

Strategic Approaches for Conflict Resolution in Organizations

Emerging Research and Opportunities



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Strategic Approaches for Conflict Resolution in Organizations:

Emerging Research and Opportunities

Siddhartha Bhattacharyya

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Dr. Siddhartha Bhattacharyya would like to dedicate this book to his Late father, Ajit Kumar Bhattacharyya; his Late mother, Hashi Bhattacharyya; his beloved wife, Rashni; and Dr. Amalendu Basu, Chairman (BoG), RCC Institute of Information Technology, India.

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Preface

Conflict resolution involves the reduction, elimination, or termination of all forms and types of conflict. Five styles for conflict management, as identified by Thomas and Kilmann, are: competing, compromising, collaborating, avoiding, and accommodating. Businesses can benefit from appropriate types and levels of conflict. That is the aim of conflict management, and not the aim of conflict resolution. Conflict management does not imply conflict resolution. Conflict management minimizes the negative outcomes of conflict and promotes the positive outcomes of conflict with the goal of improving learning in an organization. Properly managed conflict increases organizational learning by increasing the number of questions asked and encourages people to challenge the status quo. Organizational conflict at the interpersonal level includes disputes between peers as well as supervisor-subordinate conflict. Party-directed mediation (PDM) is a mediation approach particularly suited for disputes between co-workers, colleagues or peers, especially deep-seated interpersonal conflict, multicultural or multiethnic disputes. The mediator listens to each party separately in a pre-caucus or pre-mediation before ever bringing them into a joint session. Part of the pre-caucus also includes coaching and role plays. The idea is that the parties learn how to converse directly with their adversary in the joint session. Some unique challenges arise when organizational disputes involve supervisors and subordinates. The Negotiated Performance Appraisal (NPA) is a tool for improving communication between supervisors and subordinates and is particularly useful as an alternate mediation model because it preserves the hierarchical power of supervisors while encouraging dialogue and dealing with differences in opinion.

The book is being mainly aimed at the top notch managers of leading organizations. In addition, this book will come in good stead to the students who are pursuing their undergraduates and postgraduates management degrees. Apart from this category, the target list also includes the lecturers and tutors, researchers, research fellows/scholars/associates, practitioners and professionals. The information contained in the book will obviously make curious to students, academician and researchers to know something new in this domain of conflict management research.

Preface

The book contains eight well versed chapters written by the leading practitioners in the field.

Leading managers and high potential talents navigate all kinds of conflicts and situations, whether during organizational change, the implementation of a new organizational culture, negotiating with shareholders and suppliers, or just regular business operations. Oftentimes, conflicts are simple and easy to access and to address. But of recent, the advent of technology, the need to lead through innovation, and the drive to leaner, more matrixed organizations leads to new kinds of disruptions and conflictual situations. Thus, to navigate through the ebb and flow of communication and situations, the adaptive and flexible manager needs to have the right diagnosis of the conflict, foresee the prognosis of unresolved or resolved conflicts and implement the right therapy. Understanding conflict and exploring the intercultural dimensions of conflict is at the core of Chapter 1, finishing it off with a simple yet effective management framework.

In professional situation, conflict occurs whenever professionals disagree over their concerned individual or professional values, and different motivations. Conflict in organization is also triggered by differences in individual perceptions, and ideas. It is stressed that they can only pay attention to a limited number of emotions, they would not be able to understand their own needs. If they do not understand their deep-seated needs, they will have a hard time communicating with others and staying in touch with what is really troubling them. When one can recognize the legitimacy of conflicting needs and can be willing to examine them in an environment of compassionate understanding, it opens pathways to creative problem solving, team building, and improved relationships. When the conflict is resolved mutual trust will flourish and disagreement will evaporate quickly and quietly. Chapter 2 throws light on the different aspects of conflicts arising in professional fronts.

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to examine emerging literature for conflict resolution approaches through martial arts. Martial arts involvement is believed to provide positive learning opportunities for youth in general, as well as with regard to specific target groups. In particular, this study focuses on the cause and resolution of conflict philosophy in Tong-Il Moo-Do Martial Arts. To be precise, TIMD philosophy has categorized the root cause of conflict into three reasons: breakdown of interaction, ignoring the higher purpose and accumulation of conflict.

The Year 1957 is witness of 'Space Race' in between the USA and the USSR through the launch of 'SPUTNIK' in the earth's orbit on October 4 by the later. Chapter 4 surveys the entire period of the last 62 years in between 1957 – 2019 that has witnessed various types of National/International Group/Intergroup conflicts and researches pertaining to different resolution strategies as suggested by the 'International Journals' of repute. The chapter inter alia deals with eleven foci of

International journals of the period in question. The chapter has used semantico-deconstructive methodology for content analysis and interpretation.

Conflict has been an integral part of collaborative ventures. Educational institutes comprises of multiple integrated key activities such as teaching, learning, student management, examination, result declaration along with several administrative tasks. It has also been observed that generally stakeholders do not have formal training to deal with such issues and sometimes lack of knowledge and skills to address the disagreements efficiently adversely affects the overall productivity. Conflicts can occur in various forms starting from verbal dialogue and escalated up to physical confrontations resulting in spoiled relationships. An institutional framework should be designed and must be made transparent, so that all stakeholders understand their roles and responsibilities at the institutions. The obligation and constraint defined clearly can act as essential tool in de-escalation of conflict. Chapter 5 aims at understanding the modes of conflict, reasons behind conflict and then designing a framework for conflict management in educational institutes.

Conflict is endemic to all social life. It is an inevitable part of living because it is related to situations of scarce resources, division of functions, power relations and role differentiation. Contradiction which happens when objectives, intrigue or estimations of different people or gatherings are contrary, and those individuals hinder every others endeavour for achieving objectives is called authoritative clash or organizational conflict. In Chapter 6, the authors want to brighten the meaning of conflict on the organisation and conflict management models. Initial models of conflict management were developed in 1970's by organizational and social psychologist. Here two conflict management models are taken to clarify the relations how it influences the organizations execution. Thus it is found that conflict and conflict management can have significant impact on project success.

Over time political and social theorists have struggled to understand the constructive pathways of preventing, mediating, and transitioning societies away from conflict toward sustainable peace. The thread linking leadership with transitional justice instruments is the ontological and epistemological understanding of how to direct judicial strategies toward deterring interstate and intrastate violent activities. In today's environment, the emerging study of transitional justice is recognized as a staple for nation-building, democratic reform, and peacebuilding. Chapter 7 addresses leadership and its role in the transitional justice system. Moreover, this presentation provides a leadership model for transitional justice practitioners as a means to influence deterrence measures and as a potential resolution of today's global judicial challenges with long term international security implications.

Conflicts arise in academic institutions due to many reasons, which are counterproductive and has to be resolved. Conflicts arise due to lack of communications, missing authority, and not properly assigning responsibilities.

Preface

Hence, the tools and techniques to resolve conflicts are evident. Conflict resolution is a daunting task. One of the important reasons for conflicts is the lack of proper communication between the members in the hierarchy, which has to be addressed. Conflict management can be done effectively by enhancing communication between all stakeholders, and by training all those who are involved. Mitigation and resolving conflicts should always be one of the major focus activities. In academia, conflicts often take place between the faculty, students, and the administration. Differences in goals, misinterpretation of institutional rules, breaches of contracts, power struggles, and personal antagonisms are all possible sources of conflict. In Chapter 8, the authors examine how conflicts can arise in academic institutions and how they can be effectively managed and resolved.

The objective of the book is to bring a broad spectrum of emerging approaches for conflict resolution in organizations so that it is able to trigger inspiration among the top notch managers for resolving the issue of organizational conflicts. Once the above mentioned purpose is accomplished, it would be possible to bring in a congenial ambience in different organizations leading to betterment of outcomes and throughputs.

Siddhartha Bhattacharyya
Kolkata, India
September 2019

Chapter 1

Conflict, Systems, and Approaches to Conflict Management: An Overview

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ABSTRACT

Leaders, managers, and high potential talents navigate all kinds of conflicts and situations, whether during organizational change, the implementation of a new organizational culture, negotiating with shareholders and suppliers, or just regular business operations. Oftentimes, conflicts are simple and easy to access and to address. But of recent, the advent of technology; the need to lead through innovation; and the drive to leaner, more matrixed organizations leads to new kinds of disruptions and conflictual situations. Thus, to navigate through the ebb and flow of communication and situations, the adaptive and flexible manager needs to have the right diagnosis of the conflict, foresee the prognosis of unresolved or resolved conflicts and implement the right therapy. Understanding conflict and the many ways on how conflict is enacted and addressed is an art. Therefore, this chapter addresses the plethora of conceptual framework around the notion of conflict, explores the intercultural dimensions of conflict, dissects the in- and out-group nature of conflict to finally offer a simple, yet effective framework to address even the most intractable of conflicts.

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INTRODUCTION

Being a manager is not only to ensure the operational and functional viability of a unit or an organization that fulfills objectives. The 21st century manager also manages through value-based leadership, constantly providing a safe space of his/her employees and using a range of soft skills in order to navigate differences and conflict. S/he more or less uses mediation skills such as the management of a process, the use of superior communication skills and interpersonal mastery to anticipate, prevent, reduce and manage conflict. Managing conflict allows the manager to focus on what needs to be done in the current day-to-day management of modern, interconnected business: Lead. S/he can do this best through the use of mediation.

Mediation is about bridging differences through meaningful interactions, facilitated by a reputable and credible third party. These interactions between conflicting parties can often be long and dangerous. The process is led by a neutral and unbiased third party whose goal is to help the conflicting parties understand the “how” and “what” of their discordances. Mediation, though, may not always be the most effective manner to address and resolve conflict; depending on the context of the conflict there may be other resolution methods which are more suitable. According to the Thomas-Kilman instrument and the Dual Concern Model (Rhoads and Carnevale, 2006), conflicting parties are able to adjust their attitude towards conflict by adjusting their behavior. This type of conflict regulation is an intentional and voluntary process whose goal is to de-escalate violence and to prevent it from happening again. The paramount aim of mediation is to create rules which call for compromise and to incentivize the parties in continuing working towards change in a non-violent manner at various levels and stages of the process. Under the umbrella of conflict regulation is conflict management, which is where the control and reduction of violence takes place, though generally with the intervention of force (e.g sanctions, verification mechanisms, boundaries, etc.).

Conflict regulation is different from conflict resolution. Conflict regulation is a leveled and sequenced process whereas conflict resolution is a broader process. Conflict resolution encompasses not only the plan for change, but also the processes by which said change is made. The mediation manager’s main duty to draw out compromises between the conflicting parties. The ways in which to do this include creating a sense of cohesion between the parties, creating and allowing confidence-building measures, and heightening communication. Thus, there is a visible and intricate link between the mediator’s style and the conflicting parties’ adherence to the resolution goals.

New research is materializing and exploring the various aspects of mediation. To better understand the scope and magnitude of said research, the theoretical section will focus on those models that allow us to understand and address group conflict

resolution. The conceptual frameworks are linked to Tötösy de Zepetnek's concept of inter-disciplinarity (Tötösy de Zepetnek, 2002), Cook's post-positivist paradigm (1985) and Boudreau's multiplex methodology (2003). The conceptual framework is grounded in a meta-model of mediation, interdependence theory, game theory, and peace studies.

The identified intercultural context within which current managerial models of leadership are located is being described by Berger's term of 'Pluralism' (2014) as:

"The process of modernization, which by now has fundamentally affected virtually every society on earth, has as one of its most important consequences the situation commonly called pluralism. The term means quite simply that people with different beliefs, values, and lifestyles come to live together in close proximity, are forced to interact with each other, and therefore are faced with the alternative of either clashing in conflict or somehow accommodating each other's differences".

If "Pluralism" is to be considered the new normal in today's society there has to be new approaches to multi-party conflict intervention methods. At present, most research is centered on dyadic negotiation and behavior changes. While there have been successful cases of intervention involving third-party mediation, there is an absence of basic epistemology on how third-party mediators align their goals and visions of the outcome with those of the conflicting parties. Getting this multi-dimensional aspect right is quite relevant for modern mediating managers to navigate the complexities brought on by newly matrixed organizations and a drive toward diversity, equality and inclusion. Mediation has proven to be quite successful when dealing with violent interactions among opposing groups. Whereas violence is often understood as the manifest explosion of conflict, we can also understand violence to be structural, ie. hidden as patterns of exclusion, marginalization and discord. In the field of international relations, structural violence has been addressed throughout the literature and often times approached through the use of mediation.

Mediation is intended to handle already existing violent conflicts or to preemptively quell manifesting conflict. A sophisticated network of interconnected actors makes it quite difficult to single out a singular cause or aspect of conflicts. In fact, reality shows that there is no linearity in conflict. They can occur at any point in time, unannounced, yet always prevalent. Thus, a first task of the mediator is to analyze the conflict structure in order to properly identify the various underlying and correlated issues. Determining factors will be the congruence between sub-groups, out-groups, in-groups and the global group level as well as the compatibility of interests within the sub-groups. Congruence measures how aligned sub-group partial agreements are in respect to the overall agreement. Compatibility measures the likeness between the goals of the conflicting parties.

Since it is not an easy task to identify, ascertain and deal appropriately with the Congruence-Compatibility dimension, the chapter proposes an overview of conceptual models that allow a comprehensive look into the interdependency within groups and out-group members. The aim is to raise awareness for the complex dynamic process of group interaction and the appropriate plans to address said complexities. This, though, is more than just theoretical: now more than ever, organization managers must deal with many complicated layers of identity, conflict, expectation, and business objectives. These managers need to be flexible, able to adapt, and ready to deploy a situated model of mediation (Coleman et al., 2015) that is appropriate for the given situation. The nature of a conflict might at times be hidden but it is always present, and it is the understanding of said nature as well as a manager's ability to be perceptive and change strategy when appropriate that is crucial to the success of all conflict management and regulation efforts.

In order to find the proper strategies and tools to join the conflicting parties, it is essential to understand the base and core of the conflict. Proper diagnosis and prognosis can only be attained once there has been a full and proper understanding of the conflict drivers and motives. A plethora of authors has provided relevant sociological, political and psychological grounds and theories that allow us to have a better grasp of the term. However, the following section serves as a theoretical framework, illustrating the many variations of conflict and the impact it has on culture, the parties, and the conflict system at large.

THEORIES OF CONFLICT

Conflict can mean a multitude of things, depending on the individual and the context shaping individual attitudes and conflict behaviors, for some, conflict represents the idea of change as is seen in the Chinese characters for danger and opportunity. Conflict can also be understood as a social situation of the pursuit of perceived or factual incompatible goals. The pursuit is understood as making use of violent or non-violent strategies to reach a goal. The incompatibility can be characterized as either incompatible framing or procedural complexity.

Darwin emphasized “the competitive struggle for existence” and “the survival of the fittest.” He wrote that “all nature is at war, one organism with another, or with external nature. Seeing the contented face of nature, this may at first be well doubted; but reflection will inevitably prove it is too true” (in Hyman, 1966).

Marx highlighted the struggle between socio-economic classes. As the struggle continues, “the whole society breaks up more and more into two great hostile camps, two directly antagonistic classes: bourgeoisie and proletariat.” Marx and Engels finish

Conflict, Systems, and Approaches to Conflict Management

their *Communist Manifesto* by proclaiming “The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Working men of all countries, unite.”

According to Freud’s view of psychosexual development, there is continual conflict between the id and the superego. Freud sees two psychological forces, Eros and Thanatos, as the main principles of war. Eros represents love, pleasure, and creativity while Thanatos represents the human inclination towards destructiveness, aggression, and violence. According to Freud, Eros and Thanatos to be connected and to exist within everyone. When a nation is summoned to engage in war [...] the ideal motive has often served as a camouflage for the dust of destruction”. (Freud & Einstein, 1933).

Schachtel (1959) noted,

“The concepts and language used by Freud to describe the great metamorphosis from life in the womb to life in the world abound with images of war, coercion, reluctant compromise, unwelcome necessity, imposed sacrifices, uneasy truce under pressure, enforced detours and roundabout ways to return to the original peaceful state of absence of consciousness and stimulation”.

Conflict is seen as a “competitive struggle” due to the intellectual atmosphere which prevailed as social psychology surfaced. Other conditions, such as increased competition between business and nations, the economic depression in the 1920s and 30s, the wake of World War I, and the rise of Nazism and other totalitarian systems, perpetuated this view of conflict as well. Darwin’s theories and the idea that behaviors change due to evolution were decreasing in popularity by the 1920s. The prestige of the empirical methods in the physical sciences, the point of view of social determinism advanced by Karl Marx and various sociological theorists, and the findings of cultural anthropologists all contributed to their decline. As the once habitual modes of explaining conflict subsided, two others took their place: the psychological and the social-political-economic.

From the afore mentioned, we can assume that conflict has many facets. But, is there such a thing as a ‘Theory of Conflict’? There is no general agreement on either the historic or modern views of conflict. Some consider conflict theory to be linked to war studies whereas for others like Dougherty and Pfaltzgraff (1981) “Social scientists are divided on the question whether social conflict should be regarded as something rational, constructive, and socially functional or something irrational, pathological, and socially dysfunctional.” The current view of conflict is that it dismantles institutional frameworks that act as buffer zones between the clashing interests. Institutions are accepted, trained and sometimes enforced patterns of interaction that have distributional effects linked to conflict, determining the relative position of actors and their access to resources for organizing violence.

Societies have their own formal and informal institutions which deal with conflicts. Institutionalized conflict readjusts the balance of power within and between groups and maintains the order that keeps communities together.

In order to manage conflict through institutionalized design three competences need be available: (1) to manage conflict predictably and non-violently, (2) to solidify and protect the basic needs of the relevant communities, and (3) to alter current institutions, norms, and habits to new, resilient ones. Institutionalized conflict drives the adaptation of social processes (Koehler & Zürcher, 2003, 2004).

When institutional frameworks break down, risk factors of conflict can turn into violent conflict. A conflict is no longer entrenched when it exceeds established levels of violence and when it disturbs inter-group relations. Destructive conflicts create and instill fear and prejudice within a society, which then increased the chances of violence as inter-group relations are compromised. The assessment of the conflict and its risks relies on the differentiation between interest-based and value-based responses to risk issues. In order to deal with risk-related conflicts, it is necessary to understand individual attitudes and values which express disruptive or supportive behavior: (1) responses based on interests or on values, (2) overriding of values by personal or group interests and (3) changing individual or group responses (Tait, 2001). Cultural differences have an important role in handling value-based conflict. Some of the most important cultural variables in explaining human aggressive behavior are socialization, group comparisons, positive self and group identities, and the recognized illegitimacy of minority communities. Theories of ethnic conflict are rational or instrumental and emotional or psychological (Gurr & Harff, 1994).

Conflict generates more forceful interactions and interdependencies than simple competition, and it arises when two groups' goals, needs, and/or values clash and aggression ensues (Schelling, 1960). Conflict is dynamic, and its cost and consequences are not always easy to gauge. How various individuals and societies deal with conflict is a useful in understanding their ability and capacity to adapt.

Conflict can have various other causes: It can be based on disagreements, either because of individual values colliding with collective values, or immediate values versus those of medium term, local values versus national values, and scientific beliefs versus the collective will (Burguete, Celis and Díaz, 2003). Poverty and an uneven distribution of wealth also cause conflict. Gurr and Moore (1997) argue economic and political discrimination, environmental demographic distress (Diehl & Gleditsch, 2001), the lack of political autonomy, and prior repression increases the resentment of certain ethno-political groups.

At the intergovernmental level of development cooperation and aid, the United Nations Development Program (2002) asserts that there is an underlying and silent crisis which lies beneath the continuous headlines of global conflict. This crisis is one of underdevelopment, poverty, and environmental degradation. Solving this

crisis requires a long and stable process of human development, e.g. in the form of Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). Triggers of overpopulation, resource depletion, uneven distribution of land resources and water are causes of cross-border and domestic conflicts around the world (Homer-Dixon, Boutwell & Rathjens, 1993). Conflict is also caused by various environmental issues such as droughts, damaged crops and famines, dying forests, smog, etc. Forced relocation caused by changes in coastal land and the deterioration of estuarine habitat is creating conflict among pre-existing oyster-producing operations. Epidemics, gridlock, drugs, crime, sewage swimming, etc. follow a not ending list of causes of conflict.

Differing religious and ethnic identities are also factors of violent conflict. De Soysa (2001) states that there is a greater chance of conflict if the church and the state drive competing authorities. Civil conflicts, on the other hand are determined by various welfare instigators. There are some studies which show that inequity and poverty in a population can lead to serious conflicts, civil wars, riots, etc. An unequal distribution of assets can also be attributed to socio-political instability (Olson, 1963). However, an unequal distribution of income and land does not have a significant relationship with conflict (De Soysa, 2001).

Again with De Soysa (2001), there is evidence that Malthusian crises are sometimes man-made. The neo-Malthusian approach is a pessimistic view of conflict about ‘the population explosion (Ehrlich & Ehrlich 1990) and the coming anarchy’ (Kaplan, 1994). There is a positive correlation between population size and density and conflict (De Soysa, 2001). The effect a rural area’s population density has on conflict is related to the scarcity of renewable resources. In poor countries, armed conflicts are caused in part by poverty and environmental struggles. The scarcity of renewable resources is a casual mechanism of conflict according to many proponents of eco-violence (Schwartz, Deligiannis, and Homer-Dixon, 2000). Ecological conflicts involve a state actor. When a conflict is marked as eco-violence local and national institutions become weaker, which in turn decreases the control over ethnic rivalries and increases the chance of insurgency and the challenging of state authority (Homer-Dixon, 1999). Global ecological movements attempt to make the state system respond to demands for global environmental management. However, De Soysa (2001) found that the insignificant effect is unlikely to be driven merely by co-linearity effects, thus, there is little support for the eco-violence argument. The model of loot-seeking behavior (Collier-Hoeffler, 2000) and the proxy of primary commodity exports, stating that a wealth resource country is likely to suffer more contradict the arguments of eco-violence.

Resource scarcity determines other causes of conflict such as socio-economic, political, and identity factors. Environmental transformations change the sociopolitical fabric of societies, which in turn changes the relationships affecting pre-existing mechanisms of social peace. Natural resource scarcity is a cause of conflict as it

pushes elite groups to stockpile resources in their favor which marginalizes poorer and more powerless groups, and said scarcity prevents innovation. A society's ability to fill the ingenuity gap (Homer-Dixon, 1999) and achieve certain levels of innovation and economic growth mediates conflict due to environmental pressures. Some argue that greed, rather than grievance, is the driver for conflicts. Conflicts provide lootable income (Collier & Hoeffler, 2000).

The availability of the total value of natural resources is not related to conflict, whereas the availability of minerals is positively related to conflict (De Soysa, 2001). Conflict stems from the greed associated with high levels of mineral wealth. There is problematic relationship between resource wealth and conflict between it generally results in negative economic and social policies (Auty, 2000; Ros, 1999; Woolcock, Pritchett, and Isham, 2001). Trade has a negative correlation with conflict, though certain trade conflicts are worsened by historic resentment which can cause friction between trading partners to become more evident and bothersome. De Soysa (2001) concluded that trade has a negative effect on conflict when it comes to openness to trade. Countries with high population densities that are not open to trade have higher levels of conflict. Given this, a way to reduce conflict risk is to implement more liberal and open trading policies (De Soysa, 2001). However, it is not easy to find the appropriate model to properly examine the causes and variables of violent conflict. Violent conflicts and civil wars have huge private and social costs. Conflict over power is easier than conflict related to the rules of conflict. Conflict can be vertical between local groups and the state, or horizontal between many different local groups. Tait (2001) gave some categories of risk-related conflict and possible resolutions.

Wehr presents an early differentiation of the sources of conflict (Wehr, 1979; Donohue, 1989). It lists 4 types of conflicts: objective-based, value-based, interest-based and non-substantive based conflicts. These differentiations have been tested and found in other literature as well.

Conflicts are generally quite complex and have many motives across many levels. These motives can interact and cause further hostility and instability (Sandole, 1999; Coleman, Vallacher, Nowak and Bui-Wrozinska, 2007). Intractable conflicts are generally found in areas where pre-existing issues have led to long-term upset and humanitarian issues (Wessels & Monteiro, 2001). The source of many hostilities changes over time during the course of a conflict (Mitchell, 2005; Putnam and Peterson, 2003). Each conflict is different in its own unique way, and each one has its own logic that may make it resistant to traditional methods of mediation and resolution (Kreisberg 2005; Zartman, 2005).

Theories to conflict are largely dependent on context and the interrelationships found between actors and actor systems. As there is a plethora of theories, the question remains as to how to address these root causes of conflict. Actors behaviors, attitudes

and emotions are shaped by antecedents, such as socialization, upbringing, effects of class and privilege, and certainly culture. For both, international peacebuilding and organizational development, culture remains a relevant yet elusive factor. The following section is dedicated to placing the context of culture at the forefront of conflict theories.

What is culture? Much of what is written on international conflict treats culture as an abstract concept, for instance:

Culture: The total accumulation of many beliefs, customs, activities, institutions and communication patterns of an identifiable group of people (Dodd, 1987).

Therefore, actors must be sensitive of when interacting with those from other countries or groups. People from different countries may act different because their specific culture has different goals about negotiations or different norms of individual behavior. People may not be aware that their behavior is influenced by culture. The following non-exhaustive list of models about conflict play with the interconnectedness between theories of conflict and culture. The aim of this exploration is to raise awareness and to sensitize managers and leaders to the fact that there is no blue print solution, but rather a menu of choices to be made.

The Model by Augsburger

The model by Augsburger (1992) posits that there are various conflict behaviors (avoidance, repression, displacement, management, resolution, and utilization) indicated by mindsets and the knowledge about various courses of action on how to respond to conflict. These behavioral types are largely informed by culture and ethnicity. This lead to the conclusion that conflict resolutions styles are universal as they are features in various cultures of the world, even though their magnitude and amplitude can vary in different settings.

The Model by Bennett

Bennett (1995) concludes that there are universal styles of conflict resolution. The universality of these styles allows us to understand that traditional or indigenous ways of resolving conflict can co-exist with modern and contemporary conflict management strategies. It also allows us to accept a third party, playing the role of a mediator or go-between, since these roles are part and parcel of all conflict resolution approaches. Bennett identifies the following conflict resolution styles (Mayer & Boness, 2004):

- Denial / Suppression
- Power / Authority

- Third Person Intermediary
- Group Consensus
- Direct Discussion

The Circle of Model by Moore

Moore (1996) presents a circular model of conflict with 5 sources of conflict. For each conflict, he provides a targeted and tailored intervention method. This method is hugely important for intercultural conflict mediation as the study tested the intervention styles and methods across 24 different countries. The 5 sources of conflict are:

- Relationships
- Values
- Data
- Structures
- Interests

Moore suggests that each conflict needs to be addressed with different approaches, yet that most of them are based on the sharing of information which allows parties to increase understanding. He suggests a model that helps them to review the data and to move toward harnessing the presenting issues. The mediator makes use of a 'situation assessment' or 'convening report' to help (Moore, 2003):

- Organize the thinking
- Increase understanding of the dispute
- Make parties aware of each other's interests
- Describe the issues to be discussed
- Identify possible problem-solving processes for future joint sessions
- Build a commitment to begin exploring possible settlement options by mentioning options suggested by the parties themselves.

Group Conflicts and Social Psychology Model

Interest-based conflict has a primary role in sociology and psychology, though the difference between interest and value remains unclear (Fisher, 1993, 2000). Value-based conflicts are more difficult to resolve, as their resolution relies on education and change (Bercovitch, 1989; Donohue, 1989). Changes in values happen slowly, and the outcome cannot be predetermined. Interest-based conflicts are particular because they cannot be investigated through simple questioning, yet no societal

changes need to be made in order to resolve interest-based conflicts. An interest-based conflict is a dispute over the distribution of goods, privileges, and obligations, and parties are within their right to compromise and change preferences (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). The source of interest-based conflicts is not necessarily a material good but can be a service or a virtual resource such as recognition.

Tajfel and Turner (1979) created Social Identity Theory (SIT) to better understand the psychological base of inter-group discrimination. Needs of one group could lead in-members to discriminate against members of another out-group. Tajfel et al. were able to demonstrate that even the most arbitrarily disposition in groups would lead to these effects (Tajfel, Flament, Billig & Bundy, 1971). This theory shows that the groups to which we belong to become part of who we are and play into our self-esteem. Individuals must feel good about not only themselves, but also their membership to specific social groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Positive Social Identity is achieved by association to favorable groups and could result in discrimination against other groups in order to feel better about one's own group. However, this theory does not preclude that there can interest-based inter-group conflict (Fisher, 1993).

Intercultural Variables of Conflict

Any third-party intervention must be sensitive toward the cultural values and differences of the disputing parties. Let's take the reductionist understanding of Western and Eastern cultures: For Western cultures, conflict is seen as a healthy and constructive way to manage concerns and as a mechanism for improving relations. Explanations are required, and it is largely suggested to self-disclose and to be open about any negative sentiments so that they can be resolved in a constructive manner. Eastern cultures, on the other hand, normalize conflict-avoidance in order to maintain harmony (Murayama et al., 2015). Conflict is either ignored, or an authoritative third-party is immediately brought in to avoid any escalation or to settle the issue. An individual's credibility is partially measured on how well he/she was able to avoid conflict and spare the feelings of any other parties. It is rather akin to arbitration than to mediation.

Eastern and Western cultures also differ on how to organize and present conflict information, to provide explanations, and to show solidarity. Taking China as a case study, Wall and Blum (1991) observe:

Mediation to Westerners is a social aberration. Seeking mediation is analogous to Western medicine: The doctor is visited when someone is ill; a cure is administered for the patient's disease; and the physician, usually a stranger, is not seen until

the next illness. If the cure does not work, the patient goes to a specialist. For the Chinese, mediation is integrated within their society. (Wall & Blum, 1991)

La Resche (1992) states that the US-American outlook on mediation is that while conflicts are disruptive, their end result is improved relationships between the conflicting parties. Mediators are seen as managers whose role is to guide the parties through the various options for resolution. Due to this, mediators tend to detach themselves and see their relationship with conflicts as discontinuous (La Resche, 1992). This method might not be successful for Korean-Americans, as that culture generally views conflict as shameful and as the inability to maintain harmony with others. Conflicts do not just indicate communication issues but are actually a sign of disrespect. Hence, and that is observed for the Chinese as well, mediation is part of a continuous relationship. Apology signals that a settlement has been reached. La Resche (1992) asserts that third-parties involved in conflicts in multi-ethnic communities must have an understanding of the varying views of conflict so that they can properly adapt to the situation.

Operational Modes of Understanding Conflict

Bernard Mayer states:

A framework for understanding conflict is an organizing lens that brings a conflict into better focus. There are many different lenses we can use to look at a conflict, and each of us will find some more amenable to our own way of thinking than other.... We need frameworks that expand our thinking, that challenge our assumptions, and that are practical and readily usable. (Mayer, 2010).

The literature suggests that two requirements need to be met in order to serve as an effective tool for conflict analysis:

1. **Diagnosis: Simplicity vs. Complexity:** Effective diagnostic models and tools that attempt to find a fine balance between simplicity and complexity (Rummel, 1991).
2. **Strategic Guidance:** Effective models are clear and focused in giving strategic direction to the practitioner.

In order to meet these two requirements, the following review of existing models shall be reduced to those that provide operational impetus and utility.

The Circle of Conflict

The Circle of Conflict model (Moore, 2003) gives attention to the causes or “drivers” of specific conflicts. It provides a mapping of the salient issues as its main focus is on giving the practitioner data points, structure and narrative. The 5 categories are: Values, Relationships, Moods/Externals, Data, and Structure. It is centered in a constructivist approach to conflict resolution as it thrives to place interest-based perspectives in the center of attention of the conflict parties. The mediator’s task is to make use of his/her communication skills to such an extent that parties gravitate toward a common ground. It is a useful approach if and when there is power parity among the involved parties, no violence and an integrative approach to negotiations.

The Triangle of Satisfaction

In this proposed model, the aim of the mediator is to dig deeper, beyond the interests of the parties and to reveal their underlying needs. It differentiates the following dimensions: Results or substantive interests, Process or procedural interests, and Psychological or emotional interests. It requires the engagement of parties and mediator(s) to work on all sides of the triangle as failure to do so would be leaving parties aggrieved. One of the strengths of this model is that it acts as a guide for mediators and aids in overcoming any stalemates if emotions become too involved in the conflict resolution process. One drawback to this model is that it does not sufficiently explain how to unearth needs and whether or not the resolution of needs necessarily leads to a positive outcome. Nevertheless, it serves as a functional tool to map the motives, drivers, and dynamics behind the interests and presented demands.

The Boundary Model

In this model, Prevost examines a conflict and proposes one specific lens in which to outline said conflict (Prevost, 1996). The main idea is that all things, people and organisms share “boundaries”. For people, boundaries come in the form of laws, rules, contracts, agreements, etc. The following are the fundamental aspects that define “boundaries”:

- **Defined Standards for Behavior:** Boundaries must have defined standards for minimum and/or maximum allowable behavior.
- **Jurisdiction or Legitimacy:** Boundaries must have “jurisdiction”, which is the source of legitimacy existing for all.

- **Authority or Enforcement:** Boundaries must have some form of “authority”. Authority is an entity, process or person(s) responsible for enforcing the boundary.
- **Norms:** Boundaries usually have a certain degree of tolerance or latitude or variance, which are then called “norms”. Norms are reasonable latitudes around the boundary that one accepts without perceiving the boundary to have been violated.

Conflict therefore occurs when a boundary or its norm is challenged, threatened, or circumvented, either factual or perceived.

This model demonstrates how to enable conflicting parties by simplifying information, but it has a limited scope of use. To be the most efficient, a mediator must use this model under specific circumstances and within certain environments such as labor, workplace, small claims.

The “Interests-Rights-Power”-Model

Roger Fisher and William Ury in “Getting to Yes” (Fisher, Ury, Patton, 1991) and “Getting Past No” (Ury, 1993) describe three types of processes that can be used in conflict resolution:

- Interest-Based Processes: Through mediation and brainstorming, parties are assisted by a mediator to find common and how to fulfill all of their interests:
- Rights-Bases Processes: Conflict parties have claims that stem from laws, statutes, conventions, common practice, norms, etc. and they are generally opposing opinions. The typical way to solve conflict through this process is through litigation, arbitration, adjudication, tribunal decision, neutral evaluation, formal investigation, etc.;
- Power-Based Processes: One party is seen using all available resources in order to defeat another party. The main processes to achieve this are threats, war, unilateral decision-making, voting, etc.

The advantage of this model is that the mediator is able to show to the conflicting parties the extent to which their conflict mode may be conducive or destructive to the resolution of the conflict. S/he does so by extrapolating data from the proposed and presented narratives, to make use of further knowledge and available information to showcase to each party the respective benefits vs. cost analysis of each move. The drawback of this model is that it sees cultural attributes as not relevant to the process of the mediated endeavor. It has therefore value only in those contexts where culture does not play a significant role.

