Western Theoretical Policies in the Management of International Crises

Dr. LAHMAR SLIMANE
Emir Abdelkader University of Islamic Sciences, Constantine, Algeria
Email : Lahmar_slimane@yahoo.com ; https://www.univ-emir-constantine.edu.dz/
Research Laboratory in Sharia Studies
Research Laboratory in Legal Studies and Comparative Jurisprudence

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Abstract

What is meant by management policies and crisis management? What are their characteristics, components, and types? What is meant by Politics of International Crises and the associated political and legal dimensions? Answering these questions requires an exploration of the definitions of crises, their various types, and all related aspects. The focal point of this study lies in the Western theories that have examined international crises from their inception to their resolution. In this regard, the descriptive method has been adopted, while the research tool employed is purely documentary in nature, as required by the nature of the topic under discussion

Keywords: Policies of Western Theories, Management, Crises, International, Clash of Civilizations.

Introduction

What is meant by management and crisis management? What are their characteristics, components, and types? What is meant by will or international will, and what are its legal and normative dimensions?

The answers to these questions constitute the core substance of this study and its principal themes. It is necessary, at the outset, to present the definitions that we consider appropriate, beginning with the linguistic meaning and then proceeding to the terminological concept. Thereafter, we shall examine terms that are similar to, or compete with, the concept of crisis, such as incident, problem, disagreement, shock, conflict, dispute, threat, and disaster. This will be followed by a terminological definition of the concept of the "international crisis." Subsequently, we shall devote particular attention to the Western Theoretical Policies of Politics of International Crises, including Systems Theory, Decision-Making Theory, Accommodation Theory, the Unipolarity Theory, Huntington's Clash of Civilizations, Fukuyama's End of History, and the views of Anthony Lake of the United States National Security Council.

1) Linguistic Definition of "Crisis"

"Crisis: severity or hardship. One says azama 'an al-shay' meaning to refrain from it. In a Prophetic tradition, 'Umar (may Allah be pleased with him) asked the Arab physician al-Harith ibn Kaladah about the remedy, and he replied: al-azmah, meaning dietary restraint. Al-ma'zim refers to a narrow passage, and every narrow path between two mountains is called a ma'zim. A battlefield position is also called a ma'zim. Hence, the place situated between al-Mash'ar and 'Arafah is known as al-Ma'ziman." (Al-Razi, p. 15)

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In the Arabic language, therefore, the term crisis denotes drought, famine, hardship, and distress resulting from the withholding of rain, and consequently poverty and starvation. It may also signify hardship in all aspects of life and living expenses (Al-Bustani, 1974, under the letter Alif).

2) Terminological Definition of "Crisis"

The term crisis is an ancient concept whose historical origins can be traced back to Greek medicine, where it denoted a "turning point," namely a decisive moment in a patient's life. It was used to indicate the occurrence of a fundamental and sudden change in the human body. By the sixteenth century, the term had become widely used in medical dictionaries.

In the seventeenth century, it was adopted to describe heightened tensions in relations between the State and the Church.

By the nineteenth century, the term had increasingly been used to denote the emergence of serious problems or critical turning points in the development of political, economic, and social relations (S.K., 2006, p. 2).

The term crisis is derived from the Greek word Krisis, meaning a moment of decision.

In Chinese, the term is composed of two characters, the first symbolizing danger and the second symbolizing opportunity.

In ancient Greek civilization, crises were regarded as situations requiring decision-making. They represented historical turning points at which human choices and decisions were capable of producing profound and fundamental changes in the future.

The word crisis thus refers to a decisive moment or a critical period, and also conveys the meaning of sudden change, often for the worse.

"The term crisis is a complex one. This complexity may stem from its comprehensiveness, as it is dispersed across several disciplines, including medicine, politics, and others. It is also due to the variation in perspectives from which it is approached. Furthermore, the concept has become increasingly complicated because of the abundance of definitions, approaches, and conceptualizations associated with it" (Mousa, 2014, p. 135).

