The Diplomatic Academy of Peru hosted the 33rd Meeting of Deans and Directors with generous hospitality and professional efficiency. Ambassador José de la Puente-Radbill, Rector of the Academy, offered a personal welcome on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary of the Academy, referring to the forum more as a family than a formal association. At a reception given by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Vice-Minister Javier Gonzales Terrones welcomed the group on behalf of Ambassador Oscar Maurtua, Minister of Foreign Affairs. After the Forum many members had the pleasure of a memorable excursion to Cusco and Machu Picchu.

Mag. Gerhard Reiweger, Deputy Director of the Diplomatic Academy of Vienna, opened the Meeting with a brief appreciation of the life and work of Ambassador Ernst Sucharipa, late Director of the Academy, who sadly had died in May. Ambassador Sucharipa had been a driving force in the development of the International Forum, always open to new ideas and keen to use the network to promote high professional standards in diplomatic training.

Professor Casimir Yost, co-chair of the Meeting, paid tribute to Ernst Sucharipa as a great diplomat and academic who had given fierce attention to his role as a diplomatic practitioner passing on knowledge from a lifetime of work. He had been a wonderful colleague. Prof Yost referred to personal collaboration between individuals as a key to the success of the group, fulfilling the early vision of Dean Peter Krogh in creating a family of directors.

The Meeting commenced with the introduction of new members and new institutions:

- Ambassador Dr Jawad Al Hindawi (Iraq)
- Director January Bardill (South Africa)
- Ambassador Horacio Basabe (Argentina)
- Ambassador Kenneth Brown (United States of America)
- Director General Michael Calcott (Canada)
- Ambassador Andrés Collado (Spain)
- Ambassador Hisham El Zimaity (Egypt)
- Director Evelyn Horowitz (Venezuela)
- Director Carlos German La Rotta (Colombia)
- Director Gerardo Lozano Arredondo (Mexico)
- Deputy Director Ernesto Melèndez Bachs (Cuba)
- Mr Stefan Mera (Romania)
- Professor Gheorghe-Vlad Nistor (Romania)
- Professor Pedro Nsinguí-Barros (Angola)
- Mr Peter Stanier (Austria)
- Director Zoran Stanojevic (Serbia and Montenegro)
- Acting Director Linda Stuchartova (Czech Republic)
- Professor Jamisse Taimo (Mozambique)
- Ambassador Koichi Takahashi (Japan)
1. Building a Professional Foreign Service

Ambassador Rolando Stein, Director of the Diplomatic Academy of Chile, introduced the Final Report of his study ‘Building a Professional Foreign Service’. Eighty-one countries had responded to his survey, representing between them 88% of the world’s population and 93% of global production.

Amongst the key findings of the survey Ambassador Stein highlighted the following:

- 85% of new entrants to foreign ministries joined as a result of competition by public examination. The rest were drawn from other branches of the civil service or (in 46% of ministries) were brought in at mid-career level with special expertise.
- 90% of foreign services required an academic qualification (BA) for entry; 11% required postgraduate degrees (MA and above).
- 67% imposed an age limit for entry; 90% had no age limit between ranks; 75% had compulsory retirement by age 65 or earlier.
- 90% had a foreign language requirement for entry; 89% conducted personal interviews; only 53% administered vocational psychological tests.
- The ratio of applicants to places varied between 10:1 and 150:1.

Over 70% of foreign services had fewer than 1,000 staff; the ratio of nationals to locally-employed staff varied considerably:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>No. of nationals</th>
<th>No. of LEs</th>
<th>Proportion of LEs to nationals</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>6,500</td>
<td>56,900</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>63,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>22,100</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>23,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>5,900</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>15,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1,460</td>
<td>10,040</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>11,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>5,300</td>
<td>4,884</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>10,184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td>3,590</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>4,790</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The proportion of women in foreign services varied typically from 30% to 50%.
- At the level of ambassador the proportion of females was smaller: less than 2% of countries had more than 30%; 15% of countries had 20-30%; 66% of countries had 10% or less.
- 58% of ambassadors were career diplomats.

