

**EUROPEAN DIPLOMACY:
REGIONAL COOPERATION, LIFELONG
LEARNING AND DIPLOMATIC TRAINING**

**Dubrovnik, Croatia
2007, 2008, 2009**

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Mladen Andrić

Editors

Mladen Andrić
Jelena Grčić Polić

Co-Editors

Tihana Bohač
Valerija Šegota

Cover Design

Antonija Besediček

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Address

Diplomatic Academy
Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration
Republic of Croatia
Petretićev trg 2
10 000 Zagreb, Croatia
Tel. +385 1 4599 200
Fax: +385 1 4599 458
E-mail: diplom@mvpei.hr

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Preface

This issue of Diplomatic Academy Proceedings on “European Diplomacy: Regional Cooperation, Lifelong Learning and Diplomatic Training” is a collection of papers presented at three international conferences organised in Dubrovnik, Croatia, by the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of the Republic of Croatia in cooperation with the University of Zagreb and its International Centre of Croatian Universities, Dubrovnik. The conferences are continuously held under the auspices of the Central European Initiative (CEI), enabling regular exchange of views of diplomatic experts from the CEI member states at least once a year, attracting also participation of others interested in the field of international relations, foreign policy and diplomacy.

The contents, continuity and even the tradition of these gatherings resulted also with a generic name of the Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum, while this issue is related to the following:

- “Lifelong Learning and Diplomacy”, 14-17 May 2007,
- “Diplomatic Training and Regional Co-operation”, 17-19 April 2008, and
- “Modern European Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training”, 7-9 May 2009.

The aim of Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum is to provide an effective international discussion, from academic and practical point of view, namely to present, promote and foster various effective concepts, methods, skills and techniques of diplomacy and diplomatic training. Each forum deals with a specific topic, with an open approach to all domains of modern public diplomacy; from economic and cultural diplomacy to particular aspects of development, regional co-operation, education and civil society. Providing a discussion on diplomatic strategies and policies by senior experts, it also offers an interactive programme and specialised workshops for junior diplomats.

In this respect, the proceedings are prepared not only as a fine reminder of the conferences, but more as an additional serious contribution to diplomatic literature. This issue of Diplomatic Academy Proceedings, with papers from different conferences, provides for a collection of works selected and edited in three parts – (i) Regional Cooperation and Diplomatic Training, (ii) Modern European Diplomacy, Lifelong Learning and Diplomatic Training, and (iii) National Case-Studies.

Editors

I. REGIONAL COOPERATION AND DIPLOMATIC TRAINING

Statement at the 2008 CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum

Pietro Ercole Ago*

First of all I wish to extend a warm welcome to all participants in this important CEI Feature Event, focused on Diplomatic Training and Regional Cooperation. In the context of ever growing integration and regional cooperation processes, lifelong training of diplomats has been gaining increased importance. The Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum, in cooperation and with the support of the CEI, has a well established tradition of addressing these important issues, and exploring ways of meeting growing demands placed on diplomats in connection with regional cooperation processes.

Today, in fact, the new political map provides new challenges and opportunities for regional cooperation. The latest EU enlargement has greatly changed the framework of economic and political cooperation within the entire continent. The process has put more emphasis on the need for an extended regional and sub-regional cooperation in which the CEI, as the oldest and the largest regional organisation, is clearly indispensable. The CEI was not immune to the changes in the past few years. A process of self-critical analysis and re-launching was undertaken last year with the aim of better responding to the changing in the region. In any case, a dynamic adjustment was a feature of the CEI during all the years since its inception in 1989. In this process, it has developed an identity consisting of a specific mix of institutional structures and instruments for cooperation.

Now the CEI will face new challenges. While in past years priority was given to institutional areas of cooperation, new economic growth and human development are high on the list of priorities. Concrete actions and activities are envisaged to achieve these objectives under the current Moldovan CEI Presidency, possibly in close cooperation with other regional bodies, such as the SEECP/RACC, the BSEC, and others. The CEI expects a pragmatic dialogue and result-oriented discussions in a “give-and-take” open format.

* Ambassador, CEI Director General, CEI Executive Secretariat, Trieste, Italy.