Based on the foregoing, it is necessary to define the concept of crisis, which is employed across numerous fields of knowledge, and to provide at least a general overview of its meaning.

Scholars and researchers have differed considerably in their terminological definitions of crisis.

In psychology, Fink examined the psychological effects of crises, which may take various forms such as confusion, anxiety, stress, and disequilibrium (Zaid, 2009, p. 154).

In sociology, crisis is viewed as a phenomenon within the social structure and as a social logic reflected in various groups. In 1937, the Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences defined crisis as "the occurrence of a serious and sudden imbalance in the relationship between supply and demand for goods, services, and capital." A crisis is therefore a situation beyond control and a sudden departure from normal patterns of behavior, resulting in social disruption. Confronting such a situation requires the rapid adoption of a specific decision under conditions characterized by limited information, surprise, time pressure, and threat.

In management science, a crisis is an unstable phenomenon that constitutes a direct and explicit threat to the survival and continuity of an organization. It is characterized by a certain degree of risk and represents a turning point within unstable circumstances that lead to undesirable outcomes. Such outcomes negatively affect the efficiency and effectiveness of decision-makers and result in material, moral, and physical losses that influence the reputation, status, and future of organizations.

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[1] It is a negative event that cannot be entirely avoided regardless of the organization's level of preparedness because it is distinguished by elements such as surprise, lack of information, loss of control, and the rapid escalation of events.[2] It is a critical and alarming moment, intensely painful and perplexing, occurring within a hidden circle of uncertainty, inadequate knowledge, confusion between causes and consequences, and rapidly unfolding events that increase its severity and the degree of the unknown. Such circumstances threaten the administrative entity and may ultimately lead to the collapse of the reputation and standing of senior managers (Al-Douri, 2000, pp. 45–54).

In economics, an economic crisis is viewed as an ongoing conflict among competing alliances that naturally seek to emerge as winners from a professional perspective. Likewise, a financial crisis is a concept founded upon numerous cognitive dimensions and philosophical debates concerning its interpretation and definition. This is due to the diversity of financial markets that have experienced crises, the varying degrees of risk, repercussions, and causes associated with each crisis, as well as the overlap of conceptual frameworks employed in explaining the deterioration of financial market activity (Muhaysin, 2009, p. 5).

A financial crisis refers to a situation in which financial variables such as stock prices and exchange rates move collectively in one direction, either upward or downward, often contrary to previous expectations. Financial instability, on the other hand, refers to a condition in which these variables fluctuate both upward and downward. While a portion of these fluctuations may be predictable, the larger part is not. Predictable fluctuations can generally be insured against, whereas unforeseen fluctuations are far more difficult to overcome (Khamis, 2010, p. 25).

Miller describes financial markets as inherently unstable because they tend toward financial crises whenever their financial variables (such as stock prices and interest rates) are characterized by multiple equilibria (Al-Khudairi, p. 222). Consequently, financial market instability may be viewed as a reflection of the existence of multiple equilibrium states. Conversely, a financial market is considered stable when financial institutions are able to continue their financial activities and fulfill their contractual obligations including intermediation activities and asset management without significant obstacles.[3]

In political science, a crisis arises from circumstances that may ultimately lead to the use of military force in confrontation. Effective crisis management can facilitate the attainment of a settlement among the parties involved.

In the international context, a crisis refers to the interactions resulting from relations among states and the consequences arising therefrom, particularly when international competition over interests threatens stability and peace.

Alastair Buchan, in his book Crisis Management, defined a crisis as "an apparent challenge or reaction between two or more parties, each attempting to direct the course of events in its own favor."

Some scholars have even argued that "a crisis requires no interpretation, for it explains itself through the crises that erupt between two or more parties, especially as events and divergent positions continue to escalate."

Based on the foregoing, three fundamental elements of a crisis may be identified:

a) The Element of Surprise:

A crisis emerges and erupts unexpectedly, at a time that cannot be precisely predicted and often in an unforeseen location as well.[4]

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b) The Element of Threat:

A crisis involves a threat to objectives and interests, both in the present and in the future.

c) The Element of Time:

The time available to decision-makers is usually limited and highly constrained.