The earliest formal training institution was established by the Vatican in 1701. France had followed in 1712, and Austria in 1754.
- 91% of diplomatic academies had formal links with their national ministry of foreign affairs.
- 76% had career diplomats on their staff.
- 42% offered places or courses of up to six months for foreign students.
- 29% (and rising fast) offered courses of e-learning.
- Initial diplomatic training varied between short courses of only a few days or weeks to established courses of up to two years.
- 69% of ministries required mid-career training for promotion; only 10% conducted psychological testing for promotion.
The principal conclusion of the survey was that, despite differences in detail, foreign ministries and diplomatic academies across the world shared many characteristics, amongst them:

- Demanding and transparent entry
- Modern and flexible curricula
- High-quality staff
- Specialist practitioner training, avoiding duplication of university courses of international relations
- Increasing regional co-operation, without losing national focus
- On the job training, increasingly by e-learning.

In discussion the following points were made:

- The survey was valuable in that co-operation between training institutions was made easier when you had an idea of what others were doing.
- The smaller the ministry the more it had to gain from co-operation with others.
- Multinational groups in training for diplomacy helped to build *esprit de corps*.
- The number of training programmes offered in the foreign ministries of Africa was notably lower than elsewhere. Special attention might be given by diplomatic academies and UN agencies to redressing the balance.
- The proportion of women in the foreign services of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and in developing countries was notably higher than in older foreign ministries. In future they would be likely to constitute a majority.
- The role of officials from other ministries than the foreign ministry in diplomacy was increasing. They had specialist knowledge, but typically little training in diplomatic practice. This trend had implications both for the conduct of international affairs and for training institutions.
- An increasing proportion (currently 30%) of candidates for training in multilateral negotiation offered by UNITAR were non-diplomats from other ministries.
- There was increasing interest in joint training for central co-ordinating ministries with ministries of foreign affairs, defence and trade.

2. **Sub-meetings of the five regional groups:**

**Africa:** *(January Bardill, chair)*

Five countries were represented (Algeria, Angola, Egypt, Mozambique, South Africa), together with UNITAR. They had discussed four main issues:

- A survey was needed of existing institutes and training provision in Africa.
- It was necessary to develop training curricula more relevant to African needs. Most ministries had small staffs of non-specialists covering many tasks; they needed training in a range of skills.
- There was scope for co-operation in training at the regional level (eg. Algeria and Egypt offering training to the countries of North Africa; SADC countries providing training to other member states). The African Union could prove to be a useful vehicle for promoting co-operation and spreading knowledge.
- Funding was an enduring impediment. African ministries were using their own resources as much as possible, though they would welcome support from IFDT members, especially in attending the meetings of the Forum. It was important that Africa should be enabled to feel part of the family.
Asia: (Yousef Al-Hassan, chair)

Eight countries were represented, from East Asia to the Middle East. They had discussed developments in training in four main areas:

- Cross-cultural communication
- Consular work, in response to the rise in migration and immigration
- International security, combatting terrorism and co-operation in delivering humanitarian assistance
- International humanitarian law

A regional centre for training Arab diplomats was being established in the United Arab Emirates.

Turkey was chosen to be the next Chair of the group.

Japan agreed to be the permanent co-ordinator of the group’s activities.

Europe: (Gerhard Reiwege, chair)

Twenty-one members attended from fourteen countries. Of the institutions represented, eleven were independent while only seven were diplomatic academies attached to ministries of foreign affairs. All continued to offer programmes of training for diplomats from other countries, especially from the EU’s New Neighbours, where the recent experience of transition and institution-building in the states of Central and Eastern Europe could be particularly helpful.

They identified six key new trends:

- The development of regional networks; in the Mediterranean and especially importantly in the Balkan region, helping to overcome narrow national and nationalist perspectives
- The training of non-diplomats for diplomacy; recognising the growing role of line ministries in foreign affairs, and the importance of preparedness for officials of the country holding the Presidency of the EU
- The emergence of programmes of training in multilateral diplomacy: a five-month course in Geneva; five-week courses in Bruges and Warsaw; a month at ENA
- The interpenetration of research and training in diplomacy, as seen in Romania and in the reorganisation of the Netherlands Institute for International Relations
- Growing academic co-operation in the study of diplomacy under the Bologna Process for young scholars
- The creation of two new journals on diplomacy, one published by the Jan Masaryk Institute, the other by Clingendael.

