitoring and altering or modifying the decision at implementation level is the key requirement.
**RESEARCH SKILLS**

**Introduction**

The word re-search, comprises a pre-fix and a verb i.e. ‘re’ and ‘search’. The simple meaning of the word ‘search’ is to ‘find out’, ‘look for’ or ‘a careful inquiry for discovering truth in the history or discovering new facts.’ If we read the word with its pre-fix (re) it means again and again as the pre-fix itself means ‘again’. It is therefore enough to say that re-search is a constant phenomenon and there is no end to it. There are countless hidden realities and countless suppositions which are being treated or believed as realities. The facts are required to be discovered.

**History.** Whereas, the new realities are being constantly discovered and there is no end to it yet, the importance of history can not be ignored. History is known as mother of knowledge but on the other hand we hardly permit ourselves to accept that history is mother of doubts and apprehensions also. There are millions of examples to prove this theory. Before the Holy Quran was revealed, it was believed that sun revolves around the earth. The Holy Quran revealed onto us that it is other way round i.e. the sun does not revolve around the earth but the earth revolves around the sun. Centuries later it was scientifically proved by the scientists who took great pride in it. Hence, a gigantic historical misbelieve was discovered and the fact was found. This is the advantage of research.

1. **Why Research**

   **a. Aristotle’s Fly**

   There are many problems associated with the research as we are always impressed by authority and knowledge of the sources. It would be interesting to know a story associated with Aristotle. It was just a chance that one day Aristotle caught a fly and carefully counted and recounted its legs. He then announced that flies have five legs. No one questioned the word of Aristotle. For years his finding was uncritically accepted. Of course, the fly that Aristotle caught just happened to be missing one leg. Whether one believes the story or not, it does illustrate the limitations to rely upon personal experience and authority as sources of knowledge.

   **b. Einstein**

   There is another small story about Einstein also. Early in the morning, when the children go to school, just by chance Einstein would sit outside his house to enjoy the sun. A small female child used to follow the same route to her school. Einstein liked the child and always helped the child in her homework. This was known to the school people also. One day the child showed her mathematics homework to the old man. There was a sum which was to be solved. It was $2+2=?$. Einstein solved the sum as $2+2=5$. When the child showed her work to her teacher, she asked the child as to who had taught her the answer; the child replied Einstein. The teacher did not mark the answer as wrong by commenting, “If Einstein has done it, he will prove it also”. This is the burden of authority and knowledge which necessitates research.

   **c. Misinterpretation (Mathematician and Bridal Procession)**

   A bridal procession also had mathematician among them. En-route to their destination, there came a quite wide seasonal stream. Apparently, it looked difficult to cross the stream. People asked the mathematician, to use his knowledge and tell the people whether the stream could be negotiated or not. He applied his knowledge and told the procession that they could walk through the water. Well! Only the swimmers could make it to the far bank and rest all drowned. They got hold of the mathematician who simply replied, “I had worked out the average depth of the water, which was only four feet.”

   **d. Blind Following**

   There are certain things which are blindly followed by the people as they are present in certain books, references or quotations. Following two verses are a classic example of such a blind believes. The verse given below has been quoted as that of Dr. Sir Allama Muhammad Iqbal, even in the books written by well read...
people. The only misleading clue in the verse is the symbol of “UQAB” (Hawk) that has been used by Dr. Sir Allama Muhammad Iqbal quite often, as a symbol. Actually the verse belongs to Muhammad Sadiq Qureshi advocate (late), of district Sialkot and is there in his book titled “Barg-e-Sabz”.

There is yet another interesting example of the following verse, which is usually found written, in bold letters, on the main entrances of well reputed educational institutions. In brackets one finds the name of Allama Muhammad Iqbal whereas, it is not his verse. The poet of this verse was late Khuda Baksh Muztar Nizami, of Pasrur district Sialkot, who was an able high school teacher.

These are the realities which demand that truth should be sifted from the history and new facts should also be discovered. Research broadens the mental horizon and brings past experiences in the knowledge of a crisis manager, who can draw conclusions for future also.

2. What is Research?

a. Hunting for facts or truth about a subject (e.g. the researchers have done much to lessen disease.)

b. Organized scientific investigation to solve problems, test hypotheses, or develop or invent new products e.g. atomic research, cancer research etc.

c. Research is the Systematic application or use of a set of methods to provide trustworthy information about problems.

d. Research is a systematic investigation to increase knowledge and understanding.

e. It is a careful, critical, disciplined inquiry varying in technique and method according to the nature and conditions of the problem, directed towards the clarification or resolution (or both) of a problem.

f. It is the formal systematic application of scientific method to the study of problem.

g. It is a process of conscious, premeditated inquiry, well planned before time.

3. Specific Characteristics of Research

a. Flawless and clear description of the problem for research is essential.

b. The hypothesis is tested and conclusion is drawn whether, it is true or false.

c. New hypotheses may be formed during the process of research which are further investigated.

d. Research is carried out according to priority of the subject.

e. Many research works are carried out to investigate a specific condition.

f. Research produces concepts.

g. Concepts are modified or rendered obsolete through research.

h. Research explains concepts and rejects with logic and reasons.

j. Science is alive due to research.
k. Research sets a standard of ‘right’ and ‘wrong’.

4. Objectives

a. Theoretical or Basic Research.
   It is basically conducted to develop theories or know basic facts about some theory. It is completely academic.

b. Factorial or Applied Research.
   The objective is to apply or test a theory and evaluate its usefulness in solving problems.

c. Practical or Action Research.
   It aims at finding out some immediate action to address some localized problem.

d. Addressing the Defined Problem.
   To find out ways and means to successfully manage an existing problem.

e. Designing New Methods of Research.
   There is always a need to modify and find out new methods of research as research is an endless phenomenon. With the passage of time, new tools, instruments and techniques for research are required.

f. Discovering New Concepts.
   The universe or its problems and mysteries have not been completely unfolded yet. The day to day changes and developments also create new challenges. This is one of the objectives of research to discover new concepts for further development.

g. Modifying/Updating the Existing Concepts/Methods.
   This is self explanatory that nothing is final and need of updating and modification always remains there. This is one of the objectives of the research to constantly modify and update that existing or believed facts and concepts.

5. Sequence of Research

Nothing will produce desired results if some system is not followed strictly. Research demands it the most. Since crises management demand flawless data, facts and thoughts therefore, a particular sequence has to be followed, in order to achieve the goal. Keeping particularly in view, the crises management, we need to follow a sequence that automatically leads us to make some decision or adopt a course of action. A suggested sequence is as under:-

a. Identification and definition of the problem.

b. Formulation of hypothesis, an idea as to a probable solution to the problem, an intelligent guess or hunch.

c. Collection, organization, and analysis of data.

d. Formulation of conclusions.

e. Verification, rejection, or modification of the hypothesis by the test of its consequences in a specific situation.

f. All therein, laws are called the generalization.
MAIN TYPES OF RESEARCH

Introduction

Our basic subject is ‘crises management’ for which it is essential for any crises manager to have knowledge of research skills. We are discussing the research skills only at introductory level, however, historical research has been discussed in detail as a specimen. Rest of the types have been briefly described as almost all types of research follow the same methodology. There are many other terminologies used in research or sub-types of research which have been briefly included in your course.

Most of the researchers agree on the following six types of research. There are differences; agreements and disagreements as far as, the types of research are concerned. However, we will restrict only to the following six approaches.

a. Historical research.
b. Descriptive research.
c. Correlated research.
d. Causal Comparative research.
e. Experimental research.
f. Qualitative / Quantitative research.
DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH

This particular approach involves collection of data in order to test hypotheses or to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. Descriptive Data are usually collected through a questionnaire, survey, interviews or observation. Just as the historical researcher has no control over the past the descriptive researcher has no control over the present and can only measure what already exists.

A descriptive study describes and interprets what is going on at present. It is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to current conditions.

Characteristics of Descriptive Research

1. It involves hypotheses formulation and testing.
2. It uses the logical methods of inductive-deductive reasoning to arrive at generalization.

a. a.a. Deductive Definition. Moving from the general assumptions to the specific applications. e.g. (All men are mortal) Generally for all, Salaam is a man, Specific to a person This logic is called deductive.

b. b. Inductive Definition. Moving from the specific observations to the generalization. Francis Bacon (Philosopher) gave the idea of induct.
CO-RELATIONAL RESEARCH

This type of research basically helps us in finding out the co-relations between the variables. The important points to be remembered are given below.

In this approach data is collected to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. Degree of relationship is expressed as a correlation coefficient. The fact that there is a relationship between variables does not imply that one is the cause of the other. Co-relational studies provide an estimate of just how two variables are related to each other. The more highly related two variables are, the more accurate are predictions, based on their relationship. In this method the sample study is selected using an acceptable sampling method, considered to be a minimally acceptable sample size. It is important to select or develop valid and reliable measures of the variables being studied. The basic Co-relational design is not complicated; two (or more) scores are obtained for all members of a selected sample, one score for each variable of interest and the paired scores are then correlated.

Relationship Studies are conducted in an attempt to gain insight into the factors, or variables, that are related to complex variables such as academic achievement, motivation, and self-concept etc. Also, in both causal-comparative and experimental research studies, the research is concerned with controlling for variables, other than the independent variable, which might be related to performance on the dependent variable. Relationship studies help the researcher to identify such variables. In a relationship study the researcher first identifies, either inductively or deductively, variables potentially related to the complex variable under study.
CAUSAL-COMPARATIVE RESEARCH

Causal Comparative Research describes conditions that already exist and also attempts to determine reasons or causes, for the current status of the phenomena under study. It is sometimes treated as a type of descriptive research.