Accordingly, the most significant characteristics of a crisis may be summarized in eight points (Al-Sayyid, The Role of Leadership in Decision-Making During Crises, 2000, p. 169):

First: A crisis represents a turning point at which the need for intensified action and reaction increases in order to confront emergency conditions.

Second: The ability to control events diminishes.

Third: Conditions of uncertainty and information deficiency prevail. Crisis managers operate in an atmosphere of suspicion, doubt, ambiguity, and lack of clarity of vision (Al-Baridi, 1999, p. 58).

Fourth: Severe time pressure exists, accompanied by the necessity of making rapid and accurate decisions, while leaving virtually no margin for error due to the lack of time available for correction.

Fifth: There is a serious threat to interests and objectives, potentially reaching the level of organizational collapse.

Sixth: Crises are characterized by the surprise and rapidity with which they occur.

Seventh: There is overlap and multiplicity in causes, factors, elements, supporting and opposing forces, interested and uninterested parties, together with an expansion of the confrontation front.

Eighth: A state of fear and panic prevails, which may escalate into terror and restrict rational thinking (Abu Farah, 2009, p. 76).

In conclusion, a crisis may be defined as “a situation accompanied by a severe threat to essential interests and objectives. It is characterized by intense time pressure or temporal constraint.”

3) Terms Similar and Related to the Concept of Crisis

Like many concepts in the social sciences, the concept of crisis is often confused with a number of closely related notions that share certain characteristics with it.[5] Among these concepts are the following:

a) Accident

An accident is a malfunction that materially affects the system as a whole, whether the system is an entire factory, organization, or industry. In such a case, the production of the entire system ceases, or must be halted, until repair operations have been completed (Zaydan, 2003, p. 240).

b) Problem

A problem constitutes one stage of a crisis, but it does not represent the crisis in all its dimensions. It is a difficult situation that results in the inability to accomplish what one seeks to achieve. A problem becomes evident when we fail to obtain the expected results from our various activities and undertakings (Al-Su‘ud, 1998, pp. 24–25).

c) Dispute

A dispute refers to opposition, contradiction, or incompatibility, whether in form, circumstances, or substance (Al-Ba‘labaki, 1999).

A dispute is not, in itself, a crisis; rather, it may express a crisis or serve as a catalyst for one. Accordingly, a crisis may be viewed as an exceptional situation that threatens an organization, creates danger, and produces profound and fundamental changes in its activities, thereby requiring a response within a specified period. Failure to respond may have serious consequences for the organization's future and continuity.

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d) Shock

Shock is a sudden and intense emotional reaction resulting from an unexpected event. It combines feelings of anger, astonishment, and fear.

Shock is one of the manifestations and consequences of crises; therefore, it represents only a general external framework that surrounds the underlying causes of a crisis. Dealing with shock requires understanding and absorbing its effects as quickly as possible in order to reach the essence of what produced it. This differs from crisis management itself, which focuses primarily on confronting the root substance of the crisis.

e) Conflict and Dispute

The concept of conflict focuses on social relationships among individuals. It refers to the occurrence of a situation that causes disruption or disturbance to the central structure, representing a clash between two wills and a contradiction of interests. The following factors pave the way for the emergence of disputes (Hammad, 1998, pp. 39–41):

First: The belief that a dispute exists, whether real or imagined. In such a case, behavior is influenced by perception, which plays a fundamental role in the existence of the dispute.[6]

Second: The existence of conflicting objectives, interests, or behaviors leads to disputes among individuals and leaders within various organizational and social entities. Similar to the effects of illness on the human body, the only solution becomes restoring the health of the organization by eliminating such disputes.