Latin America: (José de la Puente-Radbill, chair)

Ten countries were represented. There had been further development in co-operation between the regional academies and with academies of the Pacific basin, with meetings in Costa Rica and in Chile. The growth of the Asian economies was having an impact on global affairs, on regional trade and investment, and consequently on the curricula of diplomatic academies. Progress had made in the study of ‘social diplomacy’, focussing on poverty, development and environment.

North America: (Michael Cacott, chair)
Two large countries were represented. Four principal developments had been noted:

- The development of new courses to reflect changes in the international system
- Training in the management and leadership of institutions comprised of multiple agencies
- New programmes of distance learning, both CD-Rom and Internet-based, principally in specialist studies but also addressing the nature of diplomacy, useful to new entrants having little background in international relations
- Further progress in the Oral History Project, material from which was accessible in the Library of Congress and at Georgetown University, and would be available online soon.

Morale had been low in the Canadian foreign service, following a series of political and structural changes. Co-ordination of Canada’s tsunami relief effort had turned things around, giving the Department a specific and visible function, the delivery of services.

3. **The teaching of International Relations Theory in Latin America**

*Ambassador José de la Puente-Radbill* reflected on changes both in international affairs and in domestic politics which impacted on the study of international relations and diplomacy.

While the Pacific region as a whole was booming, many Latin American states were not. Despite the early establishment of democratic governments, governance had been flawed and economies had stagnated. Industry as a proportion of GDP had declined from 25% in the 1970s to 16% in the 2000s, resulting in high rates of unemployment and growing poverty. Millions were migrating abroad in search of work – 2.5 million Peruvians alone.

As a result it was necessary to reorientate from ‘external relations’ to ‘social diplomacy’, focussing on:

- consular responsibilities for the welfare and support of citizens abroad
- strategies for poverty alleviation, working with the multinational agencies
- co-ordination of foreign aid and of the rescheduling of debt
- active, results-orientated diplomacy, emphasising the value of *doing*
- widening the scope of diplomacy from the pursuit of national interest to embrace co-operative solutions, as for example in environmental protection.

**Points raised in discussion:**

- Tom Friedman’s book, ‘The World is Flat’, was a reflection on the way in which globalisation had transformed the international community and international relations, and our way of thinking about them. Hurricane Katrina had exposed the United States to the same problems as suffered by developing countries.
- On current projections population growth would produce a socio-economic crisis in the region by 2020, with fewer jobs and demands for higher wages.
- It was essential to improve the integration of the physical and communications infrastructure in the region. The countries of Latin America had been not face to face but back to back for too long.
- It was necessary to redress the balance between power and co-operation, and to enhance popular and political consciousness of the value of co-operation.
4. Training Latin American Diplomats: The Mexican Experience

**Gerardo Lozano Arredondo.** Deputy Director of the Instituto ‘Matias Romero’, observed that as the duties of diplomats changed in response to changes in the global community, new tactics were needed, new technologies would be employed, hence new programmes of training had to be developed.

The Mexican academy drew on specialists from other ministries, institutions and international organisations represented in Mexico in order to keep their courses up to date. They offered more than thirty different courses in political/economic special interest topics, for example ‘solving commercial controversies’.

They had had a virtual campus since 2004, and employed e-learning increasingly. With 80% of the foreign service based overseas, it was a means of keeping staff in touch with the centre as well as of facilitating professional development.

The academy’s electronic bulletin board supported three objectives:
- Updating course materials daily
- Facilitating collaboration on foreign policy issues with other institutes in Mexico and abroad
- Providing courses for diplomats from other countries, especially in Central America but also more widely.