In Causal-comparative research, the researcher attempts to determine the cause, or reason, for existing differences in the behaviour or status of groups of individuals. It seeks involvement starting with possible causes of an effect. A variation of the basic approach (sometimes referred to as prospective) involves starting with a cause and investigating its effect on some variable. It attempts to identify cause-effect relationship which is not done in co-relational studies. Independent variables in causal-comparative studies are variables that can not be manipulated (such as socio-economic status), should not be manipulated (such as number of cigarettes smoked per day), or simply are not manipulated but could be (such as method of reading instructions). Identification of relationships through this research may lead to experimental studies. Cause-effect relationships established through causal-comparative research are at best tenuous and tentative.

Design and procedure for this approach are not complicated. The basic causal-comparative design involves selecting two groups differing on some independent variable and comparing them on some dependent variable. The important consideration is to select samples that are representative of their respective populations and similar with respect to critical variables other than the independent variable.

The possible sources of weakness in a casual comparative design can be; lack of the randomization, manipulation and control which characterize experimental studies.
EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

It is the only type of research that can truly test hypotheses concerning cause-and-effect relationships. It is also best suited for educational research.

1. In this type of research, the researcher manipulates at least one independent variable, controls relevant variables and observes the effect on one or more dependent variables and determines “what to what” which group of subjects gets which treatment. Manipulation of the independent variable is the characteristic that differentiates all experimental research from the other types of research. The independent variable, also referred to as the experimental variable, the cause, or the treatment, is that activity or characteristic that is believed to make a difference. To understand it better, if we take the example of educational research, independent variables, typically manipulated, include method of instruction, type of reinforcement, frequency of reinforcement, arrangement of learning environment, type of learning materials, and size of learning group. There are dependent variables also; such variables are as attendance, number of suspensions, attention span, or even number of books checked out of the library. The only restriction on the dependent variable is that it represents an outcome that is measurable.

2. Experimental research is the most demanding but the most productive type of research. Experimental studies produce the soundest evidence concerning hypothesized cause-effect relationships. Although there are a number of alternative designs from which a researcher can select, the basic experimental process is the same in all studies.

3. The Experimental Process

(a). An experimental study is guided by at least one hypothesis that states an expected causal relationship between two variables. The actual experiment is conducted in order to confirm (support) or disconfirm the experimental hypothesis.

(b). The steps in an experimental study are basically the same as in other types of research:
   - Selection and definition of a problem
   - Selection of subjects and measuring instruments
   - Selection of a design
   - Execution of procedures
   - Analysis of data
   - Formulation of conclusions

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QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE (RESEARCH/APPROACHES)

Qualitative Research / Approach. Qualitative research involves intensive data collection on many variables over an extended period of time, in a naturalistic setting. In contrast, quantitative study involves collection of limited and standardized numerical data. Significant features of qualitative and quantitative research /approach are given below.

1. Qualitative Approach. It is a text based research. Its main features are as under:-
   a. Extensive narrative data is collected.
   b. Many variables are intensely studied.
   c. It has soft data.
   d. It extends over long span of time.
   e. There is no intervention and no control is implied.
   f. Does not start from hypothesis.
   g. It is in natural setting.
   h. Following types of research can be used, for qualitative approach:-
      Historical Research
      Qualitative Research

2. Quantitative Approach. It is a ‘numbers’ based research. It has following significant characteristic:-
   a. Data is in numerical form.
   b. It concentrates on one or a small number of variables.
   c. Data is in hard form.
   d. It studies current conditions.
   e. Frequent interaction and control of variables is implied.
   f. It starts from hypothesis.
   g. It is not in natural setting, instead it is designed.
   h. Following types of research can be used, in quantitative approach:-
      Descriptive Research.
      Co- relational Research.
      Casual Comparative and Experimental Research.
CLASSIFICATION OF RESEARCH

To facilitate the researchers and make the job of research more methodical and comprehensive, the experts have classified the research work into various categories. Basically some of the research types are applied for different classifications however, some allied types of research have also been mentioned by some experts, which have been briefly included. Main classifications of research are as under:-

1. Research by Method
2. Research by Purpose
3. Research by Approach

1. Research by Method. Two methods can be used for this kind of research.

a. Direct Research. This type of research is purely based on the individual efforts of the researcher.
b. Indirect Research. In direct research information is sought from other sources and their analysis.

Following types of research can be used in this kind of research:-

(1). Historical Research
(2). Descriptive Research
(3). Co-relational Research
(4). Causal Comparative Research
(5). Experimental Research

2. Research by Approaches. In research by approach following two types are used.

a. Qualitative approach
b. Quantitative approach

3. Research by Purpose. Classification of research by purpose is primarily based on the degree to which findings have direct application and the degree which they are generalizable to other situations. Following types of research can be used in research by purpose.

a. Basic Research. It involves the process of collecting and analyzing data/information to develop or enhance theory. In its purest form; basic research is conducted solely for the purpose of theory development and refinement.
b. Applied Research. It is conducted for the purpose of applying or testing theory and evaluating its usefulness in solving problems. Applied research provides data to support theory, guide-theory revision, or suggest development of new theory.
c. Evaluation Research. This type of research is used for evaluative purposes. It seeks to examine the usefulness of a project/Programme. The Purpose of evaluation research is to facilitate decision making regarding the relative worth of two or more alternative actions.
d. Research & Development. The major purpose of research and development effort is not to formulate or test theory but to develop effective products for use in various fields.
e. Action Research. Action research is focused on immediate application, not on the development of theory or on general application. It places its emphasis on a problem, here and now, in a local setting. Its findings are to be evaluated in terms of local applicability and not universal validity.
4. **Types of Research By Motives.** Research can also be carried out keeping in view the motives or subject matter. Both, at a glance, are given below. Keeping in view the motives following methods can be applied.

a. **Basic Research.** Including Intellectual and literary type of research.
b. **Applied Research.** To find out solution of a problem (usually used for industry & Agriculture).

5. **Types of Research by Subject Matter.** Research can also be classified/categorised by subject matter. Types of research by subject matter are given below.

a. **Communication Research.** It pertains to ‘Means of Communication’ and communication systems etc.
b. **Historical Research.** It aims at analyzing the past events to reach some conclusions about present & future.
c. **Scientific Research.** It is totally a fact based subject usually named as science. This is the most trustworthy and logical way of reaching the facts and realities.
d. **Experimental Research.** Scientific analysis of some particular problems by carrying out experiments.(Variable applied)
e. **Descriptive Research.** Collection of data to test hypotheses and answer questions concurring the subject understudy.
f. **Academic Research.** Research on any academic problem which is conducted by intellectuals & participants.
g. **Social Research.** To discover welfare methods for society)
h. **Technological Research.** For Technological development and advancement.
j. **Educational Research.** Research carried out for effectiveness of education system. Conclusions are drawn from the past education systems and suggestions for the present and future are given.
k. **Formulative or Exploratory Research.** It concerns to an unknown and undefined problem which suddenly comes in the mind of a researcher who deems it appropriate to carry out research on the said problem. Research on such a problem provides a subject to the researcher himself and opens many other avenues for the other researchers.
l. **Literary Research.** This kind of research pertains to the literary personalities and their work. It brings out discoveries from the beginning to the present. It may also make predictions for the future.
m. **Personality Research.** Research is carried out about the elite and towering personalities in different walks of life. The researcher makes an effort to discover all aspects of the life of the Personalities under research.
n. **Laboratory Research.** A subject concerning natural sciences or anthropology, needs a Laboratory to find out the facts. For science subjects a science laboratory is used whereas, for anthropological problems a society is used as a laboratory by the researcher.
o. **Field Research.** According to Anthony M. Graziano and Michal M. Ralon (American researchers) “Field research is conducted outside the laboratory in natural settings. Field research might include low constraint research (Such as naturalistic or case study research) or may include higher constraint procedure applied to natural settings. An advantage of field research is that results more easily generalize to the real world because observations are made in a real world settings.”
p. **Extractive Research.** It aims at discovering the existing information and carrying out analysis in order to reach some conclusions. The job of historians (writing the history) falls in this category.

6. **Guidelines for Classification of Research**

a. Which of the six types is most appropriate for a given study depends upon the way in which the

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problem is defined. The same general problem can often be investigated using several types of research.

b. When analyzing a study in order to determine the specific type of research represented, one strategy is to ask yourself a series of questions; first, does the study represent a qualitative or a quantitative approach?

c. If the study is qualitative, it should be easy to differentiate between historical and qualitative studies.

d. If the study is quantitative, is the researcher attempting to establish a cause effect relationship? Is the alleged cause, or independent variable, manipulated by the researcher? Is the researcher attempting to establish a relationship or use a relationship for prediction?

7. Features of Good Research Work

a. Research work must have a very noble motive.
b. It should be scientific and systematic.
c. It should be based on logical reasoning.
d. The research work should be impartial and not biased.
e. It should be clear, comprehensive and free of ambiguities.
f. It should be based on authentic sources.
g. The research work must be conclusive and result oriented.
HISTORICAL RESEARCH

It is concerned with the past and attempts to trace the past as a means of seeing the present in perspective.

1. Definition. Historical research, is the systematic collection and evaluation of data to describe, explain, and thereby understand action or events that occurred sometimes in the past; like, how did the people manage crises like floods, earthquakes, food shortage, epidemics crises created by wars etc.

2. Purposes.
   (a). To make people aware of what has happened in the past so that they may learn from past failures and successes.
   (b). To learn how things were done in the past and to see if they might be applicable to present day problem and concerns.
   (c). To assist in prediction.
   (d). To test hypothesis concerning relationships or trends.
   (e). To understand present practices and policies more realistically.