Third: Conflict does not constitute a direct and explicit threat to the survival and continuity of an organization. Rather, conflict results in a decline in performance. A crisis, therefore, represents an advanced stage of conflict.[7]

One researcher argues that anticipating disputes does not mean predicting with absolute precision the timing and direction of future events. In other words, it is not what intelligence circles refer to as "point prediction." Claiming the ability to predict events with such accuracy is, in reality, something better left to fortune-tellers (Lund, 1999, p. 139).

f) Threat

A threat is a sign or warning of potential trouble or danger. It represents the stage preceding a crisis (Al-Khudairi, pp. 88–94).

g) Disaster

Considerable confusion exists between the concepts of disaster and crisis because of the close relationship between the two terms. A problem that remains unresolved for a prolonged period may eventually evolve into a disaster (Muhanna, 2008, p. 43).

Disasters are often among the causes of crises, as they constitute sudden and massive calamities and may represent the very moment of crisis eruption (Aliwah, 1997, p. 21). Nevertheless, a disaster does not encompass all the stages of a crisis. Rather, it is an event that has already occurred in a destructive manner and has resulted in material or other forms of damage, such as volcanic eruptions (Aliwah, Crisis and Disaster Management: The Risks of Globalization and International Terrorism, 2002, p. 11).

Subsequently, secondary crises may emerge, such as housing crises, relief crises, and similar problems (Al-Najjar, 2009, p. 245). A disaster is the overwhelming consequence from which there is no easy escape (Al-Shafi‘i, 2001, p. 236), as in emergencies and crises that are not handled appropriately. Disasters inevitably leave significant repercussions.[8]

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4) Terminological Definition of the "International Crisis"

Although we have examined the preceding definitions, our primary concern here is the concept of the international crisis (Borodzics, 2008). Within the field of international relations, a number of definitions have been advanced.

Coral Bell, in her book Crisis Agreements, defines an international crisis as "the escalation of conflicts to a level that threatens to alter the nature of international relations among states."

John Spanier defines it as "a situation in which one state seeks to alter the status quo, while other states resist such change, thereby creating a high probability of war" (S., 2001, pp. 17–29).

Robert North describes an international crisis as "a sharp escalation of action and reaction; that is, a process of rupture that produces changes in the level of interaction among states and increases the degree of threat and coercion." North further notes that "crises often precede wars, but not all crises lead to war. Some are settled peacefully, frozen, or gradually de-escalated. Nevertheless, they may be studied as situations involving the participation of two or more states in the same confrontation."[9] (Hammad, The American Strategic Model in the Management of International Crises, 2003, pp. 1–2).

Triksa regards an international crisis as "an intense concentration of the energies of instability and disequilibrium within the international system."

Both Winer and Kahn define it as "a situation involving a degree of sudden and unexpected danger."

Boulding views it as "a turning point or a dividing line between two situations" (Atiyyah, The Security Council and the Middle East Crisis, 1967–1977: A Study of the Effectiveness of the International Organization, 1986, pp. 23–24).

According to Michael S. Lund, an international crisis signifies "a tense confrontation between mobilized and prepared armed forces that may occasionally engage in threats and low-level skirmishes, yet without employing any substantial degree of military force" (Lund, 1999, p. 59).

Amin Huwaydi defines it as follows: "Whether global or regional, it is a series of successive interactions between two or more states living in a state of intense conflict that may at times reach a high probability of war. In such circumstances, the decision-maker confronts a situation that threatens the supreme interests of the nation and requires rapid action through the adoption of fundamental decisions" (Huwaydi, 1997, p. 131).

Other scholars define it as "the peak stage of tension in relations within a national, regional, or international strategic environment, such that the parties involved stand on the brink of war" (Othman, 1995, p. 14).

Others regard it as "a painful and alarming state of tension that places pressure on the nerves, paralyzes thought, and obscures vision. Opposing factors collide, events unfold and accumulate, causes and consequences become intertwined, and control over the situation, its repercussions, and outcomes appears at risk. It is therefore a disruption that exerts a vital impact upon the affected individual, entity, or state, exposing it to fragmentation and disorientation and threatening the very foundations upon which it is built" (Al-Shafiʻi, January 1999, p. 5).