**In discussion:**
- The particular mix and content of courses varied according to key current international issues, and adjustments in programme budgets.
- Initial training had been reduced from two years to one, and there remained continual pressure on training time; officers could not easily be released from their jobs for weeks at a time.
- The precise length of training was less important than acceptance of the importance of life-long learning.
- Training was needed to facilitate fair competition for promotion. Candidates sat two exams, preliminary and confirmatory. Juries comprised active and retired members of the service, as well as academics. Candidates’ six-monthly reports were taken into account, as was seniority or time in post. The latter factor could disadvantage the young and create a bottleneck in advancement.
- Validating the effectiveness of training was a challenge. Immediate feedback was a helpful guide to relevance and enjoyment, but longer-term usefulness could be measured only by systematic follow-up with both participants and supervisors six months or a year and more later. Few managed this in any coherent way.
- There was typically limited interest in management training, compared to policy and professional skills training such as negotiation.
- The quality of training provision could be an issue. Consultants could be excellent, but were expensive. It was necessary for budget reasons to use in-house staff, but important to ensure that they knew what they were talking about.
5. E-Learning

Dr Biljana Scott, on behalf of Jovan Kurbalija who had been unable to attend, offered an evaluation of e-learning programmes for diplomacy. The practicalities were well understood; the pros and cons merited attention.

E-learning offered a global catchment of participants, and opportunities consequently for constructive engagement between ministries across borders, and with non-government institutions. Participants in online programmes had privileged access to a wider range of sources and specialists than was likely to be available in their own ministry or academy. Materials could be downloaded at night, when access was effectively free.

There were a number of critical success factors:
- Learners had to have the time, energy and intellectual curiosity to take part; they had also to be willing to embrace a new form of learning
- Employers had to be prepared to give time (anything from ninety minutes to half a day) during the working day to enable staff to learn; participation needed to be recognised and rewarded
- Course design and content needed to be adapted to the online format, typically in shorter modules; chapter-length readings might still be required, but the interaction between participant and facilitator needed to be brief and focussed
- Faculty needed to be supported in upgrading and modifying their competences for online teaching, and provided with proper technical and management support (eg in the selection and generation of materials, or in the management of disruptive students).

There were a number of different possible approaches:
- Synchronous – all in a virtual space together
- Asynchronous – facilitating a multilayered exchange over time, starting with a virtual lecture, augmented by annotated text, with comments upon comments in an evolving dialogue
- Blended learning – online plus face to face, funding permitting
- Self-paced – without contact with faculty, perhaps CD-Rom based
- Faculty-led study – providing ideas but not exchange of ideas
- Seminar – in which the tutor might provide the initial introduction and overview, perhaps two participants write the initial papers, the tutor comments, and discussion ensues amongst all participants.

The DiploFoundation’s Textus™ hypertext system provided for structured interactive learning. (Diplo had been a pioneer, though they were now one of many in the field.) Discussion derived from and remained linked coherently to the original lecture. With embedded text, clarity and order could be maintained even when participants were all typing at the same time.

A typical week’s schedule might be:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mon</th>
<th>Tue</th>
<th>Wed</th>
<th>Thu</th>
<th>Fri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Read lecture text; Annotation</td>
<td>Assessment: Q&amp;A Multiple choice</td>
<td>Meeting/chat with lecturer</td>
<td>Lecturer provides transcript of hypertext; more annotation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Diplo courses currently included Bilateral Diplomacy, Public Diplomacy, Economic Diplomacy, International Trade Relations, Privileges and Immunities, Reporting and Document Drafting. Further courses were being developed.

Programmes of e-learning were not without drawbacks. Amongst them:

- It could be difficult to establish personal rapport between tutor and participants. On the other hand, the format might enable shyer people to come to the fore in a way they might not in person.
- Evaluation could not easily be validated; examinations were based on trust. This difficulty, however, was shared with most academic institutions. Software to detect plagiarism was becoming more sophisticated.
- The interaction between participants could be chaotic. The threads needed to be drawn together by the tutor and given shape and coherence.
- Online tutoring, if done conscientiously, was seriously time-consuming. A great deal of preparation needed to be done in advance. Monitoring, responding to and synthesising participants’ contributions was labour intensive.