3. Steps
   The steps involved in conducting a historical research study are essentially the same, as for the other types of research; definition of a problem, formulation of questions to be answered or hypotheses to be tested, systematic collection of data, evaluation of data, and production of a verbal synthesis of findings or confirmation/ disconfirmation of hypotheses.

a. Definition of a Problem
   The purpose of a historical research study should be to explain or predict not to rehash. The researcher limits himself to whatever data are already available.
   A well defined problem should be studied in depth, to answer well stated and specific, one or two questions.

b. Data Collection
   In a historical research study, the review of related literature and study procedures are part of the same process. The term “literature” carries much broader meaning in a historical study. It refers to all sorts of written communication; in the form of legal documents, records, minutes of meetings, letters, and other documents which will not normally be indexed alphabetically by subject, author, and title in a library.
   It may involve interviews with persons who participated in the event or process under investigation, if it occurred in the recent past.
   Primary sources constitute first hand information, such as original documents and reports by actual participants or direct observers; secondary sources constitute second hand information, such as reference books, encyclopaedias, for example or reports by associates of actual participants or observers. Excessive reliance on secondary sources, is common criticism of historical research.

c. Data Analysis: External and Internal Criticism.
   Scientific analysis of the data must be carried out. All sources of historical data must be subjected to rigorous criticism to determine authenticity (external criticism) and accuracy (Internal criticism), of the sources. To determine the accuracy of documents, following four factors must be considered:
   Knowledge and competence of the author.
   The time delay between the occurrence and recording of events.
   Biased motives of the author.
   Consistency of the data.

d. Data Synthesis.
   As with a review of related literature, historical data should be organized and synthesized, and conclusions and generalizations formulated. Since summarization of historical research data involves logical analysis, rather than statistical analysis, the researcher must remain as objective as possible.
4. Category of Sources.

a. **Primary Source.** Is the one, prepared by an individual who is/was a participant in or a direct witness to the event being described.

b. **Secondary Source.** A document prepared by an individual who was not a direct witness to an event, but who obtained his or her description of the event from someone else.

c. **Documents.** Any signed document pertaining to an event.

d. **Numerical Records.** Numerical or quantitative, records can be considered either as a separate type of source or as a sub-category of documents.

e. **Oral Statements.** Stories, myths, tales, legends, songs and other forms of oral expression have been used by people, down through ages to leave a record for future generation. But historians can also conduct oral interviews.

f. **Relics.** A relic is any object whose physical or visual characters can provide some information about the past. Examples include furniture, artwork, clothing, buildings, monuments or equipment etc.

5. **Evaluation of Historical Sources.** The researcher can never be sure about the genuineness and accuracy of historical sources.

   **Evaluation of Historical Sources:**  The researcher can never be sure about the genuineness and accuracy of historical sources.

   a. A memo may have been written by someone other than the person whose signature one finds on it.
   b. A letter may refer to events that did not occur, or that occurred at a different time or at a different place.
   c. A document may have been forged or information deliberately falsified.

6. **Key Questions for Researcher**

   a. Was this document really written by the supposed author (i.e., is it genuine)?
   b. Is the information contained in this document true (i.e. is it accurate)?

   The first question refers to what is known as external criticism, the second to what is known as internal criticism.

7. **External Criticism.** External Criticism refers to the genuineness of any and all documents the researcher uses. Several questions come to mind in evaluating the genuineness of a historical source.

   a. Who wrote the document?
   b. For what purpose was the document written?
   c. When was the document written?
   d. Where was the document written?
   e. Under what conditions was document written?
   f. Do different forms or versions of the document exist?

8. **Internal Criticism.** Once researchers have satisfied themselves that a source document is **genuine**, they need to determine if the contents of the document are **accurate**. This involves what is known as **internal criticism**.

   a. Both the **accuracy** of the information contained in a document and the **truthfulness** of the author need to be evaluated.
   b. Whereas, external criticism has to do with the nature and authenticity of the document itself, internal
criticism has to do with what the document says.


a. Was the author present at the event that he or she has described?
b. Was the author a participant in the event or an observer of the event?
c. Was the author competent to describe the event?
d. Was the author emotionally involved in the event?
e. Did the author have any vested interest in the outcomes of the event?
f. Do the contents make sense?
g. Could the event described have occurred at that time?
h. Would people have behaved as described?
j. Does the language of the document suggest a bias of any sort?
k. Do other versions of the event exist?
Qualities of a Good Researcher/ Crisis Manager

1. Moral Qualities.
   a. Truthfulness.
   b. Unbiased-Impartial.
   c. No Rigidity.
   d. No lust for material benefits.
   e. Untiring stamina for hard work.
   f. Consistent and composed temperament.
   g. Moderate temperament.

2. Mental Qualities.
   a. Not a blind follower.
   b. Managerial outlook.
   c. Not apprehensive.
   d. Ruthlessly Logical.
   e. Excellent memory.
   f. Decisive like a scientist.
   g. Concentrative - (Should repel distractions).
   h. Knowledge of allied subjects.
   j. Stylistic.

3 Intellectual/ Literary Qualities
   a. Inquisitiveness
   b. Should know other languages
   c. Must have Knowledge of history
   d. Reasonable knowledge of literature
   e. Should know criticism and research methodology

4 Educational Qualities.
   a. Educational Psychology.
   b. Latest trends in :-
      Educational skills
      Syllabus
      Teaching Methods
   c. Educational Infrastructure.
   d. Teaching Aids.
   e. Need of the hour.
   f. Must have Teaching experience
RESEARCH DESIGN

Definition. The design of a study is basically the overall approach used to investigate the problem of interest, i.e., to shed light on, or answer, the questions of interest or to test the intended hypothesis. It includes the methods of data collection and related specific strategies. Some researchers call it “Design and Method or D x M” also. Some usually used types of design are given.

1. Types of Design
   a. Experimental Design:
      Pre-Experimental Design.
      True-Experimental Design.
      Quasi Experimental Design.
   b. Factorial Design.
   c. Multiple Baseline Design

**Experimental Design**

D________ This design comprises tables, maps, and samples, with the help of which, the researcher, frames hypothesis by using free and controlled variables. Selection of design depends upon the following:

a. Objectives of the experiment
   The type of variables, intended to be manipulated or modified.
   The circumstances under which the experiment is being done.
   Restrictions or limitations

b. Following practical Problems are also kept in mind.
   Division of participants (under observation into experimental group and central group.
   Manipulation and control of variables as desired.
   Control of extraneous variables
   Methods of observation

c. Types of Experimental Design

(1). Pre-Experimental Design. This is the most in-effective design, in which control group is not used and even if control group is used, it is not equal to experimental group.
(2). True-Experimental Design. On this design random method is used to ensure equality of groups and manipulate variables.
(3). Quasi Experimental Design. In this design control is not satisfactory. It is used when random method is not practicable. Mr. Cook and Campbell are the experts on design.

**Factorial Design**

It is adopted when more than one variables are under experiment. An experimental study is carried out by measuring and watching the interaction; e.g. by using the factorial design, the research can find out the related reaction of a variable. In a simplest possible factorial design, there will be experimental variables and every variable will have at least two levels or conditions. This design will be called (2x2) factorial design.

**Multiple Baseline Design**

Multiple-baseline designs are used when the treatment is such that it is not possible to withdraw it and return to baseline or when it would not be ethical to withdraw it or reverse it. In multiple-baseline design, instead of collecting baseline data for one target behaviour, for one subject, in one setting, we collect data on several behaviours for one subject, one behaviour for several subjects, or one behaviour and one subject in several settings.
Conclusion

There are many things which apparently give a different look but actually they are not that way as we perceive them. The modern era has blessed us with unbelievable facilities to find out the facts and realities. Since crisis management predominantly involves quick and correct decision making therefore, correct and fact based data is the first essential requirement. Such kind of data cannot be found without proper research. It is no more a specialized or separate qualification but an essential pre-requisite for every manager, leader and anyone holding important position to know the research skills and necessity of this knowledge. The need to master the research skills is just like the computer literacy, which should not be considered an additional qualification but an aid to enhance the efficiency.
CRISES MANAGEMENT

“He not busy being born is busy dying.”
(Bob Dylan)

Introduction

Decisions are an inescapable part of our life. In planning, organizing, directing and controlling a crisis manager is constantly making decisions about various factors, forces and people with whom he has to deal. The crises situations are like a flood which keeps sweeping many areas with varying degree of damage and destruction. Every situation demands quick decisions, modifications and changes. One of the biggest aids to manage such like situations is well researched, before hand information about the possible causes of crises. Because of changes in human expectations (arising from affluence, more widespread education, and more rapid communications), people place a higher value on themselves than they used to, and feel that what they want is important and not to be lightly denied. This change has forced the crises manager into much more difficult situation than half a century before.

According to John W. Gardner, “Our status quo has been knocked head over heels by the revolutions in science and technology, in transportation, in communication and education, in demography and biomedical affairs. The swift pace of these revolutions makes it desperately necessary that our institutions be adaptable. When they are not, the sweep of events isolates them and dramatizes their anachronistic character.” This is the problem of the crises manager of today. He needs to be equipped with the new changes, challenges and dimensions which are adding towards the comfort of life adding towards more expectations and equally becoming potential source of creating more severe crises. A crises manager must keep at least following in mind.
BASIS OF DECISION MAKING DURING CRISSES

1. **Identification of Crisis.**
   The first and the foremost step is to identify the crises. Many crises require little more than the event name itself to establish an immediate and common interpretation of the impact. Usually it is far more difficult to understand the gravity of a situation and activate the crises management measures. The situation must be critically studied and assessed to ensure whether the situation is really a crises situation. There can be many false indicators and false alarms. When nuclear threat between USSR and U.K had reached the climax they established ‘Hot-Line’ to keep each other in picture about any unpleasant situation. In one year there were 200 false alarms about commencement of nuclear war between the two super powers. The definitions and concepts, which have been discussed in the previous lectures, facilitate and train our mind to understand such a situation, to be labelled as crises. Crisis can occur in many fields and in many forms. Following can be the possible causes and areas of crises.