Professor Abbas Rushdi considers crisis to be "an advanced stage of conflict. It is conflict in any of its manifestations and at any of its levels, ranging from internal psychological conflict to international conflicts." He further argues that "the forms of conflict vary according to their causes and motivations." He defines international conflict as "the interaction resulting from confrontation

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and collision among the interests, beliefs, programs, and other attributes of competing entities." He also adds that "a crisis except for natural crises such as earthquakes, volcanoes, and similar phenomena is a human action or reaction aimed at disrupting or halting a particular activity or destabilizing a given situation in order to bring about change in favor of its planner" (Al-'Ammari, 1993, p. 1).

Accordingly, an international crisis may be defined as "the level of international antagonism that obstructs the functioning of the public order and prevents it from effectively performing its functions" (Al-Sakarneh, Contemporary Administrative Studies, 2010, p. 4).

5) Western Theoretical Policies of Politics of International Crises

Several theories have been developed to explain and manage international crises (Morsi, 1984, p. 154; Raslan, 1986, p. 140). The most important of these may be summarized as follows:

A. Systems Theory (Systemic Theory)

This theory sets ideological considerations aside in favor of focusing on geopolitical balances of power. Scholars associated with this approach have advanced a number of fundamental definitions.

Glenn Snyder, a leading scholar of the systems school, defines an international crisis as:

"A succession of interactions between two or more sovereign states engaged in an intense conflict that involves a high perception of the probability of war."

Similarly, Oran Young, from the same school of thought, defines an international crisis as:

"A set of events that rapidly reveal themselves, causing a disruption in the existing balance of power within the overall international system, or within one of its subsystems, to a degree significantly exceeding the normal level of increased probability of violence within that system."

McClelland defines it as:

"A transitional period between war and peace. While all crises contain the potential for escalation into war, most of them subside without states resorting to the use of force" (Al-A'zami, 1988, p. 37).

Within the framework of this theory, some scholars called for restoring the significance of geopolitics, arguing that the strategies of states are fundamentally shaped by their geographical location.

Mackinder (1919) and Spykman (1942) argued that whoever controls Eurasia possesses the ability to dominate it entirely and, consequently, to control the world as a whole.

From this perspective, Zbigniew Brzezinski posed the following question:

"How can the world be managed so that no major power is capable of controlling Eurasia?"

Brzezinski emphasized that the United States must devote particular attention to Central Asia, considering it an essential component of the Eurasian heartland. Following the collapse of the Soviet Union, the United States became capable of projecting its influence into the heart of Eurasia.

Consequently, Brzezinski warned against two major dangers:

The spread of instability and chaos.

The emergence of a dominant geopolitical-strategic bloc composed of Russia, China, and Iran.

Should such a bloc emerge, American influence would be seriously threatened.

According to this perspective, crisis management should therefore focus on preventing major and middle powers from forming strategic alliances capable of influencing the Eurasian heartland and, instead, dealing with each of these powers separately (Qahf, 2002, p. 136).

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B. Decision-Making Theory

Among the most prominent proponents of this theory is Charles Hermann, who defines a crisis as:

"A situation involving a high degree of threat to the objectives of decision-making events. It is a situation in which decision-makers perceive that the time available to react or make a decision is limited. Thus, a crisis constitutes a sudden situation confronting members of the decision-making unit" (Al-Hadi, 2000, p. 44).

This approach places primary emphasis on the perceptions, judgments, and choices of decision-makers under conditions of urgency and threat.

C. The Integrative Theory (A Synthesis of the Two Previous Approaches)

Among the scholars associated with this approach is K. J. Holsti, who defines a crisis as:

"One of the stages of conflict. Its most prominent characteristic is the occurrence of sudden and unexpected events that compel actors to choose between two alternatives: war or surrender."

This perspective combines elements of both the systemic and decision-making approaches by considering both structural factors and the role of human choice.

D. The Unipolarity Theory

Among the more recent American theories of crisis management is the theory of the Unipolar System (Wa Akharun, 1997, p. 40).

The central concern of the American intellectual and political elite particularly those commonly referred to as the Neoconservatives has been the management of the new world order that emerged after the collapse of the Soviet Union and the socialist bloc (Allah, 1996, p. 43).