The CEI is willing not only to maintain the traditional exchange of information on all levels, but also to look for concrete practical co-operation where mutual interest exists and where tangible results are to be achieved. There certainly is a great deal from one another, especially at this crucial juncture in history, on the regional co-operation in furthering regional integration and cohesion. In this context, two particular events seem quite interesting and promising. We recently had a Regional Coordination in Istanbul on 31 March, where all regional organizations of South Eastern Europe expressed their interest and willingness to increase mutual cooperation not only exchange of visits and of information, but also in looking for the possibility of jointed developing specific projects, especially in areas that belong to mere than one organization. We are also having in the next week a meeting in Bruges with the European Commission and we hope to reach an agreement on increased cooperation and specific activities since so many of our members or candidates to the European Union and therefore a joint effort would be a valuable to the improvement of the situation in Eastern and South Eastern Europe.

Welcome Address at the 2008 CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum

Dinka Živalj*

It is a great pleasure to be here with you today and welcome you on behalf of the Regional Cooperation Council (RCC) and its Secretary General Hido Bišćević.

As we know, a large part of the region of South Eastern Europe (SEE) has been struggling to catch up with the rest of Europe and the developed world ever since the difficult transition of the 1990s destroyed a lot of its economy, infrastructure, mutual confidence and communication, social and human ties.

With the aim of having the entire region become part of European and Euro-Atlantic structures and the necessity to restore the broken ties of communication and cooperation, the SEE countries have joined forces through the newly-established Regional Cooperation Council, as the main channel to achieve their strategic goals.

The political umbrella of the 12 members of the South Eastern Europe Cooperation Process (SEECPP), the strong backing of the RCC Board and its participating states and organizations, especially the European Union, and the heritage of the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe that the RCC is the successor of, form a firm basis on which the Regional Cooperation Council will build its work and profile.

Unlike the Stability Pact, though, which was created outside the region for the region, the Regional Cooperation Council is a product, ownership and leadership of the region itself. This fact increases its responsibility. As such, it is tasked with sustaining focused regional cooperation in SEE and promoting European and Euro-Atlantic integration.

And while the RCC will continue with a number of activities initiated under the SP, it will also start afresh with many activities in its priority areas of economic and social development, infrastructure and energy, justice and home affairs,

* Adviser to the Secretary General, Regional Cooperation Council (RCC), Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina.

security cooperation, building human capital, and parliamentary cooperation. These activities have an ultimate goal to improve lives of the people in SEE and make them full-fledged members of the European and Euro-Atlantic family.

The Regional Cooperation Council will first and foremost support developmental projects and a political climate susceptible to implementing activities of a wider regional importance to the benefit of each country of South Eastern Europe. We will aim at renewing and strengthening social and human potential of our part of Europe, such as through activities in the sphere of education, E-South Eastern Europe, cooperation of universities, academia, libraries, etc. In doing so, we shall maintain close working relations with all actors of relevance, be it governments, international organizations, international financial institutions, regional organizations, civil society and the private sector.

Assistance of our partners from the European Union, the United States and other key partners will play a valuable role in these endeavours. South Eastern Europe needs to stay in focus of the international community and consolidate itself as a place of constructive dialogue and a meeting point of key world players.

I believe you will agree that education is key to every success, and the work done to train the diplomats and equip them with necessary skills is critical not only to their ability to present the interests of their own country but also to build bridges of cooperation and understanding among nations and states.

The countries of SEE are acutely aware of the importance of building a knowledge-based society, shored up by expertise and knowledge of our people, especially the young. This is reflected in the RCC's priority areas of Building Human Capital as well as Social and Economic Development.

In this sense, the Task Force "Building Human Capital", which has passed into the hands of the region, deserves our particular attention and support. The experts at the RCC in charge of these priorities, supported by the entire Secretariat and in particular the Senior Expert in Building Human Capital and the Secretary General, will have a demanding job in facilitating cooperation, devising programmes and projects and attracting donor support.

This is why we very much appreciate and support the work of diplomatic academies both as educators and active promoters of cooperation in the field of diplomacy and development of regional and international ties. Needless to say, we look forward to continuing our cooperation in the future as well.

In this respect, I will be listening with a lot of interest your suggestions and proposals as to the possible ways of future cooperation between your distinguished institutions and the Regional Cooperation Council. We can give a significant contribution to the future of our region, and to building knowledge-based democratic societies, stability and economic prosperity.

In the end, allow me to thank our hosts for their warm hospitality and excellent organization of this important event.

The CEI in the Context of Regional Cooperation and as an Instrument for the Training of Diplomats

Harald Kreid*

I will divide my intervention into two parts. In part one I will deal with the issue of competing and cooperating among regional bodies. In part two I will briefly try to explain in which manner the CEI has been able to play a constructive, if modest, role in the training of diplomats from its Member Countries.