2. **Causes of Crises**
   a. **System Crisis.** Sometimes, the system / systems mal-function or become non-operational due to some very temporary reason, for a very small span of time. This would be a problem and not a crisis.
   b. **Political, Economic, Social Crises etc.** Crises can occur in any of these fields/areas.
   c. **Natural or Created.** Crises can be due to natural hazards calamities or can be created by design also. This always needs to be scientifically analysed.
   d. **Foreign Influence.** Today the global world is so closely related to each other that nothing is hidden from each other, about each other. All nations and countries have their own political and strategic objectives that one way or the other have their fulfilment potential in the neighbouring states. Sometimes fulfilment of these objectives even reaches the state of the crises in neighbouring states.
   e. **Reactionary or Created.** At many occasions reactions/retaliations to certain policies, religious connotations, introduction of new measures in some departments etc. are very strongly rejected and reacted. However, reactionary crises are mostly related to ideological field only but they can severely hurt economy, infrastructure, writ of the government and can render grave losses to life and property.
   f. **Use of a Theme or Doctrine.** Sometimes, some objective oriented forces use a theme, existing in a society/state for their own purposes. It may be related to sect, language or culture.
   g. **Law and Order.** Sometimes due to certain reasons the law and order situation assumes the shape of chain reaction and thus ultimately turn into crises.
   h. **Extreme Climatic Conditions.** Weather plays a vital role in the life of human society. It has happened many times in the world that extreme climatic conditions have assumed the shape of crises. During 2003, the temperature in France reached 29 degrees and resultanty 3000 people lost their lives, because they had never experienced such a hot weather.
   i. **Unusual Global Happenings.** Many a times some totally unexpected un-toward incident occurs, at macro level, anywhere in the world which seriously affects the closely knitted world of today. 9/11 in USA, Tsunami, oil crises, famine and draught or epidemics etc. are some of the examples.
   k. **Possibilities of Escalation.** Sometimes, some small problems, prevailing at a small level unexpectedly escalate and convert into crises.
   l. **Possibilities of Changing Form/Nature.** It is not essential that crises will keep their original form or shape. They can always escalate horizontally as well as, vertically and convert into other forms e.g. shortage of edibles can always create unmanageable level of crime rate and law and order situation.
   m. **Rumours.** Everyone in this world is not sufficiently educated or equipped with reasonable awareness. Even the most developed, educated, advanced and well-informed societies have a large component of people who do not have mental level or education at par with the level of their own nation. They are bound to accept the rumours and demonstrate behaviour as desired by rumours. In the modern media a very sophisticated form of rumours is being used by the media controllers against the ill educated and ignorant nations. Rumours have to be watched constantly and carefully and the masses have to be kept well-informed about such attempts.
n. **Opportunists and Criminals Taking Advantage.** Whenever there are crises of any kind the opportunists and criminals always take advantage of the situation which can create some other type of crises or worsen the prevailing crises.

o. **Business.** Business is the buzz-word of the day. Since business is also linked with the international environment, in addition to the domestic environment, it is always exposed to crises.

p. **Terrorism.** Unfortunately, our world has become highly exposed to any kind of terrorism. There is hardly a day when terrorism oriented crises are not faced by one part of the world or the other.

q. **Industrial Espionage.** The world overloaded with industry has also exposed the human society to many dangers and crises. Leakage of atomic reactors in Russia and India are just two examples. It happens mostly in the industrial countries.

r. **Kidnapping.** It appears to be a simple crime but sometimes it can assume the shape of crises depending upon the level of personality /personalities.

s. **Disaster in the Neighbourhood.** A gigantic natural disaster, war, famine or shortage of food etc. can become source of crises in the neighbouring states also.

t. **Power Failure.** There are nations that have never experienced power failure but when it occurs, it creates crises. It can assume many other shapes like Jamming the wheel of industry, creating shortage of basic necessities, food items and medicine etc. It also paralyses the day to day life. All these factors are indicators of crises in one way or the other.

u. **Random Act of Violence.** Any severe act of violence taking high toll of lives and damage to property can contribute towards crises.

v. **Accidental Occurrence.** Accidental occurrences at a large scale are also a potential source of crises.
PRACTICAL STEPS IN CRISIS MANAGEMENT

Introduction.

1. The fastly changing world has brought many novel and unknown crises also along-with its blessings. This situation demands that man should also change his attitude and accept the changing realities.

   a. Crisis management is more significant today than ever before. It needs to be recognized, institutionalized and practiced in letter and spirit
   b. Natural or man-made crisis are very frequent and have become almost a routine.
   c. If the crises are not managed well in time and in a befitting manner they can create manifold challenges.
   d. Crises can assume any direction and form and may change the course altogether.

2. Proper Permanent Organization. Many countries have permanent organizations, cells, teams, departments etc. to manage various types of crises round the clock. In fact, it is a dire need of the time to have permanent crisis management organizations at all levels. It must be kept in mind that different land forms i.e., mountains, deserts, forests, marshy areas, water bound areas, thickly built up areas and plains demand different kinds of equipment, skills and expertise for crises management. Hence, different facilities and measures are required for different terrain/areas.

3. Features of an Effective Crisis Management Organization. An effective crises management organization must have the following in built features.

   a. Well educated and well trained staff.
   b. Required resources demanded by the nature of crises.
   c. Effective co-ordination at all levels
   d. Well managed organization.
   e. Anticipatory character.
   g. Research oriented.
   h. Duplicate communication network.
   j. Fast and balanced dissemination of information.
   k. Fast decision making ability.
   l. Considerations of geographic features.


A Suggested Model for Crisis Management

1. National Level.

   a. **Headquarters.** To act as command and control centre.
   b. **Coordination wing:** To co-ordinate all efforts among all components.
   c. **Information/ instruction** Dissemination Component.
   d. **Analysis wing** & data Maintenance Wing
   e. **Watch Wing:** To constantly watch the pulse of the time and possibility of anything contributing towards crisis. Keep monitoring the management process during crises and draw conclusions for use in future after crisis.
   f. **Communication Wing:** To ensure effective internal and external communication.

      g. **Media Component,** Integral media wing to feed and monitor the media, as the media can make mistakes, misguide or present a desired angle.
   h. **Decision Making Mechanism,** Constantly working on decision making to prevent, manage and control the crises.

2. Provincial Level: As National Level.
3. Divisional Level or Geographical Level.
   **Headquarters.** The headquarters must have following component.

   a. **Co-ordination Team.** For vertical & horizontal co-ordination
   b. **Resource Management Team**
   c. **Operations team:** To manage the operational aspects.
   d. **Media management team**
   e. **Monitoring team:** (On the scene of occurrence)

4. At District / Tehsil Level. Following departments/representatives must be included in the organization at this level.

   a. District government
   b. Representatives of allied departments.
   c. Police
   d. Fire Fighting Department.
   e. Rescue Services
   f. Hospitals
   g. Traffic Management Department.
   h. Responsible representatives of various departments e.g. Home Ministry
   Ministry of Health
   Industry
   Agriculture
   Food
   Education
   Information
   j. Public representatives
   k. NGO’s

5. **Control Room/Co-ordination Room.** A control room/co-ordination room must be established for two way flow of information. It should be a nerve centre for managing input and output. The control room must have the followings.

   a. Telephone numbers, Fax numbers and e-mail addresses of all concerned departments.
   b. List of representatives of incorporated organizations / departments containing:-
Name
Appointment / designation
Telephone numbers
Complete address; office and Residence, e-mail etc.

c. Resources Available.
d. Time calculations for mobilization of resources.
e. Known trouble spots in terms of agitation.
f. Likely problems to be faced during implementation of plan.
g. Potential possibility of escalation of crisis.
h. Mob Mentality of the area.
j. Mobility / Traffic problems.
k. Ways and means for containment of crisis.
l. List of criminals / opportunists.
m. Information cell for two way information.

6. At Every Level. Following must form part of the crises management organizations at all levels.

   a. Plans to handle various types of potential/ expected crisis.
   b. Contingency plans.
   c. Alternatives / Flexibilities.
   d. Pooling up of resources
   e. Rehearsals.
   f. Alert levels.
   g. Decision making procedures/authority.
   h. Existing/ available resources.
   j. Mechanism for Judicious use of resources at all levels.
Suggestions for Different Levels

1. Alert Levels. To facilitate crisis management, it is suggested that various levels of alert should also be decided, clearly defined and demarcated. Once the levels are established, then various actions demanded by the levels should be spelled out. A mechanism is also required, to activate all measures, resources and actions, demanded by a certain alert level. The guiding principle to establish levels is, “Establish the impact and threat level.

2. Suggested Levels.

   a. Level – 1. Basically this level aims at constant watch, assessment and analysis of various alarming occurrences at domestic or global level, constant research continues during peaceful circumstances. Have permanent members of staff for whole time.

      Constant watch. Keep constant watch on local, national and international circumstances.
      Continues assessment of situation at home and abroad.
      Constant Coordination, with all concerned people/departments.
      Keep an eye on occurrences which can assume the form of crises.

   b. Level – 2.