The Dynamics of Trust

The Dynamics of Trust model (Furlong, 2005) focuses on the role of trust in interactions and cooperation. In this context, the definition of trust has two main aspects:

- Risk is an important part of trust because individuals take risks to test and build trust.
- Motives/Intentions

The underlying theory the “Attribution” theory. This theory asserts that when a negative event occurs, people begin to attribute the cause of said event to someone or something. The reason for this is to attempt to make sense of negative event. There are numerous elements of the attribution including self, other, self-serving bias on trust, etc. There are three attributions that are the most critical: situation attribution, intrinsic nature attribution, and intentional attribution. The level of attribution must be determined in order to make real and effective change.

The Dynamics of Trust model is especially useful in cross-cultural management, team building, and group coaching when it comes to identifying the basic, and sometimes hidden, causes of a conflict. “Confidence Building Measures” (CBM) are then applied to cultivate trust. CBM’s break barriers and create a pattern of trust. The third step to continuing trust is to increase the levels of interpersonal trust. As the parties witness each other taking fulfilling commitments and risks to build trust, they can begin to build a positive rapport between them.

The Dimensions of Conflict Model

This model aims to understand conflict by evaluating three dimensions which exists across all conflicts (Mayer, 2000):

- The Cognitive or Perceptual Dimension, which consists of beliefs, assumptions, conflict definition, behavior, etc.;
- The Emotional Dimension, which consists of confidence, perceptions, emotional triggers, and ways to handle feelings;
- The Behavioral Dimension, which consists of aggression, avoidance, behavioral trigger, and actions to cope, escalate, and de-escalate.

Through this conflict triangle, the mediator is steered by specific questions along the three dimensions. Each dimension has specific strategies:

- **Cognitive Dimension:** collect data, question current understandings, redefine conflict, differentiate between intention and impact, etc.;
- **Emotional Dimension:** Recognize feelings, permit venting, empower parties, develop confidence;
- **Behavioral Dimension:** Erase triggers, recognize avoidance and aggression, create base rules, construct and implement practical agreements, etc.

The model offers an easy pathway into gaining perspective on both causes of conflict and appropriate intervention methods.

The Social Style Model

Based on the Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI, Myers & McCaulley, 1985), this model comes with two significant differences: First, it focuses on observable behavior. Assessments are made through peer review rather than self-review. Second, the additions of assertiveness and emotional responsiveness broaden the MBTI model. This addition gives way to four potential personality types (NB: The MBTI uses 4 dimensions which supply 16 varying personality styles). By observing how the parties behave along the dimensions of assertiveness and responsiveness, their personalities can be placed along a scale. Assertiveness indicators are broken down into “ask” and “tell” assertiveness. Those with tell assertiveness generally speak more often, louder, and faster, and typically lean forward and use more energetic gestures when speaking. Those who are ask assertive generally speak less often, softly, and slower, and have more toned-down gestures.

Responsiveness is broken down into “control” and “emote” responsiveness. Those who are emote responsive tend to have more animated expressions and smooth gestures. These individuals show their own feelings and acknowledge the feelings of others. Those who are control responsive gesture less often and are less open to acknowledging any feelings.

In this model, there are four behavior quadrants:

- The Analytical Style: People are more ask assertive than 50% of the population, and more control responsive than 50% of the population;
- The Driving Style: People are more tell assertive than 50% of the population, and more control responsive than 50% of the population;
- The Expressive Style: People are more tell assertive than 50% of the population, and more emote responsive than 50% of the population;
- The Amiable Style: Amiable personalities are more ask assertive than 50% of the population and more emote responsive than 50% of the population.

Each quadrant has varying qualities:

- Analytical Qualities: cautious, detail-oriented, logical, meticulous, careful
- Driving Qualities: autonomous, decisive, quick-moving, dominant, task-oriented
- Expressive Qualities: supportive, loyal, relationship-oriented, conflict-averse, docile
- Amiable Qualities: energized, quick-moving, impetuous, assertive, animated

With the Social Style Method, the mediator is able to discern the dominant personality styles of each party. Once this is done, it is easier to place individuals in a quadrant, which then helps to better understand the causes and reasons for conflict.

The interesting feature of this model is that it allows the mediator to move away from the inability to capture all culturally relevant aspects of conflict. During conflict, the role of culture and cultural differences decreases, while the importance of communication increases. However, caution has to be applied by the practitioner as reduction of a complex conflict through rigid assessment tends to leave certain traits and politics of difference out of the negotiation process.

“Moving Beyond Conflict”-Model

This model, based on works of Kubler-Ross (1969) and Bridges (1980), focuses on the setting and psychology of conflict. Furlong (2005) contends that in order to work through any impasse, a stage of closure must be reached and the upset relationship between the two parties must be addressed. There are three stages to this process:

Stage One: Denial – Denial is the refusal to believe that something has ended or that something has happened. Underlying issues are completely ignored;

Stage Two: Anger - Anger, frustration and distress are all connected, and they represent normal reactions to negative triggers;

Stage Three: Acceptance – Here is where closure begins. There is now a focus on finding a solution and moving on.

These stages are quite similar to any social justification approach to change. Change management is dealing with similar dynamics and thus this model is grounded.

These three stages are experienced across all cultures. The goal of this model is to be able to give space to emotions. Once emotions have been de-briefed and validated, they can be used to create a lasting agreement.

Furlong (2005) advises that each of the three stages must be dealt with differently, and he provides different interventions for each stage:

Stage One – Denial: Intervention through exploring key interests, reality testing, BATNA¹, attributional retaining, avoidance of false bargaining, etc.;

Stage Two – Anger: Suggested interventions and skills through active listening, validation, acknowledgment, reframing, re-focus to key interests, etc.;

Stage Three – Acceptance: Skills are Brainstorming, mutual problems statements, focusing on future, exploring key needs, building the vision, true resolution and transformation of conflict, possible healing;

The Moving Beyond Conflict Model is the most appropriate for creating options and risk analysis and caucus when there is an impasse in the resolution process. The mediator can discuss certain subjects with the conflicting parties, which they can then discuss in confidentiality.

PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION

In organizations, intra-group dynamics (i.e. dynamics within group) interplay powerfully upon intergroup dynamics (i.e. dynamics between groups). These systemic dynamics have an impact on the involved conflict parties. Although such dynamics can and must be constructive (e.g. through adaptive management) if an organization is to be healthy and efficient, they tend to be destructive (to the extent that they become intractable). The first place to locate afore mentioned conflict lenses is to look for the dynamics within groups. While intergroup conflicts are regularly manifest and troubling, under the surface there often lurk latent or hidden intergroup conflicts that fuel and sustain the former.

Based on the foregoing information, we can suggest the following actionable framework to the manager (FIAT)

- First Step: Framing vision
- Second Step: Inventing options
- Third Step: Action planning
- Fourth Step: Trust and communication

More specifically:

Step One: (F) - Framing Vision

In intragroup processes, rancor is often interpersonal and can be distracting to the task of changing the context or system within which such animosity often plays out. It is useful to getting participants to voice positive visions in order to preserve

ongoing relationships and to help create a context and motivation to work together better as a team and to try to make these visions are reality. At the same time, the manager needs also to explore the barriers to the visioning process.

Step Two: (I) – Inventing Options

When deep human motivations are at the heart of conflicts, solutions must be formulated and pursued, at least initially, in ways that focus on potential gains rather than sacrifices or concessions. The inventing process is about developing concrete solutions to bring resonance to life and serve to consolidate and give concrete form to new insights about each other and the conflict. A new understanding of interdependence and its positive potential can replace fighting and antagonism. The primary aim of inventing options is to build confidence that cooperation is useful and can and should be launched and sustained. One approach is the integrative approach to problem-solving. Mary Parker Follett was the first to formulate it and it refers to strategies and options by which parties can cooperatively solve their conflicts with each other:

“There are three main ways of dealing with conflict: domination (competition), compromise, and integration. Domination [...] Is a victory of one side over the other. Compromise [occurs when] each side gives up a little in order to have peace. [Integration occurs when] a solution has been found in which both desires have found a place, [such] that neither side has to sacrifice anything”.

Integration thus enables parties to work together to fulfil their own needs without undermining the needs of the other. However, this does not mean that everyone gets everything desired. Disputants may come to realize that while they can't always get everything they want, if they try real hard they can perhaps, through cooperation and integrative problem-solving, get what they truly need. Here, the manager has the option of moving away from the often purported win-win-situation as the ideal outcome of a conflict. More often than not, this goal is rather unrealistic. Instead, it is enough if sides in a conflict seek to undertake mutual accommodations and cooperative efforts in good faith with a view toward ensuring the fulfillment of the underlying needs of all parties involved. The manager needs to brainstorm together with the parties and to generate as many options as possible. Producing a wide range of alternatives, the parties can evaluate the inventions in light of the list of underlying needs they have developed during reframing. Inventing, thus, is the process through which integrative approaches are used to design mutually acceptable solutions to a conflict whereby all sides gain.

Step Three: (A) – Action Planning

The action planning phase serves to apply substantive insight through a recapitulation and joint assessment of goals, needs, and motivations. A move toward implementation also requires a reexamination of inventions. Some questions can be:

- What is to be done?
- Why is it to be done?
- Who is it to do?
- How is it to be done?

Reflecting on some of the issues around identity and groups, action planning needs to revolve around the following elements:

- Identity problems: Who are we? What do we care about?
- Teamwork: One of the key barriers to working together in many departments and project units is due to a lack of clarity and commitment to functions, roles, and tasks. Here, the manager needs to gather more data on who is to do what, when, why and how, and with what kind of support. This, in return, creates inner commitment and shared understanding. An ideally functioning team is one that plans its change proactively and engages conflicts as a vehicle for dynamism and innovation
- Improve atmosphere: Here, it is useful if the manager, together with the parties and other supporting colleagues can produce a tool or instrument to proactively address interpersonal anger and misunderstandings before they erupt, fester, or degenerate into a destructive scenario.

Step Four: (T) – Trust and Communication

Here, the manager needs to continuously monitor progress made in the Action-Planning process in order to sustain the desired change and thus to attain trust. She does so by opening up and maintaining channels of communication to and within the parties. Either through task forces, story-telling, meetings or other initiatives, he slowly but progressively creates a safe and creative environment and space where all needs are reflected, roles are clear, and rules of engagement in the event of a conflict are implemented by all parties and groups in a specific setting.

FINAL REFLECTIONS

All conflicts are the starting point of any conflict resolution strategy – the effort of resolution or regulation through negotiation, dialogue or mediation. Typically, the practice shows a sequential model, starting with crisis intervention, restoration, remediation and conflict prevention, the latter being the highest ideal to be achieved in terms of conflict management systems.

Conflict is inevitable in groups, and its management (or lack thereof) has strong effects on group dynamics. Therefore, it is crucial to enlist specialists in order to understand conflict, to give guidance on the intervention design, and how to manage it across cultures. Conflict has many different definitions.

Thomas (1976) explains:

“Conflict is the process which begins when one party perceives that the other has frustrated, or is about to frustrate, some concern of his [sic]” (p. 891).

This definition deals with the type of conflict that occurs between individuals and within groups. Conflicts often evoke strong feelings. Typical reactions are that conflict must be avoided, that conflict needs to be settled quickly, and that conflict results in negative feelings. When properly managed, conflict can have quite a few positive effects. It can cause problems to surface and be dealt with effectively, clarify viewpoints, encourage individuals, motivate the search for creative alternatives, increase cross-cultural understanding, provide vital feedback, create increased understanding of one’s conflict style, test and extend the capacities of group members, and provide a way to adjust relationships in terms of current realities. The main goal of conflict management is to increase positive results and decrease negative ones.

Conflicts are considered to occur in cycles or episodes (Baxter, 1982; Pondy, 1967; Walton, 1969). Each episode is influenced by the outcomes of previous episodes and also influences future episodes. The model of a conflict episode has six components or stages.

The first stage represents each individual’s entering state, which is determined by such variables as his or her behavioral predispositions, pressures from the social environment, conflict experiences with significant others, and previous conflict episodes with the other group members. Typically, some stimulus (the second component) occurs that initiates or catalyzes an episode, although it need not be an explicit event.

The entering state and stimulus lead to frustration (the third stage of the model). Frustration may result from a wide variety of stimuli--for example, active interference with one group member’s actions by another, competition for recognition, the breaking of an agreement, or the giving of an overt or imagined insult.

The fourth step (conceptualization) is vital. The conceptualization of the situation by each group member forms the basis for his or her reactions to the frustration and subsequent behavior. This step can be thought of as each party answering and reacting to the imagined answers to such questions as: What's going on here? Is it good or bad for me? Why is this other person doing this to me? A dispute between a group member and the leader might be conceptualized by the leader as "this guy is acting out his counter dependent position and trying to take over the group" and by the member as "I must push this issue for the sake of the group because nobody else has the guts to stand up to this arrogant show-off."

Each party in a conflict develops his or her own implicit conceptualization of the situation. Each conceptualization is usually very different from that of the other person in the conflict and is unknown or not understood by the other; it may be unclear, even to the person who has the conceptualization. The ways each party conceptualizes the problems and episode have a great deal of influence over the chances for a constructive outcome, the behaviors that will result, and the kinds of feelings that will be created during the conflict episode. Therefore, it is important that the conceptualizations of an event are explored in the group.

The fifth step in the conflict model is behavior and interaction. The initial behavior is determined heavily by the conceptualization. The behaviors of each party have an effect on the subsequent behavior of the other. This interaction tends to increase or decrease the level of conflict.

The sixth and final step in the conflict episode model is the outcome or result of the conflict episode. The outcome refers to the state of affairs that exists at the end of the episode, including decisions, actions taken, agreements made, and feelings of the participants.

Subsequent episodes may happen, with similar or different issues. The process described above is repeated for each episode, with the outcome of previous episodes affecting the first state of each party in the following episodes.

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ENDNOTE

- ¹ BATNA is an acronym for Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement as opposed to WATNA for Worst Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement as introduced by Fisher/Ury/Patton in their seminal work “Getting to Yes”. It is synonymous to the concepts of power and influence a party can yield over another and to explain the type of leverage a conflict party can exert onto the mediation dynamics.

Chapter 2

Conflict Resolution as a State Mechanism in Modern Times: An Introduction to Conflict Resolution in a Post-Industrialized Business World

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ABSTRACT

The post-industrialized world, which covers the period from the post-World War II to the present decade, has seen different types of real-life conflicts across the professional world. The present chapter is a sustained effort to analyse the post-industrialised conflicts in the light of application of state mechanism to resolve such conflicts in national as well as in international arenas. The term “state mechanism” has been used in a broader sense so that it may cover the control mechanism of the individual state and international control mechanisms of the United Nations.

INTRODUCTION

Post-industrial business world is referred to an advanced stage in development of an industrialized society during which the state economy transits from one stage that primarily “**provides goods**” to the other stage that “**provides services**”. In other words, the service sector, made up of people such as doctors, nurses, engineers, teachers, researchers, social workers, and lawyers, among others, account for more

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of the economic growth and wealth accumulation than the manufacturing sector made up of people such as construction workers, textile mill workers, agro - food manufacturers, and production workers. The economic transformation associated with the post-industrialized business world subsequently transforms the society as a whole. As a matter of fact, information, services, and advanced technology are considered to be more important in post-industrialized world than that of manufacturing tangible goods. As the name suggests, the post-industrialized world follows an industrialized society model (Hazen, C.D: 2018) of Europe which focused on mass production of goods with the aid of modern machinery. Post-industrialization can easily be seen in Europe and the United States that were more influenced by the impact of **Industrial Revolution** than other places around the world. The United States was the first country to have more than fifty per cent of the total workforce engaged in service sector during the second half of the twentieth century.

State mechanism works in three orders to resolve social, economic, political, and national conflicts. In its first order a state prevents the risk of majority of socio-economic conflicts by enacting new laws or by amending the existing laws. In its second order a state controls the rate of conflicts by imposing deterrent punishment on the conflict –mongers. In its third order a state follows the policy of surveillance across the country and propagates the message of resolution of conflicts through education system or through the administrative overhaul of value-based Public Instruction.

It has been observed that tertiary and quaternary sectors are quintessentially techno-knowledge-oriented. As a matter of fact, Information Technology is the offshoot of the technical education and its primary focus is on skill development. The growing importance of **Computer Science** and Internet –based ‘Digital Networking’ attests to this phenomenon. The newly gained power of the digital experts consequently gives rise to the growing role of universities and research institutes in post-industrial business world. Post-industrial market economy can thrive being knowledge -oriented around these global hubs of knowledge production. Naturally post – industrialized society focuses on production of techno-experts and technocrats by using state mechanism.

Consequently, the greatest beneficiaries in the post-industrial market economy are young urban professionals all over the world. As a highly educated and computationally intellectual generation this young generation is mostly welcome in modern economy. As this young generation is also impassioned by **state –sponsored** ideas of **liberalism, social justice, and environmentalism** the shift of power into their hands for their technical knowledge is considered as risky one by the state mechanism,

The upsurge of technical knowledge and its application in Information Technology in post-industrialized business world results in a general increase in expertise throughout the world through the advanced political economy. Thus it eliminates what Alan Banks and Jim Foster have identified as ‘undesirable work as well as

the grosser forms of poverty and inequality.’ This effect is supplemented by the aforementioned shift of power into the hands of educated youngsters who are less concerned with social justice as envisaged by the **state mechanism**.

Economists at Berkeley University of California have studied the value of knowledge as a form of capital, adding value to material capital, such as a factory or an Industry. Thus, the addition or ‘production’ of knowledge could become the basis of ‘post-industrial’ policies that are meant to foster economic growth of the business world. Global race is noticeable in the growth plan of digital learning and Computer – Aided Learning and Teaching (CALT) all over the world today.

Market economy works in tandem with the creative culture of high grade technical research, launched in advanced countries during the present post-industrialized time. The knowledge - producing **market economy** is well-equipped to thrive in technologically competitive environment. The target groups of such education are young adults with post-graduate education. As higher education has become more and more **outcomes – based** it has grown proneness towards producing people capable of fulfilling the need for self-actualization, creativity, and self-expression. Successive generations will become prone to contribute perpetually for creating a ‘**knowledge society**’. The emerging tech-savvy elite class of young professionals have witnessed unprecedented economic affluence and the satisfaction of basic material needs. Ellen Dunham Jones has observed post-industrial economy must have abundant goods to be equitably distributed so that labour- less ‘leisure and self-determination’ can co-exist side by side symbiotically.

The post-industrialized economy is repeatedly observed as one where technical knowledge is considered as economic **power** and **technology** plays its predominant role as the **instrumental to development**. When youngsters are creatively inclined to innovation, they enjoy the glory of being advantaged in such a ‘knowledge society’. The ‘**doctrine of speed, mobility, and malleability**’ which is well suited to a dynamic creative industry, is also applicable for measuring post-industrialized economy. As production industries decrease in value, the way is paved for the experts of ‘Liberal Arts’ like artists, musicians, and artists. The skills of ‘Liberal Arts’ are better utilized by the tertiary and quaternary sectors.

In their co-edited volume **The New Industrial Geography: Regions, Regulation and Institutions** (1999), T. J. Barnes and M.S. Gertler outline the ‘Vancouver experience’ during the post- World War II period. Sometimes industrial development evokes the post-industrial condition. Emergence of video **games industry** has become one of the constituents of the post-industrial service sector.

Post-industrialized society has reflected upon the dynamic aspect of the post-industrialized society which is related to research and development -based industry. As economic activities shift from **primary and secondary** sector to **tertiary**, and

later on to **quaternary**, metropolitan cities have been open to the project of **Smart Cities** taking assistance of information technology and Internet.

The tertiary and quaternary sectors have brought this inevitable change in Net-based network of modern cities. In order to provide quality service industries focus on growth plan of Finance, Research and Development, Communication, Management, Training, and Techno-aesthetic Design in Engineering education. The post- industrialized city must become smart **Points of Exchange** (PoE) that are capable of providing and sharing the most updated information across the globe. Conversely, as cities have become a convergence point of international ideas, the tertiary and quaternary sectors have displayed monitoring role.

This dynamic change gives birth to a virtual ‘cult of creativities’. This cult has sprung up embodying the post-industrial ethos that is prevalent across the globe. It is needless to say that businesses that create ‘**intangibles**’ have taken a more prominent role when earlier manufacturing units are facing speedy decline. Actor and Artistic Director of the Old Vic Theatre Kevin Spacey, has put forward the economic case for the ‘liberal arts and craftsmanship’ in terms of providing jobs and extending more opportunities in exports than in manufacturing industrial products.

State mechanism considers that conflict is a normal and natural part of human relationships. In a democracy all the citizens may not agree about the state policies all the time. But conflict is not a negative aspect of life. When handled constructively, conflict can lead people to stand up for their cause and guide others to work together to achieve a mutually satisfactory solution in a democratic environment. But if conflict is handled ineffectively it may cause mutual distrust in between professionals, generate personal anger, augment hurt, and create social divisiveness as well as other serious problems. State mechanism works in three tier mode to keep in check all these possible negative offshoots of conflict as discussed below:

Tier 1: Legislative Functionary of a given state promulgates laws and rules to check personal conflicts and maintain social equilibrium.

Tier 2: Executive Functionary of a given state maintains law and order through Police Administration and Community Volunteers.

Tier 3: Judicial Functionary of a given state oversees law and order situation by administering justice through adherence to Penal/Pecuniary Provision of the state.

State mechanism takes judicious steps to keep social conflicts in check. One way to manage conflict is to prevent it from recurring in the first place. Preventing conflict is not the same as avoiding conflict or escaping from conflicting array. Preventing conflict means behaving and communicating in a way that averts needless conflicts. Modern state does not interfere in matters of private and personal relationship of its

citizens unless it becomes prone to violation of civil order and obnoxious to social and communal harmony in nature.

LITERATURE REVIEW

At the outset it is worthwhile to state that there is no journal article nor any book or book chapter that has directly covered the issue of “**state mechanism**” with reference to “**conflict resolution**”. On the other hand there are plethora of journal articles and books/book chapters highlighting upon the issue of post – industrial society.

Daniel Bell is said to have popularized the term, “Post Industrial” through his seminal work *The Coming of Post-Industrial Society* (1973). However, (Alain Touraine, 1971) is acclaimed to be the first major author on the post-industrial society. The term was also used extensively by social philosopher Ivan Illich in his 1973 paper ‘Tools for Conviviality’ and appears occasionally in Leftist texts throughout the mid-to-late 1960s.

The term, ‘**post – industrialized**’ has grown and evolved to its contemporary broader meaning as it has become popular in socio-economic literature. The term, ‘**post-industrial**’ also has become in vogue in popular commercial advertisement, public policy, national and international diplomacy, Sociology and in Economics. For example, former U S President Bill Clinton used both the above-stated terms while commenting upon Chinese economic growth in a round-table discussion in Shanghai in 1998.

Sharing the theory of V.I.U Lenin as expressed in his popular work, “**State and Revolution**” (Lenin, *Collected Works*, Volume 25, p. 381- 492, 1918) a group of scholars including Allen Scott and Edward Soja argue that industry remains at the centre of the whole process of capitalist accumulation, with services not only becoming increasingly industrialized and automated but also remaining highly dependent on industrial growth. Building on the theories of the French philosopher of urbanism Henri Lefebvre, it is suggested that although industry may be based outside of a “post-industrial” nation, that nation cannot ignore industry’s sociological importance.

Post-industrial economy is often criticized for its multi – faceted approaches. Alan Banks and Jim Foster (*The Mystification of Post – Industrialism*, 1983) opine that representations of post-industrialized society were negligible in the business world. Elitist professionals and educated engineers were previously less relevant than they have become in the new socio-economic order today. Another group of IT experts contend that changes that have occurred over the last seventy two years are though negligible yet greatly hyped^{1,2}. Critical scholars see the entire post - industrial process as the highest evolution of capitalism, wherein the system produces services as opposed to commodities. The price is fixed privately keeping the majority out

of purview. This view is supplemented by the assertion that “the characteristic feature of post-industrialized society is that it advocates the devolution of democracy to technocracy.”³ Such knowledge societies become prominent for their ability to subvert social consciousness through power of manipulation rather than power of coercion as predominantly manifested during Industrial phase.

There was no fundamental change in the transition from industrial society to post-industrial society is revealed by the persistent presence of all lingering socio-economic problems from the past. Pro-Malthusian in essence, this outlook focuses on continuous struggle of post-industrial society with the following prime issues:

1. Overpopulation and resultant problems
2. Scarcity of capital resource
3. Unplanned urban development
4. Problem of technology transfer and related issues
5. Environmental degradation due to pollution

All the above issues are remnants of industrial history.⁴ This idea is corroborated by ‘corporate liberalism’ that seeks economic growth through “the creation and satisfaction of false needs,” or as Christopher Lasch more derisively refers to it as “subsidized waste.”

Contrary to the view that the technocrats of post-industrial society are increasingly aware of environmental degradation, this logic argues that they rather lead to environmental degradation and not development of tech-friendly eco-system. Urban sprawl is characterised by metro cities expanding demographically at the periphery into even lower densities. The expansion project is reflected through establishment of office parks, plazas, high rise malls, artificial strips, condo clusters, corporate campuses, and multi-storied community halls.⁵ Post-industrialist socio-economic structure has set the culture of mobile capitalism and the service economy of late 20th century. This approach has culminated to **post-Fordist disposable consumerism** and **banking deregulation**. At the same time, urban sprawl has caused post-industrialism become environmentally and socially regressive.

Post-industrialized environmental degradation results from the excessive encroachment of people creating demands of high-density habitation. The sprawling spread of population consumes more of the environment while necessitating more energy consumption in order to facilitate travel within the ever-growing city resulting in greater pollution. This process of settlement evokes the age old Malthusian concerns of **overpopulation** vis-a-vis **resource scarcity** that inevitably lead to environmental deterioration.⁶ Of late, post-industrialist **doctrine of mobility and malleability** encourages a distinction between different communities on

the basis of **social belonging** that is considered by the Post-Fordistas disposable consumerism and replaceable.

The term, '**Post-industrial**', like other post – Second World War terms, is highly Western-centric socio-economic concept. Theoretically this concept is only demonstrable in the West. The proponents of post-industrialized economy assume that post-industrialization is purported to be the culmination of post-industrialization. Herman Kahn optimistically predicted the economic growth based on production and growing efficiency of post-industrial society that results in material abundance and high quality of urban life for almost all people in the West as well as a few in the East. This prediction is reflected somewhere else as the post-industrial society's attempt to champion the cause of elitist capitalism.

Based on the assertion that all modern societies are different shades of emerging **technocracies**, T. Roszak opines that all societies are moving in the direction of technocracies. He argues that the most **suave technocracies** are found in the West, and all other types are being graded in descending order. He continues to grade **vulgar technocracies**, **teratoid technocracies**, and finally **comic opera technocracies**. This West-biased view presumes the possibility of only a single path of transition for all societies and that is to follow the Western model of success. Just like the demographic transition model, Roszak's prediction precludes the idea of an Eastern or other alternative model of transitional development towards post-industrialist economy.

In post-industrialized society technical skill has become a valued form of capital better-known as human capital.⁷ Producing innovative ideas has become the main way of growth in economy. Globalized automation has brought down the value of blue-collared unionized workers and manual labours to the minimum. On the other hand the post-industrialized economy has hyped the importance of tech-savvy professionals such as computer scientists, creative-industry professionals, and IT professionals.

Conceptual Framework

Before delving into different approaches to inter-national conflict resolution let us outline some common conflicts and their sources for extending the conceptual framework in this domain.

Sources of different types of conflict: The most common sources of **personal conflict** include personal differences of **values and ethics, personalities, age, education, gender, social and economic status, cultural background, temperament, health, religion, and political beliefs.**

Professional conflict is the product of **clash of ideas, choices, or mode of action, working style, and incompatible goals.**

Incidental conflicts occur when professionals are involved in cut-throat competition in professional and business world, or even when they have different work styles.

Intra-national conflict is the result of conflicting interests of different provinces of the nation. Sometimes these intra-national conflicts take the shape of **Civil Wars**.

Inter-national conflict is essentially the result of conflicting interests of the nations involved.

All the conflicts mentioned above may have tangent role to play in case of intra-national and inter-national conflicts

Diplomatic military and economic means of exerting influence in international affairs were used during the whole 20th century. These tools of power politics—the same tools that developed nation states used to engage in international conflict—were the main ones employed in efforts to address conflict.

Nation states or coalitions of states tried to prevent or mitigate conflicts by projecting threats of armed force. Deterrent and coercive diplomacy based on defensive alliances such as NATO also provided as counter measure for resolving inter-state conflicts. Economic sanctions and other tangible non-military threats and punishments, such as the withdrawal of foreign aid became tools of super powers.

Use of direct military force to establish demilitarized zones also worked as temporary measure for conflict resolution. Nation states were also sensitive to the delicate balance of nuclear power that could jeopardize this kind of coercive diplomacy of the belligerent power blocks. For this reason, in particular, they sought security regimes (Jervis, 1983) that provided norms devised to reduce the risks of escalation of nuclear war. The extended arms control negotiation process served to reduce the chances of superpower military confrontations during the entire **Cold War** period.

Inter-state negotiation may be useful as an effective means for maintaining balance or trading off the competing interests of the states concerned or for finding out the common areas of interests. Once the basis for agreement is discovered even in the face of other conflicting interests, negotiation can work as a significant tool for resolving the conflicts. A search for common interests was characteristic of **Cold War**-era negotiations that aimed at preventing military confrontations between the United States and the Soviet Union. As a matter of fact, **USA-USSR negotiations** aimed at ending the **Cuban Missile Crisis** (October, 1962). Based on the common interest in reducing the risk of confrontations that might escalate to **nuclear warfare** such negotiations could succeed. As it was possible to identify shared interests in global safety USA and USSR power blocks ceased their conflicting issues.⁸ Let us pay attention to the following table for better understanding:

During the **Cold War** period the traditional diplomatic strategies of exerting influence were refined and elaborated greatly. These strategies continue to be relevant in the post-Cold War period with a change in application.⁹ Deploying threatening force

Conflict Resolution as a State Mechanism in Modern Times

Table 1. State mechanism for conflict resolution: Strategies and effects

Strategy of State Mechanism	Effects of the strategy
A. Diplomatic power politics of state mechanism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Possible attacks of joint force under UNO ii. Counter Alliances like NATO iii. Economic sanctions like “Dollar Diplomacy” of USA iv. Bargaining as a trade-off of interests v. Power mediation of Veto – Power Countries in UNO Security Council
B. State mechanism of conflict management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Organizing problem- solving workshops for building awareness ii. Providing alternative dispute resolution iii. Guaranteeing reconciliation by conflict- resolving commissions /committees
C. State mechanism of conflict prevention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Reforming in electoral systems ii. Assisting in gaining functional autonomy iii. Assuring freedom of speech and of association iv. Prescribing civilian control of military organizations
D. State mechanism of conflict resolution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Settling peace treaties ii. Setting up armistice commission iii. Allowing interest-free financial assistance iv. Providing compensatory reconstruction

to address and possibly resolve inter-state conflicts has become a standard technique during the post-Cold War period. Multilateral action as demonstrated by North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO’s) intervention in Kosovo when the alliance reversed the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait. The United States has increasingly looked to regional international organizations to advance conflict resolution goals, especially where unilateral state action might create new kinds of conflict and where influential nations within regions see merit in strengthening their regions’ institutions. Thus, the **Conference on Security and Cooperation** in Europe (started in the 1970s), has matured in the 1990s into a formal organization called “**Organization for Security and Cooperation**” has intervened in many ways in cross-border conflicts across a broad region in Europe.¹⁰

Undoubtedly military organizations are increasingly being used in new ways and for the purpose of conflict resolution. Armed forces are infrequently used in direct interventions, even in Europe, where regional organizations are very strong. Major exceptions are the NATO air campaign in Bosnia and the Russian interventions in Chechnya and Tajikistan. Peacekeeping missions still sometimes physically separate adversaries to prevent further violence, but they also provide humanitarian relief, resettle refugees, and rebuild infrastructure.

In post –industrial situation United States and its associates are no longer the only actors that can use techniques of influence like those of traditional diplomacy. For example, in the 1980s, even before the end of the Cold War. Corporations under

pressure of negative publicity about their investments and even local governments used their economic power to exert pressure against **Apartheid** in South Africa. Small peace-oriented non-governmental organizations sometimes threaten states' interests. Striking development since the end of the **Cold War** has been the emergence of previously under-utilized strategies for international conflict resolution from relative obscurity.

ECLECTIC STRATEGIES FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION

In modern times the strategies are often used together, and sometimes the distinctions among them are blurred due to application of mixed tools or hybrid techniques. One hybrid strategy may be called **conflict transformation**. Effort is made so that the conflicting parties reach accord through interactive processes leading to reconciliation of tensions by redefining their interests. This strategy departs radically from the logic of enduring national interests by making the following presumptions:

1. That socio-economic interests and conflicts of interest are **culturally constructed** and are amenable to extended logic of control theory of state mechanism
2. That different conflicting groups need to re-define their interests in order to reduce inter-group tension and suspicion for making peaceful settlements.
3. That certain inter-group conflicts are based on politics of class /creed/gender identity
4. That Inter – state and transnational conflicts are perceptual and emotional conflicts.
5. That most conflicts can be transformed by organizing inter-group reconciliation processes
6. That **reconciliation** and the recognition of new potentialities of those groups can be used as a tool for resolution of conflicts
7. That strategies and tools are to be used in combination with the attempt of mitigating conceptual differences among the conflicting parties

The **conflict resolution approach** is a set of techniques pioneered in the 1960s by academics and Non-government organizations under different names like **interactive conflict resolution, citizen diplomacy, and problem-solving workshops** (Fisher, 1997; Saunders, 1999) . Some features of this approach are as stated below:

Facilitating meetings in between conflicting groups: Members of inter-group conflict seek to understand each other's positions and world views in order to create an atmosphere more conducive to the peaceful resolution of disputes. The basic

objective of these meetings is that the participants will come to re-interpret the existing relationship between the conflicting groups over the course of time. This change in the perceptions of a group of individuals may lead either to concrete peace proposal/s or to the friendly situation, ripe for accepting new ideas for maintaining their peaceful co-existence.

Using Conflict Transformation Strategies: Conflict Transformation (CT) strategies have also been promoted by some NGOs as **alternative dispute resolution for** emerging democracies in Eastern Europe. The so-called **truth commissions** in South Africa and some Latin American countries use a strategy of conflict transformation when they work to construct a shared understanding of history that can be a basis for emotional reconciliation, anger reduction, and the creation of a soothing and cooperative political environment¹¹.

Using pathological resolution strategy: This under-utilized strategy for conflict resolution is also called **structural resolution** to distinguish it from other strategies. Pathological resolution strategy entails creating institutionalized system of laws and order that can establish, strengthen and rub nonviolent channels for adjudicating inter-group conflicts. It regards conflicting interests, and put emphasis on transforming conflicts by finding common ground.

Applying Operational Strategy: This conflict resolution strategy focuses on the conflicts of culturally different states, especially those with weak democratic traditions, deep ethnic divisions, and histories of collective violence perpetrated by one group against another or by past governments against civilian populations. Various tools are available for operational resolution like institutional guidelines for transitional justice, truth and reconciliation.