Many of these challenges could be met – or eased – by fielding teams of tutors to share the load and perhaps to develop joint courses. The Diplo Foundation offered training for capacity-building in online learning, including the provision of course content.

A Workshop on E-Learning was to be held in Geneva in late May, 2006.

**Anita Landecy** offered a case study of online learning for multilateral diplomacy conducted by the Graduate Institute of International Studies, Geneva.

They had had four motivations:

- The use of science and technology for development was a Swiss priority
- They wished to diversify their student base
- They wished to reduce the costs of course delivery
- They could draw on the Diplo Foundation’s quality and experience.

They had offered a blended programme: an initial two weeks in Geneva for training in using the platform; three months of online work; followed by three months in Geneva leading up to the World Summit on Information Technology.

They had made three principal conclusions:

- The blending had not worked fully, as few of the participants from all over the world had been able to come to Geneva, and even fewer could afford to come twice.
- Participants had greatly improved their language and ICT skills, especially online search skills
- The costs, though high up front, offered good long-term savings.

They had been sufficiently encouraged by the outcome to be planning to offer a second course.

The principal message they would give to those contemplating developing programmes of e-learning was: ‘Just start; just do it’. It would prove to be worthwhile.
In discussion:

- Diplo tried to offer as much free as possible. Participants were charged €500 for an eight-week course.
- There was a great diversity of participants, including ambassadors, young diplomats, journalists, students and lay people.
- There were no real problems with access in developing countries. There were two weaknesses in e-learning, though: (i) the drop-out rate was high; as much as 50% and more; (ii) in the chat/open forum phase, students were commenting on other students’ ideas; it was possible for discussion to evolve on erroneous premises. It was essential, consequently, for the tutor/moderator to monitor the discussion and to keep it on track.
- Ministries were able to impose discipline on potential drop-outs by making e-learning courses obligatory for promotion.
- It was essential to offer blended learning to sustain buy-in. Though more costly, the long-term gains were greater, as were completion rates.
- Programmes were offered at present only in English. Thought might be given to offering them in French and English in alternate years.

6. Aspects of Multinational Training for Diplomats

Alan Hunt, Director of the Oxford University Foreign Service Programme (FSP), offered a case study of the FSP’s experience in training diplomats from many countries together.

The FSP had offered postgraduate studies to serving diplomats, journalists and business people since 1969. They offered a taught Diploma course which included research for a dissertation, and were about to launch an MSc degree course in Global Governance and Diplomacy which would commence in October 2006.

Five key issues had been identified:

- **Language:**
  
  The minimum entry requirement for the Diploma course was an IELTS score of 7.0 (7.5 for the MSc course). Most students used English as an administrative or official language at home, but language tuition was available for all, with individual tuition where necessary. Examinations were marked (and externally moderated) on the basis of a candidate’s knowledge rather than linguistic competence.

- **Culture:**
  
  The societies and environment from which students came varied widely, with differing traditions and behaviour – for example, reverence for age and experience. Homesickness could be a problem; the FSP offered regular tutorials and social events which helped to bring the group together. There was a joint student/staff consultative committee, and the directors’ doors were always open for consultation.

- **Learning traditions:**
  
  The course was based on debate and discussion; there were no right answers. An array of libraries and online sources was available, but learning was essentially self-administered. Not all had been brought up in that tradition. Similarly, students brought to the course differing concepts of plagiarism, for which the university displayed a brutal intolerance. The course attempted to encourage independent, logical, creative thought.
Professional experience:
The course covered international politics, international public law, international trade and finance, and diplomatic practice. Students having postgraduate degrees in one or other of these subjects might have felt that part of the course was a redundant component. There were no opt outs. One of the strengths of the programme was the cross-fertilisation of knowledge, ideas, traditions, expertise and geographical orientation.

National Myths:
Students brought to the course a gut feeling about their own country, its history and regional relations. The course made no attempt to change these; there was no ‘false heritage’. Students were being enabled to serve better their own country, not some abstract notion. The programme encouraged knowledge and understanding about others’ national myths.