      Occurrence of an event claiming loss of life and assets etc.
      Plan for this level is launched.
      Likely chances of escalation.
      Likely Areas to be affected.
      Pooling up resources as required.
      Resort to containment
      Pre-emptive measures for potential escalation areas.

   c. Level – 3.

      A massive level crisis.
      Fatal and serious injuries have occurred.
      Very difficult situation to manage.
      Serious, vertical and horizontal escalation certain.
      Swift mobilization of all resources and emergency decision making is required.
Pre-Emptive Measures for Crisis Management

**Introduction.** As the old saying goes, ‘care is better than cure’, it is suggested that thorough planning should be done, for any possible crises which may occur at a certain place, keeping in view its geography, demography and sensitivities etc. This plan should basically comprise the pre-emptive measures. These pre-emptive measures help to block the occurrence of crises and also facilitate to successfully manage the real crises. Some of the measures are suggested which will help preventing crises, many a times.

1. **Futuristic Vision.** All measures to pre-empt the crises must have futuristic outlook. Following essential points must be dealt with in detail.
   a. Keep identifying the sources of potential crises.
   b. carry out assessment of the nature and impact of potential crisis.
   c. work out possible priority of potential crises.
   d. Prepare a systematic programme to avoid or pre-empt crises.
   e. Give due Importance attention to signals of impending crises.
   f. Look before you leap.

2. **Contingency Planning.** Keep the following in mind while preparing contingency plans.
   a. **Organize a Team.** Organize a planning team having integral abilities to fulfill the task assigned to it.
   b. **Assess the Scope.** Assess the scope of the crisis and prepare your plans accordingly.
   c. **Develop a plan.** The plan should not become a static bunch of papers. It should keep developing, encompassing the frequently changing internal and external circumstances. The process of development should not be intermittent but continuous.
   d. **Test the plan.** A practical test of the plan will reveal many weak and neglected areas and thus help in overcoming the weaknesses of the contingency plan.
   e. Keep the plan updated.
   f. **Are You Ready?** Always keep asking this question to yourself.

3. **Containment.** Containment is very important in order to manage the crises successfully. If crises are contained or limited in a small area, it becomes much easier to quickly manage the crises, avoiding or minimizing loss of life and property. Following are some of the guidelines for containment.—
   a. Act quickly and decisively without wasting time.
   b. Put people first on duty and then the resources.
   c. Be on the Scene as crises manager.
   d. Communicate liberally to convey correct message to the victims, media and other people to stop rumors and disinformation.

4. **Handling the Media**
   a. Handle the media with care and competence.
   b. Match the message and media to different segment.
   Always prepare a list of the frequently asked questions and prepare logical and fact based answers.
   Media has typical way of inquiring the things. You must have competent and skillful people to handle media.
   Don’t get offended.

5. **Learn Lessons**
   a. **Mark the End of the Crisis.** When the crises and it must be formerly declared that crises are over so that routine life starts functioning and fear and chaos is over
   b. **Record the Crisis Response.** Always maintain response of various walks of life towards management of crises which will become a valuable data for the future.
   c. **Record Lessons Learnt.** Once the crises are over, thorough analysis must be carried out in order, to learn lessons for the future. Make a record of this research work which will be very precious for the future.
COMMUNICATION DURING CRISIS

Introduction. Communication is a very important factor during management of crises. Crises never come alone. They always come with a wind of exaggerations, over estimates, here-says, concocted stories, rumours and disinformation by design. There may be actors to benefit from the crises situation, using it as an opportunity and may resort to propaganda fulfilling their own objectives. It is therefore, essential that correct information should disseminate to the people as soon as possible. Updating of information should be a continuous and constant process. Some of the guide lines are as under:

1. AUDIENCE PERCEPTION
Audiences to a crisis will immediately form a perception about the content of the organization’s messages in these ways:

a. First impression is the last impression. Research has proved that the first message, received on a subject, sets the stage for comparison of all future communication on that subject. The speed with which the first communication is issued proves to be an indicator to the public as to; how best prepared the crises management was, to respond to the crises. If the crises managers fail to deliver this message to the mass that they are responding to the crises, for all practical purposes, nobody is responding to crises. The audience will lose confidence and it would an uphill task to revive the lost confidence. This will also invite very damaging and problematic criticism which can be used by the opposing forces and actors to worsen the crises.

b. Be Factual. The audience will be listening for the facts, so get the facts right, repeat them consistently, persistently and insistently and ensure all credible sources share the same facts. Well trained and well prepared communication team can help to maximize the amount of information that can be assembled and passed on.

c. Establish Trust and Credibility. During any crises it is vital to establish trust and credibility with the key audiences. To establish trust and credibility remember the following elements.

(1). Empathy and caring. Research shows that being perceived as empathetic and caring provides greater opportunity for the message to be accepted by the receiver. Spokespersons should acknowledge fear, pain, sufferings and uncertainty if these are genuine emotions.

(2). Competence and Expertise. Communication during the crises is not an easy job. It requires complete command and grip over the subject. It must also be kept in mind that experience has no substitute. Obviously education, position title and organizational roles are quick ways to indicate expertise. Previous experience and demonstrated abilities in the current situation also enhance the perception of competence.

(3). Honesty and Openness. Convey all the relevant information. If the spokesperson is prevented from passing on certain information then it helps to explain why, e.g. “We are still verifying the names of the victims”, “The police have the role of providing this information” and “We don’t have that information at this stage.” No jargon and euphemisms should be used.

(4). Commitment and Dedication. Commitment and dedication must be reflected from the message or the communication. People accept commitment and dedication of the responsible crises managers which it is also estimated by the audience from the discomfort and sacrifices of the managers being experienced by them in the crises. It means staying in touch with the audience after the media have lost interest. Resolution and follow up should be committed to, from the start and maintained till the end.

2. Points to Remember

a. Quick Communication:
First impressions are lasting impressions.

b. Don't Let The Rumours Over Take.

c. Media - A watch dog-A friend or a foe.

d. Facts: Collect and get the facts right and keep repeating them.

e. Establish Credibility: Establishment of credibility is a laborious job. However, the following are indispensable.

(1). Be honest and open.

(2). Demonstrate commitment and dedication.
3. **Guidelines for Effective Crisis Communication**. Following are some important points to be remembered.

   a. **Be Reachable, Be Open**. Do not give an impression that you are ill informed or not willing to reveal the information desired by the people. You must willingly respond to those asking for information.

   b. **Tell the Truth**. Never try to unnecessarily hide the truth. We are not living in a dark age. Remember that we are living in an era in which people quickly find out about partial truths or cover-ups and they will lose confidence in you.

   c. **Observe Patience**. A crises scenario is always a difficult situation. People will ask very undesirable, unpleasant and even foolish and insulting questions. Under such circumstances do not lose patience. It is an indispensable requirement of this situation that you should remain cool, composed, considerate, courteous and tolerant. Courteous and polite behaviour soothes the aggressive emotions.

   d. **No Exaggeration**. No exaggerations should be demonstrated and no over-reassurances should be given. Remember that over assurances raise more expectations among the audience and if you do not come up to those expectations, it will create reaction and retaliation.

   e. **Don’t Deny Uncertainty**. Tell only what you know. Show your distress and acknowledge your audience’s distress: “It must be frustrating to hear that we don’t have the answer to that question right now...”

   f. **Tell the Process in Progress**. It would be very helpful to tell the people that a proper process is in progress to overcome the crises. It would be advisable to simply brief some salient features of the process.

   g. **Guide the People**. Be aware of the future negative outcomes. Let people know what to expect: e.g. “It may not be possible to extinguish fire until tomorrow evening as access to the town will not be possible till then.”

   h. **Be Sympathetic**. Do not display a regretful attitude. There is a difference in being regretful and sympathetic. Defensive or regretful attitude is hijacked by the opportunist forces for exploitation to their own vested interests.

   j. **Do not Dispel Fears**. Crises bring fears and threats, with them. It is but natural that people will be fearful and afraid of many deferred and undefined repercussions. Their fears should be acknowledged to a reasonable extent. It must be acknowledged that under such a situation, people are afraid and have a right to their fears.

   k. **Wishes**. Say, “I wish we knew more,” or “I wish our answers were more definite.”

   l. **Willingly Answer Questions**. There are many specific questions in many minds who want expert answers. If you are not prepared to answer the ‘what if’ questions, someone else will, and you will lose credibility and the opportunity to keep your credibility.

**Conclusion**

Practical management of crisis is a multidimensional process. The most important feature of the crisis management is decision making, which is a moment to moment activity. Before taking some decision or initiating practical measures, we need to correctly recognize and appreciate the crisis. We must clearly define the causes and area of crisis and possibilities of escalation. Since the ‘crisis’ have become a routine phenomenon, therefore, it is an indispensable need that we must have permanent standing organizations at different levels to manage the expected crisis. It does not mean that we overtax the national exchequer by heavy enrolments; we must use the existing outfits and departments, who already have enough to deliver. The core of success is the best co-ordination and willingness to deliver the goods. However, there would be certain unavoidable factors demanding additional human resource, infrastructure and material resources, which have to be met. It must be accepted that crises are now a routine matter and not a rarely occurring phenomenon.

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CUBAN CRISIS

(A Case Study)

Introduction

Crises, as discussed earlier, have many levels, i.e. local, national, trans-national and global level. However, generally, one is tended to perceive ‘crises’ only as an international phenomenon. It must be kept in mind that crises do occur even at individual level and demand the same degree of concern as at any higher level. However, 1962, is the year, when the concept of ‘Crises’ was always discussed at global level and ultimately, it was virtually perceived by everyone as a ‘matter of global level’. How this concept developed is a lengthy affair to understand. The concept of ‘crises’ and crisis management also got meteor during this period.