Using State Mechanism: State mechanism **involves** electoral and constitutional design¹² and autonomy-related arrangements within federal governance structures¹³ as well as laws and policies to adapt and accommodate linguistic and religious differences¹⁴. The state provides training for law enforcement officials so that the rule of law prevails. Some institutions and legal provisions ensure civilian control of military organizations and support the cause of the institutions of civil society. Such institutions also include a free and pluralistic press, a set of tech – savvy journalists who are dedicated to common welfare and peaceful co-existence.

POST-INDUSTRIAL BUSINESS WORLD CONFLICTS

Post-industrial economy refers to a period of growth during the second half of the 20th century within an industrialized economy or nation in which the relative importance of manufacturing reduces and that of services, information, and research grows.¹⁵ Such economies are often marked by the following features:

Table 2. Post- Industrial economic trends and their offshoots

Serial Number	Economic trends →	Offshoots →	
i.	Emergence of service sector	Increased professional conflicts	PLAY OF STATE MECHANISM
ii.	Declining manufacturing sector	Increasing socio-economic tension	
iii.	Misuse of Information Technology	Triggered social conflicts	
iv.	Increasing pool of educated unemployed	Increased rate of organized crime	
v.	De-industrialization unemployment	Increased rate of cyber crime	
vi.	Tech-savvy employees	Triggered socio - economic conflicts	
vii.	High rate of social mobility	Increased volume of economic crime	

Product and service outsourcing has become an established practice of post-industrial economy. The work order is sent to less developed nations for manufacturing what is needed at much lower costs. This occurrence is typical of nations that industrialized in the past such as the United Kingdom (first industrialised nation), most of Western Europe and the United States.

Rule-governed practice of formal principles and informal expectations that are intended to create a new context for the keeping the business world conflicts in check. Norms may also define responsibilities for states to prevent violent conflict. Although norms were established to manage conflict between states during the Cold War, a notable feature of the post-Cold War period is the effort to practice international norms to regulate and prevent conflict within different countries.

International state mechanism worked under the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of sovereign countries. It is well-known precept that sovereign rulers have license to manage resolve or control any conflicts within their borders, free from outside influence. Although this norm was often breached by great powers acting in their own national interest within their spheres of influence, it was rarely overturned in favour of universal principles that held all the nations are responsible to maintain common standards regarding polity. The situation began to change for worse during the later decades of the Cold War, when norms such as **human rights, democratic nuances**, and the **right of self-determination of peoples** were increasingly invoked against belligerent countries that abused the civic rights of the citizens. In Europe the Helsinki Final Act of 1975 was an historic watershed in this regard, permitting oversight by the 35 signatories of human rights conditions

in each of their territories. Efforts like those of the Helsinki Watch groups in the former Soviet bloc, the disinvestment movement against apartheid, the democracy movement, and the indigenous peoples' movements in the US showed the potentiality of universal norms to galvanize world opinion for conflict resolution.

The principle of 'greatest good for the greatest number' of humanity outweighs the prerogatives of sovereign nations. According to some scholars **Universal norms** are stated in the United Nations Charter and are followed by other international bodies. Most of these norms have been incorporated in trans-national institutions that can exert influence on defaulting states. For example human rights are given operational status by the CSCE (Commission on Security and Cooperation in Europe) known as OSCE since 1995 (Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe). This monitoring approach provided increased leverage for the international community to curb organized state violence against minority or other vulnerable groups. People are eager to resolve conflicts between the norms of non-interference on the one hand and those of human rights and self-determination of people on the other. This approach may lead towards building a new international consensus for providing special rights to minorities. OSCE norms have emerged to guarantee autonomy arrangements in preference to secession or submergence of minorities even within unitary state structures. Democratic decision making has been accepted as legitimate key principle for ruling the nation states.

Inter-national conflict resolution has become an emerging feature of the business world today. It is too soon to be sure that the increased practice of these newly projected strategies would improve the present situation. Many of the advanced nations that have made these strategies more effective happen to be less enduring the conflicts. Intra-state conflicts continue to pose serious threats to global security. If non-state interests remain important and if global integration makes foreign policy increasingly difficult to organize exclusively around coherent and unitary notions of national interest, conflict resolution is likely to rely more on the transnational activities than in the past. Non-state actors and modern techniques that do not depend on traditional definitions of national interest also play dominant role in resolving transnational conflicts.. Newly –emerged nation states have remained pro-active actors in international relations. The possibility of violent inter-state conflict remains a serious concern for UNO. Recent events of global conflicts focus on a complex multidimensional nature of inter-national conflict in which both state interests and non-state actors play important parts in global situation.

Non - government organizations with their humanitarian and conflict resolution missions have a fair chance to remain prominent players in world politics. Their comparative advantage lies in using conflict resolution tools that do not depend directly on state mechanism or diplomatic international power politics. Although non-government organizations can facilitate transnational negotiations that trade off

vested interests, state mechanism can resolve the conflicts better. Non-government organizations like the Club of Rome and International Red Cross are able to contribute by deploying the emerging tools of conflict resolution, as they have increasingly done till very recent time. These NGOs have promoted the strategy of **conflict transformation** by sponsoring interactive conflict resolution activities, providing training in informal conflict resolution techniques, and supporting various institutions of civil society that participate in democratic debates. These NGOs have contributed to structural resolution of conflicts by advising on constitutional design and the rule of law, monitoring elections, and by catering information of other countries' experiences with particular structural techniques of conflict resolution, written by two staff members of the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, summarizes knowledge on some constitutional design issues. The role for Non Government Organizations in prevention of conflicts is sometimes more prominent than the workings of state mechanism. They have contributed to the development and enforcement of new international norms by promoting and monitoring conditions of human rights, treatment of minorities, and democratic governance by using their resources and influence.

Non Government Organizations have started playing significant role in inter-national conflict resolution, as evidenced by their increasing participation as conduits for providing international aid. Influential diplomats follow the emerging techniques of conflict resolution to the advantages. NGOs have been using those techniques throughout the post-industrial period. The continued importance of NGOs can also be deciphered from **Limits to Growth** as published by the **Club of Rome** that has panoramic influence all over the business world. World class statesmen, Nobel Laureates and diplomats have become members of such NGOs for the acceptance of their role in arbitration by the parties to the conflicts. Non-government organizations are being accepted by potential conflicting nations as democratic, accountable, and true to humanitarian principles. The only need of the hour is that the NGOs must ensure that their activities do not make conflicts worse than they were at the beginning¹⁶.

RESOLVING BUSINESS WORLD CONFLICTS

To avoid 'Business world conflicts' some norms are maintained worldwide. Conflicts arise from differences in gender, generations, cultures, values. People live in an increasingly diverse world. Respecting and celebrating individual differences and opinions seems to be the only solution. Regardless of personal opinion, one needs to be professionally courteous, respectful, and tolerant, even when s/he is frustrated. People are put off by hearing negative comments about others, especially if it's about

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a personal issue. In the workplace, this may lead to disciplinary action. Friends and acquaintances may be equally turned off by negative comments about someone, particularly if they feel they are being drawn into a conflict or being asked to take sides. Often the conflicts arise with those who are relatively closer to. It is often easier to get along if one respects one another's privacy and boundaries. The longer one lets an issue fester, the more time s/he wastes the greater chance s/he has of it spiralling into other problems. Identifying the specific issue sticking to the object is very important. Finding solutions to incidental conflicts should be the main focus. Positive and constructive response can be easy solution for resolving professional conflicts. Corporate gurus have prescribed that professionals work better when they are ready to laugh at their own faults. Often they maintain a sense of humour. This can relieve stress and tension, and assist in smooth functioning in professional world. Compromise is really important in any relationship, be it personal or professional. If one disagrees on an issue, discussion of the problem allows each person to explain his or her point of view, and look for ways to meet each other to settle the conflicting issue. The conflict resolution process may not always work. The level of the skills of some people may not be at the point where they can be full partners in this process. For example, one may have a spouse who does not want to, or know how to, solve the problem. There may also have a conflict with a co-worker, boss or administrative higher-up who is known for irrational outbursts. At times, people make mistakes or say or do something hurtful whether intentionally or unintentionally. It is also important to forget the incidental conflicts and move on the path of forgiveness.

Individual way of conflict resolution sans state mechanism: In most cases one should have elasticity to be able to resolve conflicts by working with others involved. State mechanism has no control on these mutual steps. The prescribed steps are:

RESOLVING CONFLICTS USING CONFLICT RESOLUTION SKILLS

Conflicts sometimes lead to healthy professional competition and non-strained relationships. People are hardly expected to agree on every petty issues always. Since personal conflicts are inevitable, learning to deal with them in a healthy way is crucial. When conflict is mismanaged, it can harm the relationship. But when handled in a respectful and positive way, conflict provides an opportunity for growth, ultimately strengthening the bond between two people. Now it is established that conflicts arise from differences. It occurs whenever people disagree over their values, motivations, perceptions, ideas, or desires. Sometimes these differences look trivial, but when a conflict triggers strong feelings, a deep personal and relational need is at the core of the problem—a need to feel safe and secure, a need to feel respected and

Table 3. Individual conflict resolution without being monitored by the state

Step	Steps -described	Methods – to be used / Quality/Skill -required
1	Finding the root cause of the conflict/s	Analytical
2	Finding the possible ways to resolve conflict/s	Psycho- analysis
3	Providing hearing to the sonflicting party	Empathy
4	Recording the discussion	Summarizing
5	Documenting the points -discussed and resolutions taken through Minutes	Documentation
6	Reviewing all the mutually acceptable solutions	Reviewing
7	Drafting an Action plan for future	Drafting

valued, or a need for greater closeness and intimacy. Again, conflicts trigger strong and vapid emotions and can lead to hurt feelings, disappointment, and discomfort. When handled in an unhealthy manner, it can cause irreparable rifts, resentments, and breakups. But when conflict is resolved in a healthy way, it increases our understanding of one another, builds trust, and strengthens our relationship bonds. Unhealthy responses to conflict are characterized by an inability to recognize and respond to matters of great importance to the other person Explosive angry, hurtful, and resentful reactions are examples of unhealthy responses. The withdrawal of love, results in rejection, isolation shaming, and fear of abandonment and expectation of bad outcomes.

On the other hand healthy responses to conflict are characterized by a capacity to recognize and respond to important matters, readiness to forgive and forget an ability to seek compromise and avoid the tendency of punishing others. Resolution can support the interests and needs of both the conflicting parties. The ability to successfully manage and resolve conflict depends on four key skills. Together, these four skills form a fifth skill that is greater than the sum of its parts: the ability to take conflict in stride and resolve differences in ways that build trust and confidence. These **Conflict Resolution Skills** (henceforth called CRS) are stated below:

CRS 1>Remaining relaxed and focused: The capacity to remain relaxed and focused in tensed situations is a vital skill of conflict resolution. Staying self-centered and self-possessive of oneself, one may become emotionally overwhelmed in challenging situations. The best way to rapidly and reliably relieve stress is through the senses: sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell. But a person responds differently to sensory input. Stress relieving requires deep concern towards others.

CRS 2>Enhancing emotional quotient:Enhanced emotionalquotient is the key to understanding oneself as well as others. It is important to communicate effectively

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or smooth over disagreements. People ignore or try to sedate strong emotions like anger, sadness, and fear. The ability to handle conflict depends on being connected to internal feelings. Insisting on finding solutions that are strictly rational would resolve personal and professional differences.

CRS 3>Managing non-verbal communication: The most important information exchanged during conflicts and arguments is often communicated nonverbally. Nonverbal communication includes eye contact, facial expression, and tone of voice, posture, touch, and gestures. Simply nonverbal signals such as a calm tone of voice, a reassuring touch, or a concerned facial expression can go a long way toward defusing a heated exchange of professional conflict.

CRS 4>Maintaining a playful or humorous verbal communication: One can avoid many confrontations and resolve arguments and disagreements by communicating in a playful or humorous way. When humour and play are used to reduce tension and anger, reframe problems, and put the situation into perspective, the conflict can actually become an opportunity for greater connection and intimacy.

CRS 5 >Managing and resolving conflict: Managing and resolving conflict requires emotional maturity, self-control, and empathy. It can be tricky, frustrating, and even frightening. One can ensure that the process is as positive as possible by sticking to few conflict resolution strategies. Maintaining and strengthening the relationship, rather than “winning” the argument, should always be the first priority. Being respectful of the others and their viewpoints may be a correct strategy to begin with. If professionals hold on to their old hurts and resentments their ability to see the reality of the current situation will be impaired. Rather than looking to the past and assigning blame upon others, focussing on what one can do now to resolve the conflict would be a wiser strategy to follow. Conflicts can be draining out our spirit and energy. Therefore it is important to consider whether the issue is really worthy of our time and energy.

CRS 6>Relegating the urge to punish:Resolving conflict is impossible if a professional is unwilling or unable to **forgive and forget**. Resolution lies in relegating the urge to punish, which can never compensate for our losses and only adds to our injury by further depleting and draining out our vital energy of life. It takes two people to keep an argument going. If a professional cannot come to an agreement, s/he can choose at least to disengage herself or himself and move on in the business world.

STATE MECHANISM IN OPERATION

While propagating his theory of “Dialectic Materialism” Karl Marx claims that a society is in a state of perpetual conflict because of competition for limited resources. It holds that social order is maintained by domination and power, rather

than consensus and conformity. According to conflict theory, those with wealth and power try to hold on to it by any means possible, chiefly by suppressing the poor and powerless. A basic premise of conflict theory is that individuals and groups within a society work to maximize their own benefits.

Conflict theory emanates from cultural conflict, psychological conditions, group orientation etc. This theory suggests that society is relatively segmented and unstable system, consisting of multiple of groups with somewhat destructive values, desires, needs, aspirations etc. Each group wants to retain its identity and desires and its existence acknowledged by the society. Conflict among groups is therefore, inevitable. In this process, the powerful groups gain and maintain control by manipulating social institutions including the legal system.

The presence of conflict in between the societal Class is not a new concept. From time immemorial, where the introduction of monetary system emanated, every single individual went on for it like winning a trophy in a rat race. Conflicts arise mainly between two class of society – the Haves and the Have-nots. The Haves are the class who are rich or mainly known as the Capitalist Class and the Have-nots demarcate the poor or the Proletariat Class.

The capitalist apart from having enough commit crimes mainly for being in the top ladder of the Society financially and be more powerful financially and socially. The poor class or the Proletariat commit crimes for a minimal social status or societal climbing. In between the two economically diverged extremist classes lies the middle class or the Bourgeoisie. The Bourgeoisie are the sociologically defined Class referring to people with certain cultural and capital belonging to make them the middle or the Upper middle class. In Marxist theory the bourgeoisie is the social class that came to own the means of production during modern industrialization and whose societal concerns are the value of property and the preservation of capital of the Capitalist Class to ensure the perpetuation of their economic supremacy in society.

There are different types of criminal activities which are committed by different classes of crime. It is absurd to think at times that the rich people don't commit crimes. But it is untrue. Rich people or the Capitalist Class also commits crimes. And it has become a trend since time immemorial that the poor class are the mastermind of all criminal activities. Different types of crimes committed by different socio-economic classes are as shown in Table 4 below.

Bourgeois class of people become the middle men between the **capitalist class** and the **proletariat**. They act for the capitalist class and inflict direct pain to the poor class following the orders of the Capitalist Class.

White Collar Crimes: It is common knowledge that certain professions offer lucrative opportunities for criminal acts and unethical practices which hardly attract public attention. According to E.H. Sutherland White Collar Crime is defined as a “crime committed by persons of respectability and high social status in course of

Table 4. Different types of class-oriented crime

Socio – Economic Classes	Crimes –committed
<p>Capitalist class or the so called higher-class ('the Haves')</p>	<p>i. White collar crimes ii. In a corporate White collar crime is better known as 'corporate veil' iii. Organised crime may lead to Cyber Terrorism iv. Cybercrimes v. Victimising labour class with unemployment or any other sort of exploitation</p>
<p>The Proletariat or the so called lower class ('Have-nots')</p>	<p>i. Social crimes like murder, theft, extortion, rape, political crimes, etc. ii. Organised crimes iii. Cyber crimes</p>

their occupation”. A white collar criminal belongs to upper socio-economic class (Capitalist or the Rich Class) who violates the criminal law while conducting his professional qualities. White collar crimes by their very nature are such that the injury or damage caused as a result of them is so widely diffused in the large body of society that their gravity in regard to individual victim is almost negligible. It is probably for this reason that till late these crimes did not attract much attention as they do not carry with them any loss of social status of the offender even if he is caught or detected.

Corporate Veil: A legal concept that separates the personality of a corporation from the personalities of its shareholders, and protects them from being personally liable for the company’s debts and other obligations. This protection is not ironclad or impenetrable. The principle of veil of incorporation is a legal concept that separates the personality of a corporation from the personalities of its shareholders and protects them from being personally liable for the company’s debts and other obligations. While a company is a separate legal entity, the fact that it can only act through human agents that compose it, cannot be neglected. Since an artificial person is not capable of doing anything illegal or fraudulent, the façade of corporate personality might have to be removed to identify the persons who are really guilty. This is known as lifting of the corporate veil.

Organised Crimes: Organized crime is a category of transnational, national, or local groupings of highly centralized enterprises run by criminals who intend to engage in illegal activity, most commonly for profit. Organized crime groups provide a range of illegal services and goods to the **capitalist class**. This is known as Business Labour Racket. Within the area of legitimate enterprise the law courts, police and the Government are acting as supervisors to restrain and guide the competitive processes. The employers always try to make huge profits where as the

labour wants high wages. Thus, the interests of these two classes (Capitalist and the Proletariat) often lead to a conflict in pursuit of their desired ends. The employers (capitalist class) resort to illegitimate means by utilising unorganised workers and racketeers to jeopardise the bargaining capacity of the labour thus grabbing huge profits for themselves.

Cybercrimes: Cybercrime, or computer-oriented crime, is a crime that involves a computer and a network. The computer may have been used in the commission of a crime, or it may be the target. Cybercrimes can be defined as: “Offences that are committed against individuals or groups of individuals with a criminal motive to intentionally harm the reputation of the victim or cause physical or mental harm, or loss, to the victim directly or indirectly, using modern telecommunication networks such as Internet (networks including chat rooms, emails, notice boards and groups) and mobile phones (bluetooth / sms /mms). Cybercrime may threaten a person or a nation’s security and financial health. Cybercrime committed by the capitalist class includes financial fraud, theft etc. often in the garb of their social and financial status also known as White collar crimes.

Victimising the labour class with unemployment or any other sort of exploitation: The capitalist class are the rich business class and often their business demarcates owning large and big factories and industries where they employ workers also known as labourers. The labour class forms the large group and the epitome of the industry to carry on successfully. Sometimes the owner class or the capitalist class without giving any prior notice to the labour class lock out the factory thus, keeping the labourers and their family in despair and distress. Another insight of exploitation by the capitalist class to the labour class is cutting down or deducing the wages of the labour without any proper notice or even fault of the labourers to manoeuvre more difficulties to their family in person.

All kinds of social crimes such as **murder, theft, extortion, political crimes** are committed by mainly the poor class. According to Enrico Ferri (1856-1928) no one is a born criminal. He firmly believed that other factors such as emotional reaction, social infirmity or geographical conditions also play a vital role in determining criminal tendencies in men. Therefore, the people of the poor class due to societal pressure or infirmity, emotional reaction due to societal infirmity choose a criminal way to suffice their position in better ways.

Organised Crimes: Organised crime is an act which is committed by two or more criminals as a joint venture in a systematically organised manner. It is an illegal act which the members of an unlawful association commit with mutual co-operation and adventure. In the above where organised crime by the capitalist class was stated, it was mentioned that capitalist class engage in organised crime but not directly, they get their work done by the poor class. These poor classes who form a group to commit some sort of crime as organised crime or even rendering service

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to rich class are labelled as Organised Criminals. These groups are often known as Crime Syndicate, Criminal Racket, Business Labour Racket, Gambling Racket and even political Graft.

Cyber Crimes: Again to refer from the above capitalist class commit crimes like Cyber Crimes, there are people appointed and trained by the Capitalist Class to work for them. One such crime also includes **cybercrimes**. Sometimes this training even back fires the capitalist class from the poor class as they come to know about some of the weakness of the higher class. Apart from off shooting back to the capitalist class, some cyber criminals belonging to the poor class plans for some individual attack or even mass attack randomly like blackmailing, cheating, fraudulent bank transactions, hacking and even spamming and cyber terrorism.

LEGAL MECHANISM AS A TOOL OF STATE MECHANISM

The legal mechanism or strategy for conflict resolution of the modern times seems to be simple yet very difficult in its application. The legal mechanism depends on the policies of the states concerned. In Indian Perspective the state mechanism institution includes the three organs of the Government i.e. the Legislative, the Executive and the Judiciary. The Legislative or the Legislature creates or enacts the statutes or amends the existing rules and regulations (laws) of the States. The Executive carries out the laws in order to prevent or combat the criminals or offenders charged for any offence. Finally the Judiciary, who decides on the case or trials procedures brought in front of it to give in a new meaning of the existing laws. These are the general theory of every state to combat with conflict resolution.

The need for legal mechanism of state was indeed necessary for curbing out the difference created between the Classes, between the cultural community and even between the societal races. The Indian Constitution in its Preamble has clearly stated that India is Sovereign, Socialist, Secular, Democratic, Republic countries who have secured to its all citizens justice, Equality, liberty and fraternity in all aspects. Keeping the words of the Preamble in mind which is the bedrock of the Indian Constitution the Legislature has enacted the Constitution which gives privilege and protection to all classes of people. Part III of the Constitution grants Fundamental Rights to its citizens among which Right against Exploitation acts as a protective measure for the people who are exploited daily on the basis of class difference in post industrialized business world. Apart from the Fundamental Rights there is Part IV and Part IVA of the **Indian Constitution** that states about the directive Principles of the State Policy and the Fundamental Duties where it is made evident that all the rules and regulation are equal to all the citizens of the country, and all the enactments are Uniform Civil Code (Art 44) and it is the duty of every citizen

to join itself to eradicate every sort of conflict emerging out of class difference, cultural diversity and religious issues etc.

CONCLUSION

The Executives on the other hand are being given a very handy job while rendering their job duties. They are sometimes those Learned Bureaucrats, Diplomats and even high-end officers of the Police Administration, the Army, the Navy and the Air Force who contribute more in resolution of conflict not only in internal matters but also in international matters. They are the keepers of the System and they create new ways to tackle the conflicts being facing it directly from the criminals or even from responsible citizens. When the country is conducting its international resolutions it's the Bureaucrats and the Diplomats who negotiate and come to peaceful terms in order to strengthen the peace of the country. When the country is in threat of war our Army, Navy and Air Force is ready to tackle the situation. When there are internal disturbance the police personnel take care of the situation. Police Administration has played a very important role in reducing and maintaining resolution of conflict. The police have a very important role to play in a democratic set up of government. They must win the confidence of the people. The principles underlying policing in a free, permissive and participatory democracy includes to contribute towards liberty, equality and fraternity in human affairs; to help and reconcile freedom with security, and to uphold the rule of law; to uphold and protect human rights; to contribute towards winning faith of the people; to strengthen the security of persons and property etc. The legal functions of the Police includes patrolling and surveillance for the sake of prevention of crime and also for keeping a check on internal conflicts, to make arrest of the law breakers irrespective of the class difference or cultural difference, to carry on investigation of any case, to interrogate offenders and suspects of any case or investigation, to conduct general welfare functions. But apart from such descriptive roles from the police it is well known that crime detection is the first stage of criminal adjudication which at times become difficult for the policemen to perform these duties efficiently without public co-operation. Therefore, the desirability for public participation in crime detection needs to be emphasised for proper functioning of the Executives or Administration of justice.

The **Indian Judicial System** has a long and glorious history of functional accomplishments and admirable social purpose. It is a solid respectable structural frame with established laws and recognised court practices of trial and justice through the institutions of bar and the bench. The role of judges has changed dramatically, yet its nature has remained largely unexplored. The various Conflict Resolution methods, which are used outside the courtroom, as alternatives to

adjudication, could have a strong and positive influence, both theoretical and practical, on judicial activities inside the courts. Theoretically, a conflict resolution jurisprudence, which prioritizes consent over coercion as a leading value for the administration of justice conceptualizes judicial activity in promoting settlement and plea bargaining as **Judicial Conflict Resolution (JCR)** and examines it along the lines of common methods of conflict resolution i.e. negotiation, mediation, arbitration, dialogue facilitation, problem solving, restorative justice and dispute design. The JCR Perspective suggests that judges are often parties to the negotiation as to whether to adjudicate the legal conflict, third parties in an effort to mediate it, arbitrators as to guiding rules of compromise, as well as facilitators of dialogue, problem solvers and dispute designers. The hybridity of their conflict resolution work is related both to the variety of processes that judges use and to the fact that they are performed in the shadow of authority. The rule of law governs the country of India. The judiciary is an important part of our government and plays a critical role in the way our democracy works. The Supreme Court of India is the highest authority of the judiciary. The courts also have the right to punish people for the crimes they commit. At times courts or the judicial system suo moto takes matters in their hand in resolving conflict. Almost every social situation needs three kinds of rule managed by the judiciary for resolving conflicts based on the back drop of the post industrialized Business world. They are as follows:

Dispute Resolution: Whenever there is a dispute, the courts intervene in providing solutions. Whether it's a dispute between citizens, citizens, and government, or between two state governments or even the central and state governments, the court is responsible for dispute resolution.

Judicial Review: The judiciary has the final hold on the Constitution of India. As such, if there is any violation of the fundamentals of the constitution, the court can even overwrite laws passed by the Parliament. This process is called Judicial Review.

Fundamental Rights: Fundamental Rights of Indian citizens are well -defined in the Constitution of India. In case, any citizen feels that these rights are violated, s/he can approach to the provincial High Court or the Supreme Court.

Socio-cultural and politico-economic conflicts remain unresolved in modern business world resulting in multiplicity of crises. The idea of a conflict-free state may remain as most sought-after illusion. It is found that in the post industrialised backdrop there were serious class difference between the capitalist class and the Proletariat. The former never lost any opportunity to exploit the latter in different ways of regular entertainment. Therefore to resolve conflict the three organs of the government have to combine their ultimate power for resolving conflict and foster growth and cohesion.

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Chapter 3

A Review of Philosophy of Conflict Resolution Approach in Tong–Il Moo–Do Martial Arts

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine emerging literature for conflict resolution approaches through martial arts. Martial arts involvement is believed to provide positive learning opportunities for youth in general, as well as with regard to specific target groups. In particular, this study focuses on the cause and resolution of conflict philosophy in Tong-Il Moo-Do Martial Arts. To be precise, TIMD philosophy has categorized the root cause of conflict into three reasons: breakdown of interaction, ignoring the higher purpose, and accumulation of conflict.

INTRODUCTION

The main concern of every organization and researchers in the field of conflict resolution and management is how to establish communities that will be free of violence and exploitation. With the rapid advancement of technology, it seems that traditional approaches to conflict resolution and management have failed to cope

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with the appearance of new problems and conflicts. Terrorism and ethnic conflicts has created global distress and disorder. Many people worldwide suffer from severe hunger, poverty, corrupt leadership, racial and religious prejudice, violence, AIDS, drug, alcohol abuse and environmental disasters (International Educational Foundation, n.d). Scholars agree that more than any time, there is an imminent need for Global leadership initiatives on sustainability for conflict resolution and peace building among the nations in the world (Sertyesilisik, 2018).

The 20th century events, clearly shows that peace did not last long and every time new conflicts aroused (Mirshahi, 2018). Prevalent moral crisis and conflict continue to increase in spite of unprecedented technological and economic prosperity. The early publicly reported conflicts were during the second half of 20th century by teachers who observed an increasing toxic trend in their schools: 81 percent less respect for authority, 73 percent decline in ethics and morals, 65 percent less responsible attitudes, and 60 percent showed increased self-centered attitudes in children. In April 1999, the world was shocked when two students at Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado shot dead twelve of their fellow students and a teacher, and wounding many others (As cited in International Educational Foundation, 2001).

As the forms of conflicts changes and become more complex, new emerging universal approaches to conflict resolution and management are deemed to appear that can lead humanity towards peace and sustainable development. Researchers argue that leadership theories and development may no longer be effective in this global context as leaders are exposed to many complex challenges (Story, 2011, p. 375).

In this regard, Tong-Il Moo Do Martial Arts have pioneered a new approach based on the Universal Principles of Dr. Sun Myung Moon and Hak Ja Han Moon. This value system emphasizes on the belief that human society is governed similar to the natural universal laws (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003). Their teachings are based on the observation of the operation and organization of the universe which runs with similar principles in a profound order and harmony.

Violation of the universal principles causes harm to the heart of human being. To reverse the harm, concrete steps should be taken by parties involved to restore the peace and harmony back to its original state. Dr. Sun Myung Moon in his speech in 1991 on the topic the way to world peace stated: *“Without having a clear philosophy of peace, there can be no true methodology for achieving peace”* (Peyong Hwa Gyeong, 2014). He asserted that conflict always starts with the individual and extends to higher levels of family, community, national and world. Therefore, to solve the higher level of conflict, TIMD starts with fixing the individual level conflict and extend it to the higher level. Dr. Hak Ja Han Moon in the fortieth anniversary of TIMDO in 2019 reasserted that *“it is tremendously difficult to bring unity in the family, nation and world when the individual still struggles from mind and body disunity”* (ipeacetv.com).

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Kutz, Kutz, Weiser, & Weiser (1995) stated that important goal of martial arts programs is to generalize the values that are emphasized in their training, such as respect, humility, responsibility, perseverance and honor. Studies conducted by Binder (2007) claims positive psychological consequences of martial arts. It was found that the physical exercise that is involved in martial arts can increase self-esteem and self-confidence. He also emphasized that inclusion of the values and philosophy of the martial arts and instructors' positive role model, play an important role in promoting long-term positive changes in trainees. Furthermore, Lantz (2002) indicated a positive impact on the family developments of trainees as well.

The most important aggression reducing element in Martial Arts originates in the philosophy, thinking and culture that traditionally are taught alongside MA techniques. According to groundbreaking experimental study by Trulson (1986), MA training which was conducted without any philosophical training showed an increased tendency toward delinquency. This was an extremely convincing demonstration that indicates the importance of philosophical training in character and conflict resolution skills of the students.

Demoulin (1987) found that when using MA to train juvenile delinquents, adolescents were particularly open to interventions that reform their attitudes and self-concept which is exactly what philosophical training does. For treatment of violent adolescents Sacco and Twemlow (1998) explained that the teaching/learning process in a traditional and philosophical martial arts programs typically causes a shift from a narcissistic perspective to one that is broader and more compassionate, which links them with a long and revered tradition. In other words, Inclusion of philosophy into martial arts training helped trainees change their aggressive attitudes toward themselves and others once their self-concept shifts into a broader concept through understanding of who they are and their place in the universe.

Philosophy of martial arts should emphasize on conflict avoidance through respect and nonviolence, virtue and altruistic service. Overcoming anxiety and feelings of vulnerability are very important since it helps them to feel in control. These benefits automatically result from self-discipline comes from both internal and external training. According to Sacco and Twemlow (1998) the philosophy of martial arts programs must encourage violent adolescents to work towards commitment to a respectful attitude, kindness, self-protection through nonviolence, commitment to leadership and nonjudgmental role modeling, virtuous behavior, altruistic service to others and a commitment to try hard, stay healthy, develop confidence, learn to overcome fear and possessiveness, and practice self-control in the face of provocation.

From the conflict resolution viewpoint, Morihei Ueshiba (1883-1969) described the philosophy of Aikido as a martial art without enemy. He asserted that a True Budo has no opponent and no enemy. Aikido emphasizes on becoming one universe to maintain peace among the peoples of the earth. Gichin Funakoshi's the founder

of Karate taught that the ultimate aim of Karate lies not in victory nor defeat, but in the perfection of the character of its participants.

The authors aim to scrutinize and review the causes and resolution of conflict in Tong-IL Moo-Do Martial Arts which is the way of enlightening one's mind and spirit through building a sound character (seuk, n.d). This chapter accounts a summary of the history and philosophy of Tong-Il Moo-Do as potential emerging conflict resolution approach to the modern complex problems in emerging global organizations.

HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF TONG-IL MOO DO MARTIAL ARTS

This chapter provides a short review of the history and philosophy of cause and conflict resolution being taught in Tong-Il Moo Do Martial Arts. The central concept of conflict resolution in TIMD is based on the importance of character and ethical norms (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003). Tong-Il Moo Do philosophy intends to teach correct attitudes and skills for conflict resolution to students. However, the individual training does not stop in the individual level, but it is a preparation for forming a peaceful and loving family relationship. Tong-Il Moo Do philosophy promotes family as the cornerstone of peace and prosperity in community, nation and world.

Tong-Il Moo Do Martial arts was founded based on the inspiration from the philosophy of Universal Principles and teachings of Dr. Sun Myung Moon and Hak Ja Han Moon. They brought together leaders from different fields of education, religion, science, politics, media, arts and culture to raise global concern and integrate moral perspective in their activities. Align with this mission, World Tong-Il Moo-Do Federation was established to integrate moral and ethical values in education through Martial Arts. Dr. Sun Myung Moon emphasizes the importance of instilling internal and spiritual values into martial arts teaching (Chambumo gyeong, 2017, p.1072).

In 1979, Dr. Sun Myung Moon asked Dr. Seuk to teach Tong-Il Moo-Do at the Belvedere Training Center and at the Unification Theological Seminary in America. After visiting the TIMD training session in Belvedere a calligraphy was written by Dr. and Mrs. Sun Myung Moon with the words “*advancing bravely forward with discipline.*” This historical calligraphy was the official beginning of Tong Il Moo Do (www.tongilmoodo.org).

Dr. Seuk in his introductory remarks states that “*Tong Il Moo Do, a unified martial art, has been initiated to insistently revive the spiritual dimension of these arts in this secular and mechanistic age*” (www.tongilmoodo.org). TIMD searches for a new universal teaching that can integrate the old traditional martial arts philosophies

with a philosophy that can find solution to the modern world issues and problems. It illuminates this important question how to revive the spiritual dimension of the martial arts as the answer to internal well-beings of students as well as their physical needs in Modern world. Dr. Moon emphasizes that Tongil Moo-do must develop based on the principles of Unification thought and philosophy of peace (Chambumo gyeong, 2017,p.1074)

TIMD Martial Arts claims that universal teachings of Dr. Sun Myung Moon and Hak Ja Han Moon offers a new understanding of the universal laws appropriate to twenty-first century world. Dr. Seuk emphasizes that Tong Il Moo Do is a form of unarmed self-defense martial arts based on building a virtuous and sound character (www.tongilmoodo.org). Philosophy of TIMDO motivates the idealism in young people to overcome concrete problems facing today's world. It also shows a clear way to harmonize and unify East and West values, traditional and contemporary cultures and spiritual and material dimensions of life. Aside from being highly skilled in technique, practitioners should become people of the highest character who are able to form peaceful families and have commitment to the realization of world peace (www.tongilmoodo.org). it is continuously emphasized by Dr. Sun Myung Moon that *“young people must be healthy externally and filled with love internally...and become a mature person of character, who can represent love for the nation, love for the world and love for heaven”* (Chambumo gyeong, 2017,p.1073).