The CEI and Other Regional Actors

Let me address this issue from three angles. First: Is cooperation necessary or desirable? Second: What does the record show? And third: How could it work in the future?

As to the question of **who has an interest in coordination and cooperation**, it seems to me that this is not so much the interest of the Secretariats of regional bodies but of the Member States. The reasons are easy to understand: It is the Member States which provide the funding and they have an interest that their contributions are well used. It is also the Member States whose representatives are attending the various meetings and they suffer from lack of human resources and from collisions, that is to say, meetings scheduled at the same dates, not to speak of overlapping and/or duplication.

These phenomena occur both in a geographical and in a thematic context. Geographically, regional organisations overlap, because all of them share a number of the same members.

It is a common phenomenon, not only in international relations, that everybody wants to belong to everything in order not to miss out on opportunities and in order to dispose of as complete an information as possible as well as

* Ambassador, Alternate Secretary General, CEI Executive Secretariat, Trieste, Italy.

benefit from a maximum of visibility. Therefore, proliferation of membership beyond the geographical area originally targeted is common – the CEI is a good example for this.

There does not seem to be a remedy for this natural urge "to belong" and this means that we simply have to live with the phenomenon of expansion of membership beyond the scope originally contemplated by the "founding fathers".

Now, this overlapping in terms of membership should not worry us, provided that there is a clearly discernible division of tasks among the Regionals. Yet, here we run into another difficulty, because, in terms of substance, it is inevitable that topics which are considered of vital importance will come up on the agendas of several or all regional bodies. Issues which are "fashionable" cannot be ignored or left completely to the others. Public opinion which knows nothing of the intricacies of dividing up the work would not understand that certain topics are missing, particularly in the light of the fact that the Regionals do not have an identical membership.

Thus, it should come as no surprise that **the record of past efforts is not particularly impressive**. Yet, efforts have been made. Between 2003 and 2005 the Regionals met at regular intervals in Vienna, Trieste, Ljubljana, Istanbul and Brussels to discuss their calendars of events and possibilities of cooperation. The participants at these meetings were the Stability Pact for South East Europe, the CEI, BSEC, the Adriatic Ionian Initiative, SECI, SEECP and, occasionally, the Danube Cooperation Process. (After an interruption of several years, a new attempt has been recently made with a meeting convened in Istanbul at the beginning of this month).

What emerged very quickly from these meetings was the fact that each of these bodies had a different status and different working structures and methods, ranging from a full-fledged international organisation like the BSEC to a hybrid one like the CEI to loose formations like the AII or the SEECP. There was also an essential difference between those bodies which disposed of a permanent secretariat and funds for operational activities and others that were basically limited to discussions at various political or expert meetings. Thus, it should not be surprising that the overall result of these meetings was meagre.

We learned more about the differences than about opportunities for cooperation and, while for a while, our calendars of events were made more compatible, we hardly ever succeeded in working together on joint projects – the exception to this rule were a number of cooperation activities between the CEI and AII, but these, from my point of view, suffered from the lack of balance, because it was always the CEI which co-financed activities of the AII and never the other way round.

What Conclusions Can We Draw from this Situation for the Future?

From what I said before and based on my six years of observation and efforts to come to some kind of arrangement with the others, you will understand if I see no cause for optimism. Summarizing the reasons for this scepticism I would say:

- the genesis and the structures of each regional body are quite *sui generis* and therefore incompatible;
- the membership is not identical;
- the financial resources and the use made of them vary considerably;
- each of us has to create its own identity and strengthen its visibility rather than blurring it by proceeding in partnerships;
- joint activities mean higher costs in terms of logistics and raise the question of the ultimate responsibility for the project.

Under these circumstances we must really ask ourselves whether the added value of such a coordination and cooperation of the Regionals is really sufficient to justify the effort. After all, let us not forget that – and I consider this the decisive point in my argumentation – the total impact of the regional activities, compared for instance to the various EU Programmes, is extremely modest as are the available budgets. Therefore, it is quite legitimate to say that – provided the Regionals focus on operational activities rather than mere policy debate – duplications are quite irrelevant. The needs on the ground are so much bigger than the available resources so that, even if all of the Regionals focus on the same aspects, let us say environment or education or whatever else it might be, there is no danger of reaching the limits of the absorption capacity of the beneficiaries. In other words, what is more important than fretting about possible duplications is a judicious and effective use of our limited resources and this is exactly what we have been concentrating on in the CEI.