The 20th century spent only one day, when there was no war on this blue planet. It was an intensely bleeding century. Terms like war of attrition, war of destruction, limited war, total war etc were quite frequently used.’ During the 1940s and 1950s the term ‘cold war’ was used so often that it became virtually a cliché. Yet the label was, in many senses, an appropriate one and described very graphically the conflict relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union that developed in the aftermath of the Second World War. On the one hand, Soviet-American hostility was sufficiently acute and the competition between them sufficiently intense to merit the term ‘war’. On the other hand, it was not war in the more usual sense of the word: the conflict did not involve continual or unremitting violence. Although the Cold War was punctuated by local or regional hostilities, its weapons were not solely, and perhaps not even primarily, the tank and the machine gun but were more subtle means of influence such as the propaganda leaflet, economic aid and diplomatic manoeuvres. There were occasions, however, when it appeared as if the situation might be transformed from this relatively subdued mode of conflict into much more overt and large-scale violence involving the two superpowers themselves. Indeed, one of the major features of the Cold War was the sporadic occurrence of direct confrontations between the United States and the Soviet Union (and, to a slightly lesser extent, between the United States and Communist China), confrontations that threatened to initiate a process of ‘hot war’ between the protagonists.

The Second World War physically or apparently ended but down and under, much more serious war started. This war surfaced at 11:45 a.m. on 16th of October, 1962, when the US president was informed that USSR has deployed enough missiles in Cuba, which could destroy America. When the world learnt about this lethal threat, a horror and chaos prevailed on the globe. This state of cute danger, to the entire world was termed as ‘crisis’. For the first time, the terminology became so much popular that it assumed the shape of a proper field of study. From then onwards, this incident is popularly referred to as ‘Cuban Crisis’. The resolution of these crises also oozed out a lot for the scholars and intellectuals to explore. The 13 days long crises have left numerous lessons also.

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12 Phil Williams, Crisis Management confrontation and Diplomacy in the Nuclear Age, Martin Robertson & Co. Ltd., London, 1976, p 3
Crisis Management Process

1. Perception

a. The Sudden Shock. It was sudden shock for the president of USA John F. Kennedy When, on Tuesday morning, on 16th of October, 1962, he was informed by the intelligence sources that Russia was placing missiles and atomic weapons in Cuba. The evidence was based on a U-2 photographic mission. That was the beginning of the Cuban Missile Crisis between the two giant atomic nations i.e. Russia and USA. The process of ‘Crises Management’ was also initiated instantly.

b. Perceptions/Misperceptions. No sooner the U.S President got the information, the process of crisis management started. At 11:45 a.m. the same day, in the Cabinet Room, a formal presentation was made by The Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) to a number of high officials of the government. The experts arrived and explained the photographs, which were taken by the U.2. It is interesting to note that none of the officials believed the experts. Their opinions were also funny. After seeing the photographs and getting the briefing from the experts, the big minds and big officials refused to accept the CIA’s version and gave their perceptions/interpretations as under-

(1). President John F. Kennedy. He thought that it was not a missile site and it appeared to him like a football ground.

(2). Robert F. Kennedy (Senator). He believed that it was a farm or basement of a house.

(3). None of the officials. believed deployment of surface to surface Ballistic Missiles, but the concern did grow more and more.

c. “Later, in a post mortem study it was discovered that reports had come from agents within Cuba indicating the presence of missiles in September 1962. Most of the reports were false; some were the result of confusion by untrained observers, between surface-to-air missiles and surface-to-surface missiles. Several reports, however, turned out to be accurate; one from a former employee at the Hilton Hotel, in Havan, who believed a missile installation was being constructed near San Cristobal, and another from someone who overheard Premier fidel Castro’s Pilot, talking in a boastful intoxicated way, one evening, about the nuclear missiles that were going to be furnished to Cuba by Russia. But before these reports were given substance, they had to be checked and rechecked. They were not even considered substantial enough to pass on to the President or other high officials within the government. In retrospect, this was perhaps a mistake.”

d. “The important fact, of course, is that the missiles were uncovered and the information was made available to the government and the people before the missiles became operative and in time for the United States to act.”

Now that the first information had been received, the real deliberated and planned efforts were launched to get the complete information. On 17th of October, some more information was received which confirmed several missile installations with at least, 16 and possibly 32 missiles. The missiles were capable of carrying atomic warheads and could be operational within a week.

2. Practical Steps

a. Formation of Crises Management Group. Keeping in view the gravity of the situation, a crises management group was immediately formed, comprising the most able, experienced, knowledgeable and trustworthy officials. The same group that met that first morning in the Cabinet Room, met almost continuously through the next twelve days and almost daily for some six weeks thereafter.
b. **Composition of the Group.** The group, which was later to be called the ‘Ex-Comm’ (the Executive Committee of the National Security Council), included the following:

1. Secretary of State - Dean Rusk
2. Secretary of Defense - Robert McNamara
3. Director of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) - John McCone.
4. Secretary of the Treasury - Douglas Dillon.
5. President Kennedy’s adviser on national-security affairs – McGeorge Bundy.
7. Under Secretary of State - George Ball
8. Deputy Under Secretary of State U. Alexis Johnson; General Maxwell Taylor
9. Chairman of the Joint Chief of the Staff - Edward Martin,
10. Assistant Secretary of State for Latin America; originally, Charles Bohlen, who, after the first day, left to become Ambassador to France and was succeeded by Llewellyn Thompson as the adviser on Russian affairs; Rosewell Gilpartric,
11. Deputy Secretary of Defense; Paul Nitze,
12. Assistant Secretary of Defense; Intermittently at various meetings, Vice president Lyndon B. Johnson, Adlai Stevenson
13. Ambassador to the United Nations; Kenneth O’Donnell, Special Assistant to the President
14. Donald Wilson, who was deputy Director of the United States information Agency.

This was the group that met, talked, argued, and fought together during that crucial period of time. From this group came the recommendations from which president Kennedy was ultimately to select his course of action.

In the words of Robert F. Kennedy, “They were men of the highest intelligence, industrious, courageous, and dedicated to their country’s well-being. It is no reflection on them that none was consistent in his opinion from the very beginning to the very end.”

c. **Avoiding Panic.** “To keep the discussions from being inhibited and because the President did not want to arouse attention, he decided not to attend all the meetings of our committee. This was wise. Personalities change when the President is present, and frequently even strong men make recommendations on the basis of what they believe, the President wishes to hear. He instructed our group to come forward with recommendations for one course or possibly several alternative courses action.”

3. **Decision Making**

Once the deployment of missile sites was confirmed, the group was given the final responsibility to work out options. As it has been discussed in detail in the ‘Decision Making Section’, we may observe many interesting but difficult situations also in the process of decision making. Right in the first meeting of the group an interesting incident took place which speaks of the sensitivity of the lethal situation and keeping the nerves composed under such circumstances. An interesting dialogue between the president and the Commandant of the Marine Corps, General David M. Shoup took place in this difficult situation. Addressing the President, the General said, “you are in a pretty bad fix, Mr. President.” The president answered abruptly, “You are in it with me.” Everyone laughed, and with no final decision, the meeting adjourned.

4. **Options**

a. The options of decision makers kept changing or drifting frequently.

b. On 18th of October, when some more information had come in, majority wanted naval blocked.

c. The level of tension and anxiety kept increasing moment to moment. 19th of October was the day when day and night meetings continued. The decision makers once again changed their decision as

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13 Robert F. Kennedy, 13 Days The Cuban Missile Crisis, p-36 to P-37
concrete information was now available that there were many missile sites with at least 16 to 32 missiles. This information again change the opinion of the decision makers.

d. Before 20th of October, majority was in favour of blockade. As the new information came in, everyone got more offended with an offensive attitude. Almost everyone wanted a very severe military action except McNamara.

e. The president was given final briefing on 20th of October. In the final briefing majority argued for military attack and only McNamara argued for blockade.

f. Former Secretary of State, Dean Acheson strongly favoured air attack.

g. Final option/Discussion. President gave the final decision in favour of Blockade. The president knew that 80 million Americans would die in the first few minutes, if the missiles were launched.

5. Informing the Nation (President’s Speech)

After having completely analysing the situation and taking a final decision, it was now decided that president should formally inform the nation. Excellent communication skills were demonstrated by the president. The importance of communication during the crises can be seen here. Before making a speech, through the personal intervention of the president with several newspapers, the only stories written on Monday morning were reports that a major speech was to be given by the president and that the country faced a serious crises. At 7'o clock he appeared on television before the nation to explain the situation in Cuba and the reasons for the quarantine (Blockade). He emphasized that the blockade was the initial step only. It amounted to satisfy the nation that crises would be successfully managed even if the decision makers had to go beyond the blockade. This was an ideal use of flexibility in decision making.

6. President Meets the Cabinet

The president also took the cabinet into confidence the same day. There was tremendous criticism on the decision and people wanted much more severe combat action. Many congressional leaders were sharp in their criticism. They felt that the President should take more forceful action, a military attack or invasion, and that the blockade was far too weak a response. The president, after listening to the frequently emotional criticism, explained that he would take whatever steps were necessary to protect the security of the United States, but that he did not feel greater military action was warranted initially. Because it was possible that the matter could be resolved without a devastating war, he had decided on the course he had outlined. He assured them, he had taken measures to prepare military forces and place them in a position to move. He reminded them that, once an attack began, the adversaries could respond with a missile barrage from which many millions of Americans would be killed. It was feared that 80 million Americans would be killed few minutes.

7. Meeting With Organization of American States

He held a meeting with the organization of American states and briefed them about the whole situation. He sought their willing consent for the action also.