In society, there are different forms of conflict such as political, economic and ideological, religious and ethnic disputes. Unfortunately, these kinds of conflicts are being experienced in many parts of the world which may lead to abuse, injustice, aggression and even war. Devine, Seuk & Wilson (n.d.) argue that conflict by itself is not necessarily evil but depends on how we handle the conflict. It is a symptom and sign that the emotional subtext of a relationship needs correction and improvement. Sometimes couples feel closer and more intimately connected to each other after a dispute has been resolved. Friendships are often strengthened by successful resolution of a disagreement. Based on the Philosophy of TIMD, conflicts on any level and forms has similar root causes as well as similar resolutions. It emphasizes that identifying the underlying root causes of conflict is needed to resolve the conflict.

Tong-II Moo-Do philosophy asserts that human being has been originally created for the purpose of harmony and happiness. However, the conflict arises when human being violate or ignoring the universal principles of the universe. Conflict is as the result of three major violation of universal principles: first cause is the breakdown of interaction, second violation is ignoring higher purpose and the third reason is accumulation of conflict (World Tong-II Moo Do Federation, 2003).

Regarding the first cause of conflict which is the breakdown of interaction, Dr. Sun Myung moon teaches that everything in the universe exist based on relationship and interaction. For example, there is interaction between mind and body as subject

and object relationship in every individual. Selfishness is the breakdown of proper order of interaction between mind and body which causes conflict. In other words, conflict starts when physical body's desires take over the desires of mind for truth, beauty, goodness and love (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003). Interpersonal conflict is also caused by a breakdown of interaction which the resolution is to follow proper order of interaction between the parties involved. *"Interaction flows most smoothly when people in the subject role guide those in the object role based on shared values not based on their individual interest and viewpoints"* (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003).

One of the grave challenges in the contemporary society is the breakdown of family interaction and enduring marriages. Domestic violence and divorce rate is continuing to rise. Dr. Sun Myung Moon (2009) emphasizing the importance and role of family in level of happiness in society and stated that *"breakdown of the family is the reason that today's society does not have a level of happiness to match its level of material affluence."* In this regard Dr. Thomas Walsh (2009) the Universal Peace Federation president agrees that *"having stable, loving, caring, nurturing family system and structure is absolutely necessary for building a world of peace."* Therefore, the individual training in TIMDO Martial Arts is preparation for higher purpose of forming a peaceful and loving family relationship. Dr. Sun Myung Moon's core teachings emphasizes the importance of family as the cornerstone and school of love and peace in society and world.

According to TIMD philosophy, another cause of conflict is ignorance of a higher purpose around which people can unite. It is indicated that every being has an individual self-existence purpose, but at the same time should serve a higher purpose for the sake of the whole (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003). For instance, it is important to maintain a good health for individual well-being as well as for the sake of serving and loving others. This philosophy emphasizes on the importance of both individual and whole purpose. However, conflict rises when the people cannot make a proper balance between individual and public purposes.

Selfishness is as the result of forgetting the whole purpose and put the individual beyond the public interest. In other words, a mature character gives priority to the whole purpose. Sometimes individuals have to sacrifice personal purposes and desires for the sake of others. This means practicing a lifestyle of being concerned about others and seek to contribute to a greater whole (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003). When individual put self at the center of all thoughts, feelings and actions the result would be certain vices such as arrogance, prejudice, greed, lust, exploitation and vengeance which cause violence, murder and war. Based on this philosophy, living for the sake of others is being taught in TIMD philosophy.

Individual selfishness can be extended to higher level in the family, society, nation and the world. For instance, a woman calls a friend to see how the friend is doing,

and spends the entire conversation talking about herself only. The repeated action over time would weaken the friendship between two friends. Another example is when one driver takes over the lane aggressively, putting the people's life in danger. Third example is the common problem between parents and children relationship. It causes argument and family strife when teenagers instead of greeting their father when he arrives home from work, blasts over him with requests for allowance.

Dr. Sun Myung Moon (2009) reiterated that we are not born only for living for ourselves but are meant to live for the sake of others. Understanding of this very principle would change the direction and destiny of the youth in the nations. Ek Nath Dhakal (2006) former Minister of peace and reconstruction in Nepal, in an interview reflected that peace teachings and peace activities of Dr. & Mrs. Sun Myung Moon have made substantial contributions to the lives of thousands of students and youth in Nepal.

Other study conducted in International Peace Leadership College-Philippines shows hopeful result on positive changes in attitude and behavior of the students after studying Dr. and Mrs. Sun Myung Moon's philosophy of living for the sake of others. Based on the testimony of the Parents, their children cared more about their families and other people in community (Maglangit, 2016).

Third cause of conflict in Tong-Il Moo Do philosophy indicates that each individual, family, nation is the products of historical accumulated past events as well. The ancestors both achievements and burdens comedown to us and influence our present life. Some of our internal contradictions and conflicts may have been inherited from those who came before us and cause repetitive patterns of conflict.

The other factor which has been inherited from the past is culture and ethnic environment. The people may pick up certain attitudes, beliefs and habits through the specific culture that they have inherited from the past. In other words, many conflicts among individuals, families, nations or ethnic groups are as the result of accumulated unresolved historical burdens of crimes and mistreatment. Conflict resolution requires that descendants who inherited the problems, take responsibility for the mistakes of the past and reverse the repetitive pattern. Devine, Seuk & Wilson (n.d.) in their book *cultivating heart and character* asserted that unfortunately many people respond to conflict by terminating their relationship. It may bring temporary relief, but in fact, unresolved conflicts reappear in a new form or with new people, continuing to resurface until resolved and healed on the deepest levels of the human heart, it inevitably permeates a person's interactions with others.

Devine, Seuk & Wilson (n.d.) continue with example: "*Dawn, a mother of three, had a dispute with a neighbor over her children playing in the back of his parked truck... When her husband and children came home, she found herself yelling at them over every minor offense. Dawn realized her unresolved anger over the incident with the neighbor was causing her to lash out at her family.*"

In political world, sometimes two parties tired of war and conflict, may agree on a peace treaty to end the conflict, yet political agreement does not necessarily mean resolution of the conflict. UNESCO Constitution (1945) declares that, “*a peace based exclusively upon the political and economic arrangements of governments would not be a peace which could secure the unanimous, lasting and sincere support of the peoples of the world.*” For example, after World War I, the victorious nations demanded Germany to pay compensation for destruction they had caused through invading other nations. Adolf Hitler was able to rise to power and used the national unresolved anger and resentment and formed fascism which led to World War II. In other words, negotiation, mediation, arbitration and courts of law provide only temporary or partial solutions to conflict (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003).

Resolving conflict terminates tensions between two parties and open the doors to forgiveness and reconciliation, which in turn free up time and energy for creativity and progress. Longman Dictionary (2019) defines “*reconciliation as a situation in which two people, countries etc become friendly with each other again even after quarrelling.*” Devine, Seuk & Wilson (n.d.) accounts the story of Peter losing his small truck while playing with his best friend during childhood. He discovered that his friend had taken it. Their relationship became gloomy and cold. One day his friend apologized and asked for forgiveness. Peter accepted the apology and both felt that the dark world around them turned into brightness and happiness again.

Martin Luther King Jr. (1957) in his speech wrote that “*we get rid of an enemy by getting rid of enmity.*” After World War II, Germany and Japan were defeated by allied forces. In spite of the victory of Allied forces, United States established The Government and Relief in Occupied Area (GARIOA) program. In early 1949, US initiated an Economic Rehabilitation in Occupied Area (ERIOA) provided industrial help to reconstruct the economy of Japan and Germany (Tagaki, 1995). This very significant event, changed the line of history and caused old enemies to become close friends and allies ever since.

In Tong-Il Moo Do philosophical curriculum, the students study about historical figures who pioneered successful conflict resolution models. They were able to overcome oppressors by awakening their conscience and eventually liberated their people. Mahatma Gandhi, Nelson Mandela and General MacArthur are outstanding figures of successful conflict resolution models in contemporary age.

Mahatma Gandhi (1869-1948) through his nonviolent resistance, was able to liberate India from British Empire’s long oppression. He emphasized that the goal of conflict resolution is not to defeat human beings but to defeat the evil that corrupts their minds. He practiced self-control and discipline before leading others. Gandhi always sought to develop good relationship with his opponents and considered them as potential partners in a search for fair and truthful solutions. He promoted the process of self-realization for both the British and the Indians (Wehr, 1979).

Nelson Mandela's vision was to build a multiracial nation in South Africa. He became famous as the man who forgave his enemies who put him in the jail for many years and set an example for his South African countryman to forgive the oppressor government (Sampson, 1999). White people were challenged to reflect on the consequences of apartheid and offer restitution. Nelson Mandela's forgiving heart helped black people to overcome their desire for revenge and retaliation.

After the end of the war with Japan, U.S. General Douglas MacArthur (1880-1964) in his speech in radio called for a fundamental reorientation and reflection on the past mistakes for both American and Japanese people. He was moved when he noticed that Japanese people sincerely prepared the best food for the American Soldiers. He ordered all the American Soldiers to eat their own food and not let the Japanese suffer and starve (Manchester, 1978). Devine, Seuk & Wilson (n.d.) noted that sometimes a reversal in a person's attitude and behavior is the key to restoring harmony...Humility involves being able to admit that we may not always have the superior or correct view and being receptive to learning from others.

To bring the tensions to an end, both parties involved should practice forgiveness. In other words, Devine, Seuk & Wilson (n.d.) stated that "*forgiveness means to give up the claim to retaliation and to allow positive energy to flow in the relationship again.*" They continued that forgiveness partially remove the obstacle for reconciliation but it does not completely eradicate the wrongful or hurtful actions. After forgiveness, the two parties must avoid repetition of such actions. Forgiveness brings relief to both parties involved.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study has focused on the review of the philosophical foundation and teachings of TIMD martial arts. To draw more light on the effectiveness of these philosophy in conflict resolution and management, future researches could be conducted on the effects of these teachings on positive transformation in character and attitudes of the trainees in daily life. It is also recommended that further researches could be done on the effects of technical aspects of TIMD on character development of the Youth.

CONCLUSION

The world would become more peaceful place if Human being seeking the means to resolve conflict. This would be realized if emerging approaches address deep underlying emotional and psychological needs beneath the surface of disputes.

Both prevention and resolution are taught in Tong-Il Moo Do philosophy and the central concept of conflict resolution in TIMD is based on the importance of character and ethical norms (World Tong-Il Moo Do Federation, 2003). Different kinds of conflicts such as political, economic, ideological and ethnic disputes are being experienced in many parts of the world which may lead to abuse, injustice, aggression and even war. Based on the Philosophy of TIMD, conflicts on any level and forms has similar root causes as well as similar resolutions. It emphasizes that identifying the underlying root causes of conflict is needed to resolve the conflict.

The unique characteristic of TIMD Martial arts philosophy is that the individual training does not stop in the individual level, but it is a preparation for forming a peaceful and loving family relationship which considers as the cornerstone of peace and prosperity in community, nation and the world. The chapter provided a glimpse of the review of literature about the causes of conflict philosophy. TIMD philosophy has categorized the causes as three major problems: breakdown of interaction, ignoring the higher purpose and accumulation of conflict.

The first cause of conflict emphasizes the importance of interaction in relationship between every entity in the universe. Harmonious interaction based on universal shared values would end to development and peace. On the other hand, breakdown of interaction causes conflict in every individual, family, nations and the world.

Another cause of conflict in TIMD martial arts philosophy is ignorance of a higher purpose which people can unite and work together. Every entity in universe has a self-existing individual purpose. Yet every being has to live for a higher and greater purpose as well. Conflict arises when the interaction between individual and whole purpose is broken down. In other words, when oneself considers the individual purpose higher than the whole purpose and the whole purpose denied to satisfy the needs of individual purposes.

Accumulation of conflict from the past is other cause of conflict that has been mentioned in TIMD martial arts philosophy. Some of the contradictions and conflicts do not necessarily begin with the individual. Yet there are problems and conflicts that have been inherited from the failure of those ancestors who lived before. It emphasizes that every being naturally inherited the ancestor's characteristics both physically and psychologically. Both achievements and burdens of the ancestors would come down to the next generation.

Social problems and conflicts can be repeated again if not being resolved fundamentally. This chapter reviewed different recurring historical wars as the result of not addressing the root. Military force may temporary create peace, but it does not remove resentment and hatred deep in the heart of people. Defeating an enemy does not necessarily end the grievances or hatred. This is the reason that history of war and vengeance is being repeated ceaselessly until the deep, underlying factors are resolved.

A Review of Philosophy of Conflict Resolution Approach in Tong-Il Moo-Do Martial Arts

The contemporary unresolved social issues and concerns make the researchers and scholars to desperately look for effective conflict resolution approaches. Philosophy and teachings being taught in TIMDO Martial Arts could stand as an effective emerging solution in today's modern conflicts among the youth, families, nations and the world. Dr. Hak Ja Han Moon in her speech on fortieth anniversary of foundation of Tong-Il Moo-Do explained on the philosophical purpose of why her husband Dr. Sun Myung Moon and she as True Parents have created TIMDO and addressed to martial arts athletes participated in tournament from several countries: "I sincerely hope that through TIMDO, you can live not only for yourselves, but also for your neighbors, tribe, nation, and world (ipeacstv.com, 2019).

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Chapter 4

A Critical Survey of International Journal Articles on Conflict Resolution (1957–2019): A Semantico–Deconstructive Approach

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ABSTRACT

The year 1957 witnessed the ‘space race’ between the USA and the USSR through the launch of ‘SPUTNIK’ in the Earth’s orbit on October 4. The chapter surveys the entire period of the last 62 years from 1957-2019 that has witnessed various types of national/international group/intergroup conflicts and researches pertaining to different resolution strategies as suggested by the international journals of repute. The chapter inter alia deals with 11 foci of international journals of the period in question. The chapter has used semantico-deconstructive methodology for content analysis and interpretation.

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INTRODUCTION

“I would say to the House... ‘I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat’... Victory at all costs, victory in spite of all terror, victory however long and hard the road may be; for without victory there is no survival”.

(Source: Churchill’s first speech as Prime Minister, House of Commons, 13 May 1940)

The above quoted excerpt from Winston Churchill’s speech might have shared Charles Darwin’s famous key word ‘**survival**’ (**The Origin of the Species, 1859**) to highlight British policy of ‘adaptability during warring situation’ (Bartlett, C.J. 1989: **British Foreign Policy in the Twentieth Century**) The 20th century saw a deep upsurge of military and civil conflicts across the globe. World War II is considered as high watermark of such conflicts because several nations were brought into the world= wide bloody military parade. The belligerent **Power Blocks called the Allies (UK, France and USSR) and the Axis (Italy, Germany and Japan) proclaimed them as agents of change.**

After the Second World War, Germany was divided into **East Germany** and **West Germany**, two spheres of military influence under USSR and USA respectively. During the 1950s, both the United States and the Soviet Union were working to develop new technology under the shade of **Cold War**.. Nazi Germany had been close to developing the world’s first intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM) at the fag end of the **Second World War**,

USA and USSR were also engaged in developing satellites as a part of a goal set by **the International Council of Scientific Unions**, which had called for the launch of satellite technology during late 1957 and early 1958. Over the course of the decade, the United States tested several varieties of rockets and missiles, but all of these tests were of no avail.

On September 9, **1957**, American President Dwight D. Eisenhower signed into law the **Civil Rights Act of 1957**. The Act marked the first occasion since ‘**Reconstruction**’ that the federal government undertook significant legislative action to protect civil rights of the American citizenry.. Although President Dwight Eisenhower had tried his best to downplay the importance of the **Sputnik** launched by USSR to the American people, he pumped in additional funds and human resources into the NASA – operated American space program in an effort to catch up with Soviet Space Research. The U.S. Government suffered a severe setback in December of 1957 when its first artificial satellite, named **Vanguard**, exploded on the launch pad. This failure served as a visible reminder of how much the US had yet to accomplish to be able to compete militarily with the Soviet Republic. It was on January 31, 1958, the United States succeeded in launching its first satellite, the

Explorer. The **Explorer** was still slighter than **Sputnik**, but its launch sent it deeper into space. The Soviet Republic responded with yet another launch, and the **space race** continued in between the US and USSR..

The present chapter has critically surveyed almost thirty International Journal Articles on **Conflict Resolution** written by reputed authors and published during AY 1957 – 2019 (last 62 years. The list of these Articles has been enclosed as reference.

The chapter has considered the major national and international **conflicts** of the world during the **Cold War** period as shown in the following table at the backdrop because most of these International Journal Articles have least mention of these shattering **conflicts**.

METHODOLOGY

Semantico - deconstructive approach has been used to survey all the International Journal Articles (henceforth called IJA) and to understand the relationship between the genotext and the phenotext in question. The present chapter has followed Derridian ‘**Deconstructive Approach**’ (Of **Grammatology, 1997**) which is consisted of conducting **critical readings** of texts and **looking for meanings** that **run counter** to the intended meaning or **structural unity** of a particular text.

Semantic Approach has been entwined with ‘**deconstructive approach**’ in such a way that analytical reading of IJA could be done keeping an eye to discover several shades of meaning. For example, the key phrase ‘**ColdWar**’ which is used as a blanket term to describe the relationship between the US and the USSR during the second half of the twentieth century is found to be a misnomer in the course of discussion.

The present chapter is a theoretical research that *interalia* involves a deeper understanding of IJA with reference to different types of **conflicts** during the last seven decades across the globe. **The** critical survey has been done following the method of **descriptive research** and theoretical assumptions based on the problems associated with maintenance of **Cold War** situation in between The US and the USSR. The present research being a doctrinal research in politico-legal studies has followed the technique and the strategies that are prescribed ones in International legal research. The general focus of the research design is on critical study of IJA issues on **conflict resolution** that were raised during the last sixty two years. Therefore the following strategies have been taken up to develop a comparative analysis of IJA issues in the light of **Semantico - deconstructive** reading. The research design of the present chapter has followed the following structure:

Descriptive Research model is used in techno-legal studies which combines the effect of philosophical research and historical research with ontological research and

social research. The present authors have done a critical study on all such possible research types and sub types to follow a focused approach to comparative survey modelled upon analysis of International Journal Articles on **conflict resolution**.

The **philosophy** behind the promulgation of '**a threatening environment of possible space war**' during the entire **Cold War period** is identifiable as the product of psychological syndrome of **fearpsychosis**.

The **historical parameters** have been considered keeping in view different types of **National and International conflicts** during the **Cold War** period.

Ontologically speaking, **cold war** situation in between the US and USSR power blocks during the second half of the 20th century created an environment of **fear psychosis** all over the world. The strained and tensed relationship in between the US and USSR was felt in **domestic and foreign policy** of the countries lying beyond territorial jurisdiction of all the countries of the world that were involved in the **cold war**.

The principle of **social research** is the only solution that authors can count upon in such a critical situation where there was very limited scope of being at peace or having the sense of security. Ontological and Social Research methods of **Content Analyses and componential analyses** were given due importance. Critical Analogy of the contemporary world with reference to several pitfalls in International politics has been undertaken. As a matter of fact '**Millennium Development Policy of United Nations**' has been consulted again and again to understand the basic framework of all regulations related to prevention and control of socio-political and politico-economic conflicts among different nation of the world.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Prof. Thorsten sellin (Wolfgang, Marvin E, 1968) being the main profunder of **conflict theory** of crime and criminal behaviours contended that conflict is inherent in all societies ever since the evolution of human civilization. Conflict may result from culture, race, gender, ethnicity or any other relationship. It may also be due to competition for power or supremacy among various cultures or groups.

Advocating Dr. Sellin's **conflict theory** of crime Prof. George Bryan Vold observed (**Theoretical Criminology, 1958**) that people are generally group-oriented and those who have similar interests come together to form a group in order to carry forward these interests. He further argues that different groups have different and often incompatible intension which given rise to conflicts. Where groups have similar strength, they often resolve their conflicts by mutual compromise, thereby ensuring stability in society. But is the groups are of differing strength, the powerful one dominates, which creates frustration and feeling of discontent among the

weaker group, which ultimately leads to clashes and generates crime. Therefore, Vold attributes criminality not to abnormality, but it is rather a natural response to an attack on the way of life of the deprived or weaker group.

The advocates of conflict theory found true explanation of criminal behaviour is social interaction in which the behaviour of a particular person and prospective conduct of other play a significant role. Obviously, this view finds support in Southerland's theory of differential association which includes impact of psychological conditions as one of the causes of criminal behaviour in offenders. The social organization of a society consists of three main groups, namely one opposed to criminal activities the other supporting such activities and the last that remains neutral to criminal circumstances. Sir Walter Reckless (Reckless, Dinitz, & Murray, 1956) also supported the theory of conflict and observed that though it is time that anti-social and irrational elements do indulge in criminal activities but much of the criminality is due to a chain of circumstances.

According to conflict theory of crime, society is a relatively segmented and unstable system consisting of multiple of groups with some negative values, desires and needs, such as discrimination, inequalities and exploitation which assume the form of cultural pattern. Each group wants to preserve its identity and ideologies. In this endeavour, conflict among groups assumes the form of cultural violence, which is also called 'structural violence'. In this process, the powerful groups gain and maintain control by manipulating social institution. The American Civil War, 1865, provides the best illustration of crimes resulting from cultural conflict because of freedom against slavery or struggle against Apartheid in South Africa. It clearly shows how changes in contemporary society are necessitated for new form of life and new alternatives in a transforming society.

The conflict theory of crime considers crime as minority group behaviour such as gambling dens, prostitute house, juvenile gangs, drug peddlers, criminal rackets, syndicates, etc. and places reliance on psychological traits of human behaviour in relation to criminality. Similarly, the political offenders in their quest for power commit only those crimes which are of political nature such as unlawful assembly, sabotage, booth capturing, riots and assaults. In the industrial area, crimes in the form of clashes between management and labour unions resulting into destruction of property, strikes, gherao and other acts of violence are the result of conflicting interests of these groups.

Group-conflict as a potential cause of criminality was demonstrated in merciless killings and series of bomb blasts in Iraq following forceful ouster of the then ruling President Saddam Hussain by U S forces in 2003. The episode led to Sunni-Shia conflict as retaliation to earlier attacks in which Saddam Hussain had allegedly massacred thousands of Shias in order to retain power and dominance of Sunni sect in Iraq.

In Indian context, the deep-rooted caste prejudices and communal hatred between members of different religious communities resulting in riots, communal violence, killing, arson, looting, evidently endorse the application of **conflict theory** of crime. The Hindu-Muslim riots in Jamshedpur and Aligarh in 1979, Meerut in 1982. violence and attack on Sikhs consequent to assassination of the then Prime Minister Smt. Indira Gandhi on October 31, 1984, violence and crimes ensuing Babri Masjid demolition in Ayodhya in December 1992, the Bombay Blast, 1993 followed by riots in Surat and Ahmedabad, Godhara Train Burning incident of March 27, 2002, Best Bakery Case, 2002, Muzaffarpur carnage, Uttar Pradesh communal riots 2013, are some of the glaring illustrations of communal violence and crimes recorded during the last four decades in India.

In context of U K conflict theory of crime was demonstrated in riotous activities during August 6-10, 2011. These riotous activities affected several London Boroughs, Greater London cities and suburban towns which shook several continents and became a matter of grave thinking for scholars, criminologists and experts in conflict resolution. The riot began in Tottenham following shooting of Mark Duggan by Metropolitan police service firearms officer on August 4, 2011 which spread to several London Boroughs and districts and adjacent areas of England. The episode caused severe disturbances outside London as in Bristol and in the Midlands and North-Western cities of U K. It was followed by a peaceful march on August 6, 2011. Nearly 3100 people were arrested of whom more than 1000 were charged for violence and rioting. As reported by the news agency, five persons died and 16 were injured in this rioting, looting and arson. Movable and immovable property worth £200 million was also damaged.

During British Parliament debates on these riots on August 11, 2011 it was revealed that London riots were symptomatic outpour of a 'wider malaise' caused by unemployment, illiteracy and drug abuse. Police investigation revealed that the London riots were caused by a group of young, alienated and disaffected youth who remain outside the social mainstream and live in drug-induced culture. Naturally they are always at odds with prevalent canons of standard behaviour. A group of social scientists and journalists identified poverty and the growing gap between the rich and the poor as "causative factors" while some activists attributed youth unemployment and general disenfranchisement as the main cause for these violent riotous activities. The Financial Times published in September 2011 found a strong causal link between rioting and deprivation as well as social exclusion.

It is needless to state that a **conflict** constantly persists between the law-breakers, the criminals and the law-keepers, the police in all civilized societies. Clashes between the two often provide a psychological basis for generating motive for criminal activities. The hard-core criminals often counter the drastic measures of the police by becoming more furious, violent and aggressive. There ensues face to

face encounter between the law-protectors and the law-breakers leading to creation of reign of terror, violence and disorder. Pakistan supported militants and terrorist groups are constantly creating tension and disorder throughout the state of Jammu & Kashmir by resorting to violence and mass-killing of innocent people for the past so many years. These fissiparous activities had frustrated government of India's efforts to restore normalcy in the Kashmir Valley till GOI took drastic measure by amending Article 370 of Indian Constitution in August, 2019.

Based on their quantitative survey of "democratic protests" from 1989 to 2011, Dawn Brancati and Adrian Lucardi surmise that diffusion of these democratic protests is the exception, not the rule. They are of the opinion that **domestic factors** rather than international conditions are responsible in determining the diffusion. As a matter of fact, their key findings call in serious question the received wisdom about such democratic diffusion. Semantically one may have the following queries with their analysis:

- i. No serious scholar of diffusion has claimed that the diffusion of subversive innovations supporting democracy is common or frequent, given the national problems and technical difficulties involved. Their conclusion that such diffusion is not common thus echoes, rather than challenges those of many scholars of diffusion.
- ii. Their conclusion that domestic factors are primary in rejecting or sometimes supporting democratic change is also unsurprising. Virtually every empirical account and every theory of cross-national trans-border diffusion identify variation in domestic receptivity to change as a key element in determining if diffusion occurs, and its limits.
- iii. The authors' decision to limit their analysis of diffusion to democratic protests is not supported by proper rationale.
- iv. Innovative challenges to authoritarian rule have taken many additional forms of **conflict resolution** including arranged roundtable meetings and legal challenges of arbitration as well as possibility of voters' rejection and fear of losing the favour of future vote drives,
- v. Challenge of possible agreements among opposition parties, work by civil society non-government organizations, and participation in transnational networks of democracy activists,
- vi. Democratic protests are in fact a small and perhaps unrepresentative part of challenges to authoritarian rule. They are likely the result of a series of innovative actions that are not only difficult to quantify but also are hardly traceable.

These reasons are missing from Brancatii and Lucardi's analysis. Their analysis, therefore, does not challenge the accepted wisdom on diffusion. However, the researcher authors deserve special thanks for partial support to the general conclusions based on limited variety of data collected and the authors' understanding of "innovation and diffusion" in context of **conflict resolution**.

With reference to judging the efficacy of repressive measures carried out by the Executive wing of the state to counteract the conflicting interests of the terrorists or other fissiparous activities one may, for instance, ask:

Whether governments have given in to the demands of the terrorists?

Abrahams, Elizabeth (2008, 83) claims that this has never occurred. On the other hand, Jones and Libicki (2008) find 132 campaigns where terrorist groups renounced terrorism. These findings show how difficult it is to evaluate episodic results to judge the efficacy of **state mechanism**. Moreover, these events are sometimes described as the success stories for the terrorists. At the same time, one may also argue that the counterattacks against militant terrorism under **State of Emergency** lead to an end of reign of terror. Thus repressive measures of state mechanism may prove the fact of effectiveness of counterterrorism measures for **conflict resolution**..

SURVEY REPORT OF INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL ARTICLES ON CONFLICT RESOLUTION

International Journal Articles on Conflict Resolution consulted are being provided below for reference. Journal Articles of **Sage Publications** maintain the term '**Conflict Resolution**' only after 1957. It clearly focuses upon the fact that the idea of resolution which is a technical term used for solving technical problem is being used for redeeming socio-economic, politico-personal conflicts. The survey has considered the following foci for reporting the select International Journal Articles:

1. Developing research environment for conflict resolution
2. Developing research environment for inter – group conflict resolution
3. Developing Research Environment for Inter-state Conflict Resolution
4. Archiving of research findings of conflict resolution
5. Checking criminal intent and conflict generation
6. Research Models for Conflict Resolution in Middle East
7. Research environment for inter-personal conflict resolution
8. Developing psycho-social research for conflict resolution
9. Developing research paradigm for conflict resolution
10. Developing new assumptions on conflict resolution
11. Developing Research Archive for Conflict Resolution

SURVEY REPORT OF INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL ARTICLES ON CONFLICT RESOLUTION

The detailed references are available for all the Research Articles surveyed at the end of the chapter.

This Editorial article wants to study ‘**conflict resolution**’ as a substantial part of International Relations for the first time. Conflicts of international arena that culminate as war are seen as **most dangerous, most typical, most comprehensive and most examined** of all social conflicts.

The focus of Prof. Quincy Wright’s article is on gravity and peril of International Warfare. The preposterousness of the First World War and destructiveness of the Second World War went beyond any scale of measurement. The article analyzed in details the spectrum of devastative War weapons used by the Allies and the Axis powers. It has also touched the disciplines involved in making a 360 degree study of the issue of **conflict resolution** in International relations.

This article has focused upon the tension and furors created all over Europe and America regarding the persistent cold war in between USA and USSR.

Prof. Morris Janowitz of Michigan University started his article by raising a commonly uncommon question:

Can a War be called a form of ‘social conflicts’?

He has put forward his argument in favour of the affirmation of the above question. He has brought both the First World War and the Second war of the first half of the twentieth century for studying the features in context. According to him War is a special type of ‘**social conflicts**’ for the following reasons:

1. Like other social conflicts war gives opportunity to nation – states for legitimizing ‘violence’ in the name of maintaining ‘national interest’. He has extended the semantic value of the term, ‘**nation- state**’ by incorporating political revolutionary social groups who had to fight against the colonial super powers for expelling the imperial forces in order to emerge as nation state, In this sense all nation states are potential war mongers in future as implied in the war phrase, ‘Right to Self Government’, expressed by the nascent states.
2. Unlike other social conflicts the art of war making is an act of military personnel who are professionally well-trained for mustering strong the support of military fellowmen to gain sweeping victory. The deconstructive reading of the above text would reveal the futility of the term, ‘**military**’ because in a totalitarian democratic nation state the actual power lies in the hands of the politicians who are civilians are gifted with high end manipulative talent and statesmanship.
3. The transition from ‘war to peace’ and ‘peace to war’ is the work of a typical calculus and probability algebra will find it difficult to assess so many

inconsistencies such as inconstancy of economics, inconstancy of politics, inconstancy of diplomatic decisions and inconstancy of individual mood and temper to name a few.

Prof. Thomas Schelling of Yale University has observed a peculiar phenomenon with reference to massive social conflicts such as war. He has pointed out the problem of non-communication, non-negotiation, non-commitment and non-bargained strategy or limited communication of negotiation-based tendency and attitude as immediate issues of international conflicts. His paper has judged the implications of **tacit bargaining Vis a Vis explicit one** in context of limited war situation during the Cold War. He argues that lack of communication for conciliation or reconciliation or coordination often ends up in serious conflicts. Thus non-communication serves as a booster of mutual **distrust, and enmity** in between the warring nation states or group of states.

Ann Douglas tries to put forward an argument in favour of **table talk** which is often used to settle the diatribe and dispute in between factory management and the trade – unionized factory workers as a tool to resolve inter-national conflicts. Semantically table talk may be a *modus vivendi* protocol of reconciliation between two conflicting groups of representatives who are available in close quarters and are having mutual interest to maintain professional peace in the workplace. But inviting two countries or belligerent groups for a table talk for reconciliation is not worthwhile as reflected by the record of failures in such attempts for the last seven decades.

Prof. Jessie Bernard of Pennsylvania State University has put forward her argument in favour two models, viz, Issue- based and non-issue based war and has moved towards Issue-based war. While delving deep into the phenomena of “**conflicts**” she has admitted the status of the word as confusing referent. Sometimes conflicts are seen as the **emotion-fraught, or value-laden, at** other time they seem as **fuzzy, or equivocal**.

Dr. Bernard has extended the semantic value of the conflicting system by incorporating the following as the potential types of conflicting parties:

1. Individuals
2. Families
3. Communities (Ethnic Groups)
4. Societies
5. Cliques
6. Gangs
7. Associations
8. Organizations

Thus semantically conflicts may be creative and constructive or destructive on the basis of situational application or temporal significance. As the wars have been studied with reference to the issues involved there is no justification of studying 20th century wars based on 'non-issues'.

Prof. Kenneth E. Boulding of Michigan University has demonstrated his concern for the parties involved in '**conflictual**' relations. He has referred to narrower sense of the word, 'conflict' when it refers to conflict of mere individuals. He has applied the word, 'conflict' with reference to conflicting and competitive interest of business organizations like **General Motor Company**. He has argued in favour of business organization as a system where individuals work as sub systems and cogs in the wheel of conflicting interests. The word, '**Parties,**' can be semantically interpreted as a 'poly-nymous (i.e. having more than two functional meanings) word. First, it refers to individuals involved in a conflicting relation for their personal and individual self-seeking nature. Second, it refers to competitive sub-systems of business organizations that are involved in marketing competition for earning more profit or substantial mileage in business. Third, it refers to trained professionals or organized personnel who work as 'hired' workers for furthering the business interests of their employers.

Prof. Judson S. Brown of Iowa University has concentrated neither on Geo-politics nor on Socio-politics nor on Eco-politics but on psychological aspect of conflicts. He was deeply influenced by Freudian Psychoanalysis and Pavlovian experimental research with 'Neurotic conditioning'.

He has started his work with the basic assumption that 'Intra-personal conflicts' arise out of unusual and incompatible **competitive tendencies** all organisms are born with.

Prof. Saint Clair Drake of Roosevelt University has drawn reference of the study of ethnic group from Dr. Jessie Bernard's paper (see under 5 above for details). His observation centers round different ethnic groups and their mutual conflicts that are very complex in certain situation. He has taken back reference of Caroline's Ware's article, "Ethnic Communities" published in **Encyclopedia of Social Science** in 1937.

Prof Drake has delved deep into characteristic features of **ethnic consciousness, myth of common descent, and ceremonial ritual** of ethnic groups or tribes living in 'symbiotic' relationship in different continents of the world. Modern state system recognizes these ethnic groups as **ethnic minorities** under the influential works of social anthropologists.