Ambassador Ago already spoke about the CEI so I will not delve on our own organisation but I should, nevertheless, like to make a comment on our recent reform process because it was, in several ways, a response to the changing regional context, marked above all by the EU enlargement process which led to a growing number of EU Member States among our own members (there are now 9 EU MS out of a total of 18), and, second, by the emergence of a new regional actor, namely the Regional Council for Cooperation as a follow-up instrument of the Stability Pact. Our reform process which started in March of 2007 and was completed with the adoption of a set of decisions by the Meeting of the CEI Heads of Government in November of the same year can be resumed in three main points:

- simplification of working structures;
- increase of financial resources;
- strengthening of the Role of the Executive Secretariat.

As to the Simplification, it Concerns...

First, a reduction of meetings (the Committee of National Coordinators will meet six times per year instead of nine, the Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, while maintained as such, will be held back to back with the Meeting of Heads of Government which will result in a significant reduction of costs and logistics for the country holding the Presidency).

Second, a reduction of the areas of work from 17 to 8. The CEI will concentrate on the following 8 areas of activity:

- Climate, Environment and Sustainable Energy
- Enterprise Development (including Tourism)
- Human Resource Development
- Information Society and Media
- Intercultural Cooperation (including Minorities)
- Multimodal Transport
- Science and Technology
- Sustainable Agriculture.

Third, the elimination of all Working Groups and their replacement by national focal points and various networks of experts.

With regard to the financial resources, MS agreed to the principle of doubling the current budget of the Executive Secretariat. Italy replenished its special fund at the EBRD and a number of Member States, notably Austria and the Czech Republic, agreed to contribute to a newly established Fund on Climate and Environment Protection. This means that in terms of finances the CEI will be better equipped to attend to the needs of its Member States.

The strengthening of the role of the Executive Secretariat is a direct consequence of the above-mentioned reform decisions. More resources signify more project-related activities which are administered by the Secretariat. The dissolution of the Working Groups signifies that the future work will coalesce around concrete projects for which the Secretariat will put together so-called Project Implementation Groups.

All in all, the reform will render the CEI more responsive to the needs on the ground, strengthen its bottom-up approach and shift the focus from policy debate to project design and implementation.

The CEI and the Training of Diplomats

When addressing this second aspect of my intervention, I need to immediately start with a caveat: the CEI does not train diplomats and it has no intention of doing so, unless in an indirect manner by contributing over many years financial resources to these very meetings in Dubrovnik or to the courses offered by the Diplomatic Academy in Vienna. Nor can it be said that the CEI Executive Secretariat is a breeding ground for young diplomats. It is true that the executive level of the CEI-ES consists of diplomats seconded by Member States but these are normally experienced persons who have already served in various diplomatic posts and it is this very fact of having already acquired such an experience which allows them to run the CEI-ES in a professional manner. If we consider the staff of the CEI-ES, it is true that these are predominantly young people from various countries, but mainly from Italy – yet they are no diplomats nor, in the majority of cases, do they aspire to embark on diplomatic careers.

So, what then, can the CEI claim in terms of a role for the training of diplomats? You should take into account that the CEI was created in 1989 and since then there have been regular meetings – during many years on a monthly basis – of our Committee of National Coordinators which is composed of diplomats from our Member States. These meetings turned out to be for many of those participating in them an introduction to multilateral diplomacy, its rules and procedures, its methods of negotiating a common text such as the Final Documents of our high level meetings, of reaching agreement in an effective manner and of expressing national positions in a non-confrontational form.

One will say that these are basics of diplomacy – and for those of us who have had an opportunity to serve in a multilateral capacity they tend to be self-evident. But we should not forget that many of our member states emerged from a different background, namely from Communist regimes with authoritarian top-down decision-making which meant, first of all, that there was no culture of free discussion, no culture of compromise-oriented thinking. It took time to replace this Eastern diplomacy governed by a predominantly ideological approach by the pragmatic, open culture of debate which is basically the Anglo-Saxon democratic style and spirit that, after WW II, became the decisive influence when the international multilateral system was created.