8. Blockade Went into Effect

The Navy deployed 180 ships into the Caribbean. The Strategic Air Command was dispersed to civilian landing fields around the country, to lessen its vulnerability in case of attack. The B-52 bomber force was ordered into the air fully loaded with atomic weapons. As one came down to land, another immediately took its place in the air.

9. Diplomatic Front

a. Whenever crises of such a macro level are apprehended or perceived, all actors are activated and efforts start on all fronts. Now at one end the precise information about the missiles deployment was speedily coming in the diplomatic efforts also started instantly. When the Russian ambassador was asked by the U.S Government, he showed his total ignorance and point blank refused of any such happening. The USSR government was also contacted. In the words of Robert F. Kennedy. “That same afternoon, from a draft prepared by Nicholas Katzenbach, the Deputy Attorney General, and myself, President issued exactly this
kind of warning and pointed out the serious consequences that would result from such a step. A week later, Moscow disclaimed publicly any intention of taking such action and stated that there was no need for nuclear missiles to be transferred to any country outside the Soviet Union, including Cuba. During this same period of time, an important official in the Soviet Embassy, returning from Moscow, brought a personal message from Khrushchev for President Kennedy, stating that he wanted the President to be assured that under no circumstances would surface-to-surface missiles be sent to Cuba. An American senator says “We had been deceived by Khrushchev, but we had also fooled ourselves.”

b. On 23rd October (Tuesday), was the important meeting with the organization of American States. It was anticipated that difficulty may be experienced in obtaining the two thirds vote of support necessary for the ordering of a quarantine. However, the case was so smartly presented a number contributed, men, supplies and ships during the several weeks that followed. It was a big diplomatic achievement. Americans were now able to establish a firm legal foundation for their action under the OAS Charter, and their position was greatly strengthened around the world. The Soviet Union and Cuba now faced the united action of the whole western Hemisphere. However, the Russians still insisted that they had not carried out any activity.

c. The Americans now started collecting evidence to convince the whole world and the United Nations. They prepared a twenty five miles long film indicating launching pads, missiles, concrete bunkers, nuclear storage and many other allied facilities. These were sent to United Nations and also many other influential agencies. Even at this stage tremendous communication took place between United States and Soviet Russia. The heads of the States also communicated at personal level. The Russian however, denied the realities till end.

d. Television debates were also arranged between Russian and American representatives in which facts were brought out by the Americans.

e. When UN secretary general Mr. U-thant learnt about the ground realities, he suggested that American should lift the blockade and start negotiation. Arguing the lethal nature of the crises the Americans refused to go for lengthy process of negotiations.

f. At the end when the Russian vessels were stopped by the US blockade, the UN was in picture, Russian had last at diplomatic level, OAS was supporting the Americans, the Russian were with left no option but to confess their venture. Although, Russian tried to find many alternative escape routes but they had to submit to the will of the world. They ultimately agreed to render the missiles non-operational. The crises were over after extensive anxiety and efforts of 13 days.

14 Robert F. Kennedy, 13 Days The Cuban Missile Crisis, p-31to P-34
LESSONS LEARNT

1. **Analysis of Information.** In the chapter dealing with analysis we have discussed in detail the significance of carrying out critical analysis to establish reliability of the information. It is interesting to see that even a man like John F. Kennedy perceived the missiles sites as football ground and his senator brother thought that it was basement of a house. Ultimately when detailed and undeniable evidence was produced the perception was totally changed. The lesson learnt is that frequent information received before or during the crises may or may not be correct. Therefore, no decisions should be taken in hurry without proper analysis and authenticity of the information.

2. **Time is a Vital Factor.** As the famous and old saying goes “Time and tides never wait for the man”, a crises manager has to run with the speed of the crises. It is worth noting that during Cuban Crises, the whole group was round the clock busy for consecutively thirteen days and thirteen nights. Any relaxation or negligence in terms of time, can create unmanageable problems during the crises management process.

3. **Everyone Must be Listened Sympathetically.** The crises management group comprised men of letters, ability and experience. Everyone of them was taken to be an authority in his own field yet, very glaring differences occurred among all of them. Their opinions and perceptions clashed with each other yet, everyone listened to everyone, very patiently and respectfully. The difference of opinion, arguments and counter arguments and many view points ultimately lead to a successful solution.

4. **All Concerned Government Departments Must be Represented.** It must be appreciated and accepted that no single person can have command over numerous branches of knowledge in the modern world. Eye is a very small organ in the human body but only an eye specialist can deal with the problems related to eyes. Similarly, a politician can not replace a military soldier and an economist can not answer the questions relating to atomic weapons. Seeing the nature and level of crises, all relevant government departments, specialists of various subjects and experts must form part of the crises management organization. Wherever, the vacuum is left, it will always be filled by another critical situation.

5. **Different Sources of Information.** Receive information from maximum possible reliable sources. The massive and mighty information technology has made the things much easier today. During the crises our decisions should not be based on information received from one source only. As many sources of information as possible should be used and the conclusion should be drawn using the proper research methodology.

6. **Place Yourself in the Other’s Shoes.** In political or violent crises it is of great significance to put yourself in the shoes of your adversary. This will help in measuring the level and kind of reaction/retaliation by the opposite. This is useful even in the profession of marketing and business activity. It is the wearer who knows where the shoe pinches. During a price hike the best information can be obtained from the customer. Likewise, during the crises the best feedback is given by the victims. If some particular actor is a source of crises, you always need to analyse, how he will react against your decision.

7. **Miscalculations and Misunderstandings Escalate Crisis.** It is self explanatory that if the things are miscalculated, misinterpreted and misunderstood, the decisions would also assume the same shape. In other words wrong decisions would be made which can only escalate the crises. In June 1963, while delivering a speech at American University, referring to Cuban crises, John F. Kennedy said “Above all, while defending our own vital interests, nuclear powers must avert those confrontations which bring an adversary to the choice of either a humiliating defeat or a nuclear war.”
CONCLUSION

The Cuban Crisis appeared with a chaos and confusion. The first information was not even taken seriously. However, the efforts for crises management started. A group of experts was immediately formed, process of getting precise information was accelerated, diplomatic front became active and all efforts started to win the sympathies of the states. Options were worked out and decision making was improved day by day. According to 13 Days the Cuban Missile Crises “The Cuba crisis of 1962 seems to have been an occasion when decision – makers increased their efficiency by making themselves aware of alternatives. Information, experience, training and time for consideration, are amongst factors relevant to efficient decision – making which, along with legitimization, determine the degree to which States can respond to their environment in ways which do not deny needs to others.” Although it was known to the decision makers that the missiles would eliminate 80 million Americans in few minutes, yet spreading of panic was pre-empted. This is a classic example of crisis management, which avoided an annihilating atomic war. The factors contributing towards its success are mainly, establishing authenticity of the information, making best use of the time, listening carefully to different views, accepting ground realities and evolving effective decision making process. It is a point to remember that the president himself controlled the media to avoid panic at home and stem the tide of rumours to overtake.
THE IDEAL CRISIS MANAGER

Verily in the messenger of Allah ye have a good example....
(The Qur’an, XXXIII,21)

Introduction.

In the words of S.A. Rehman “In the context of interstate relations the word diplomacy seems to have acquired a bad odour. This is an instance of history projecting itself into semantics. The Machiavellian tradition effected a divorce between the art of negotiation and the moral imperative in the national and international fields. But this tradition carried within itself the seeds of his own nemesis. It has left a trail of bitterness, suspicions and misunderstandings in its wake which continue to bedevil human relations.”

Hazrat Muhammad (P.B.U.H) was born in the traditional tribal society of Makkah. He did not own lands, gardens, trade companies or anything which could make one rich and a king. As the Quran commands, His (P.B.U.H) character was the strongest weapon with Him (P.B.U.H) which conquered the hearts of the people. He did fight many wars but he managed, unprecedented crises using the diplomatic tools or Islamic diplomacy.

A diplomat means an honest, able, successful and par excellence negotiator, conciliator and arbitrator. Prophet (P.B.U.H) will remain an ideal diplomat to be followed till the day of resurrection.

“Diplomacy as the art of negotiation existed before Islam. In Greece, it meant deception and cunning, in Byzantine, it comprised coercion and corruption and the role played by the Florentine diplomats of the Renaissance like Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio and their later pupils like Guicciardini and Machiavelli.” 15, is also known to the world.

“Muhammad employed diplomacy as a means of education. The Prophet-King of Arabia is the only king in world history who never lived in a palace, whose seat of power was practically a mud hut, and who had only one piece of furniture in his reception room for envoys: a leather-covered bolster. This he (P.B.U.H) offered to his guests, contenting himself with the solid earth for his own seat.16

On the other hand, our Prophet (P.B.U.H) had blessed qualities to be a successful diplomat and ideal crises manager forever. In the words of Afzal Iqbal

“The Prophet was cheerful, gentle and kind by temperament. He was not stern, rigid or narrow-minded. He was not fussy and never shouted or uttered a bad word. He did not pick holes in others nor did he encourage them to talk ill in his presence.... He had completely eliminated three things from his character: argumentation, unnecessary talking, and meddling in matters which did not concern him.... While talking of others he always kept three considerations in mind – he never talked ill, he never picked holes and he never talked scandal. He only talked on subjects which could lead to some useful results.... He disliked listening to his own praise.”

16 Page xvii.
Muhammad (P.B.U.H) emphasised moral integrity at a time when world morality was at a low ebb. He (P.B.U.H) counted on moral influence as the most essential qualification of an envoy, who was not to permit himself to depart from honesty even though the dishonesty of others seemed apparently to justify such a course. Let us eschew evil, he (P.B.U.H) preached, and not pay back evil in its own coin, however great temptation; for two evils do not make a good. ‘Repel evil with that which is best,’ commends the Qur’an.