Prof. Robert Dubin of Centre of Advanced Studies in Behavioral Science has started his paper with five inter-related propositions that he has illustrated in course of his discussion. These propositions are stated below:

1. The social structure of complex industrial societies keeps on changing continuously:
2. Conflicts are fundamental social process in industrial societies
3. Conflicts between groups are institutionalized
4. Conflict resolutions determine the direction of social change;
5. Social welfare depends upon the outcome of group conflicts

Prof. Dubin has observed four historic changes that have been responsible for the continuous change in the industrial society. These changes are:

1. Change in the **technology of Industrial production**
2. Change in the **size of Industry** which inter alia involves ‘**relationship between the Employer and the employees**’
3. Change in the state **mechanism of social controls**
4. Change in the **ideological positions of the conflicting groups**
 - a. This paper has focused on changing Industrial relations

Prof. Karl W. Deutsch of MIT and School of Law and Diplomacy has proposed a research proposal on three basic paradigms of Inter-state conflicts. These paradigms are:

1. Can Inter-state conflict emerge itself without being (mis) guided by personal ego and hubris of the statesmen concerned?
2. Can Inter-state conflict be contained in its scope by neutralizing the ‘outside factors and forces’?
3. Can Inter-state conflict be avoided by bringing a change in internal and external policy or by strategic diplomacy?

The paper is interesting as it aims at solving real life problem of American Civil War in context. The focus of the paper is on specialized psychological enquiry and not on mass communications i.e. people’s general statements about the problem of Inter-state conflicts.

Prof. Anatol Rapoport of Michigan University has worked on Richardson’s “Mathematical Model of War”. The model has been explicated in its three aspects. These aspects are namely **Philosophical** that deals with the nature of pervasive war, **Psychological** that deals with motivational and goal setting & **Methodological** that deals with the strategies of data collection and data interpretation.

Richardson’s philosophical orientation is very close to that of **Malthus, Marx, Toynbee, Pareto** and mathematical economists; his psychological orientation is very close to that of **Jesus, Tolstoy, Gandhi** and pragmatists; his technical

orientation was very close to that of **Voltera, Lotka, Rashevsky, Kostitzin** and other deterministic sociologists.

Prof. Arne Naess of Oslo University has analyzed the ethics of 'Non-violence' as practiced by M.K. Gandhi of India. Prof Naess has been methodical in analyzing the effects of Gandhian strategy of non-violence. Gandhi experimented with his theory of non-violence against no less a power than the British Empire for winning the struggle of "Indian Independence". In a world torn by different kinds of conflicts non –violence works as having magical properties to stop inter-group, inter-race, inter-personal and Inter-regional conflicts. M.K>Gandhi experimented with the potentiality of **Non-violence** as a holistic tool to be used against the imperial British people who were experts in using tools of violence. The success of 'struggle for independence of India' proves the significance of **Non-violence** as an effective tool of conflict resolution.

Gandhian 'search for truth' is not a theoretical assumption but a practical way of following the ethics of self-purification as the first step of achieving social sanctity.

Prof. Elton of Michigan University has studied psychological aspect of conflict that impedes attempts of possible resolution in a given society. In his attempt to find out the root cause of aggression he has cited the following mundane situations as listed below:

- a. A parent who has got information that his aggressive son has been rejected by his playmates;
- b. A teacher who has vented his ire for negativism in her student/s;
- c. A dignified policeman being defied by an average delinquent;

He has asserted that aggression is direct outcome of personal frustration. He has tried to establish experimental model to understand different theories of hostility based on psychological research.

Prof. North et al of Stanford University have studied the nature of human conflict with reference to intra-personal, Interpersonal, small group and inter-national conflicts as well.

They have attempted to study the constructive influence conflicts may have towards unification of disputants. In other words they have raised the issue of 'integrative functions' of conflicts in organizational set –up.

Semantically the main focus of their paper is leading a conflicting situation towards the creation of homogeneous entity through collaborative action plan or program of action.

Prof. Robert A. Levine of Chicago University has drawn attention to anthropological research on the origin of feud, faction, battle and war among all primitive societies. There are two schools of anthropology called Structural School and Functional School

that interpret feud and faction from different perspective. On the other hand he has considered Psychoanalytic “Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis” with reference to human behavior.

Social conflicts are seen to be interaction of strains and stresses. Therefore the conflicts may be overt, covert, regulated and unregulated.

Semantically saying the seed of regulated ‘peace’ is available in unregulated conflicts that exist among small social groups of a community. The communal factions are exceptions rather than rules with reference to the internal drive of resolution of these conflicts.

Prof. Allan R. Beals of Stanford University has analyzed human behavior in terms of symbolic and indicative instruments human beings bear either for assistance or for engagement in conflicts. His anthropological insights have clearly focused on the importance of stress and strain in originating situations of conflicts. He has emphasized on traditional value system of India that has kept the social conflicts in check.

Semiotic study of rational values would definitely put forward research on conflict resolution on a positive scale.

Prof. Thomas Zeitzoff of American University has focused on the network of **social media** that increasingly plays a master role in conflict and contentious politics and the resolution of conflicts as well. Leading politicians, national and local leaders, national and local insurgents, and protestors all have got access to social media through Internet Service Providers. They have used **social media** as a tool for setting encrypted meta-communication. At the same time, scholars have turned to social media as a source of new data on **conflict**. The study on social media provides a framework for understanding social media’s influence on conflict through five interrelated functions:

1. The use of **social media** has reduced the cost of communication
2. The use of **social media** has increased the speed and the rate of dissemination of information.
3. The use of **social media** has enabled the researchers to focus on the strategic interaction.
4. The use of **social media** has enabled the scholars to focus on competitive adaption of strategic actors in response to change in communication technology.
5. The network of social media provides new and filtered dataset which is accepted globally as an important resource,.

In short, the application of **social media** has changed the quantum and quality of information that are available to conflict actors for shaping and reshaping the conflict itself. The article has explored the influence of **social media** on conflict

and has defied simplistic explanations that argue that the use of **social media** either privileges incumbents or boosts up the challengers.

Serious internal conflict or fear of external attack and constant search for **peace** can only lead a human community to take decision of leaving their homeland for good or share part of their homeland. This article answers the question posed as the title by using a novel dataset that traces systematically the inclusion of lost homeland territory. In discursive definitions of the homeland for all ethnic nationalist homelands truncated during the **cold war** in general and specifically between 1945 and 1996. A survival analysis of the continued homeland status of lost lands shows that longer-lasting democracies are significantly less likely to continue to include lost lands within the scope of the respective homeland. Even after setting control mechanism for other cogent factors people expressed their thought of inclusion of the truncated territory with their homeland. The research shows that the desire for the control of territory is at the heart of the majority of international conflicts. In conclusion the article emphasizes on the importance of understanding the prohibitive conditions under which the geographical scope of the homeland territory is redefined again and again. Semantically as well as semiotically this article has contributed to addressing refractory aspect of international conflicts.

Prof. Bjørnskov of Aarhus University and Prof. Stefan Voigt, currently a Director of a German University, have focused on relationship between terrorist activities and states of emergency. This is reportedly a new study as such a study has never been explored earlier in a cross-country perspective during the last seventy two years. They have raised the questions:

1. *“Given that an act of terror has been committed, what are the factors that lead the concerned government/s to declare a State of Emergency (SOE)—or refrain from declaring it?”*
2. *Given that a SOE has been declared, what are the effects thereof?*

On the basis of a comparative study of **seventy-nine** countries having Western-type constitutions of all over the world they have found the following facts:

1. That increased terrorist incidents increase the likelihood of a SOE.
2. Those emergencies are less likely to be declared in election years supposedly because governments believe them to be unpopular.
3. Once a SOE is declared, it generally leads to substantially more government repression.
4. The more terrorist events are there, the higher are the chances of **States of Emergency** being declared.

5. Those countries already under a SOE are more likely to suffer from additional terror attacks, challenging the effectiveness of **states of emergency**.
6. Richer countries are less likely to declare **states of emergency**.
7. Countries with a presidential form of government are more likely to declare **states of emergency**.
8. When the Constitution makes the process of emergency easy to declare and allocates substantial additional powers to the executive, governments are more likely to declare **states of emergency**.

While a number of earlier studies have explored the relation between terrorism and government policy of repression, this article has explicitly analyzed the relationship between terrorist events and **states of emergency**. It deals with the determinant factors that lead to the declaration of a **State of Emergency** following terrorist event/s. The study also focuses on the main consequences that follow such a **SOE** declaration. Their further investigations suggest that once a government declares a SOE, it strongly tends to implement more repressive executive policies, potentially to counteract the consequences of terrorism. However, the specific provisions of the Constitution do not matter and the study has revealed the same repressive response regardless of whether or not the Constitution yields larger discretionary power during emergencies or not. The above study found out the act of “declaring a SOE to repress civil society and its citizens” as a handy tool even for the parliamentary democratic governments.

Semantically estimated the authors have painstakingly analyzed the effectiveness of SOEs from the point of view of those who suffer from terrorism. In principle, it is, of course, possible to analyze the effectiveness of emergency provisions from a different angle by asking to what degree terrorists have reached their goals? There are various possibilities to do so.

CONCLUSION

The survey reports recorded above are just synoptic one and do not claim to be exhaustive. The survey reveals that conflicts generally arise out of misunderstanding, lack of understanding, clash of interests, differences in ideologies, views, beliefs or faith of persons, suspicion, lack of justice, fair play or honestly, lack of support, love, cooperation, intolerance of the parties involved. Once the conflict arises and if not timely resolved, it leads to confrontation, social instability, disharmony, disaffection and lawlessness, which finally result in violence and crimes of war and inter-national discord.

Table 1. Abbreviations-used

Abbreviation	Full Form
USA/US	United States of America
USSR	United Soviet Socialist Republic
Soviet Union	United Soviet Socialist Republic
JKLF	Jammu Kashmir Liberation Front
GOI	Government of India
IJA	International Journal Article

With the passage of time and advancement in science and Information Technology **conflicts** have also developed **their robust species in modern times**. The survey has brought into focus a number of foci related to on - going research and publication in the domain of **conflict resolution**. **Semiotic approach** in combination with **deconstructive study** has played a key role in assimilation and observation of the entire scenario of the last sixty two years of evolution of International Journal Articles (IJA) in this domain. The study would be useful for maximum scholars and researchers who would like to devote their attention towards the field of research related to conflict resolution.

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Chapter 5

Conflict Management and Resolution in Context of Educational Institutes

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ABSTRACT

Conflict has been an integral part of collaborative ventures. Educational institutes comprise multiple integrated key activities such as teaching, learning, student management, examination, result declaration along with several administrative tasks. It has also been observed that generally stakeholders do not have formal training to deal with such issues and sometimes lack of knowledge and skills to address the disagreements efficiently adversely affects the overall productivity. Conflicts can occur in various forms starting from verbal dialogue and escalated up to physical confrontations resulting in spoiled relationships. An institutional framework should be designed and must be made transparent, so that all stakeholders understand their roles and responsibilities at the institutions. The obligation and constraint defined clearly can act as an essential tool in de-escalation of conflict. This chapter aims at understanding the modes of conflict, reasons behind conflict, and then designing a framework for conflict management in educational institutes.

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INTRODUCTION

Conflict has been an integral part of collaborative ventures. Educational institutes comprises of multiple integrated key activities such as teaching, learning, student management, examination, result declaration along with several administrative tasks. It is quite natural to have confrontations and conflict on various issues among the stakeholders of the institution. It has also been observed that generally stakeholders do not have formal training to deal with such issues and sometimes. Lack of knowledge and skills to address the disagreements efficiently adversely affects the overall productivity. Conflicts can occur in various forms starting from verbal dialogue and escalated up to physical confrontations resulting in spoiled relationships. Thus it is important to understand and identify the scenarios leading to conflict. Proper readdressed mechanism should also be devised to address the issue. Thus, conflict management, conflict de-escalation, strategies, problem ownership and conflict re-framing are very significant and plays pivotal role in smooth function of the system (Robbins S., 2005). Conflict is unavoidable. In any type of work environment, conflict is bound to happen. In case of corporate work environment, there is immense scope of conflict among employees themselves, as well as with the management of the company. Similarly, in academic institutions also, conflict arises among faculty as well as with administration and support staff. It can also not be pre-determined and needs to be addressed in its nascent stage. As soon as it gets escalated, it leads to non-productive results.

An institutional framework should be designed and must be made transparent, so that all stakeholders understand their roles and responsibilities at the institutions (Pareek, 1982). The obligation and constraint defined clearly can act as essential tool in de-escalation of conflict. This chapter aims at understanding the modes of conflict, reasons behind conflict and then designing a framework for conflict management in educational institutes. The clarity in framework would facilitate the systematic handling of conflict and minimizing the damage. The objective of the chapter is to describe a proposed model and provide it's compare the existing conflict resolution models. Proposed model is an iterative model which keeps it modifying and improving itself.

STUDENT-COLLEGE CONFLICT: A HYPOTHETICAL CASE EXAMPLE

University Grants Commission (University Grants Commission, 2018) has clearly stated the requirement of having minimum percentage of attendance as one of the eligibility criteria to appear in exams at under-graduate level.

College XYZ offering under-graduate degree in Science and Arts stream informed its students in the beginning of the semester about the attendance requirement. The college has sent notice in each class room and also out up a notice on the student notice board in this regard. After the completion of the semester, few students were not allowed to appear for the mid-semester examination because of shortage of attendance. Due to this reason students joined hands and demanded the administration for the permission to give the exam as they were not aware about the status of their attendance. On the other hand, administration was not ready to give any kind of relief to such students in order to comply with the UGC guidelines. Hence, a trivial situation of conflict between students and college administration developed. None of them was ready to take their steps back and a deadlock was apparently visible. Administration found itself caught between the students and the UGC guidelines.

Administration later called upon a meeting with student representatives to understand the situation. Student representatives stated that students were not updated about their attendance pattern and status during the whole semester. Hence, suddenly when they came to know about their ineligibility, their reaction was severe. The demand of students was to find a solution so that students can get to know their attendance status regularly. Also, considering it as an unintentional mistake on student part, administration should allow them to appear for the examination. Administration understood the issue and hence, agreed to give permission for the mid-semester examination as only the first and last chance for those students. Also, administration assured the student representatives that college will provide student attendance report on monthly basis so that students can keep track of their attendance pattern and can take corrective measures to make it up to the criteria for final semester examination.

BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Considering the above case, conflict can be viewed as a complex interpersonal controversial process. Conflict can be considered as scenario where two or more entities try to convince their view point to others. Thus, conflict arises when the perception of one entity starts affecting the perception of another entity in negative manner. The perception may cover many aspects such as goals, interests, style of working etc. Being the integral component of human behavior, conflict includes expressions of aggression, misunderstanding, negativity, hostility, rivalry and many more such attributes (Thakore, 2013). Enumerable studies have been conducted on conflict management. The contribution by Schellenberg (1996) has been accepted as remarkable as it is considered as a systematic study of conflict resolution (Thakore, 2013). Durkheim stated that social laws plays pivotal role in determining cultural

aspects of an individual and hence causes moral solidarity within groups resulting in conflict (Jeffrey, 1990). Conflict has been cited as an abnormal phenomenon (Osipova, 1989) having disjunctive effect (L & Kolb, 1949). It poses as stumbling block in the growth process by delaying the decisions to be taken. Researchers have also looked at the issue of conflict as perception which might not have emerged from evidences (Robbins S., 2005). Conflict has also been defines as part of competition process necessary for survival and continuous evolution of human beings with the constraint of resource availability and environmental change (Larfela, 1988). It has also been established that conflict is inevitable whenever a category or groups are formed on the basis of a criterion within an organization or institution (Robbins S., 2005). Thus, conflict occurs when participating entities are not in a convincible state to choose one among the available alternative solutions.

On basis of the above discussion, noticeable features of conflict have been identified as below:

1. Conflict as a perception
2. An integral component of human life
3. Unavoidable during social interaction
4. Necessary for survival in competitive environment
5. Results in continuous evolution and growth
6. Originates due to cultural orientation
7. Increases due to resource availability constraint
8. Inevitable in an environment with multiple groups with different objectives

The features of conflict indicate that presence of conflict create numerous instability in the human lives irrespective of their age and role in society. Thus understanding conflict and its management in early stage helps to restrict behavioral problems of violence, aggression and hostility (Ohio Commission on Dispute Resolution and Conflict Management, 1990-1993).

GENRE OF CONFLICT

The stakeholders of any organization need to interact with each other for attainment of objectives. This leads to collaborative activities as well. The organizational framework demands individuals to work towards the completion of the responsibilities conferred as well as association with team members to accomplish group tasks. As per the literature review, wherever there is interaction and collaboration, the probability of having conflict becomes very high. Conflict can exist in many forms

in any organizational structure. The key stakeholders in the whole eco-system of organizations are individuals, departments, organization, region and country.

Thus, depending upon the discrete responsibilities along with the joint responsibilities, various genre of conflict exists. These can be stated as below:

1. Individual Conflict

2. Group Conflict

3. Organizational Conflict

1. **Individual Conflict:** It refers to the type of conflicts faced by individuals with others as well as with one-self. Conflict among the individuals is popularly termed as Interpersonal Conflict (Thakore, 2013). Such situation arises mostly due to the individualistic goals that conflict with each other. Sometimes, lack of trust upon each other also plays an important role (Pareek, 1982). Thus, such conflict has two dimensions; firstly it can be based on facts i.e. substantive. Secondly, it can be on the basis of emotion of trust, intolerance or dominance. On the other hand, the conflict faced by an individual internally is popularly known as Intrapersonal Conflict (Thakore, 2013). Conflict among the teachers about the ways of content coverage in class, modes of teaching, examination pattern, and important topics for exam and so on can be considered under this category.

An individual faces dilemma in various tasks related to work and life. In case there are multiple paths to evaluate to finally choose one, an individual passes through lot of stress. Mostly such conflict is emotional in nature. Lack of confidence, stereotyping, aggression, apathy and higher levels of anxiety leads to such conflict and affects the productivity of individuals adversely (Pareek, 1982). Irreconcilable and over expectations results in excessive pressure on individuals leading to conflict. Issues faced by individual teachers relating to subjects to be taught, class satisfaction, self-satisfaction after taking classes, examination participation, coping up with changing technological aid for teaching learning process, challenge of knowledge update on regular basis, work-life balance, promotion, relocation and many more of such type can be considered under this category.

2. **Group Conflict:** In order to achieve a bigger task groups are required to be formed which then may result in conflict. Group Conflict occurs in collaborative activities where multiple groups are involved. Conflict among the individuals belonging to different groups is popularly known as Intergroup Conflict (Thakore, 2013). It involves aspects related to the task assigned to different groups and their compatibility with each other to work towards the attainment of common goals. Resource allocation to each group, time frame to complete

the task, pre-occupied activities of the individual groups, procedures to be followed and the low intensity of readiness to discuss the conflicting issues gives rise to Intergroup conflicts. In educational institutes, the tasks assigned to various departments by the College or University, fund provided, time limit specified, man-power availability in each department, skills required to do the task results needs proper coordination and integration among departments. This needs to be addressed carefully else objectives may not be achieved on time.

A single group also faces conflict among its team members on various issues related to facts as well as emotions (similar to Interpersonal Conflict). Such conflict is popularly known as Intragroup Conflict (Thakore, 2013). Dominance, intolerance, less intent of sharing, individualistic approach, different methodology for same task, incompatible attitude and such attributes leads to Interpersonal conflict within group. Teacher having dominating nature, negative attitude toward change, different interpretation of facts and separate methodology for doing the task leads to conflict within department.

3. **Organizational Conflict:** Conflict occurring between two or more organizations is popularly known as Inter-organizational Conflict (Thakore, 2013). Intra organizational conflict occurs within the organization.

It has been notified through research that every organization faces two types of conflict: vertical and horizontal (Ikeda, Veludo-de-Oliveira, & Campomar, 2005). Vertical Conflict occurs along the hierarchy of the organization and horizontal conflict occurs among the peer group or individual. Inter-organization conflict is horizontal in nature and Intra organizational conflict is vertical in nature.

In academic environment, issues relating to accreditation (e.g. NAAC for colleges), fund allotment by UGC, status of Center of Excellence, Center of Potential, deemed university etc. develops a competitive feel among the organizations which may result in Inter-organizational Conflict. Within the school, colleges and universities, issues related to students, teacher, enhancement activities such as workshop, conference, HR related issues, departments getting priority by administration etc. are among the key issues that results in Intra-organizational conflict in educational institutes.

CONFLICT DEVELOPMENT LIFE CYCLE: THE PROCESS OF CONFLICT DEVELOPMENT

The whole process of conflict beginning with its inception till the severe form is not an instant phenomenon. It starts with disagreement rather incompatibility about an issue among the entities interacting with each other. Every entity having distinctive personality traits understands and interprets the issue and the related disagreement in his / her own way. The perception of entities about the issue plays the key role in the formulation of conflict. The intention of the participating entities is another key factor that shapes conflict. Individual's understanding about the issue, the perception formed thereon, emotions attached with the issue and other entities, affects the overall behavior of entities in conflicting situations. Such behavior of an entity then acts as an important cause behind the response of another entity who is facing the situation. Based on such behavior and response of all entities who are part of the conflicting situation, the whole team's performance is affected. The effect may be positive which results in increased productivity and is therefore welcomed. However, the negative effect degrades the team productivity gradually and hence, is an alarming case requiring attention.

Conflict is not a sudden phenomenon and it has its development process. Any conflict passes through the phases shown in Figure 1:

In educational institutes, the important stakeholders (Figure 2) are teachers, students, support staff, examination cell, library, accounts, courses etc.

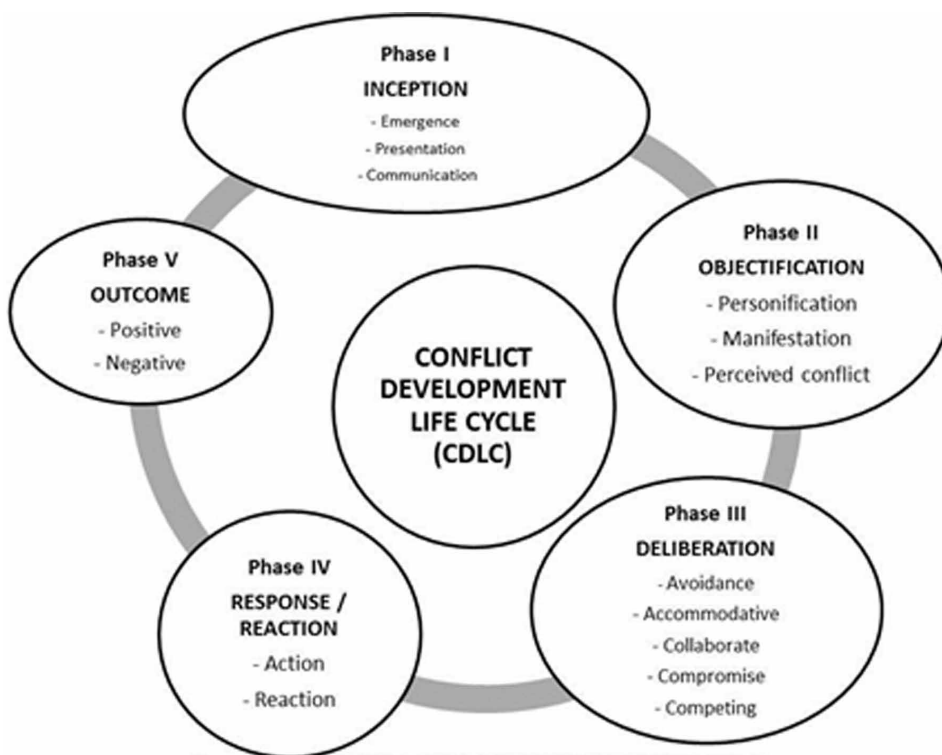
Each of these stakeholders / components is engaged in various activities related to functioning of the institute. Such activities require collaborative work of some of the components. These components can have various issues that are common as well as conflicting within as well as with other components.

Disagreement in planning stage is very constructive because it will ultimately help to decide about the ultimate objective to enhance productivity of the institution. However, if the conflict is on day to day basis thereby hindering regular operational activities of the system, then it is undesirable and needs correction. Thus, it is very important to understand how the conflict starts and escalates. Conflict Development Life Cycle (CDLC) (Robbins, Judge, & Vohra, 2017) helps to understand the process of conflict so that it can be resolved effectively.

Phase 1: Inception

Any type of conflict starts with the emergence of an issue that seems to be very important to its originator (Figure 3). That issue is at first discussed with few other members of the system. Usually, when the idea is supported by few more members verbally in the discussion (formal or informal), then it is converted into a structured

Figure 1. Conflict development life cycle (CDLC)



format by its originator. It can be done by an individual as well as by a group of individuals who supports the idea. Once, the idea is structured, it becomes an issue which is to be communicated to target entity. The target entity may be peer member, subordinate or even the administration.

Phase 2: Objectification

Objectification is about how the target receptor of the issue accepts it. The effects of the issue upon the personality of receptor, emotions and its compatibility with the value system are of immense significance (Figure 4). The opposing forces that are triggered due to the issue, plays a decisive role in the personification of the issue. Such personification then acts as the reason behind the manifestation of the conflict by individuals. Thus, emotional attachment with the issue is a significant factor in the formulation of conflict. Positive attitude towards issues helps to explore all the potential solutions and takes a holistic approach towards conflict resolution. However,

Figure 2. Stakeholders and Components of Educational Institute



the negative attitude restricts the possibilities of alternative routes to address the issue and pushes the situation along with particularly entities towards deadlock.

Phase 3: Deliberation

The existence of conflict is accepted through objectification. Now the participating entities need to explore the ways to address the conflict. The way in which entities attach their emotions and value system with the issue pays a deterministic role in defining their behavior and reactions. Therefore, deliberation is a unique phase where the response of participating entities needs to be assumed with maximum accuracy

Figure 3. Phase 1: inception flow chart

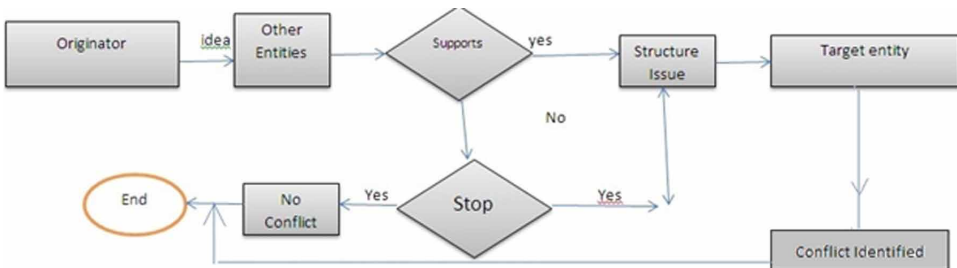
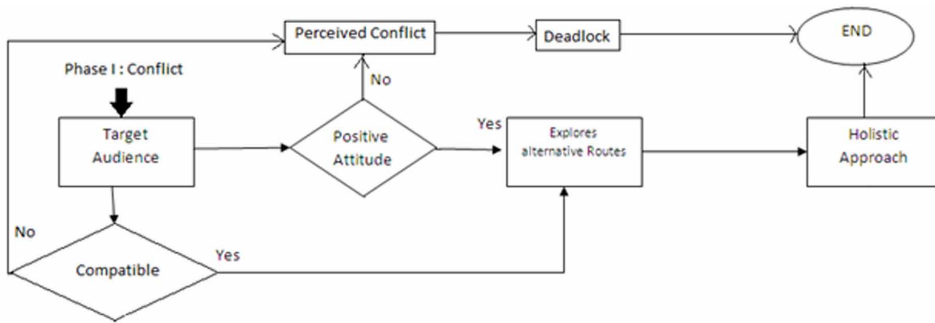


Figure 4. Phase 2: objectification flow chart



possible. Psychologists have identified five conflict handling intentions on the basis of two dimensions (Thomas, 1992). First dimension, namely cooperativeness, refers to the extent up to which one entity tries to satisfy another entity's concerns. On the other hand, the second dimension, assertiveness, refers to the extent to which one entity tries to satisfy his or her own concerns. Considering these two dimensions, five conflict handling intentions have been noted.

Phase 4: Response / Reaction

The next step to conflict deliberation is the Response Phase. In this phase, the existence of conflict, entities involved, their reactions and behavior becomes visible in the system. Thus, this phase results in dynamic interactions among the components in positive as well as negative manner.

Positive interactions lead to functional / constructive conflict. It helps to make the interaction rich and results in improved productivity. For example, a student raising a question in class about a topic explained by teacher is because the student is knowledge inquisitive. Such issue further increases the scope of interaction delving into deeper insights of the topic for the whole class. It enhances the knowledge of the whole class and hence is a functional conflict.

Negative interaction results in dysfunctional / unproductive conflict. It leads to aggression and ultimately gets translated into minds diverted from productive behavior. For example, boycott of classes in educational institutes, strike, rally for politically motivated agenda etc. mostly disturbs the academic ambience. It usually results in disagreements, increased misunderstanding, threats, physical attacks and finally escalates to destructive result for student's academic objective.

Phase 5: Outcome

The action and reaction between the entities involves in conflict, results into various outcomes. Such outcomes are the consequences of the way conflict has been dealt with in earlier phases. These consequences are the results of functional and dysfunctional conflict. Functional conflict outcome triggers the morale of the entities to become more resourceful and be more advanced. It encourages the entities to introspect themselves as well as the issues to find out the weak points to delve upon. Such fresh approach helps them to reach out to positive results. It helps them to focus on the solutions for the team rather than being oversensitive to their individual goals. Thus, collective decision making becomes a possibility.

However, dysfunctional conflict restricts coordination and intention to understand the viewpoint of other members. It discourages the intent of mutual understanding and diminishes the trust factor among the entities. Such undesirable act eventually leads to decreased group performance and makes decision making an achievable goal. In extreme situations, it may also lead to group destruction. In other words, the group no longer exists and usually an undesirable situation.

Dysfunctional conflict must be handled in very careful manner as it may lead to most undesirable situation. One of the important strategies to handle conflict is to discuss the issues openly and directly in the group. Face to face direct interaction solves many issues. It has also been noted in research studies that collectivist culture promotes attainment of team objectives giving personal objectives second priority.

CONFLICT RESOLUTION MODELING

Conflict Resolution has to be achieved scientifically by building a model. A model based approach helps to understand each and every component clearly. A clear understanding about the issue helps to develop a model which can provide constructive solution to handle the situation efficiently (Figure 5).

Traditional way for conflict resolution can be represented by the following structured chart –

Figure 5.

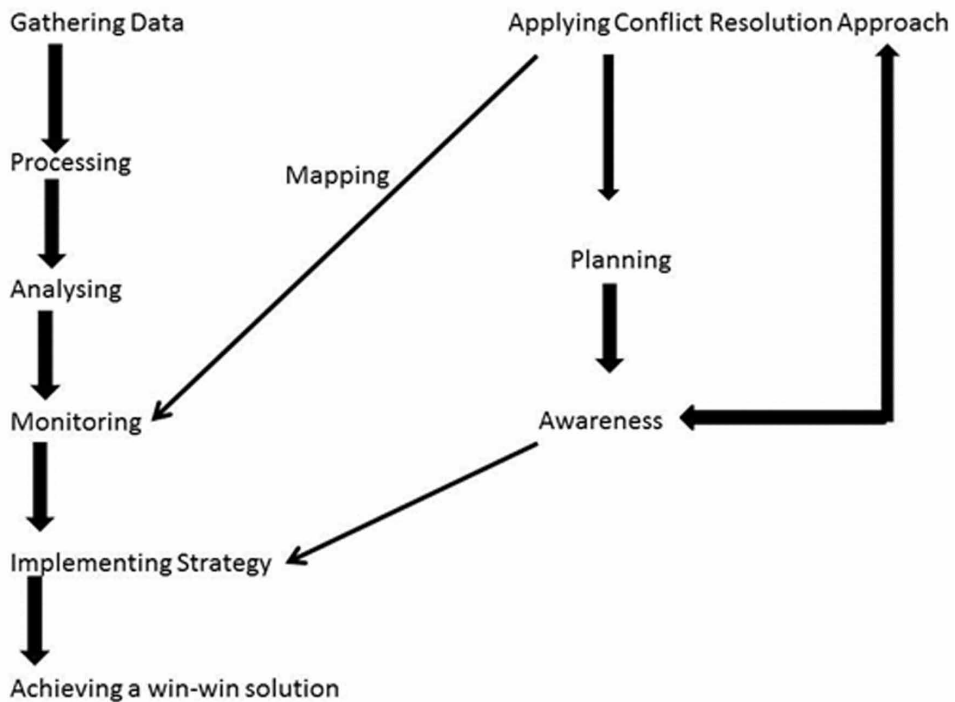


PROPOSED MODEL FOR CONFLICT HANDLING IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

On the basis of the discussion done till now, conflict can be handled efficiently by adapting the following approach. Data are to be gathered from various sources within the educational institute. Data needs to be gathered on regular basis like for students data, those may be collected once every semester or twice every semester namely, mid semester and end of the semester. The collected Input data can then be processed on the basis of the requirements and implemented followed by analysis of the results. Inferences drawn are used for monitoring the system and accordingly the strategies are implemented. These strategies are used for maintaining awareness among the stakeholders of the organization (Figure 6).

In this proposed model the left side box is same as traditional model except the last step whereas the right side box is an addition mechanism. It is an iterative model where initially the conflict resolution approach is based on the authority's knowledge on how to resolve some unwanted situation after taking input from the traditional model. Here conflict resolution approach is mapped with the individual

Figure 6. Proposed model for conflict resolution



cases based on input and the plan is to be prepared accordingly. Based on the planning an awareness policy would be developed which is incorporated in the strategy and a solution would be achieved to generate a win – win solution. The flow in the right side box is iterative which shows that the knowledge repository for the conflict resolution approach to implement keeps on growing with more occurrences of such cases. In many cases it is found that the situation derived to solve conflict specially in educational institute are very sensitive as they involve children and thus requires to be dealt as a special case, so conflict resolution plan proposed should not harm anyone. Due to this reason achieving a win – win solution is very important.

The policy mentioned in the right side of the Figure 6 is iterative in nature as a result the domain of the conflict resolution repository keep on growing and thus as time flows the database storing the case studies gets enriched. The main benefit of the proposed model is its decision making capability grows with time and it can be expected that conflict resolutions based in this mechanism will become better with time.

RECOMMENDATIONS

A detailed conflict resolution model has been proposed and discussed in the previous section. This section recommends a generalized conflict resolution model that can be applied to any controversial situation to gain overall advantage. In this generalized approach, eight simple stages are recommended to be adapted. In case of any kind of disagreement, the issues should be clearly understood in the light of these eight stages to reach an optimal solution. The conflict resolution model is given in Figure 7. In Table 1 the recommended generalized conflict resolution model is given.

This iterative model can be defined as the procedure of developing a working replication of the system that has to be engineered. This model can be adjusted based on customer feedback. This model can be used when the staffs of the educational institute do not know the exact way of handling the conflicting situation beforehand. In this proposed model, a prototype of the product may be developed followed by testing in real scenario and refined as per customer input and feedback.