The multinational Oxford Foreign Service Programme offered several positive advantages: language development in English; exposure to other cultures; the opportunity to learn from each other, breeding tolerance while retaining a clear sense of self-perception and national interest; balancing fealty to one’s own government with creative thinking; building a network of friendship and mutual respect.

In discussion:

The balance between academic and professional components was changing. (At Georgetown, for comparison, the course was approximately one-third academic, two-thirds practitioner-orientated.) At Oxford there was increased demand for academic content; hence the launch of a masters degree qualification.

Selection was by academic panel, including the two course directors (one academic, one former diplomat). Most candidates were nominated by their foreign ministries, which had their own screening processes. A third of candidates were supported by British government scholarships awarded by competition. Candidates for the MSc degree course would require a First class undergraduate degree.

Interactive learning took the form principally of simulation exercises. Case studies were informal rather than formal, based on discussion of issues raised by the case.

7. Cultural Diplomacy

Heng Xiaojun, Vice-President of the China Foreign Affairs University, circulated and spoke to a paper on Cultural Diplomacy.

The China-France culture year 2003-2005 offered a case study of cultural diplomacy. In the first half of the programme a Chinese Culture Year had been held in France. Three hundred programmes had been offered in three parts: ancient China, colourful China and modern China, which together had presented a comprehensive picture of Chinese society and people. In the second half of the programme a French Culture Year had been held in China, with hundreds of performances and exhibitions in twenty provinces and cities. Joint and reciprocal events had been held in twinned cities in the two countries. The programme had helped to build political mutual trust, closer economic and trade co-operation and fruitful cultural exchange.
The theme of the China-France culture years had been respect for cultural diversity. Dialogue and exchange could help different societies to transcend the competitive pursuit of power and wealth, and to avoid conflict. The world in the twenty-first century faced a choice between embracing multilateralism, globalisation and diversity on the one hand, or being condemned to unilateralism, marginalisation and uniformity. Cultural exchange could help to tip the balance in favour of the former.

Global communications now made possible awareness of other cultures and systems. This could be a positive benefit, enabling peoples to broaden their perspectives. It could also be a negative influence owing to the asymmetry of cultural power, in which societies with more advanced media and technological capacity could come to dominate and undermine cultures with less projective force. Governments were turning to cultural diplomacy, to ‘soft power’, as an element of strategy to defend and promote their political, economic and social interests.

It would be helpful both to the promotion of global harmony and to professional effectiveness if diplomatic training included awareness of cultural diversity.

In discussion:

- 2001 had been the UN Year of Dialogue amongst Civilisations, undermined somewhat in the aftermath of 9/11. Yet respect for cultural diversity had proved to be not as much threatened as had been thought initially.
- Japan had a programme of cultural exchange with the EU25, government facilitated rather than driven.
- Understanding of culture was essential to understanding political and economic issues. The Emirates Institute of Diplomacy offered four programmes to their diplomats: awareness of their own culture; dialogue amongst cultures and religions; relationship-building; and resource and cultural management (this latter programme for mid-career to senior diplomats building relations with foreign businesses and civil society organisations). There were obstacles, however: there was less enthusiasm for the task of educational and cultural diplomacy than for political/military issues; and funding, co-ordination and follow-up were problematic.
- Cultural projection could be a negative force if propagandist. Diversity at home was a prerequisite of respect for diversity in international relations.
- The impact of programmes of language and educational exchange could be measured. It was comparatively difficult to evaluate the cost-effectiveness of cultural diplomacy, despite the high profile currently given to it.
- It was difficult to assess short-term value, but in the long run cultural exchange would pay off both in national economic terms (attraction of business and tourism) and in conflict avoidance.

8. Training of Diplomats in Chairing Multilateral Meetings

John Hemery and Paul Meerts described the programme of training in negotiation and chairing they had conducted in preparation for the UK Presidency of the European Union 2005. The two-day course had comprised a series of simulation exercises in small groups of six or seven people, each representing a member state. Each had been provided with written instructions giving background, line to take and fallback positions. The objective had been to reach agreement on a common position.
The chair had rotated around the group every twelve to fifteen minutes, giving all a practical opportunity of experiencing command of the negotiation. The whole exercise thus had lasted about ninety to a hundred minutes. Negotiation had been conducted both at the table and in the corridor.