I am fully aware of the proportions and therefore I do not want to belabour this point. But, nevertheless, one should not disregard the formative role of the CEI: because it was a more intimate gathering compared to the large international bodies, because it was less intimidating, because the diplomats of Central and Eastern Europe were, so to speak, among themselves it was easier for them – and there was less risk attached – to take the floor in a CEI meeting, to express

themselves freely in a language that had come to replace Russian which they were using before, and to deal with issues that were much more familiar to them rather than turning to the problems of far-away countries and continents. So it can be said that the CEI was not only, as many have said, a good stepping stone for future EU membership, it was also a good training camp for future large-scale multi-lateral diplomacy.

Diplomatic Training in the CEI Area and its Comparative Background

Armando Marques Guedes*

I shall divide what follows into three segments, or parts. In the first, I will discuss the pedigree of diplomatic training, that is, some of its genealogy. In a second one, I shall turn to a few case studies on Central European Initiative (CEI) Member-States training of diplomats. Lastly, as a third and last leg, I will attempt to equate to pull some strings together, and for this I shall equate a handful of more normative (and so less descriptive-analytical) comments.

I. The briefest comparative scrutiny of the genealogy of types and modalities of diplomatic training shows us it is rooted in two quite different models. The first Academies for the preparation of diplomats appeared in France, under the name of *Académie Politique*, by the hand of the Marquis de Torcy, in 1712, and in Austria, in 1754, with Empress Maria Thérèse's *Orientalische Akademie*.

Although Paris and Vienna did indeed follow alternative paths in order to achieve these common aims, mapping out convergences and divergences, however cursorily, is enlightening. In the two cases ancient documentation was studied, and this underlined a deeply held conviction that the practical experience of illustrious predecessors was believed to be particularly effective in the fulfilment of the Royal Houses' interests. Equally, in both Academies efforts were made to guarantee that students obtained a minimal mastery in the use of languages, in the knowledge of juridical orders, and some proficiency in commercial practice. Furthermore, in Vienna as in Paris trainees were cast as *apprentices* whom, through interaction with experienced men, somehow by a sort of osmosis absorbed the fine rules of assuming postures and attitudes required for a good performance in the arts of diplomacy, cunning, and ballroom – all of these traits which characterised the couth interactions between political communities that

* President, Diplomatic Institute, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Lisbon, Portugal.

made up the social and cultural world of the era. In both cases, moreover, fluency in the handling of court etiquette was what weighed greatest in the definition of the expected qualities of an exemplary student. Wagered on the essential in attempting to secure an image of credibility and integrity amongst foreign and local elites for the practitioners of the art of diplomacy, the educational system provided in France and in Austria arguably aimed, above all, at equipping their apprentices with social alacrity, cultural promptness, and manners, as these were in fact the essential traits accepted throughout as a “strong currency” for political legitimacy by the ruling European elites.

In the first as well as in the second of our pair of cases, the results were achieved by efforts carried out on two essentially complementary fronts. On the one hand, by drawing candidates almost exclusively from the aristocratic classes – that is from the actual niches where the behavioural rules to which this legitimacy were attributed were defined, and which the constant exchanges and matrimonial alliances within the noble families had been, for a long time, spreading throughout the Continent – a carefully driven pre-selection maximized chances of success. On the other hand, by placing the main emphasis of the actual training offered and acquired onto the mimetic reproduction of this hegemonic symbolic universe, a consolidation of sorts was duly ensured. In other words, the nature of the training offered flowed from the ultimate aim of equipping apprentices with the strong cultural currency of the times.

Thus, in general terms, for the Austrians as for the French, recruitment and training were largely centred on modalities of reduplication – ones carried out with a minimum of corrective adjustments – of what was taken as constituting profiles adjusted to a strongly desired real-world efficacy, actual or imagined; a preference which was well corroborated in the extant framework of standardised relationships, and which, in turn, came from the apparent unchanging historical repetition of a past as unchangeable as it was taken by most actors involved to constitute an exemplary set of precedents. At issue was the replay of a past which, for that very reason, the students of the two Academies were systematically taught to cultivate with due reverence.