CONCLUSION

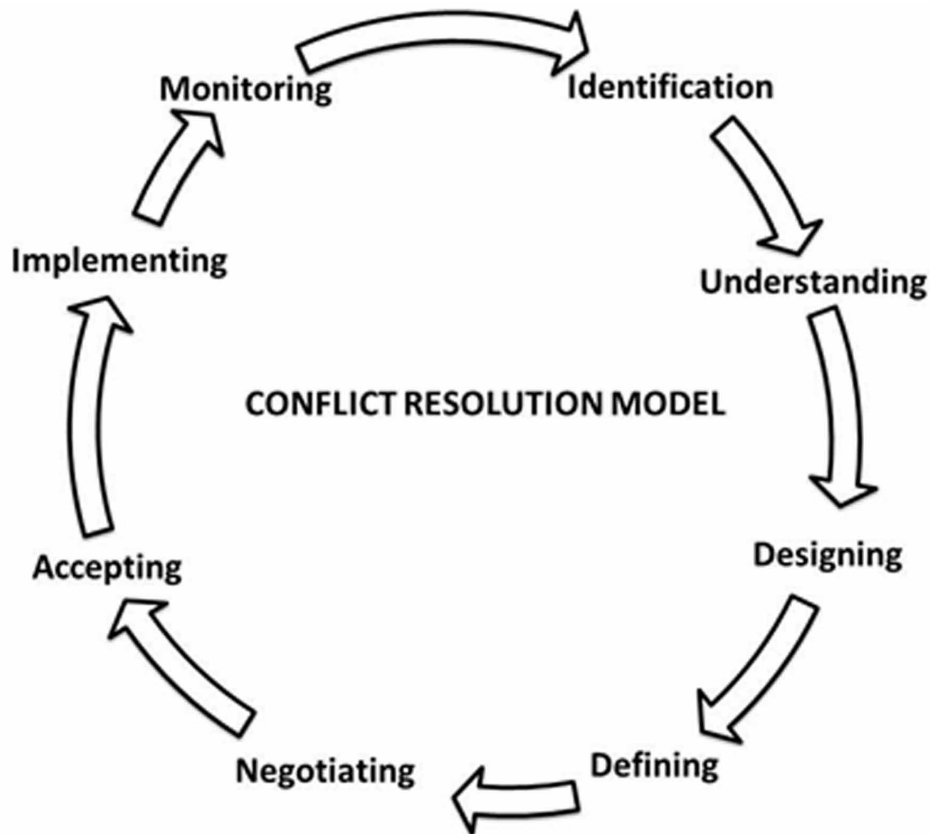
Conflict is a term that has both positive and negative shades. If conflict can be handled in constructive manner then it can act as a catalyst for the growth and development of the institution. Constructive handling requires a very clear understanding about the institution as well as the issue that caused conflict.

Table 1. Recommended generalized conflict resolution model

Stage I: Identification	It represents identification of conflict in unambiguous manner.
Stage II: Understanding	It represents the unbiased view about the participants and the issue causing conflict.
Stage III: Designing	It represents designing a basic model to solve the issue considering the factor understanding in stage II.
Stage IV: Defining	It represents preparing critical detailing for the guidelines or a solution framework with rational reasoning against each guideline mentioned.
Stage V: Negotiating	It represents the problem solving by following the solution framework defined in stage IV.
Stage VI: Accepting	It incorporates the outcome of Stage V and makes final solution model acceptable to all participants.
Stage VII: Implementing	The final solution which is agreed upon by all is to be implemented.
Stage VIII: Monitoring	The results obtained should be continuously monitored and critically evaluated. In case, the model requires any modification, it reflects the loophole in the resolution model. Hence, the whole cycle of developing the resolution model is to be repeated.

Even for the betterment of the conflict resolution policy, the implementer's may think of adding some soft computing approach for processing the data in the repository and generating a strategy of conflict resolution. Regarding soft computing techniques some heuristic or meta-heuristic approach can be applied. But soft computing techniques need a large data set for generating the strategies which might be a big challenge for the developers.

Figure 7. Conflict Resolution Model



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Chapter 6

Conflict Management Models

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ABSTRACT

Conflict is endemic to all social life. It is an inevitable part of living because it is related to situations of scarce resources, division of functions, power relations, and role differentiation. Contradiction, which happens when objectives, intrigue, or estimations of different people or gatherings are contrary, and those individuals hindering others' endeavour for achieving objectives is called authoritative clash or organizational conflict. In this chapter, the authors want to brighten the meaning of conflict on the organisation and conflict management models. Initial models of conflict management were developed in 1970s by organizational and social psychologists. Here, the authors take two conflict management models to clarify the relations and how they influence the organizational execution. Thus, they found that conflict and conflict management can have significant impact on project success.

INTRODUCTION

The most frequent question placed on the organization is why does the conflict occur in the organization? Every organization encounters conflicts daily. Emotions play a critical role in the conflict, and they were understudied. Effective emotional regulation can reduce the chances of conflict becoming relational conflict. (Conbere, J. P., 2001). In any situation involving more than one person, conflict can arise. The causes of conflicts range from philosophical differences and divergent goals to power imbalances. The most common reason for conflict in organization is desperate personalities, desperate value systems, unclear working duties, limited

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Conflict Management Models

resources, improper communication, interdependent working duties, complexity in organization, unrealistic or unclear rules. The contentions cannot be maintained a strategic distance from, yet it is conceivable to oversee them such that we remember them on time. It is vital to persistently follow the hierarchical signs which point to their reality. (Pondy, L. R. 1967).

CONFLICT AND ITS TYPES

A conflict is a struggle or an opposition. Conflict comes from the Latin word for striking, but it is not always violent. Conflict generally arises from opposing ideas.

Types of Conflict

- Functional conflict
- Dysfunctional conflict

Functional Conflict

It enhances the hierarchical development and furthermore urges the business to play the main job in organizational development.

Dysfunctional Conflict

It is just opposite to the functional conflict. It decreases the development of association or organization, and execution of the businesses be influenced.

Process of conflict consists of four stages:

Stage 1: Latent stage

Stage 2: cognition and personalization

Stage 3: conflict manifestation

The last stage in this process of conflict is the "conflict outcome."

CONFLICT IN THE ORGANIZATION

The organization is living framework comprising of connecting units playing out an errand in a commonly needy way that contentions would be available in such a setting. The gatherings in our organization may have a progressively essential

clash about the precise structure of their organization and the fundamental idea of their collaboration. Three distinct criteria define the role of an administrator in an organization 1) planning 2) Resource allocation 3) Conflict management. There is no doubt that managing conflict permits every aspect of an administrative role. (Tinsley, C. 1998).

Conflicts that occur as a result of interactions between groups in an organization are:

1. Intrapersonal conflict
2. Interpersonal conflict
3. Interdepartmental conflict

1. Intrapersonal Conflict

The intrapersonal struggle is inward to the individual and is maybe the most troublesome type of contention to examine and oversee.

2. Interpersonal Conflict

It emphasizes the interaction of human factors in an organization. Interpersonal conflict is a fundamental part of authoritative life. The reasons for interpersonal conflict in the association can be attributed to individual differences, perceptual contrasts, and utilitarian differences (Creasey, G., 2002). To maintain a strategic distance from hindering consequences for individual just as hierarchical working, executives need to recognize the reasons for relational clash and make proper move to manage it. We can broadly suggest two classes of factors as conflict source. They are:

Personal

Organization between people with various demeanors, qualities, and requirements can deliver struggle to conduct and influence authoritative execution.

Functional

The individual in the organisation have jobs which are typical arrangements of conduct related to their position. Relational clash can be represented, as it were, in terms of the occupant's jobs and their desire specifically circumstances.

3. Interdepartmental Conflict

Organizational are structured around product offerings, districts, or specific specialties. Independence produces the requirement for collaboration however it additionally exhibits events for clashes.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT MODELS

All association, anyway inherently or complex, have a scope of components or methods for overseeing strife. Gifted executives know about these strategies and method and realize how to use them successfully. On the off chance that heads care for ideal strategies for peace promotion, they should give their most grounded help to a technique that can end a contention in a tasteful what is more, self-sustaining way (Cuppens, F. et al.;2007)

This is not to battle, anyway that compromise is the prompt result of any mediation. The result of a contention relies on numerous concepts of the contention procedure before the endeavors to oversee it.

Three Types of Conflict Management Models in Organizations

1. Integrative and distributive negotiation models concentrating on labor negotiations
2. Mediations competency model concentrating on third party interventions
3. Dual concern model concentrating on individual and informal conflict management models.

Traditional Conflict Model

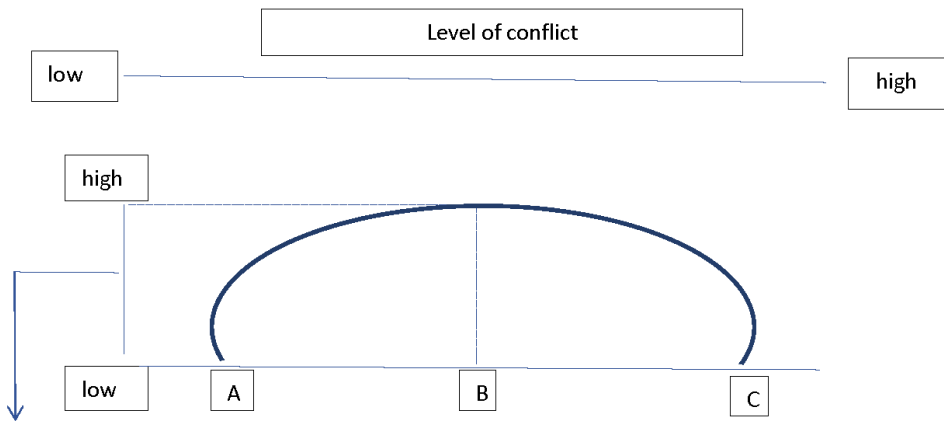
The most critical holistic method for dealing with conflicts has proved to be mediations. Viewed from this perspective, the same principle remains valid: conflict management is a management responsibility. This no longer than a manager must resolve every conflict himself.

Types:

1. Structural model
2. Process model

Structural Model: Deals with factors impacting conflicts in projects and conflicting process.

Figure 1.



Source: according to Huczynski A., Buchanan D.: *Organizational Behaviour*, Pearson Education Limited, Harlow, 2001.

Process Model: Deals with the sequence of events involved in the conflict. Process models are more static.

Level of org. Performance.

The relationship between the level of conflict and the level of organizational performance

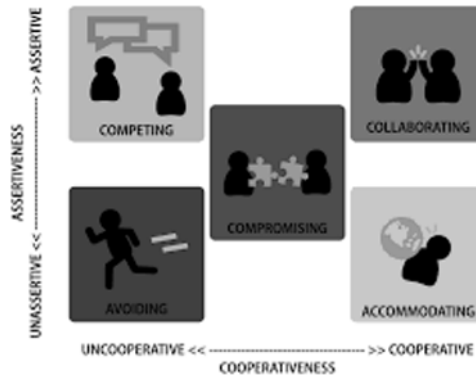
It demonstrates the connection between the dimension of the conflict and the dimension of hierarchical execution. Delineation demonstrates the division on levels A, B, and C, each demonstrating the impacts conflicts can have on the association.

STRUGGLE MANAGEMENT IN ORGANIZATION 511

Level A demonstrates the low dimension of the conflict in an association which results in low level of authoritative execution. By empowering conflicts in level A we arrive at the ideal dimension of conflict, where there is an abnormal state of hierarchical execution also, the medium dimension of conflict. This dimension of conflict is set apart as B in image 2. On the off chance that conflicts keep on raising, we touch base at the third dimension, in which the dimension of execution diminishes, and is set apart by C in the image 2. The association ought to dependably endeavor towards the ideal dimension of conflict because just sensible conflicts effects affect association. On the contrary (without conflicts or if the dimension of conflict is excessively high) conflicts will result in negative ramifications for the association, just as for a person as the gathering

Conflict Management Models

Figure 2.



ACCOMMODATING

The accommodating strategy necessarily entails giving the opposing side what it wants. The use of accommodation often occurs when one of the parties wishes to keep the peace or perceives the issue as minor. For example, a business that requires formal dress may institute a “casual Friday” policy as a low-stakes means of keeping the peace with the rank and file. Employees who use the accommodation as a primary conflict management strategy, however, may keep track and develop resentment.

AVOIDING

The shirking system tries to put off clash uncertainly. By postponing or overlooking the contention, the avoider trusts the issue settle itself without an encounter. The individuals who effectively keep away from struggle regularly have low regard or hold a place of low power. In a few conditions, evading can fill in as a productive peace promotion technique, for example, after the rejection of a famous, however ineffective worker. The enlisting of an increasingly profitable substitution for the position mitigates a significant part of the contention. (Drory, A.,1997).

COLLABORATING

Cooperation works by incorporating thoughts set out by numerous individuals. The item is to locate an imaginative arrangement satisfactory to everybody. Cooperation, however helpful, requires a considerable time responsibility not fitting

to all contentions. For instance, an entrepreneur should work cooperatively with the administrator to build-up strategies. However, community-oriented essential leadership in regards to office supplies sits idle better spent on different exercises.

COMPROMISING

The compromising strategy typically calls for both sides of a conflict to give up elements of their position in order to establish an acceptable, if not agreeable, solution. This strategy prevails most often in conflicts where the parties hold approximately equivalent power. Business owners frequently employ compromise during contract negotiations with other businesses when each party stands to lose something valuable, such as a customer or necessary service. (Kamil Kazan, M. 1997)

COMPETING

Rivalry works as a lose-lose situation, in which one side successes and different loses. Profoundly strong identities regularly fall back on the rivalry as a peace promotion procedure. The focused system works best in a set number of contentions, for example, crisis circumstances. By and large, entrepreneurs profit by holding the focused methodology for possible later use for emergency circumstances and choices that produce hostility, for example, pay cuts or cutbacks.

ADVANTAGES OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

- Employees learn how to handle the situation in a professional manner.
- May provide a quick resolution to a conflict.
- Brings inside the working environment a sense of commitment.
- Increase productivity immensely.
- Removes all stress and anxiety.
- Clarifies all doubts and queries.
- Supports the development of managers and employees.
- Helps to learn how to become productive.
- Conflict can be positive and productive.

LIMITATIONS

- Conflicts also are time-consuming and costly for companies.
- There is lost the knowledge that leaves with the resigning worker.

It is problematic when an employee on the team do not like each other.

CONCLUSION

Present-day association have perceived the need of contentions and do not flee from the contentions among its employers. Moreover, the organization now and again choose to empower the contentions inside the organization. The key jobs have the administrators on various dimensions of association who ought to be taught on the fundamental of hierarchical behavior, with the accentuation on strife management. The point of refereeing is to achieve the ideal dimension of contentions on which the dimension of authoritative execution is the most noteworthy. Moreover, conflict itself does not have to be negative. The majority of conflicts can be an excellent ground for accomplishment of better business results, and an impulse for changes and growth of the organization itself. Understanding the source of conflicts improves the probability of effective conflict management. Thus, we should be balance between task conflicts, relationship conflicts and process conflicts at the early stage of the

project. These are integral parts of what we constantly emphasize in our efforts toward restoration of relations.

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Chapter 7

Leadership Role as a Deterrent Within International Conflict Management

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ABSTRACT

Over time, political and social theorists have struggled to understand the constructive pathways of preventing, mediating, and transitioning societies away from conflict toward sustainable peace. The thread linking leadership with transitional justice instruments is the ontological and epistemological understanding of how to direct judicial strategies toward deterring interstate and intrastate violent activities. In today's environment, the emerging study of transitional justice is recognized as a staple for nation-building, democratic reform, and peacebuilding. This chapter addresses leadership and its role in the transitional justice system. Moreover, this presentation provides a leadership model for transitional justice practitioners as a means to influence deterrence measures and as a potential resolution of today's global judicial challenges with long-term international security implications.

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, researchers believe that the global environment is characterized by political and economic instability, global terrorism, and proliferation of interstate and intrastate conflict, all of which require greater interdisciplinary understanding of what is needed to lead in an international environment (Kaufman et al., 2004;

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Spero & Hart, 2003). To inform this study, an examination of leader characteristics and traits reflects the significance and complexity that judicial actors encounter in executing transitional justice instruments (Bass & Bass, 2008; Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009; Zaccaro, 2007). The significance of understanding the leadership traits of actors needed within the international criminal court (ICC) not fills a literature gap both within the leadership and transitional justice discipline.

The academic literature points out that as trials and truth and reconciliation commissions have received much of the debate, scholars view the significance of other transitional instruments, such as deterrence, lustration, amnesty, reparations, memory, and victim assistance programs, as playing a critical role in laying the foundation toward the cessation of state discourse and the promotion of national healing (Dancy, 2010; Thoms, Ron, & Paris, 2008). Studies by Judge et al. (2009) and Zaccaro (2007), in which statistical models were used to determine individual traits, present evidence showing that leadership traits and attributes differ along contextual lines of operation and approaches. Leadership traits here mean personal characteristics or behavioral attributes that foster leadership effectiveness by resolving problems across the full spectrum of team and organizational situations (Bass & Bass, 2008; Zaccaro, 2007). Leadership effectiveness, however, is defined as influencing others to resolve conflicting organizational demands by managing, shaping, and developing collective activities into a workable plan toward organizational goals and objectives (Bass & Bass, 2008; Zaccaro, 2007). Across several decades, however, studies that link personality traits to universal leadership traits are inconclusive. In the domain of transitional justice, for example, scholars argue that rogue leaders initiate hard power to commence conflict based on national interest, along with socio-ethnic and religious ideology as a means of altering political governance structures (Crocker et al., 2008; Nye, 2010; Van Dijk, 2000). On the other hand, scholars view that transitional state leaders must use not only use hard power but also soft power as a means to recognize intervention points and lead the sequence of events in the cessation of conflict. This understanding is particularly significant as leaders within the international courts navigate through the myriad of conflicting political interests, constrained economic resources, fragmented security capabilities, and weak legal institutions. (Brinkerhoff, 2011; Carothers & DeGramont, 2011; Fukuyama, 2004; Olsen, Payne, & Reiter, 2010; Quinn, 2009; Thoms et al, 2010).

International relation theorists, as well as conflict resolution and transitional justice scholars, find that a leaders ability to sequence events for reconciliation, peacebuilding, and justice in the aftermath of state discourse relies on the sovereign will of the nation's leader (Baylis, Smith, & Owens, 2008; Brinkerhoff, 2011; Chiozza & Goemans, 2011; Crocker, Hampson, & Aall, 2007; Meernik, Nichols, & King, 2010; Roht-Arriaza & Mariezcurrena, 2006). Studies show that the United Nations Security Council (UNSC), international governmental organizations (IGO),

nongovernmental organizations (NGO), and donors invest substantial resources in the strategic deployment of transitional justice mechanisms by deterring and prosecuting those responsible for committing human rights violations (Schabas, 2011). In essence, scholars argue leaders play an important role in executing transitional justice instruments as well as a critical role in political reconciliation and democratized governance structures (Thoms et al., 2008).

Scholar-practitioners agree that transitional justice mechanisms play an important role in redressing the legacy of human rights violation. In addition, scholar acknowledges transitional justice as a field of study produces mixed results investigating and prosecuting human rights violations (Aloyo, 2013; Aloyo, Dutton, & Heger, 2013; Dancy, 2010; Schiff, 2008; Skaar & Weibelhaus-Brahm, 2013; Thoms et al., 2008; Thoms et al., 2010; Wegner, 2012). The literature suggests there is no empirical evidence to support transitional justice as a tool of international statecraft. Dancy (2010) notes that transitional justice “outcomes are inherently difficult to measure, such as reconciliation, justice, and healing ...better conceptual clarity is thus essential. That scholars cannot agree on what justice or reconciliation ‘look like’ is unsurprising ... reconciliation means different things to different people” (p. 367). Scholars argue the challenge of conducting empirical research for transitional justice stems from the fact that changes within the variables, such as jurisprudence strategies, impact accountability and reconciliation efforts. In fact, empirically measuring a rogue leader’s intent and motivation to proliferate acts of aggression, the international community’s response capability and political will to act toward deterring atrocities is unexplored. Moreover, empirically measuring the supportive tools that influence the prosecutorial strategy and the impact that political and diplomatic interests have on the apprehension and enforcement is politically problematic (Akhavan, 2009; Bell, 2009; Buckley-Zistel, Beck, Braun, & Meith, 2014; Chiozza & Goemans, 2011; Dancy, 2010; Gready, Boesten, Crawford, & Wilding, 2010; Hames, 2007; Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, Maznevski, Stevens, & Stahl, 2013). Additionally, empirically assessing leadership traits and characteristics of national and international state leaders to resolve justice, accountability, and security problems using soft power is extremely problematic and difficult to measure (Bell, 2009; Buckley-Zistel et al., 2014; Chiozza & Goemans, 2011; Nye, 2010). The reason is evident as the evaluation of universal applications of justice within interstate, intrastate, and hybrid conflicts is contextually dependent on political leaders’ self-interests, ideological beliefs, and external influences (Anderson, Larson, & Haldorf, 2013; Mariniello, 2013; Nye, 2010). Given the fact that there lacks evidence-based empirical research, one could argue that as today’s scholars create transitional theoretical frameworks drawn from case studies and empirical observations, the identification of individual leadership characteristics from this study will lay the foundation of understanding the role of leaders within the international criminal court (Thoms et al., 2008). That

said, research by Eberlin and Tantum (2008) show that delivering social justice is influenced by the leadership style and decision-making calculus. Given this assertion, one could argue that credible leadership traits and competencies of judicial actors to strategically navigate through the interdependent end states of transitional justice are in greater demand than at any time in human history.

DETER HUMAN RIGHTS VIOLATIONS

The international community established the ICC as a deterrent to state and non-state leaders from exerting political, socio-ethnic, and economic power through violent means (Aloyo et al., 2013; Burgis-Kasthala, 2013). “The Responsibility to Protect: Game Change and Regime Change” article by Hugh Breakey (2012) declares that one of the primary duties of a rational state leader is “the responsibility to protect its populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity” (p. 2). Thus, Burke-White (2008) states that the international community needs a “new form of deterrence against atrocities. The establishment of an International Criminal Court ... which makes impunity illegal and which holds individuals directly accountable for their actions, is that deterrent” (p. 60). Discussions below will show that one of the ICC challenges is understanding its role in deterring, dissuading, and preventing violent extremist organizations, rogue leaders, and non-state actors from commissioning genocide, war crimes, and other acts of aggression. The literature showed that the complexity of deterrence is hard, unpredictable, influenced by the political will and worldview of its actors, and relies on credible judicial legal capabilities to mitigate and account for human rights violations. Thus, identifying the individual leadership traits of judicial actors within the ICC will drive this study in better understanding the legal outcomes in a post conflict environment.

Literature clearly points out that one of the tenets establishing the ICC is to create the conditions that deter leaders from executing human rights violations in the course of interstate, intrastate, and hybrid conflicts (Alexander, 2009; Gorno, 2012). Dutch Ambassador Ellen Loj stated “Let us together establish a credible, fair and effective International Criminal Court which will serve as a deterrent - as a signal that impunity will no longer be tolerated” (*Parliamentarians for Global Action*, 2004, p. 2). The reason to examine deterrence is that rogue leaders believe that universal jurisdiction does not apply and they can get away with committing mass atrocities to meet their political agendas (Kissinger, 2001; Roth, 2001). More important is to examine deterrence theory as a way to understand the role of individual leadership traits and decision making of judicial actors within the International Criminal Court.

Many leadership scholars and deterrence theorists believe that leadership capabilities are required to dissuade actors from committing acts of aggression while

detering actors from directing violent acts of aggression (Chatagnier et al., 2012; Morgan, 2012; Van Velsor, McCauley, & Ruderman, 2010). Consistent with the transitional justice literature, research shows that to deter rogue leaders and non-state actors, leaders within the international court will negotiate diplomatic arrangements using a carrot-and-stick approach, mediate trade-offs to modify one's decision making calculus, or change a rogue leader's behavior using soft power instruments toward meeting peace and security objectives. Lipman-Blumen (2000) states "transactional leaders take the structure as given and work within it. They strike deals and agree to trade-offs that meet both the follower's and the organizational needs" (p. 32). This falls in line with the power and influence school of thought, where Morrisette and Oberman (2013) report that for leaders within the international courts to impose deterrence strategies, a deterrence system of systems approach that is contextually shaped with the ingredients of consistent credible, coherent, and unambiguous strategic messaging, strategic planning, and enforceable legal capability are needed to influence a rogue leader's behavior.

Effective deterrence guards against not only injecting one's own cultural biases in shaping deterrence strategies but also designs a deterrence campaign strategy that understands the rogue leader's worldview and desired preferences to influence trading positional and personal power for peace and security of constituents (Berejikan, 2002). Leadership and deterrence theorists acknowledge that this school of thought requires new leadership within the judicial sphere (Morgan, 2012; Morrisette & Oberman, 2013). Furthermore, judicial scholar-practitioners view that international prosecutors and judges not only shape transitional justice instruments but also influence people's judicial world view as a peacebuilding organization to hold those responsible of the greatest crimes (Bass & Bass, 2008; Burke, 2012; Del Preore, 2012; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Van Dijk, 2000; Van Velsor et al., 2010). To put it differently, one of the missing links of a legitimate ICC is to understand that the leaders' role in deterring, preventing, and prosecuting perpetrators from carrying out acts of aggression, crimes against humanity, war crimes, and "genocide is necessary to achieve global justice and peace" (Yacoubian, 2006, p. 29). Therefore, the deterrence principles, such as general deterrence, specific deterrence, extended deterrence, and tailored deterrence, lay the foundation of understanding on how leaders are challenged within the ICC to strategically influence, dissuade, and deter the decision calculus of a potential perpetrator from committing mass atrocities (Alexander, 2009; Aloyo et al., 2013).

DEFINITION OF DETERRENCE AND TENETS

The Report to the United Nations Secretary General, Study on Deterrence (1987) defines deterrence as

the steps taken to prevent opponents from using military strength to achieve political goals, to prevent from initiating armed actions and to inhibit escalation if combat incurs ... deterrence is to prevent current or potential opponents from initiating armed actions (p. 12).

The report continues by stating “deterrence depends on perceptions. If one actor’s behaviour is to influence another, it must be perceived” (p. 16). In this literature, deterrence is defined as an international strategy that uses soft and hard power to persuade and negotiate restraint, as well as to compel and decisively influence political leaders’ decision calculus away from committing a human rights violation (Berejikian, 2002; Delpech, 2012; Nye, 2010; Payne, 2008). To illustrate, Nye (2010) argues that Hitler used hard power to consolidate power but soft power to construct narratives of past glory days, ethnic national identities, and a vision of international military and economic dominance. Needless to say, historical literature demonstrates that rogue leaders fill the needs of group identity and cohesion through a combination of fear, threats, economic incentives, and attraction to satisfy personal power interests (Nye, 2010). “In some circumstances, people have extraordinary personality needs and develop a culture of permissiveness that transfers enormous hard and soft power to a leader” (Nye, 2010, p. 310). Reviewing the deterrence, transitional justice, and leadership literature, one could argue that understanding hard power and soft leadership roles within deterrence models toward political violence shapes the strategic narrative and decision-making calculus as a tool of transitional justice (Berejikian, 2002; Chatagnier, Mintz, & Samban, 2012; Davis, 2009; Lerner, 2003; Nye, 2010).

Deterrence theorists purport three primary tenets: 1) prevent the provocations of state discourse by denying leaders the political or social benefits of engaging in conflict; 2) imposing costs while encouraging and convincing an actor that restraining from committing a violent action will produce a positive outcome; and 3) convince a rogue state leader or non-state actor by using the intent, capability, and resolve to prosecute (Akhavan, 2009; Berejikian, 2002; Delpech, 2012; Gorno, 2012; Morgan, 2012). In an alternative view, deterrence scholars argue that deterrence measures support the premise that: 1) actors commit violent crimes based on a decision calculus that maximizes one’s self-interests; 2) actors engage in state discourse when the benefits outweigh the costs without regard to the consequences of their actions; and 3) to prevent and dissuade perpetrators from committing criminal activity, leaders must develop strategies that are enforced and credible (Akhavan, 2009; Heath, 1976; Howlett, 2000; Nagin, 2012). Therefore, deterrence measures must be credible and reliable actions that impose a high political, economic, and legal cost or deny the benefit of an action that comes from committing an act of aggression (Heath, 1976; Howlett, 2000; Nagin, 2012; Ross, 2007). As indicated above, “in real-world

situations, hard and soft power often combined, sometimes with a soft layer of attraction overlaid upon underlying relationships that rest on coercion or payment” (Nye, 2010, p. 308). For that reason, Gorno (2012) asserts the threat of prosecution by the ICC “suggests that such a fear may also, in certain circumstances, factor into the cost-benefit analysis of an authoritarian intent on crushing a secessionist or revolutionary movement, ethnic group or the opposition” (para. 26) in the leader’s decision calculus. In essence, “we are all self-interested rational decision makers. What differ are not individual traits but the cost and benefits we confront” (Nagin, 2012, p. 73). This has particular significance as literature described the individual leadership traits of Joseph Kony, Adolph Hitler, Pol Pot, Saddam Hussein as autocratic in accumulating power for their own gain at the expense of other members in the group or benefiting society and charismatic with the self-confidence and self-determination to reach its strategic political goals, and inspirational in communicating ideological and religious flashpoints to followers (Avolio, 2010; Pittinsky & Simon, 2007). Thus, the literature points out that understanding these tenets is important given the uncertainties and unpredictable nature of developing deterrence strategies to constrain a rogue or non-state leader’s decision-making processes (Chatagnier et al., 2012; Delpech, 2012; Larkin, 2011; Payne, 2008).

CONCEPT OF DETERRENCE

The conceptual foundations of deterrence were rooted within a military and criminal justice context (Alexander, 2009; Deplech, 2012; Nagin, 2012). Wilner (2011) suggests that conceptual deterrence frameworks date back to the Roman Empire. Thus, as deterrence strategies and leadership concepts are dynamic, researchers view that deterrence strategies are linked with rational choices by national and rogue leaders (Ross, 2007). Studies by Kim and Sikkink (2010) and Quackenbush (2004) conclude that actors are rational; however, sequential moves to defect from a cooperative commitment reflect an irrational actor. The implication is that the uncertainty and unpredictability of national or rogue leaders in their decision-making process makes deterrence strategies problematic (Chatagnier et al., 2012). The aim of deterrence strategies is to prevent the initiation of hard power by rogue leaders as they exercise power relationships to execute historical, ideological, cultural, socio-ethnic, and political state discourse (Kim & Sikkink, 2010; Morgan 2012; Nye, 2010).

Deterrence theorists and rational choice scholars suggest leadership is not only a core element of deterrence but also a social relationship in the context of political interactions (Heath, 1976; Nye, 2010; Ross, 2007) particularly as the decision making of national leaders seeks to control and maximize leader self-interests, beliefs, values, and ethnic interests (Depelch, 2012; Kanter, 2010; Ross, 2007).

For example, deterrent and leadership authors have examined the complexity of motivations, intent, behavior, and decision-making processes of leaders during an international crisis and have found that an adversary's decision-making structures are to seek the optimal choices based on contextual, cultural, and power interests (Bass & Bass, 2008; Chatagnier et al., 2012; Chiozza & Goemans, 2011; Ross, 2007; Scott, 2000). Studies by Payne (2008) suggest that leaders "seek to reduce the uncertainties about how deterrence is likely to function by gaining insight into the factors animating the opposing leadership decision making -what the opposing leadership believes are unquestionable truths pertinent to the context" (p. 303). In other words, effective deterrence strategies understand the application of dynamic leadership constructs in an uncertain environment as well as the application of a critical strategic enabler along the conflict resolution continuum.

Recently, a developing body of knowledge has emerged that discusses the deterrence effects in the international criminal justice system. Scholars suggest that criminal deterrence theory is a complex process and has evolved along a continuum from traditional strategies that symmetrically address the motivations and intent of initiating interstate conflict to tailored strategies that asymmetrically tackle global threats by non-state actors who transcend military retaliation (Delpech, 2012; Kaufman et al., 2004; Knopf, 2008; Payne, 2008). Review of deterrence and transitional justice literature illustrates that an actor may be deterred if political goals are denied by international prosecution (Ambos, 2009; Berejikian, 2002; Braham, 2007; Schiff, 2008). The Parliamentarians for Global Action (2004) article notes that Joseph Kony feared being apprehended and brought before the ICC. As a result, the human support and financial resources as well as the acts of aggression dramatically decreased. That said, transitional justice scholars note that crimes against humanity, war crimes, and mass atrocities can be deterred if the International Court is creditable in its effort to hold perpetrators accountable by successfully prosecuting and punishing offenders (Cronin-Furman, 2013; Knopf, 2010). As a result, the article by Robins (2011), the "Study of the Reparative Demands of Kenyan Victims of Human Rights Violations" states that if "truth be told such massacres or human rights violations will not happen if justice takes place...it is going to bring some sense of relief to the victims" (p. 52). Thus, the literature suggests that deterrence is one of the central tenets for the creation of the ICC by the United Nations Security Council in 2002 as a means to address the symmetrical and asymmetrical state threats by leaders who perpetrate human rights violations through retributive justice (Cronin-Furman, 2013; Schiff, 2008). As previously stated, understanding leadership principles is a central ingredient to an effective deterrence strategy.

The leadership role in shaping the court's deterrence strategy is an issue within the international court system. The international court system lacks the hard power compellence structure to shape the behavior and decision making of national or

rogue leaders to deter human rights violations (Chatagnier et al., 2012; Kaufman et al., 2004; Nye, 2010). Given the fact that uncertainty of a rogue leader's behavior and limited bargaining tactics of the court, one could argue that the ICC lacks the deterrence strategies to employ hard power in shaping the rogue leaders' preferences toward a cooperative legal outcome (Mariniello, 2013; Nye, 2010). However, the ability of international judicial actors to employ soft power will require leadership competences with the regional and global focus that not only organizes legal expertise around shaping the perception and beliefs of political power brokers but also the strategic communications of judicial diplomatic and enforcement activities (Aloyo et al., 2013; Berejikian, 2002; Delpech, 2012; Ikenberry, 2001; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Payne, 2008). Besides, the literature shows a consensus that discourse caused by non-state leaders has challenged the Westphalian system of jurisprudence (Baylis et al., 2008, Crocker et al., 2008; D'Amato & Abbassi, 2006; Kaufman et al., 2004). For instance, presently the threat of punishment in the form of retribution is accepted as a deterrence strategy. However, scholars argue that it would be a mistake for judicial actors to lead the court using a cookie cutter approach with threats of punishment to deter perpetrators without integrating a credible communication strategy as well as appreciating the strategic cultural and leadership factors (Lantis 2009; Sooka, 2006).

Considering previously discussed empirical analysis through case studies and empirical observations, leadership and deterrence scholars argue that understanding leadership traits based on observable behavior is an important variable of any effective soft power deterrence strategy (Chiozza & Goemans, 2011; Kaufman et al., 2004; Nye, 2010). Deterrence theorists contend that there are no conventional prescriptions of deterrence strategies that work in every situation (Payne, 2008). This is because transitional justice practitioners agree that the deterrence strategies employed by international prosecutors within the court are unproven and under theorized (Castillo, 2007; Cronin-Furman, 2013; Kim & Sinkkink, 2010; Morgan, 2012). Importantly, Cronin-Furman (2013) believes that there is "insufficient attention paid to either the specifics of how deterrence is understood to operate by criminological scholars or the empirical realities of the commission on mass atrocity" (p. 435). There are missing elements of analysis for a coherent deterrence strategy within the international courts. In fact, the evolution of deterrence theories lags behind our understanding of human decision making (Berejikian, 2002; Kim & Sikkink, 2010). That said, this researcher views that the deterrent strategies developed by the international criminal court do not take cultural or leadership traits of a rogue leader's action into account not only as part of the prosecutorial strategy but also regarding peacebuilding efforts in the aftermath of state discourse.