This elite became divided into two principal currents:

The first current anticipated the disappearance of the most significant international crises, especially those that had remained frozen within the framework of the Cold War.

The second current rose to prominence during the latter half of the 1990s as a result of escalating crises in Africa, Yugoslavia, and Central Asia.

E. Huntington's Theory of the Clash of Civilizations

According to Samuel Huntington, international conflicts have evolved through three historical phases:

The First Phase:

Ended with the Second World War and was characterized primarily by conflicts among nations and competing struggles for influence among major European and Asian powers.

The Second Phase:

Conflict assumed an ideological character and revolved around the confrontation between liberalism and Marxism.

The Third Phase:

Conflict would increasingly take the form of a clash among civilizations.

For Huntington, religion constitutes the principal element in defining civilizational identity. On this basis, he divides the world into several major civilizations:

A Western Catholic–Protestant civilization extending to the borders of Eastern Europe.

A Slavic-Orthodox civilization centered on Russia.

An Islamic civilization stretching from Indonesia to the Maghreb.

A Chinese civilization.

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An Indian civilization.

An African civilization.

A Latin American civilization.

Regarding future conflicts among civilizational blocs, Huntington argued in 1993 that the principal struggle would be between the West and the rest of the world. He regarded two blocs as particularly significant and potentially threatening: the Islamic bloc and the Chinese bloc, both characterized by a strong sense of civilizational consciousness.

According to this perspective, the management of civilizational crises requires:

Unifying the ranks of the West and addressing international crises with a single voice.

Restricting advanced scientific and technological capabilities to the West and preventing their transfer to other civilizations.

Combating immigration originating from other civilizations.

Seeking to regulate and influence the dynamics of conflict within other civilizations.

However, the classification of the world from the perspective of American strategic thought encounters several fundamental objections:

A civilization cannot, in itself, function as a political actor.

Civilizational and cultural identity are defined primarily by the way societies define themselves and their own identities.

Consequently, such theories of global control remain either incomplete or overly speculative and may ultimately contribute to increasing aggression against peoples and societies rather than reducing it (Nehra, Spring 2001, pp. 22–28).

F. Francis Fukuyama's Theory of the End of History

Francis Fukuyama, the Asian-American Jewish scholar, argued in his book The End of History that the victory of liberalism over communism signified the end of history. By this, he meant the end of major ideological conflicts and contradictions and the beginning of an era characterized by healthy competition.

Most writings that followed his thesis predicted the inevitable transfer of competition from the politico-military sphere to the economic sphere. For this reason, proponents of this theory anticipated the advent of a new age in which economic competition among states would become the dominant feature of international relations.

Nevertheless, Fukuyama's thesis contained a cautious perspective regarding the countries of the South (the Third World). These societies (Yusuf, 2017, p. 165), in his view, had never fully overcome the traditional pre-liberal conflicts rooted in nationalism, religion, and ethnicity, which continued to carry the aggressive forms of conflict that liberalism had sought to transcend.

For this reason, Fukuyama did not conclude that the collapse of Soviet-American bipolarity would necessarily result in a unified world. Rather, he argued that the end of the Cold War would divide the world into two distinct spheres:

The Post-Historical World.

The Historical World.

Such a division was foreseeable because of the overwhelming power of the post-historical world and its ability to withdraw into self-sufficiency in many fields, while the historical world lacked a dominant international power capable of imposing order.

Within this framework, two major issues emerge:

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First: The question of natural resources located in the South, particularly oil.

Second: The issue of migration from the South, which may destabilize the societies of the North.

These concerns lead to the broader problem of managing and controlling southern regions that possess strategic resources and may simultaneously constitute major sources of migration.

G. Anthony Lake's Theory and the U.S. National Security Council Approach

Within the same intellectual trend, a thesis emerged from within the United States National Security Council itself. Its principal advocate was former National Security Adviser Anthony Lake, who shared Fukuyama's optimism but went beyond it through his formulation of the principle of Democratic Enlargement.

This principle was based on the assumption that the collapse of bipolarity and the disappearance of the second superpower shifted competition from the politico-military arena to the economic arena among liberal democratic systems.