The value of this lead given by the Prophet (P.B.U.H) over fourteen hundred years ago will be realised when we notice that Western diplomacy, even after the rise of Islam, remained undecided on the question whether character, cunning or probity were the most effective instruments of diplomacy. Even some modern diplomats have sought to justify the diplomatic lie. All these negative, immoral and unethical acts or instruments can only worsen the crises, rather than managing them.
Introduction

In that critical era of the Prophet (P.B.U.H) tribal society of Arabs was full of crises. The crises also varied in nature, time, geographical boundaries, tribal entities and egoistic problems that would always end at bloodshed. Ruthlessness would prevail and it appeared as if it was not a human society. The greatest crises manager, The last Prophet (P.B.H.U) managed countless crises using the tool of negotiations, morality, ethics and His (P.B.U.H) very transparent personality. Some of the examples are given below.


The first glimpse of crisis manager is seen in Hazrat Muhammad (P.B.U.H), at a very young age, when he was not even invested with the role of Prophet-hood. The Makkan tribes were rebuilding their place of worship, i.e., Ka’aba, inherited by the Quraish, from Hazrat Ibrahim. When building was completed, a big issue cropped up that is fixing the Black Stone (The Stone of Destiny. Fixing the Black Stone was a matter of great honour for the tribe who could get it. Over this issue very serious crises occurred. Every tribe wanted to snatch this honour. Bowl full of blood was brought and the blood liquors joined together. This was a vow for the worst possible retaliation. The crises continued for four days and breathless anxiety prevailed. “A great bloodshed was not away. On the fifth day the oldest living Qurayshi gave a suggestion that whoever would enter Ka’aba, the next day, should be accepted as an arbitrator. The night was with nerves taut and in alternating waves of hope and fear. The long hours of the dark night seem to stretch into infinity.”

With the dawn of the day young Muhammad in his early twenties enters the Holy Ka’aba. Everyone says “He is trustworthy one. We are satisfied.” It was really a nerve testing crises situation. Everyone was thinking with shaken nerves. No one could appreciate the awaited decision. It was a classic example of pre-empting a very serious crisis. Prophet Muhammad (P.B.U.H) asked for a sheet, put the Black Stone in it and called leaders of all the tribes to hold the sheet together and carry the Black Stone to its place. Hazrat Muhammad (P.B.U.H) then lifted the stone himself and fixed it in its place. Everyone was feeling honoured and a bloodshed situation was saved. All the leaders and tribes also thanked Hazrat Muhammad (P.B.U.H) for resolving the serious crises.

2. Treaty of Medina.

This is another classic example of pre-empting serious crises. Prophet (P.B.U.H) migrated to Medina in the fifty –third years of his life. He (P.B.U.H) has been driven out by his own people. Structure of society in Medina was not different than Makkah. Lack of leadership: caused by their pride, conceit, ambition and endless rivalry for tribal supremacy existed. There were ideological factions also. To avoid any un-toward situation Hazrat Muhammad (P.B.U.H) entered into a treaty which is known as the first written alliance in the history of conduct of international relations. The treaty comprised 47 articles and every tribe, faith and faction was given representation in the treaty. The control was retained by the Prophet (P.B.U.H) Himself which was ratified by all member of the treaty. The world ‘equality’ occurs time and again in the treaty. Very clear rules, ways and mechanism to resolve disputes and critical situations were framed however, in case of failure the matter was to be referred to the Prophet (P.B.U.H). Why so? Montgomery Walls observes
“The Provision that disputes were to be referred to the Prophet (P.B.U.H) would not itself increase his (P.B.U.H) power unless he had sufficient tact and diplomacy to find a settlement that would command general agreement.”

If this treaty was not concluded, there were all the chances of bloodshed.

3. Treaty of Hudabiya (A classic example of pre-empting crises.)

The treaty of Hudaybiya is very well known in the history. Hudaybiya is a small village in the north of Makkah. During February 628 A.D.- (Zu-Qa’dah) Prophet (PBUH) with nearly 1400 Companions came for performance of Umra (little pilgrimage) which was right of everyone as no arms were permitted in the Holy Ka’aba. Contrary to all traditions Arabs of Makkah decided to deny this right to Arabs from Medina. Khalid Bin Walid, who was later to become one of the most distinguished generals of Islam, was one of the ringleaders of this movement which rallied all the tribes in Makkah to give battle to the intended pilgrims from Medina. Prophet (P.B.U.H) offered a treaty of peace which was denied by the Makkans. However, when they saw the dedication of the companions of Prophet (P.B.U.H) ‘Urwa (an old Quraysh) addressing the Quraysh said

“I have been to Khusro in his kingdom, and Caesar in his kingdom, and the Negus in his kingdom, but never have I seen a king among a people like Muhammad among his companions. I have seen a people who will never abandon him for any reason, so form your own Opinion.”

He (Urwa) also misbehaved with The Prophet (PBUH) but Prophet preserved his calm in the face of provocation, and instead of sealing the traditional Arab revenge. He (P.B.U.H) freed all the prisoner captured by his men and decided to proceed with his project, to manage the crisis, through peaceful means. The treaty was ultimately finalized and thus crisis was ideally managed. Apparently it appeared as if the Muslims have surrendered to the dictation of Makkans and many companions of the Prophet (P.B.U.H) were also unhappy, but later the Qur’an referred to this decision in these words:-

“And He it is Who hath withheld men’s hands from you, and hath withheld your hands from them, in the valley of Makkah, after He had made you victors over them. Allah is Seer of what ye do”

That is how the crises which could turn into a bloody combat clash were managed by the great crises manager Hazrat Muhammad (P.B.U.H).


Makkah was the birth place of the Prophet (P.B.U.H) from where he was forcibly driven out, in utter helplessness. He (P.B.U.H) was now entering Makkah with a very strong army. When they entered Makkah one of the commanders is reported to have said:-

Today is the day of war,
Sanctuary is no more!

When Prophet (P.B.U.H) heard this slogan, He (P.B.U.H) stopped the shouter and addressing the Makkans said:-

Afzal Iqbal, “The Prophet’s Diplomacy The Art of Negotiation as conceived and Developed by the Prophet of Islam”, Glaude Stark & CO.,1975, P 24
“Go! You are relieved; no more responsibility burdens you today; you are the freed ones.”

Makkah was full of Prophet (P.B.U.H)’s enemies who had hurt him to an extent that would be unbearable for anyone but He (P.B.U.H) pardoned everyone. Had this strategy not been used, a series of crises would have cropped up. When He (P.B.U.H) forgave a woman like Hinda she was stunned at this gentle generosity. Identifying herself she told the Prophet:

“Never was a camp more hateful in my eyes than yours, and today none is more beloved and beautiful than the camp of the Apostle of God.”

Muhammad (P.B.U.H), in the hour of his triumph, restrained his army from shedding blood and showed every sign of humility and thanksgiving. Has any conqueror in history behaved so gently or mercifully with the Vanquished foe?

CONCLUSION.

We have gone through only few examples which are self explanatory that Prophet (P.B.U.H) successfully resolved and stopped the wars and the bloodshed. Although the world today has changed and values have also been altered, de-shaped and changed yet, the man and his heart still remains the same. According to Afzal Iqbal “The Prophet (P.B.U.H) implied the following principles to overcome most of the crises. It can be called moral diplomacy.

Gentleness in human relations
Trust in truth
Faithful communication
Patience for a cause
Modesty and Moderation
Loyalty

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18Afzal Iqbal, “The Prophet’s Diplomacy The Art of Negotiation as conceived and Developed by the Prophet of Islam”, Glaude Stark & CO.,1975,p 38

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Crises Management

Conclusion

1. Having gone through the course we have learnt that crisis is an integral and inseparable part of human life. Crises walk with the man throughout his life at individual as well as collective level. The concept of crises is not new. Although, different terminologies have been used during different eras but the essence really means ‘crises’. Crises accompanied the man at the time of his birth and welcomed him on this planet also. As the human race grew more and more the crises also kept changing their form, nature and phenomena. There is hardly a country in the world that has not faced or is not facing crises in one way or the other as there is hardly any individual on this earth who has not experienced crises.

2. Crises can be natural or un-natural i.e. created by the man himself are created by the natural circumstances. Climatical conditions, weather and land forms, all contribute towards creation of crises. Earthquakes, snow storms, thunder storms, heavy rains, floods, scorching heat or freezing cold, prolonging summers or winters all create or contribute towards serious abnormal conditions which are extremely inhospitable to human life. All these phenomena are sources of crises.

Pakistan is a multi-culture nation having an agrarian economy, marching towards industrialization and facing all the challenging situations, which have been created by globalization and vested interests of developed countries, for developing countries.

It is a dire need of the time that we become academically strong, develop our own concept with a futuristic outlook and design our own means and methods to manage our crises ourselves. We must clearly understand our basic concepts, have command over research skills, develop the ability to appreciate and analyse the potential crisis, develop a flawless decision making ability and have the right means and resources at the right locations. Never loose sight of the universal truth that human are the basic element for creation of crises and then they have to face the consequences and mange it themselves. The former comes through innocence or ignorance and later, requires resources and expertise. Our new world has innovated many new forms of crises. It has now become a permanent feature and a whole time job to mange crisis. We cannot afford any ignorance or slackness, by turning our deaf ear towards this loud sounding bell. Start from yourself and know up to global level. Be prepared for all times. We now need permanent and efficient organizations to manage the crises successfully.
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