This is particularly evident as Nye (2010) states "empirical studies have shown that the more powerful are less likely to take on the perspectives of others" (p.

306). As a result, deterrence theorists note that “empirical studies have produced widely different results with little or no consensus on a set of variables that predict successful deterrence” (Berejikian, 2002, p. 169). The reason is that a leader’s decision-making process cannot be empirically measured in a conflict environment because decision making structures are not rational but rather are based on the complexity of maximizing one’s political self-interests, individual preferences and in-group factors beyond one’s control, and thus determined by the socio-ethnic group think influences (Chatagnier et al., 2012; Elster, 1986; Pittinsky & Simon, 2007; Snowden & Boone, 2007). Given the debate of deterrence and leadership literature, researchers argue establishing an ICC that deters, dissuades, and prevents human rights violations resulting from state discourse is an illusion and unattainable without effective leadership (Gallon, 2000; Kim & Sikkink, 2010).

Berejikian (2002) and Quackenbush (2004) argue that, though there is poor empirical support, there are useful theoretical assumptions and models that can explain the application of effective deterrence strategies. In fact, scholars note that useful assumptions comprised of research variables such as compellence, cooperation, self interests, socio-political environmental factors, and symbolic factors determine an actor’s preference but empirical assessment is problematic (Berejikian, 2002; Elster, 1986; Heath, 1979; Quackenbush, 2004). Arguably, as deterrence relationships are built on alliances, coalitions, diplomatic and political intervention, strategic navigation of complex socio-cultural beliefs and ideologies, leadership scholars suggest these are important strategic leadership traits (Hames, 2007; Kanter, 2010; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Morgan, 2012). Larkin (2011) conducted studies using game theory and concluded that “the probability of conflict between adversaries depends on their perceptions of each other’s intentions and their fear of being attacked first” (p. 49). Therefore, as strategic leaders navigate through the complexity of solving state problems, negotiate cultural diversity, and balance the ambiguity of interests, they tend to create deterrence strategies based on quick solutions to solve problem sets based on rational choices (Berejikian, 2002; Diacoff, 2012; Hames, 2007; Harvey & Allard, 2012; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Quackenbush, 2004; Ross, 2007).

Cashman (2014), Berejikian (2002), and Quackenbush (2004) show that rational actors prefer equilibrium and cooperative relationships to open conflict. However, the results of the Berejikian (2002) study conclude that rogue leaders or non-state actors will arbitrarily defect from a cooperative relationship to seek their own self-interests as well as a strategic advantage. Furthermore, Larkin’s study concludes that when two or more assumptions, particularly self interests, personal preferences, and intergroup dynamics transpired, the result produced disequilibrium and defection of established cooperative state relationship. More importantly, as ethnic and national boundaries have blurred, the globalized environment has increased discourse between nations and cultures among political and economic borders (Gerzon, 2006; Hames,

2007; Lipman-Blumen, 2000). “Leaders who can traverse divisive boundaries have always been vital to civilization, but today the need for leadership capacity is even more urgent and widespread” (Gerzon, 2006, p. 3). Therefore, it is important to define deterrence and its application in order to recognize the role of leadership traits and competencies of judicial actors within the international justice system.

ELEMENTS OF DETERRENCE

Given the steady state of national discourse and its international implications, two concerns have been generated (Bensouda, 2013; Fukuyama, 2004). The first concern relates to the awareness of increased hard power resulting in indiscriminate human rights violations. Consequently, the moral and cultural implications have pressured the international community to respond with international justice mechanisms toward deterring potential offenders and holding perpetrators accountable (Cronin-Furman, 2013; Lantis, 2009; Wigneswaran, 2009). The second concern relates to how regional and international leaders might use soft power to deter, persuade, and prevent the commission of human rights abuses by a rogue leader or to guide a state leader toward resolving grievances or accomplishing a political goal (Morgan, 2012; Nye, 2010). Scholars agree this is an important variable as the fear of prosecution by a rogue leader is insufficient in deterring a rational leader (Payne, 2008). Arguably, “The Case for Conventional Deterrence” (2013) article by Tom Nichols states that “the key to deterring rogue states is to remember that their leadership cares little about their own people” (para. 13). That said, deterrence theorists and leadership scholars posit that as state threats emerge within the international landscape, certain leadership constructs support deterrence principles that have evolved as a means to address state discourse (Elster, 2004).

GENERAL DETERRENCE PRINCIPLES

The literature shows that the evolution of general or traditional deterrence theory stemmed from post World War II through the Cold War (Berejikian, 2002; Howlett, 2000; Morgan, 2012). However, Cronin-Furman (2013) noted the view: “international criminal trials can and should have a general deterrent effect has not become widespread until only recently” (p. 436). UN Secretary General Kofi Annan notes

We hope the ICC will deter future war criminals and bring nearer the day when no ruler, no state, no junta and no army anywhere will be able to abuse human rights

with impunity. General deterrence provides a key rationale for international criminal justice. (Alexander, 2009, p. 10)

General deterrence is defined as a mechanism of international justice that produces a credible strategic messaging strategy where the threat of punishment against an individual leader or group members is structured to deter the commission of human rights violations (Alexander, 2009; McEvoy & Mallinder, 2012). Extrapolated from the deterrence literature, general deterrence refers to strategies that “threaten costs, deny benefits, or encourage restraint in regard to an adversary taking action against ...” (Anderson et al., 2013, p. 4) another country or group.

Scholars claim that national leaders not only form general strategic deterrence polices with the aim to protect territorial sovereignty and national interests but also use hard and soft power to persuade an adversarial leader that an aggressive action prompts a decisive political, economic, and legal response that will result in an unacceptable outcome (Anderson et al., 2013; Burgis-Kasthala, 2013; McEvoy & Mallinder, 2013; Nye, 2010). Extrapolated from deterrence literature, general deterrence is aimed directly at not only symmetrically preventing and assuring that rogue leaders will not initiate interstate conflict but also employing diplomatic actions in applying international instruments of power through economic sanctions and other intervention strategies in an effort to refrain an actor’s commitment to execute human rights violations (Anderson, 2013; Berejikian, 2002; Morgan, 2012; Payne, 2008). Payne (2008) postulates that state actors are more predictable as “each side paid close attention to the other and each was relatively familiar with the other” (p. 263). The reason is that national leaders are assumed to balance opportunity costs with the threat of punishment as rational actors (Alexander, 2009). Knopf (2010) argues that general “deterrence has a better chance of success with respect with state rational actors, even those designated as rogue, than it does against violent non state actors” (p. 6). For example, recent developments of chemical weapons used against innocent civilians causing mass atrocities and human rights violations commissioned by the Syrian government resulted in a swift international reaction. The United States threatened enormous consequences as well as a unilateral military retaliatory response if the Syrian government did not surrender its weapons stockpile to the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) (*Eliminating Chemical Weapons in Syria, Department of State, 2013*). The general deterrence strategy of state-on-state interactions among political leaders produced the desired objectives while the Syrian leadership rationally decided to relinquish all chemical weapons as a capability to commit atrocities rather than face military intervention by the United States. Moreover, Berejikian (2002) argues that “deterrence succeeds when both states are able to communicate the fact that each intends to undertake

action that is irrational at the time it must be taken, but rational at the time the commitment is made” (p. 169).

Scholars note this is important for judicial actors to understand, even in an uncertain environment, that general deterrence examines the preventive capabilities available within the ICC (Alexander, 2009; Cashman, 2014). Analysis by Howlett (2000), Morgan (2012), and Payne (2008) asserts that given the uncertain and threat-based environment, the state-on-state relationship between the US and the Soviet Union during the Cold War is an example of general deterrence. Thus, created nuclear deterrence strategies through bilateral agreements prevents interstate conflict and thus sustain a relative stable international political and economic system.

Alternatively, it is assumed by deterrence theorists that rogue leaders and non-state actors challenge the general deterrence framework as these leaders are more interested in self-preservation making their preferences of decision making unpredictable and irrational (Cashman, 2014; Chatagnier et al., 2012; Larkin, 2011; Nye, 2010). Theoretically, leaders within the international criminal court who understand how to use transactional leadership principles can shape soft power instruments (shaming, political pressure, and isolation) to make constructive judicial agreements that an adversary will accept. On the other hand, for non-compliance of a judicial arrangement, the ICC is limited in its use of hard power enforcement mechanisms. For example, the prosecution set against Joseph Kony, leader of the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA), could have paved a way toward peace. However, during the peace negotiations, the Government of Uganda could not guarantee the personal security and impunity from prosecution for Kony and other senior LRA leadership (Wegner, 2012). Kony feared being apprehended and subjected to the outcomes of an ICC. As a result, Kony dispatched representatives to negotiate terms of peace agreements. However, during the peace negotiations there was miscommunication between the prosecutions representative and Kony’s representative made agreements without the authority of LRA leadership (Wegner, 2012). Hence, the result being the threats of prosecution as deterrence mechanism failed to prevent the systematic human rights abuses. Cashman (2014), Knopf (2010), and Payne (2008) assert that it has long been viewed that at the micro level general deterrence is empirically and practically unreliable. Case studies and empirical observations reveal the reason being the cost benefit analysis is culturally contextual and the decision-making structures are driven by ideological, socio-ethnic, and self interests (Morgan, 2012; Wendt, 1992). From this point of view, an argument can be made that a deterrent challenge facing international humanitarian law and leaders in the international criminal justice system is the assertive and uncooperative nature by rogue leaders and non-state actors who perpetrate mass atrocities for political gain.

EXTENDED DETERRENCE PRINCIPLES

A second way of examining deterrence is through the lens of extended deterrence. Extended deterrence evolved from the use of hard power within the Cold War era as a means to shape the stability of strategic relationships with political leaders in the global commons (Anderson et al., 2013). This literature defines extended deterrence as a political-military framework where national leaders build coalitions under a broad security umbrella that deters an adversary from acts of aggression against another allied member state (Anderson et al., 2013; Berejikian, 2002; Morgan, 2012). Additionally, international institutions form extended deterrence strategies by fostering and sustaining close political relationships based on bilateral and multi-lateral agreements as well as on other international legal systems in an effort to deter mass atrocities (Anderson et al., 2013; Kim & Sikkink, 2010; Lowther, 2013). Deterrence theorists suggest that a leader's role within the extended deterrence domain derives from using soft power to persuade and influence political and security commitments with allies and partners to deter threats by external actors within the alliance (Morgan, 2012; Nye, 2010).

Review of the leadership and deterrence literature concludes that extended deterrence is a system of political relationships where strategic leaders share direct responsibility to shape policy and assurance strategies within the confines of international political, economic, and legal confidence building measures (De Pew, 2011; Howlett, 2000; Lowther, 2013). Useem (2010) postulates that "direct leadership decisions provide for not only better understanding how leadership is exercised but also better clarification for long-standing concepts of what leaders do" (p. 515). Violent extremist organizations are loosely confederated organizations, they do not have state-like characteristics such as a centralized governance and political authorities. Thus, transactional leadership principles to shape a rogue leader's decision-making structures will not deter the commission of human rights violations (Cashman, 2014; Chatagnier et al., 2012; Knopf, 2010). During the June 2014 Israeli and Palestinian conflict, the Palestinian Authority signed the Rome Statute in an effort to prosecute possible war crimes. However, the European Union and other All State Party members applied political pressure and threats of economic sanctions through the United Nations for the Palestinian Authority not to accede under the Rome Statute. The reason being the Palestinian Authority and Hamas are a de-facto state and not internationally recognized as a sovereign state within the international community (*Israel/OPT/ICC*, 1 August 2014). Therefore, deterrence theorists suggest that extended deterrence is more effective than general deterrence because an act of aggression against one member of the coalition is an aggressive act on the entire alliance (Anderson et al., 2013; Cashman, 2014).

The application of extended deterrence measures must be part of a larger deterrence strategy in order to raise the cost-benefit analysis and influence a leader's decision-making calculus (Morgan 2012; Payne, 2008). These arguments suggest theoretically that sustaining alliances will deter rogue leaders from initiating civil unrest and human rights violations. Nevertheless, extended deterrence literature suggests that dissuading state discourse at the micro level between states has evolved at a macro level where leaders use collective security agreements as power projection platforms to prevent conflict and incidents of human rights violations (Cashman, 2014; Morgan, 2012). In today's environment, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and Warsaw Pact are examples of extended deterrence (Payne, 2008). Berejikian (2002) and Cashman (2014) posit that extended deterrence principles are recognized as a critical element of not only a nation's security apparatus but also international peace and security.

Conversely, Berejikian (2002) suggests "that the use of extended deterrence threats is alone insufficient to prevent conflict" (p. 179). Cashman (2014) and Wendt (1992) explain that general and extended deterrence models to dissuade a rogue leader or non-state actors from committing human rights violations are more likely to fail when leaders seek political and economic self-interests. The reason purported by Payne (2008) is that non-state actors and violent extremist organizations do "not fit the old target-based formula for deterrence or the familiar profile of the rational opponent embedded in the balance of terror tenets, so the a priori conclusion is that deterrence cannot be effective against terrorists" (p. 232). As stated previously, contributing to the extended deterrent challenge rests on the fact that rogue state leaders are unpredictable and irrational actors (Howlett, 2000; Larkin, 2011).

Deterrence scholars acknowledge that there are deterrence principles that overlap and when properly applied may strengthen the deterrence toolkit within the international criminal court. For example, themes across general and extended deterrence schemes comprise: 1) decisively influencing leaders' decision making calculus; 2) denying the cost-benefit of an aggressive action; 3) strategies are based on rational and irrational decision making; 4) actions based on consistent credible prevention strategies; and 5) strategies that were constructed based on Cold War conceptions (Lantis, 2009; Larkin, 2011; Schneider & Ellis, 2012; Scouras, Murphy & Perry, 2009). However, scholars agree that general and extended deterrence does not address the normative context and that a leader within the ICC needs to understand a rogue leader's collectivist cultural background as a way to shape the decision-making process toward a constructive outcome (Larkin, 2011; Schneider & Ellis, 2012). The general and extended deterrence constructs address neither the asymmetric leader preferences nor the unpredictability, intent, and motivation of a rogue leader's action into deterrence-oriented operational planning (Larkin, 2011; Morgan; 2012; Murphy, 2009; Schneider & Ellis, 2012). Lessons learned from general

and extended deterrence practitioners are that a deterrence framework based on symmetric warfare lays the foundations for critical assumptions shaped by personal biases, subjective viewpoints, and misinformation that may contribute to political and legal deterrence mistakes (Akhavan, 2009; Cashman, 2014; Corona, 2010).

Cashman (2014) reveals that there are no existing studies to test the add-value that transitioning from traditional to extended deterrence for the ICC will prevent conflict. There is limited empirical evidence to show that coalitions or alliances deter rogue leaders from committing acts of aggression or human rights violations (Cashman, 2014). That said, Morgan (2012) argues that extended deterrence “these days is an extension of, and a tool in upholding, an emerging version of international law and order and the continuing development of norms-transnational, international and domestic of proper behaviour” (p. 94). In fact, transitional justice scholars claim that, dependent on the context, where rogue leaders are uncooperative, threats of punishment by diplomatic and legal institutions fail. Furthermore, states lack the legal capacity and political in applying the use of extended deterrence, which may dissuade leaders from committing human rights violations (Akhavan, 2009; Huth, 1999, Kraska, 2007). Of course, the literature does not provide empirical studies, but describes that soft power measures rest with the power leadership dynamics that execute international shaming and political and economic isolation response measures by the international community and civil society organizations (Akhavan, 2009; Brandon & Seldman, 2004; Buckley-Zistel et al., 2014).

The literature on extended deterrence reveals that the political imbalance between the collective leadership capacity within the international community and the judicial actors’ capability to dissuade a rogue leader’s preferences contributes to the ineffectiveness of the court in preventing human rights violations committed as a means to meet political objectives (Akhavan, 2009; Buckley-Zistel et al., 2014; Lipman-Blumen, 2006; Lowther, 2013). In fact, Lowther (2013) and Morgan (2012) point out that to undertake the court’s challenge, deterrence strategies must be tailored using hard power and soft power to undertake current asymmetrical threats. That said, it is implied that, as the initiators of state discourse change, “critics are convinced that deterrence theory must be recreated, rather than simply patched, if it is to provide important guidance to statecraft hoping to avoid conflict” (Berejikian, 2002, p. 170). On the other hand, Braham (2007), Brinkerhoff (2011), and Lantis (2009) contend that non-state actors have no territorial boundaries. Unfortunately, state leaders have no legal authorities for containing violent extremist organizations (VEOs) that execute socio-ethnic tension, conflict, or commit human rights violations. Coercive diplomacy by domestic leaders is highly contextual (Lantis, 2009). In essence, deterrence of future conflict requires strategic leadership with an interplay between political ideological beliefs and elites’ strategic cultural interests (Lantis, 2009).

TAILORED DETERRENCE PRINCIPLES

Tailored deterrence is a relatively new concept and much of the theoretical framework is being applied by international military and security policymakers with no empirical analysis on the success or failure of its effects (Lantis, 2009). Tailored deterrence is defined as a flexible and adaptable international legal capability targeted toward specific non-state and state leaders to dissuade, prevent, and decisively influence perceptions and decision-making calculus of leaders from committing human rights violations in different situations (Chatagnier et al., 2012; Lantis, 2009; Larkin, 2011; McVicar, 2011). Reviewing the tailored deterrence and leadership literature, one could argue that integrating a process-based leadership principle into court policies necessitates judicial actors to create deterrence strategies designed around cultural knowledge, historical and organizational power structures, as well as adversarial leadership attributes (Heifetz et al., 2009; Ladkin, 2010; Larkin, 2011; Teital, 2008). “Process based leadership is based on the idea that an important part of the way that leaders lead is by motivating group members to act on their attitudes and values, leading to self-motivating and self-regulated behavior on the part of group members” (Tyler, 2008, p. 175). Basically, process based leadership is a process of actions and functions that are implemented throughout the organization, based on communication, accountability, and behavioral processes to achieve organizational goals and objectives (Tyler & Cremer, 2005).

The literature by Tyler (2008), Tyler and Cremer (2005) and Goethals (2008) posit that, as leader behavior and judgments are shaped by their own self-interests, process-based leadership enables an understanding of deterrence designs that direct psycho-social dynamics toward cooperating with social authorities. Additionally, they point out that theoretically exploring the social systems that entice and motivate rogue leaders is lacking empirical analysis (Cashman, 2014; De Grieff, 2009). Studies showed that the wicked problem to build tailored deterrence frameworks around non-state actors and violent extremist groups is contextually and politically impossible (Buckley-Zistel et al., 2014; Menkenhaus, 2010; Payne, 2008).

Scholars believe deterrence strategies that encourage a psycho-behavioral change away from ideological discourse or self-interest judgments by a rogue leader is the missing link to deterring perpetrators from commissioning acts of aggression (Goethals, 2008; Larkin, 2011; Tyler, 2008;). The work of Howlett (2006) and Wilner (2011) posit that the types of leadership reveal the diplomatic and political strategies that governmental leaders and elites use in delegitimizing, compellence of actions, and strategically communicating the intended consequences of committing acts of aggression. In fact, because any deterrence strategy is predominately political, the literature shows that understanding an adversarial leader’s attributes and individual leadership traits of judicial actors should be a central ingredient within the international

criminal court (McVicar, 2011; Morgan, 2012). The consensus among scholars is that different judicial processes and leadership strategic approaches will be needed to influence the adversarial leader behavior (Johnston, 1995; Paul, Morgan, & Wirtz, 2009). For this reason, it is important for judicial actors to recognize their own individual leadership traits; it not only will improve organizational performance but also lay the foundation to identify cultural influences and personality characteristics that make up rogue leaders' strategic leadership traits (McVicar, 2011).

Tailored deterrence requires a cadre of flexible, adaptable, and culturally acute strategic thinkers with the leadership traits to diplomatically shape the mindset of uncooperative rogue leaders to make them accountable for legacy human rights abuses (Aviolo, 2010; Bass & Bass, 2008; Cashman 2014; Lantis, 2009; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Tyler, 2008). This approach requires an analytical framework that builds a profile based on historical knowledge, socio-ethnic and cultural awareness, leadership profiles and decision-making structure, and religious and ideological information (Lantis, 2009; McVicar, 2011; Murphy, 2009). Review of the deterrence and transitional justice literature concludes that developing a tailored deterrence strategy to prevent violations of human rights is important for the ICC for three reasons (Clark, 2005; Kraska, 2007). First, legal analysts point out that the Rome Statute gives the Court broad prosecutorial latitude: "this ambiguity may leave some uncomfortable, but it is absolutely necessary to provide the ICC Prosecutor with the tools needed to ensure that justice appropriately tailored to the particular situation is done" (Clark, 2005, p. 414). Second, the reason to create a tailored deterrence strategy is that what deters one leader may not deter another leader but provoke it. Therefore, Payne (2008) and Schneider & Ellis (2012) argues that a need to strategically profile foreign leader's decision making, ideological and religious beliefs, and leadership traits cannot be overstated as a legal deterrence strategy. That said, the challenge for leaders within the international criminal court is how to develop deterrence strategies within the confines of national power politics, international law, and state sovereignty that legally dissuade, compel, and deter rogue leaders from commissioning acts of aggression (Gorno, 2012; Morgan, 2012; Schneider & Ellis, 2012).

Morgan (2012) suggests that leaders within the legal institutions need to readjust deterrence strategies by examining an adversarial leader and his/her impact on the current global threats. A tailorable and adaptable strategic profile that characterizes a rogue leader or violent extremist organization provides the international criminal court with an understanding of organizational leadership decision making structure, socio-political and ideological beliefs, and key situational assumptions and uncertainties (Cashman, 2014; Knopf, 2010; Larkin, 2011; Morgan, 2012). For example, it is important to understand the leadership characteristics, such as: How do past experiences, cultural influences, subgroup interests, and perceptions shape an individual rogue leader's decision making (Cashman, 2014; Morgan 2012)?

That said, understanding the decision making and how a rogue leader thinks have the potential to shape deterrence strategies that will deny socio-economic benefits, impose costs, and encourage restraint (Cashman, 2014; Ladkin, 2010; Larkin, 2011). Deterrence theorists and transitional justice practitioners argue that, as judicial actors recognize leadership traits as well as understand the decision making and how a rogue leader thinks, there is the potential to shape the international criminal court's deterrence strategies (Akhavan, 2009; Cashman, 2014; Larkin, 2011; Morgan, 2012). Given the diversity of cultural behavior and the use of judicial tools to dissuade or deny a rogue leader's preference and political-economic benefits from committing mass atrocities, an argument can be made that, as global leaders engage to restrain perpetrators from committing human rights violations, the international criminal court, with credible strategic communication strategies, can formulate tailored deterrence mechanisms to fit the actor and adapt to the situation (Bunn, 2007; Murphy, 2009; Paul et al., 2009; Wilner, 2011).

Previously stated, the reason for a tailored deterrence strategy is the prosecutorial latitude and what deters one leader may provoke another leader. The third reason is that a tailored deterrence strategy by the ICC requires leaders to depersonalize the conflict in creating, executing, and assessing the steady state transitional justice instruments (Heifetz et al., 2009; Payne, 2008; Useem, 2010). In dissuading, deterring, and compelling asymmetric threats by rogue leaders, the success or failure is contingent on the sequencing strategy that specifically targets the cultural ideology, leader attributes, and political power architecture without demonizing a perpetrator's ideological, political, and religious beliefs. At the same time, addressing the complexities of power relationships among leaders in the commission of human rights violations (Akhavan, 2009; Brandon & Selman, 2006; Gerzon, 2006; Javidan, Dorfman, Howell, & Hanges, 2010; Larkin, 2011; Morgan, 2012). Blaney (2010) states that "the sequencing of all the elements of a successful peace process will differ by case, with a key variable being the complexity of the situation at hand and the corresponding leadership and policy approach that must be tailored to fit" (p. 109). That said, the literature calls for innovative deterrence strategies that create denial strategies through international legal instruments. Review of the deterrence literature concludes strategic profiles that link judicial practices with strategic cultural frameworks and strategic leadership profiles may decisively shape choices made by non-state and state leaders (Larkin, 2011; McVicar, 2011; Schneider & Ellis, 2012; Scouras et al., 2009). Thus, innovative and systematic relational approaches that decisively influence a rogue leader's political leadership and decision-making calculus call for judicial actors within the international criminal court to think outside the box using a combination of hard and soft power leadership approaches, (Chatagnier et al. 2012; DePew, 2011; Warden, 2011; Ladkin, 2010).

STRATEGIC CULTURE

Tailored deterrence strategies take a more holistic and systematic approach that examines not only universal, cultural, and contextually threat-based strategies but also leaders' preferences across the full spectrum of political, economic, legal, and security domains to decisively influence or compel a rogue leader from committing acts of aggression and human rights violations (Delpech, 2012; Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009; Morgan, 2012; Payne, 2008). Lantis (2009) and Larkin (2011) acknowledge that determined leadership traits and competences are a critical element of any tailored deterrence framework. To illustrate, leadership scholars argue that national culture influences the interpersonal skills, relational management, and cultural intelligence of global leaders toward forming diplomatic and political relationships (DePew, 2011; Heifetz et al., 2009; Ladkin, 2010; Menhenhall et al., 2013; Porter & Noihria, 2010). Transitional justice practitioners link culture, deterrence, and leadership as vital components in mediating the power distance of political, economic, legal, and security relationships in a post conflict environment (Cashman, 2014; Lantis, 2009; Javidan et al., 2010).

Tailored deterrence theorists agree that as adversarial political leaders are identified, it is recognized that leaders use culture narratives to legitimize their own political and ideological objectives (Lantis, 2009; Paul et al., 2009; Wilner, 2011). Therefore, one could argue that strategic culture is an enabler as policymakers shape coercive diplomatic strategies in today's military, security, and judicial environments (Buckley-Zistel et al., 2014; Howlett, 2006). The work by Howlett (2006) argues that "areas where strategic culture can contribute to policymaking are: in the policy analysis of threats; in considering the cultural context where conflict is underway; and in negotiations aimed at inducing peaceful relations" (Howlett, 2006, p. 3, 4). Early research by Johnston (1995) defined strategic culture as

an integrated "system of symbols" (argumentation, structure, languages, analogies, metaphors) which acts to establish pervasive and long standing strategic preferences by formulating concepts of the role and efficacy of military force in interstate political affairs, and by clothing these conceptions with such an aura of factuality that the strategic preferences seem uniquely realistic and efficacious. (p. 46)

Lantis (2009) expanded this definition to include "shared beliefs, assumptions and modes of behavior, derived from common experiences and accepted narratives that shape collective identity and relationship to other groups and which determine appropriate ends and means for achieving security objectives" (p. 469). Basically, strategic culture refers to the impact of cultural knowledge on strategy and security policy which includes historical narratives, philosophical traditions, and societal

norms. The literature describes strategic culture as a conceptual challenge to theoretically understand and define because it comprises interpreting human behavior and its meaning to the world within a societal context (Kim, 2009; Wildner, 2011). Therefore, leaders within the court that possess the intercultural traits and competences that reach across geographical boundaries understand the complexity of leader behavior and communication patterns, constructively negotiate different perspectives, and adjust deterrence strategies to different cultures (Irving, 2010; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Paige, Cassuto, Yershov, DeJaeghere, 2003; Ramthun & Matkin, 2012). Thus, leadership scholars, transitional justice practitioners, and deterrence theorists identify the knowledge of intercultural skills and competences as a critical ingredient to integrate strategic culture models into deterrence strategies within the international criminal court (Lantis, 2009; Paige et al., 2003; Ramthun & Matkin, 2012). However, as mentioned above, deterrence theory is based on intuition by strategic policymakers to deter political-military actions by a state or violent extremist organization from committing human rights violations rather than theoretical evaluations (Lantis, 2009; Nagin, 2012; Wilner, 2011). Nevertheless, it is believed that strategic culture models may work best not only against autocratic leaders where there is a singular ideological belief system, political command and control structure, and economic interests but also in our understanding of culture as a weapon of power that rogue leaders employ in the proliferation of state discourse (Lantis, 2009; Paul et al., 2009; Zaman, 2009).

Recent research shows that, as tailored strategic cultural models are integrated into deterrence strategies, the cultural knowledge to compel states or violent extremist groups into strategic plans stage could be an important ingredient of the international criminal court's deterrence strategy (Heifetz et al., 2009). Mendenhall et al. (2013) describes cultural intelligence as a critical leadership trait for global leaders in order to strategically navigate through the cultural norms in the planning interaction between transnational actors. Thus, within a global context an argument can be made that creating the solution space to understand the socio-cultural transmission of ideological tension changes in the judicial environment to develop strategic choices across institutional orientations (Allard, 2012; Howlett, 2006; Paul et al., 2009; Wilner, 2011). Furthermore, research points out that even without a purposeful understanding of how the strategic culture sets the conditions for the international court to influence a state or violent extremist group, a deterrence strategic plan can nevertheless be shaped for how the international courts can credibly respond to human rights violations (Lantis, 2009; Wilner, 2011).

The flaw acknowledged by scholars is that political leaders with ideological, religious, and socio-cultural interests "or psychological goals, such as self respect, dignity, and ethnic pride, for which individuals are willing to sacrifice everything including their lives, even though from an instrumental perspective it may make

little sense to behave that way” (Paul et al., 2009, p 96). In fact, the literature explains that deterrence theorists believe inclusion of strategic culture may have no appreciable value in compelling a state leader or violent extremist group to restrain from aggressive actions (Lantis, 2009; Wildner, 2011). It is believed by international relations theorists and transitional justice researchers that states are rational actors and strategic culture models within tailored deterrence strategies are controversial (Buckley-Zistel et al., 2014; Lantis, 2007; Paul et al., 2009; Wilner, 2011). The reason as previously referenced with the Israeli and Palestinian issue, is put forth by Braham (2007), Brinkerhoff (2011), and Lantis (2009), argue non-state actors have no territorial boundaries or legitimate governmental structure. Thus, violent extremist organizations have no legal authorities. It is extremely difficult to contain the actions of non-state leaders in the execution of conflict over socio-ethnic tension. More problematic is that coercive diplomacy rogue leaders or violent extremist organizations is highly contextual (Fletcher et al., 2009; Knudson & Hanafi, 2013; Lantis, 2009). Therefore, to meet the international court’s deterrence mandate, Eberlin and Tatum (2008) conducted qualitative studies showing that transactional leadership tools rated high as court leaders constructively negotiated trade-off agreements and reframed a rogue leader’s decision-making style against ingrained political ideological beliefs and strategic cultural interests.

The success and failure of a tailored deterrence strategy calls for strategic cultural instruments where court leaders depend not only on the strategic approach but also are influenced by the myriad of human variables of irrationality and decision-making processes by rogue state actors (Buckley-Zistel et al., 2014; Lantis, 2007; Wilner, 2011). On the other hand, tailored deterrent opponents assert that violent extremist organizations with pervasive ideation of ethnic, religious, and political ideological discourse are undeterrable (Wilner, 2011). Studies show that with the complexity of strategic deterrence structures, legal scholars and deterrence theorists call for court leaders to have intercultural traits and competences with the glocal mindset to understand and manage the interpretation of storytelling, the cultural empathy of navigating victims through the judicial process, and have the ability to build the cultural relationships to mediate discourse between the perpetrators’ interests and the victims of human rights violations (Blum, 2014; Javidan et al., 2010; Johnston, 1995; Mendenhall et al., 2013).

Judicial actors who comprehend the dynamics of cultural diversity and its impact on the international court are more critical within today’s international judicial environment than ever before (Avolio, Walumbua, & Weber, 2009; Bass & Bass, 2008; McVicar, 2011; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Paige et al., 2003). Research by Ramierz-Barat (2014) points out that “culture does play an important role in transitional processes” (p. 43). However, under the court leadership and management assessment within the International Framework for Court Excellence (2013), cultural

awareness is not mentioned (Glanfield, Hall, & Marie, 2013). Additionally, review of the nomination process for the Office of the Prosecutor, Judges, Registry, and their deputies within the tripartite organs showed that intercultural competency and awareness was not identified as a leadership trait or legal competency within an international court. For example, Article 54 of the Rome Statute and Rule 88 of the ICC evidence describe the Office of the Prosecutor Victims and Witness Unit and Defense lawyers' need to take into account the victims' view by respecting the rights of victims (Groenhuijsen & Letschert, 2012). "Trials establish the facts using judicial techniques, which may be inadequate to acknowledge the personal, cultural, or psychological experiences of victims" (Gonzalez & Varney, 2013, p. 4). Thus, leadership and deterrence scholars agree that strategic culture is the centerpiece to understanding an adversary's preferences in the development of tailored deterrence planning. Basically, transitional justice and deterrence research by Buckey-Zistel et al. (2014), Cashman (2014), and Ostrom, Hansom, Ostrom, & Kleiman, (2005) argues that cultural awareness and intercultural competences transcend a court culture, but facilitate the tripartite organs of the International Criminal Court to tailor credible deterrence measures based on ethnic, religious, political, and ideological preferences.

Empirical evidence suggests that leader personality traits have a direct impact on judicial culture and strategic outcomes (Bass & Bass, 2008; Ostrom et al., 2005; Ostrom, Hansom, Ostrom, & Kleiman, 2013). In a field study, Ostrom et al. (2013) and Ostrom et al. (2005) statistically measured the judicial culture of n=12 courts using the Court Culture Assessment Instrument to assess judge-staff relations, change management, priority that judges place on interpersonal communications, effectiveness of strategic leadership in relationship to meeting organizational goals, and staff job satisfaction. Using the results from courts geographically dispersed, the researchers divided the courts into four cultural quadrants: communal, networked, autonomous, and hierarchical along a vertical sociability axis and a horizontal solidarity axis. They discovered that a judge and prosecutor worldview and cultural sensitivities matter in the way an international judicial environment operates. Ostrom et al. (2005) reported that "to examine cultural implications for broader performance goals, we sought attorneys' assessment of how well courts in which they practice achieve the goals of access, fairness, and managerial effectiveness" (Ostrom et al., 2005, p. 20). They reported that adversarial relations occur between prosecutors are only interested in convictions under current international law, while defense attorneys seek protection of accused rights, and judges interpret, arbitrate, and decide cases. Moreover, Ostrom et al. (2005) reported that prosecutors view that judges lead and direct court support staff, network and develop relationships among prosecutors and defense attorneys, and foster predictability over time of court operations. More importantly, the themes within the study emphasized that trust, judicial independence, strategic vision with established organizational goals and

performance standards, integrity, boundary-spanning skills, cooperative working relationships, and accountability are characteristics of effective judicial staffs. Transitional justice practitioners and leadership scholars clearly point out that “one-size-fit-all” does not work in leading an organization or developing judicial strategies to deter human rights violations (Mendenhall et al., 2013; Ostrom et al., 2013; Shoemaker, Krupp, & Howland, 2013). Post conflict institutions policy analysts are concerned with respect to Syria’s efforts in reconstructing the country, the mix of balancing peace and security may give way to standardized transitional justice and rule of law forms of justice (Rostow, 2013). Rostow (2013) points out “that a one-size-fits-all approach does not work. Local actors must be involved from the start (p. 3). The significance of embedding strategic culture into a deterrence strategy is for leaders within the international court to examine the implications of deterrence actions by judicial actors both on the individual level and societal level. “Rarely will a judge, entire bench, or senior administrators be wholly wrapped up in the ideas and values of just one culture” (Ostrom et al., 2005, p. 22). That said, the development of intercultural competency and individual traits is a critical ingredient of international judicial actors within the transitional justice system.

STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP

Literature points out that strategic leadership is anchored in the organizational operations inside the ICC tripartite organs (Glanfield et al., 2013). Delpuch (2012) and McVicar (2011) point out that in all forms of deterrence, strategic leadership plays a critical role. Strategic leadership is defined as “individuals and collectives enact strategic leadership when they think, act, and influence others in ways that promote the enduring direction alignment, and commitment of the organization” (Van Velsor et al., 2010, p. 314). McKinney (2007) notes “strategic leadership is the leader’s ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessary” (p. 4). According to Ramthun and Matkin (2012) shared leadership is “a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups where members lead one another to achieve organizational objectives” (p. 306). In the interest of clarity, review of the leadership and deterrence literature argues that top management of the tripartite organs has a strategic and shared leadership role in constructing the application of tailored deterrence methods (Mendenhall et al., 2013). It is important to assert here, by examining the literature, that the leadership role shared by the tripartite organs involve cultivating an organizational strategic vision, mission, ethical standards, and performance objectives. The strategic leadership role of international judicial actors comprises the ability to:

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1. lead, inspire, and focus a multi-disciplinary team on the influence of political dynamics on judicial actions
2. anticipate and resolve conflict in the application of deterrence strategies
3. balance the internal and external political dynamics with judicial rule of law frameworks
4. manage the behavior and social complexity of ethnic sensitivities
5. have the strategic foresight to identify, navigate, and implement long term solutions
6. utilize organizational flexibility to adapt to uncertainties
7. manage the ambiguity of political interests among post conflict leaders, civil society, and local judicial institutions (Germaine, 2012; Hames, 2007; Judge et al., 2009; Morrisette & Oberman, 2013; Shoemaker et al., 2012; Zaccaro, 2007).

The former Office of the Prosecutor Louis Moreno-Ocampo (2009) asserts “the court is a judicial institution operating in a highly political environment” (p. 6). Moreno-Ocampo (2009) points out that as states utilize the legal tools to protect citizens and territory, the court has not only altered military operational rules of engagement but also reshaped conflict resolution strategies and the impact of global judicial processes. However, Alexander (2009) and Moreno-Ocampo (2009) report that within a situational context, political disagreements within the tripartite organs over comprehensive strategies that integrate prevention or prosecution of perpetrators who commit human rights violations shape the internal and external credibility of the court. To illustrate, Bass and Bass (2008), Germaine (2012), Geyh (2011), Moreno-Ocampo (2009), and Shoemaker et al. (2013) reveal that, depending on the situational context, tension arises between tripartite organs when comprehensive judicial strategies are short term centered on the Court’s legal argument rather than focused on the long-term implications of diplomatic statecraft and victim rights. Schiff (2008) notes that the strategic leadership challenge within the tripartite organs revolves around loosely confederated organizations with not only different missions and mandates within the Rome Statute but also the seeking of common international justice objectives.

McVicar (2011) clearly notes that a strategic leadership profile oriented toward the rogue leaders’ leadership characteristics enables judicial actors to understand and direct actions that will influence how violent extremist groups think in order for the ICC to meet its deterrence objectives. For example, McVicar (2011) states that “Bin Laden was the model Islamist who possessed charismatic and authoritarian leadership, depended upon a disciplined inner core of adherents, and promoted a rigorous socio-moral code for all followers” (p. 7). Arguably, suggestions put forward by US policy analysts are that if a strategic profile that linked Bin Laden’s

adversarial behavior, capability, and power base had been developed and distributed to national and international security strategists. Many argue the events leading up to the September 11, 2001 attacks could have been deterred. That said, many scholars believe that, while it is critical to differentiate preferences among violent extremist groups, one of the key uncertainties of strategic leadership within tailored deterrence planning is understanding the leaders' preferences, decision making structures, leadership traits and style, and intercultural messaging (Cashman, 2014; Germain, 2012; Irving, 2010; Lantis, 2006; McVicar, 2011; Paul et al., 2009; Wilner, 2011). More importantly, a leader's decision based on professional experience, technical expertise, and external advice impacts actions internal and external to the organization. Thus, McVicar (2011) asserts that understanding the impact that a leader's personality has on the strategic makeup and organizational culture is critical to developing a violent extremist organizational strategic profile.

Research by Mendenhall et al. (2013) and Schiff (2008) report that top management teams within the international criminal court are loosely confederated as organizational units. In the same way, these organizational units operate with different operational and organizational cultures, adding to the complexity of operations and potentially asserting conflicting multi-disciplinary viewpoints as these units make an effort to accomplish the mandate presented to the ICC (Bass & Bass, 2008; Schiff, 2008). Many legal scholars and tailored deterrence practitioners argue that it is important to expand one's legal technical skills and cooperative relationships in an effort to integrate shared goals, common tasks, and decision making into operational judicial planning. Therefore, developing a strategic leader profile of a rogue leader individual leadership traits and competencies is critical to the strategic prosecutorial and deterrence strategies within the ICC (Ambos, 2009; Bass & Bass, 2008; Del Preore, 2012; DePew, 2011; Geyh, 2011; Goleman, 2006; Shoemaker et al., 2013). In the final analysis, the challenge of finding political commonalities is to synchronize and align conflicting operational strategies, which takes leaders within the judicial environment to muster the political will to overcome individual self-interests, develop confidence building measures through teaming between organs, and set aside political posturing in an effort to deterring, apprehending, and prosecuting perpetrators of human rights violations (Bass & Bass, 2008; Geyh, 2011; Goleman, 2006; Lipman-Blumen, 2000; Shoemaker et al., 2013). Leadership theorists believe that strategic leaders develop the institutional vision to strategically navigate through the complexity of ICC organizational and operational activity (Bolman & Deal, 2007; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Shoemaker et al., 2013). In the same way, strategic leaders bring people together to resolve conflict, sustain integrity and ethical behavior from the pressure of outside influences. Strategic leaders possess the flexibility to adapt within a complex judicial landscape toward tailoring deterrence strategies and organizational challenges.

The leadership literature shows that attributes of strategic leaders include strategic foresight, building coalitions, boundary spanning across organizations, intellectual agility, ethical behavior, diplomacy, political engagement, problem solving skills, and the emotional, social, and intellectual intelligence to manage ambiguity (Bass & Bass, 2008; Goleman, 2006; Lamb, 2009; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Shoemaker et al., 2013; Zaccaro, 2007). In other words, top-down strategic leadership that provides the organizational vision not only clearly articulates and aligns measure of effectiveness and measure of performance objectives with organizational goals but also build teams that are multi-dimensional, responsive to complex situations, and adaptable to changes that influence internal and external political, social, and judicial environments (Bass & Bass, 2008; Mendenhall et al., 2013; Zaccaro, 2007). Exploring these individual leadership attributes is key to understanding court performance of judicial actors within the international criminal court (Harper & Finkle, 2012; Ostrom et al., 2005).

CONCLUSION

In this article, the author presented leadership ingredients that play an important role in shaping a deterrence strategy within the transitional justice system. Developing empirical data to support deterrence strategies is not only problematic and poor, the means to deter, dissuade, and prevent human rights violation commissioned by non-state actors and rogue leaders are legally unrealistic. However, it was suggested that nothing is predictable in any deterrence campaign and that political leadership ingredients mixed with deterrence elements plays an important role in promoting the legitimacy and credibility of international legal instruments. In fact, the article posits what deters one leader may not deter another but provoke it. That said, as the diffusion of geopolitics transition from state leaders to non-state leaders continue, the need to integrate strategic cultural and strategic leadership profiles into deterrence planning constructs cannot be overstated. The reason is that these strategic profiles enable the judicial actors within the international criminal court to shape and influence deterrence strategies that are reflective of the rogue leaders' individual preferences in dissuading the commission of human rights violations.

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Chapter 8

Mitigation of Conflicts in Academic Institutions: A Study

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ABSTRACT

Conflicts arise in academic institutions due to many reasons, which are counterproductive and have to be resolved. Conflicts arise due to lack of communication, missing authority, and not properly assigning responsibilities. Hence, the tools and techniques to resolve conflicts are evident. Conflict resolution is a daunting task. One of the important reasons for conflicts is the lack of proper communication between the members in the hierarchy, which has to be addressed. Conflict management can be done effectively by enhancing communication between all stakeholders and by training all those who are involved. Mitigation and resolving conflicts should always be the major focus activities. In academia, conflicts often take place between the faculty, students, and the administration. Differences in goals, misinterpretation of institutional rules, breaches of contracts, power struggles, and personal antagonisms are all possible sources of conflict. In this chapter, the authors examine how conflicts can arise in academic institutions and how they can be effectively managed and resolved.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Conflicts are bound to occur in all systems involving human beings. Several studies by different scholars across the globe suggest that conflict can both be constructive and destructive, at the same time. Constructive conflict is also as known as functional conflict. On the other hand, “destructive conflict” is known as “dysfunctional conflict”. Functional conflict is termed as “*constructive challenging of ideas, beliefs, and assumptions, and respect for others’ viewpoints even when parties disagree*” (Massey & Dawes, 2007). The functional conflict is often viewed as having a positive impact on the organization and is hence desirable. However, the dysfunctional conflict is generally viewed as damaging to the overall goals of the organization. Hence it is, by and large, unwarranted in organizations. The dysfunctional conflict tends to increase dissatisfaction among employees and employers. It decreases the affective well-being of the employees and is diminutive to the organizational efficacy (Rahim, 2000; Guerra et al., 2005). It is self evident that functional (constructive) conflicts are to be encouraged in organizations, where as dysfunctional (destructive) conflicts are to be curtailed for the smooth transactional flow and increased productivity.

In this chapter, we mainly focus on the conflicts that may arise in educational environments and means and ways to mitigate them. It is interesting to note that educational ecosystems are characterised by a group of individuals who function collectively with a common goal which is mostly academic and research oriented. The productivity of an academic system is monitored by the number of “*successful*” candidates it produces every year, making use of the available resources, including the human resources. Research institutions are closely same in outcomes, where the number of intellectual property produced every year is the measure of performance. In modern educational systems, both pedagogy (conventional teaching-learning process) and research had some semblance and quite often they are of complementary nature. Note that most modern ranking frame works of academic institutions always count the number of successful, employable candidates produced as well as the quantity and quality of intellectual property owned by the institution, which include number of patents filed, books and journals published and technology transfers done and so on. It is apparent that mitigation of dysfunctional conflicts in academic institutions is of high priority to enhance the outcome of the institutions.

1.1 Sources of Conflicts in Academic Organizations

Conflicts often arise due to lack of communication among the people involved; or due to the inadequacy of communication. The reason for the same can be improper transactions, both verbal and written, due to the mismatch in the perception and linguistic abilities of the speaker and the listener. It can also be caused by inadequate

personal connection between the speaker and the listener-often caused by the egoistic clashes between the two. It is interesting to note that both oral and written communications are plagued by dysfunctional delivery of information. This can lead to conflicts, which is almost always dysfunctional. As mentioned earlier, dysfunctional (destructive) conflicts are to be mitigated at any cost in an organization to enhance productivity. This is quite true even in the case of academic institutions.

Lack of authority and breach of hierarchy can also result in dysfunctional conflicts. People tend to hear what they are interested to hear, rather than what is really communicated. Several psychological studies have shown that the nonverbal cues of the speaker (generally considered as the body language) affect the ultimate information conveyed.

1.2 The 7 Signs of Dysfunctional Conflicts in an Organization

The human resources experts have identified the following seven signs of functionally dysfunctional organizations. They are:

- Departmental wins versus organization losses.
- Decision making tends to a halt in absence of senior leaders in hierarchy.
- Competing interests or conflicts in goals.
- Lack of clear organizational vision or strategy.
- Personal arguments versus constructive debate.
- Lack of clarity around processes and desired outcomes.
- Paralysis by analysis permeates throughout the organization.

The above seven symptoms of dysfunctional organizations were first identified by Scott Boulton, in 2013. It is imperative that functionally dysfunctional organizations exist due to the reason that dysfunctional conflicts are highly prevalent in such organizations. The aforesaid signs are indicative of counter productivity or presence of dysfunctional conflict in the organization. The education managers should intervene at the appropriate time to properly manage and resolve the dysfunctional conflict at the earliest possible. The timely management of conflicts is very important and often an effective management only can limit the counterproductive results of conflicts.

1.3 Differences Between Functional and Dysfunctional Conflicts

There are mainly two types of conflicts that can occur within academic institution-functional and dysfunctional conflicts. Although people often think of it as a bad sign, conflicts can be a positive occurrence within an organization to bring about change

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within the organization. The derogatory conflicts, often termed dysfunctional (negative or destructive conflicts) and functional conflicts (positive or constructive conflicts) are quite often visible in any organization. The healthy, constructive disagreement between individuals or groups is called functional conflict (or constructive conflicts). On the other hand, the unhealthy, destructive disagreement between individuals or groups within an organization is termed as dysfunctional (negative, destructive) conflict. The merits of functional conflict include the following:

- A detailed awareness of the different perspectives of an issue; thus knowing it better and fairer.
- By accomplishing the solutions for the conflicts together results in improvement of working conditions within the organization.
- Enhancement in the overall morale of the employees, by solving the issues together.
- Positive conflicts quite often results in innovations and improvements within an organization.

It may also be noted that constructive criticism and open discussions result in consensus solutions between the parties involved. We will now examine the top five college-colleague conflicts and techniques to alleviate them.

1.4 The Top Five College-Colleague Conflicts and How to Alleviate Them

In this subsection, we will discuss the top five college-colleague conflicts and methods to avoid them smoothly (Stephanie Jankowski, 2017).

- A newbie is written off as inexperienced. One way to win over your new colleagues is to let your acts do the publicity for you. Convincing your colleague with your prompt actions and problem solving skills is more worthwhile than your words. It may be emphasized that, the newbie, though inexperienced can contribute significantly to the organizational goals as he/she is gifted with the faculty of “out of the box thinking”. The ideas that he/she are not plagued by the limitations of conventional thinking. The newbies have to work harder and more efficiently to obtain the approval and recognition from their peers and superiors in the institution.
- There is inconsistency among teachers. In an academic environment one often finds lots of inconsistency in performance. The solution is to involve someone, who is unbiased, like the superior to mediate. It is also noteworthy that the courses dealt with are having different comprehensive levels and

difficulties. Hence, a common tool to compare the performances is grossly unfair.

- One can get along with the Principal, but they treat others poorly. One method to avoid such a situation is to use humour and speak up your mind. Getting along with your peers will not be easier without humour. Also opening up and expressing oneself in clear terms help.
- Teaching as a team is not paying. This often happens in many academic environments. The solution is to try a new approach. Changing the styles in pedagogy will help. Do not forget that modern student centric pedagogy emphasizes on team activities. If you are persistent, it will definitely improve the situation. Modern pedagogy styles such as *flipped class rooms* and *experiential learning* give high rewards.
- Blatant nepotism is playing hell. Such situations are quite difficult to handle. Use your tact to react. Decide when it is worth to fight and when not to. Like in any other organizations, nepotism can play havoc in an academic institution too. Being tactful always pays. One should clearly identify situations when to react and when not to.

To summarize, indulging in a cordial, healthy, and humorous healthy, professional relationship with your colleagues in the college will definitely mitigate the evil effects of dysfunctional conflict in educational institutions.

2.0 DYSFUNCTIONAL CONFLICT IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS-OCCURRENCE AND MITIGATION

The widely accepted definition of conflict is that it is a situation where in one of the parties involved in it thinks that his/her own interests are vehemently rejected or negatively overpowered by some other individual or group in the organization (James A. Wall, Jr. & Ronda Roberts Callister, 1995). Conflict originates from lack of communication. Summarily, poor communication is one of the major causes of conflict between different strata of employees in the workplace. Academic institutions are no way free of this aspect. Conflicts have been a common feature in the teaching, learning and administrative tasks undertaken in educational institutions. The causes of these conflicts are varied. Some may be as a result of differences in goals, personality, cultural barriers etc. How can the conflicts in educational institutions be proficiently managed to boost productivity in teaching, learning and administrative duties? What are the merits and demerits of conflicts? It is also noteworthy that in an academic environment conflicts can occur at various levels and between entities.

The conflicts in academia lead to considerable uncertainty. It leaves many researchers and educational administrators ponder about its relevance; and ways and means to tackle it. It is well known that conflicts are, by and large, unavoidable in human life. They are quietly so even in organizations or even between nations. “Conflict is an inseparable aspect of people’s as well as organizations’ life” (Bernard & Ashimi, 2014). Over the years, researchers categorized conflict management styles into five-“competitor, collaborator, compromiser, accommodator, and avoider”. This was primarily based on the research of Hocker and Wilmot (1985). According to Coser (1967), “conflict is a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure or eliminate the rivals”. It was Coser who first determined the two different types of conflict and their roles in organizations, viz. *the functional and dysfunctional conflicts*. From the perspective of communication styles, conflicts can be defined as “*an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards and interference from other parties in achieving their goals*” (Hocker and Wilmot, 1985). Conflicts can arise on the basis of factional disagreements among individuals, departments, and between employee unions and management. The conflicts often takes various shapes and shades including interpersonal rivalries, jealousies, clashes between different personalities, definitions of roles. Individuals struggle for power and favour finally crystallizes into interpersonal conflicts. It is also possible that an individual can develop internal conflicts in his/her personality. There can be conflicts between the needs and personal demands, to which the response of an individual can be largely different.

The dysfunctional conflicts are counterproductive and disruptive. They should be curtailed for the betterment of organizational efficacy. We will now ponder on the various methods to mitigate dysfunctional conflicts in academia. One of the major reasons for dysfunctional conflicts is lack of communication or its inadequacy. Clearing the communication channels and encouraging more fruitful interpersonal relationships may alleviate dysfunctional conflicts to some extent. Constant retraining is one way to achieve this. Also, fostering more cordial interpersonal relations will also help to a larger extent. Creating a proper hierarchy and transgressing the vision and mission of the academic institution among all stakeholders is yet another important point to be taken care of. Moreover, whenever conflicts occur between peers or entities at different levels, a mediator should be available in close proximity to resolve the conflict amicably. Continuous, coordinated interactions between members of assorted groups of employees may lead to the development of “*cross-functional relationships*” (CFRs), which are highly essential to the internal coordination and efficient operation of firms (Massey & Dawes, 2007). The Cross Functional Relationships (CFRs) can be considered to be fruitful and effective if there exist very low dysfunctional conflict in the institution. Thus high levels

of productive conflict exist in the organization which leads to a high perceived effectiveness in interpersonal relationships.

Depending on the organizational culture, the members of an organization will be more or less tolerant towards open discussions and criticisms that may arise. *“Organizational culture is often defined in terms of core values, behavioral norms, artifacts, and behavioral patterns, which govern the ways people in an organization interact with each other and invest energy in their jobs and the organization at large”*. Organizational culture becomes evident in the styles the management adopt to resolve or mitigate the conflicts that may arise in the institution.

There are subtle differences in the practices prevailing for the management of human resources in private and public academic institutions. For example, in a public academic institution, educational managers take less prudence in exercising leadership than in private organizations. It may also be noted that the core responsibilities are well defined, authority and accountability are well documented in policies, procedures, and job descriptions. Moreover, the remuneration does not largely depend on leader recommendations (Guerra et al., 2005) in public academic organizations. Apart from that, public organizations have less flexibility in their compensation packages. They have more specialized and rigorous job specifications, higher levels of accountability, more rules and regulations, weaker association to political and career-level leaders, and an absence of incentives related to market. In contrast, in private academic institutions, the rules and regulations are less evident, and often vague, and the decision making is more dependent on the top management.

3.0 FUNCTIONAL CONFLICT-HOW IT CAN BOOST OVERALL EFFICACY OF AN ACADEMIC INSTITUTION?

It was the great George Bernard Shaw, who once said *“he who can, does; he who cannot, teaches”*. This statement has a wider acceptance and credence among intellectuals and other educated sections of the society. Having said that, the conflicts in academia generally result from the undue competition for leadership style, domination, and the lack of ordinary resources. *“If a conflict is not resolved in time and not managed properly, it can lead to low productivity or poor delivery of services”* (Bernard & Ashimi, 2014). It is also found out that if managed effectively and well, certain conflicts can sometimes produce positive results. Conflicts are seemingly unavoidable. Hence it is obviously necessary by the management to identify and recognize the sources of the conflicts, to analyze constructive and destructive potential of conflicts, to learn how to mitigate them, and finally to implement conflict resolution mechanisms effectively (Fleetwood, 1987).

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The functional conflicts are now considered as having the potential for positive productive contributions to the overall goals of the organization. Researchers Deetz and Stevenson (1986), suggested three assumptions that imply that conflicts can be creative. Deetz and Stevenson suggested that management of conflict is a more useful notion of the process of resolution of conflicts. The three postulates of conflicts are:

1. Conflicts are natural and inevitable.
2. Conflicts are more or less good and necessary; and
3. Most conflicts are based on real differences.

The notion that conflict is good and necessary is due to the fact that conflict can, when properly managed, stimulate and promote innovative thinking. In the absence of conflicts, thoughts and actions take place because they are spontaneous. Conflicts demand a more closer look into the inevitability of these thoughts and actions. The third postulate implies that people are often sceptical in recognizing that legitimate differences that do exist in any organizational setup. People tend to blame conflicts on poor or nil communication. *“It may seem easier to live with unresolved misunderstanding than to face the fact that real, fundamental differences do exist and so demand recognition and management”* (Deetz & Stevenson, 1986)

Certain studies by various researchers across the globe have shown that sometimes conflicts may increase creativity and quality of jobs within an organization (e.g., Amason, 1996; Nemeth, 1986). Sometimes, conflicts may also enhance managerial effectiveness and development. De Dreu, Harinck, and Van Vianen (1999) have postulated four factors that may clement the results of conflict stimulation: (a) conflict experience, which refers to feelings and intentions associated to conflict; (b) conflict management, which refers to those behaviours or set of behaviours aimed at the escalation, diminution, or resolving of the conflict; (c) conflict results, which refers to the extent to which an agreement is reached, and the quality of this agreement; and (d) types of conflict, which refers to the explicit issues that resulted in the disagreements.

3.1 Benefits of Conflict (Bernard & Ashimi, 2014)

The benefits of conflict include the following:

- Conflicts often motivate people in an institution to perform more effectively and work harder. In a conflicting situation, the latent talents and abilities of an individual come to the forefront.
- Conflicts tend to satisfy certain psychological needs in human beings such as dominance, aggression, self esteem and ego, and thereby provide an

opportunity for the constructive use and release of aggressive personality traits.

- Conflicts result in nurturing creative and innovative ideas. To cite an example, benefits that are enjoyed by the employees today, are the outcome of the conflicts existed between employee unions and managements in the past few decades.
- Conflicts often add more variety and vigour to organizational life of an employee. The work life would be rather insipid without conflicts.
- Conflicts facilitate a detailed understanding of the underlying issues and problems. They also foster more cordial relationships among individuals and departments.

3.2 Dysfunctional Effects of Conflicts (Bernard & Ashimi, 2014)

The destructive effects of conflicts are the following:

- Conflicts affect performance of individuals and organizations adversely. Lots of time and energy is wasted in resolving conflicts, which could have otherwise been spent more productively.
- Conflicting situations often tend to promote personal gains of individuals. This will be often at the cost of interests of others.
- Long spells of severe conflicts may take a toll on the emotional and physical health of individuals. Conflicts, existent for a long time, may lead to psychosomatic disorders.
- Quite often, the time spent on resolving conflicts could be channelled out in completing more productive work.
- Conflicts lead to disruption of tasks, and deterioration of morale of employees. Eventually, it may result in decline in the market share of products or services. It can also result in consequent loss of productivity.

4.0 MANAGING CONFLICTS IN ACADEMIA

It is now apparent that conflicts are inevitable in any organization. We will now investigate means to manage conflicts in academia. It may be noted that in academia the following three types of conflicts may rise- *conflicts in task*, which relates to the content and goals of the work assigned to an employee; *conflicts in relationships*, which focuses on interpersonal relationships within an organization; and *conflicts in processes*, which relates to how the work gets done. Educating and empowering individuals help a lot in mitigating conflicts in academic institutions. Refresher

courses and fostering better interpersonal relationships will definitely help. It should be noted that properly orienting all the stake holders towards the broader objectives of the institution will definitely yield results. Sometimes, conflicts are classified as *functional*, *situational*, and *interactive*. Those who classify conflicts as *functional* are under the presumption that “*conflicts serve a social function*”. Those who view conflicts as situational, iterate that conflict is “*an expression under certain situations*”. The third group view conflicts as interactive (Bernard & Ashimi, 2014). The question asked in the case of a functional conflict is what function does the conflict serve. The question asked in the case of a situational conflict is when do the conflicts occur and under what are the circumstances that led to the conflict. In the case of an interactional conflict, the primary question would be on methods and mechanisms are used to express it.

It may be noted that a conflict can be ended in three possible ways. Primarily, conflicts may naturally end with a conquest of one party over the other. Secondly, through a compromise solution, the conflict can be resolved. And finally, conflicts can be ended through reconciliation. It should be emphasized that whenever possible the second and third methods should be adopted to resolve conflicts.

4.1 Classes of Conflict

Conflicts can be segregated into several forms. The first classification is as relationship, task, and process conflict. The interpersonal differences that exist among the divergent members are called *relationship conflicts*. *Relationship* conflicts result in degenerative emotions, including angst, distrust, or umbrage, annoyance, apprehension and fear of dejection by other members of the team. Relationship conflicts are disagreements that exist among individuals over personal issues that are not task related. “*The most frequently reported relationship conflicts are based on social events, gossip, preferences in dressing styles, political views, and hobbies*” (Guerra et al., 2005).

“*Task Conflicts are disagreements about the content of a task and work goals, such as distribution of resources, procedures, and interpretation of facts. Task conflicts include differences in view points, ideas and opinions, and may coincide with animated discussions and personal excitement*”. Contrary to relationship conflict, findings related to task conflict are not as conclusive. Studies indicate that task conflict can also be associated with several harmful effects, including aversion to job, deficiency of team spirit, and increased anxiety.

Process Conflict refers to the disagreement about how a task should be accomplished, and the responsibilities and delegation of individuals; for example, when group members disagree about whose responsibility it is to complete a specific

duty. "Process conflict has been associated with lower morale, decreased productivity, and poor team performance".

Yet another way of classification of conflicts is based on its levels, is as follows: (a) intrapersonal conflict; (b) interpersonal conflict /intra group conflict; (c) inter group/Inter departmental conflict and (d) inter organizational conflict. This classification emphasizes on the different levels among which conflicts can occur in an organization and possible ways of mitigating them. The involvement of the top management in resolving the conflicts is very crucial in these cases too.

4.2 Sources of Conflict

We will now focus on the primary sources of conflict in academia. The 2 sources of conflict are: (a) internal sources, which refer to factors which are innate or inborn within an organization. The major causes for internal sources of conflict is the "*opposing interests*" among institutional stakeholders. (b) external sources, which are outside the boundary of an institution. External conflicts occur when the third party intercession to a disagreement becomes one sided or biased. A good example is where the government as the third and regulatory party tries to formulate policy or enact laws that favour one party, and that may be damaging to the other. It is of prime importance to identify the actual sources of conflicts, before one try to mitigate them, since the strategies applicable to one situation cannot be employed to the other effectively.

4.3 Resolving and Managing Conflict in Academia

The use of conflict management styles and strategies in academia depends to a large extent upon a variety of variables. Examples of these include sex, age, race, referral teacher, and prior records of the student (Fleetwood, 1987). Conflict in academic environment is a daily occurrence because a consensus of opinion concerning rules governing the school seldom exists among the stake holders-educational administrators, teachers, students, and parents. As in other environments, conflict is seemingly inevitable, particularly in a scholarly setting, it is obviously necessary for educational administrators to be able to recognize conflict, to view its constructive as well as destructive potential, to learn how to manage conflict, and to apply conflict management strategies in a practical way. Fostering good flow of communication among all stake holders is to be emphasized to mitigate conflicts in academia.

Conflict management is quite often categorized as conflict management styles and conflict management strategies. It is reckoned that problem-solving is ranked by all stake holders in academia as the best method of conflict diminution. However, it is very difficult to mitigate the conflicts by solving the problems leading to it!

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Studies have indicated that educational administrators spend approximately 80-95% of their time daily, resolving conflicts. Most of the conflicts in academic institutions are resolved by aggressive style of response (competitive style of conflict management). Collaborative, compromising, accommodative, and avoiding styles of conflict management are also adopted by some educational administrators. Again it is widely found that education administrators develop conflict management mechanism that do not vary with the situation. The following variables are found to influence conflict management styles, viz. the principal's personality, sex and age of the offender, the time of day, the time of year, and the prior offence record of the student (Fleetwood, 1987).

There are several case studies on the management and mitigation of conflicts existing in educational institutions. One point that is emphasized is that the style adopted by a teacher or administration manager is almost always situation specific and based on his/her past experiences.

5.0 CONCLUDING REMARKS

According to C. Wright Mill, "*social structures are created through conflict between people with differing interests and resources. Individuals and resources, in turn, are influenced by these structures and by the unequal distribution of power and resources in the society*" (Knapp, 1994).

5.0.1 *In inequalities that exist in societies, rather than the order and consensus, are fostering conflicts. Thus the inherent societal conflicts can be cured only by fundamentally transforming the value systems in the society. This will lead to new productive social entrepreneurs and social relations.*

5.0.2 *The underprivileged, whose social interests are counter to the normal, will feel that the conflicts are resolved once when the social changes are made, bringing them to the main stream. Hence, instead of viewing them as objects of sympathy should be viewed as agents for societal changes.*

5.0.3 *The capacity for creativity of a human being is suppressed by the societal exploitation and oppression. These are prevalent in any society, where there is an equal division of labour. These qualities should not be undermined for want of imbibing by the "civilizing process" or "functional necessity". It is to be stressed that the creativity of the human mind is a true harbinger of economic development, prosperity, and societal change.*

5.0.4 *Instead of maintaining the structure of power in the society, there is a real need to promote the human creativity in transforming the society. The objectivity and detachment associated with positivism is often considered to be neutral counterproductive tool.*

Robbins (2005) opines that “functional (constructive) conflict supports the goals of the group and improves the performance of the group”. It is widely observed that if conflict leads to normal competition among participating groups and the groups work harder and produce more, it is advantageous to the objectives of the group and the institution as a whole. The constructive conflict gives its members a chance to identify the underlying problems and see the opportunities. Also, constructive (functional) conflict can inspire the stake holders to experiment with new ideas (to innovate), learning new skills, in that process which will eventually leads to growth among individuals. Justice and fairness encourages positive attitudes and facilitates conflict management. More often than not, conflict is viewed negatively and is associated with negativity and destruction. Conflict is an outcome of poor communication and mistrust among people. *“Conflict can be eliminated or resolved only at high level of management. According to this view, all conflicts should be avoided”* (Bernard & Ashimi, 2014).

There is a subtle difference between resolving a conflict and managing it. Ending a dispute by satisfying the interests of both the parties by arbitration is termed as resolving a conflict. On the contrary, managing a conflict involves specialized interaction that prevents a dispute from becoming a vehement war. *“By managing a conflict, the person responsible for it attends to the personal issues so as to allow for a constructive relationship, even though the objective issues may not be resolvable”*. Conflict resolution needs enormous managerial skills. *“Our goal in conflict resolution always should be to seek a resolution based on mutual gain. Realistically, however, resolution is not always possible. When this is the case, we must manage the conflict to ensure that the relationship is constructive and that open communication is maintained”* (Bernard & Ashimi, 2014).

When conflict is mishandled or mismanaged, it can cause irreparable damages, rifts, resentments, and break-ups. When the conflicts are dealt with amicably, it increases the understanding among people, builds mutual trust and strengthens relationships. It is believed that the ability to resolve conflicts successfully depends on the ability to do the following:

- by staying calm, one can effectively manage stress quickly. Remaining calm, one can very easily read and properly interpret the verbal and non-verbal communication of others.
- by carefully controlling one’s own emotions and behaviour, it becomes simpler and more effective to communicate the needs without threatening, fighting or punishing others.
- carefully pay due attention and respect to the feelings and behaviour of others, and

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- be respectful and careful in avoiding derogatory words. Problems can be resolved faster by following a composed style in dealing with the issues.

To conclude, one of the most important strategies to be employed in managing conflicts is the early identification of the conflict and paying utmost care to the conflicting teams. These are very important while dealing with functional (constructive) and dysfunctional (destructive) conflicts alike (Maria R. Volpe & David Chandler, 1999).

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Madhu Agarwal Agnihotri did her graduation, post-graduation in commerce (MCOM) from University of Calcutta. She also did her Masters in Computer Application (MCA) from Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU). She did her Doctorate of Philosophy (PhD) from University of Calcutta in Commerce in the area of Whistleblowing in Public Sector. She is now working as Assistant Professor in St. Xavier's College (Autonomous), Kolkata for last 10 years. She has over 10 research papers published in National and International Journal and Conferences. Her research interest area includes Whistleblowing, Data Mining and web technologies.

Venus G. Agustin holds a Ph.D in Commerce and working on his second Ph.D in Peace & Security Administration (PASA). He is currently the President of International Peace Leadership College-Philippines and President of World Tong-II Moo Do Federation (WTMF) in Asia Pacific. He has been tirelessly raising & educating young people to become pro-active in order to secure peace and prosperity for all. He has been holding several management positions both in academic and socio-civic organizations such as President, Professors World Peace Academy – Philippines, Chairman & President, Pines International Academy (PIA), President, Sun Hwa International Academy, President, Council of Deans and Educators in Business in Region IV-A (CODEB4A 2017-2018).

Arup Kumar Bhattacharjee did his graduation from Calcutta University, Master of Computer Application (MCA) from Kalyani University and M. Tech. from West Bengal University of Technology. He is now working as an Assistant Professor in RCC Institute of Information Technology, Kolkata, India. He has more than 15 years of teaching experience in the field of Computer Science. He has over 15 research paper published in different National and International Journal and Conferences. He has contributed in over 20 internationally acclaimed books in the field of Computer Science and Engineering from Pearson Education publishers. Some of the popular books contributed are “Java: how to program“, “Starting out with Java: from control structures through objects”, “Introduction to the design &

About the Contributors

analysis of algorithms”, “Concepts of programming languages” etc. He has edited 2 books. He has 2 national book chapters and 4 international book chapters. His research fields are Data Mining and Soft Computing. He is a life member of several institutions like IETE, CSI, ISTE, and Indian Science Congress.

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