Many of these emerging democracies arose from the ruins of the former socialist order. However, their principal challenge lay in the consolidation of democratic institutions, which could not be achieved without the economic stability necessary for their survival.

Accordingly, the mission of democratic enlargement consisted of supporting these emerging regimes through economic assistance and increased international investment.

Reflection on the management of the new generation of political crises acquired its full theoretical dimensions following the Second Gulf War. According to this perspective, the departure of a local actor Iraq, as they claimed from the accepted rules of the international system generated growing concern regarding the need to control actors and states operating outside the sphere of American, or more generally Western, influence.

The concern focused particularly on actors that could not be effectively managed by the major powers and whose behavior and interests could not be clearly defined (Al-Sakarneh, 2015, p. 68).

Among the first scholars to formulate this issue with precision were proponents of realist thought, including Kenneth Waltz, who argued:

"During the Cold War, small states were effectively constrained by their membership in one of the two international blocs. For this reason, the bipolar system was far less anarchic than it appeared. Following the collapse of the socialist bloc, however, small states acquired greater freedom of action. The central problem then became how to control these states."

This new approach may be summarized through Brzezinski's proposition that:

"The United States is the last empire in history. The fundamental challenge is the management of unstable regions throughout the world in order to avoid two dangers: chaos on the one hand, and the emergence of a new political-strategic giant on the other. The question is: How can a world be managed when parts of it reject the established rules imposed by the United States?"

In attempting to answer this question, various perspectives emerged.

Anthony Lake, who remained optimistic about the future of the international system, believed that the states responsible for this new disorder were relatively few in number and geographically identifiable. In his view, these states failed to respect the rules of the international game.

With the exception of Cuba and North Korea, most of these states were located within the Islamic world, including Iraq, Iran, Libya, and Sudan.

The proposed solution was containment. Indeed, Lake is widely associated with the doctrine of the Dual Containment of Iraq and Iran.

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Several factors were cited in support of this strategy:

First: The United States had previously applied containment against a superpower capable of economic self-sufficiency, whereas these states were comparatively small and economically dependent.

Second: Iraq and Iran were incapable of forming a strategic alliance because of their long and destructive war.

Third: Iraq was surrounded by states operating within the sphere of American influence and therefore unlikely to violate American strategic boundaries.

By reducing the central issue to the problem of "rogue states," however, this approach failed to assign sufficient importance to other crises resulting from state collapse.

Consequently, some theorists, such as Abrams, drew attention to the dangers posed by terrorist groups operating beyond state control and emerging from the weakness or collapse of states themselves.

The Somali crisis, for example, generated considerable debate between conservatives who adopted the slogan "Do not confuse America's interests with its aspirations" and advocates of humanitarian intervention in Somalia.

This debate gave rise to a number of important questions:

What are the limits separating disorder generated by state collapse that remains confined within national borders from disorder that produces international consequences and threatens United States interests?

Is it possible to address political crises without grounding such efforts in a broader theoretical framework that preserves the centrality of the concept of crisis itself?

Can the manifestations and actors of such crises simply be treated as residual or temporary phenomena destined to disappear once the United States employs sufficient instruments of power?

Conclusion

This article has presented a range of definitions of the concept of crisis. The discussion began with its linguistic meaning and proceeded to its terminological definition. It then examined concepts related to and often confused with crisis, including the accident, problem, dispute, shock, conflict, threat, and disaster.

Subsequently, the study explored the concept of the international crisis in its technical and theoretical dimensions. Particular attention was devoted to the principal Western Theoretical Policies of Politics of International Crises, including:

Systems Theory;

Decision-Making Theory;

The Integrative Theory;

The Unipolarity Theory;

Samuel Huntington's Clash of Civilizations;

Francis Fukuyama's End of History;

Anthony Lake's approach developed within the United States National Security Council.

Through this examination, the study sought to highlight the principal intellectual frameworks through which Western scholarship has attempted to understand, interpret, and manage international crises in the contemporary international system.

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