Each group negotiation had been monitored by a tutor. On completion of the exercise the tutor had conducted a detailed debrief of the negotiation, drawing out lessons learned from the negotiation for the group as a whole and for each individual chair.

The value of the format had been validated in feedback from participants in thirty-five courses. The most important factor had been hands-on experience in command, but they had gained as well from watching others’ styles and techniques in the chair, recognising what worked well and less well.

By way of demonstration, members of the Forum were asked to part in the exercise which had been conducted at the outset of each course. Working in small groups they discussed the question ‘What makes an effective chair?’, and fed their principal conclusions into the subsequent plenary discussion.

9. Language and Diplomacy

Dr Biljana Scott, MPhil, DPhil in Linguistics, analysed the way in which a deeper understanding of the relationship between language and meaning could be helpful in diplomacy.

There were a number of dimensions to consider:
- Semantics – the meaning of words
- Pragmatics – the meaning of words in context
- Ambiguity – euphemism and ‘fudging’ to a purpose
- Metaphor – the use of (often inaccurate or incomplete) analogy
- Verbal spin – what you would like people to believe you had meant
- Visual spin – image manipulation to influence thought or perception
- Signalling – commands, threats, suggestions, warnings, apologies
- Media control – the commanding narrative, seizing the public’s attention.

It was helpful in training to deconstruct the language of a negotiation or agreement: to define terms, to expose assumptions, to contextualise the discussion more broadly, to get beneath overt meaning to underlying intention.

The DiploFoundation offered an online course in Public Diplomacy which built on this linguistic base. Part of its objective was to enable participants to differentiate between public diplomacy and propaganda or spin; to distinguish between producing a disciplined message and coherent image and facilitating a dialogue of diverse perspectives and understandings. The two could be contradictory or complementary. Diplomats and their governments had to decide how to use communication to advantage their national interests: through coercive signalling or by attraction, or both.
In discussion:

- It was essential for a diplomat to learn the local language in order to get beyond the words of a government and people to the meanings beneath.
- Institutions had their own specialised terminology. UNITAR had produced a glossary of 700 terms for UN delegates. Understanding this inner language was necessary to effective conference diplomacy.
- Textual analysis of recent or current speeches could be helpful in deciphering intended meaning. (What had the person meant when asking, ‘Would you like a cup of coffee?’. What had the interlocutor understood when replying, ‘No, I have a lot of work to do in the morning.’)
- The close study of language aided awareness. Awareness offered choice. Lack of awareness limited options.

10. Concluding Session

The 34th Meeting of Deans and Directors would be held in Vienna on Thursday 28 and Friday 29 September 2006.

A list of the eleven topics proposed for discussion at Vienna had been circulated. The co-chairs would try to select the three or four which seemed most relevant nearer to the time. A draft agenda would be circulated, with suggested speakers.

Additional topics proposed included:

- The security and intelligence services as drivers of foreign policy
- The relation of international relations theory to the practice of diplomacy
- Training of locally engaged staff
- Training for human resources management
- Oral histories as a tool for professional development.

There were a number of suggestions of alternative/additional format:

- The regional meetings were too short. More time should be given to open discussion between institutions.
- Simultaneous panels would enable more topics to be covered, with more opportunity for individual contributions in subsets of the plenary meeting.
- An evening event would enable the time together to be used to the maximum: an after-dinner debate perhaps, or a film of a real negotiation as a vehicle for both discussion and training.

The venue of the 35th Meeting in 2007 had yet to be decided. The last four Meetings apart from the biennial gathering in Vienna had been held in North America (2000), the Middle East (Jordan 2002), Europe (Dubrovnik 2003) and Latin America (Peru 2005). Perhaps it was the turn of Asia or Africa. Expressions of interest in hosting future meetings would be most welcome.

John Hemery
Rapporteur