But behind these similarities hid important discrepancies, for these were, in truth two very different formats of emergent diplomatic training. A more fine-grade view of details shows that there were momentous dissimilarities between the first and the second case. These were differences that made all the difference. In practical terms, Vienna and Paris were really not at all following the same paths, and it is surely worth describing, albeit perfunctorily, what the diacritical differences were which so essentially separated the two projects. These become clear as soon as we look at the disparity in their objectives. In 1712, the then French *Sécretaire d’Etat*, the Marquis de Torcy, founded the *Académie Politique*,

in Paris, with the avowed intention of better preparing the diplomatic staff seen as necessary to a France that was coming into an international stage in which “navigation” was clearly becoming increasingly more complex and demanding. Paradoxically – and that, as well as the French Revolution, were perhaps the motive for the *Académie*’s early demise – the training course that was sketched out and started bore a rather direct connection to the prior foundation of the historical diplomatic archive of the Kingdom, thus giving body to the presumption that good strategies remained unchanged: its avowed purpose was to allow study of an increasingly voluminous and rich diplomatic correspondence, so that political and diplomatic agents could, via that very exertion, search for inspiration in the actions and activities of the Founding Fathers.

To this effect, young nobles from Torcy’s *Académie* began to collect and catalogue the papers of successful previous Ministers and they undertook the study and scrutiny of these documents with great care and in often minute detail. Alongside this, they received methodical training in foreign languages. In the framework of what we would today call an “analogue method”, what they strived to do, in fact, was to absorb the possible teachings of “History”. On the basis of such a model of learning they would one day become able – at least this is what they thought – to prepare detailed *memoranda* of the same sort as those which had, in the heyday, proven to be useful for the design French foreign policy, and that, in the future, would again guarantee the same sort of victories. The pedagogical method favoured by the *Académie* had clear scholastic strategies and it was carried out collectively, by teams: that not only facilitated learning; it also most certainly helped the creation and growth of what we would today call “epistemic communities”. It further displayed a more “scientific” pedagogical, or didactic, dimension: in parallel with providing for individual study, the Academy also held regular seminars, study meetings and work in which the old *memoranda* of big names were analysed and evaluated¹, by a group of chosen students, under tutorship from one or more teachers chosen from among people with experience in the tasks under study.

This was not, on the surface, very different from what was carried out in the Austro-Hungarian framework, the *Akademie* which Maria Thérèse installed in Vienna half a century later. But although the solution found there was somewhat similar to the Parisian one in both method and content, its emphases were in reality very different and the systematisation and impersonality of the teaching and learning methods preferred were considerably more responsive to the outside world. Times had indeed changed in that half century and so had the type of State under consideration was not the same. In terms of its international impact, the Austrian model would eventually reveal itself as longer-lasting and as much

¹ M.S. Anderson, *The Rise of Modern Diplomacy, 1450-1519*, London: Longman, 1993, pp. 92-93.

more influential than the French one. And it lasted much longer: in effect, its activity has not been interrupted since its founding in 1753, if two exceptions are made: one for the period of World War II, and another in 1964. Following a division of labour that would soon arise, from it came — in the time of Emperor Francis Joseph — a partial *doppelgänger* entity, the *Konsularakademie*.

It is surely helpful to briefly detail its original nature somewhat further. The initial proposal of the creation of the Empress Maria Thérèse's Austrian *Orientalische Akademie* (later renamed *Diplomatische Akademie*) was the preparation of young diplomats and imperial consuls for the Near East, took particularly into account the formal relations with the Ottoman Empire with which Austria-Hungary had a lengthy border, the resultant close relations, and with whom it often entertained prolonged tensions. The *Akademie* actually dealt with an utterly new initiative, on that front: that of providing a systematic training – and doing so at a full-fledged academic level – to its representatives, often left largely to themselves in fast changing borders subjected to shifting locations, so that the Imperial House would be able to better pursue its relations with the non-European world, or at least an importantly adjacent part of it. Rather than presume, at its core, historical similarities and repetitions, it assumed that cultural variations and divergences were the rule. Therefore, rather than propose a rote-learning by imitation and osmosis, on the Paris *Académie* model, the Vienna *Akademie* dealt on creative adaptation by means of schooling in analysis.

Vienna inaugurated, in this way, a style of training that was to make history. As a strategy it was a format much more plastic than the Parisian one, so it gave its end-users a clear competitive advantage. The format that supported it was undeniably “modern” and by and large it emulated that of the universities of the time. The *curricula* and the pedagogical methods are evidence for it. Apart from the systematic teaching of Eastern languages (Turkish, Arabic, Persian), there were also *ex-cathedra* classes and seminars on the cultures of the many peoples settled in the extensive regions under the control of the Ottoman *Grande Porte*. In a fast changing world, the creation of the Austro-Hungarian Diplomatic Academy was by any measure a success: rather quickly, besides the importance it acquired in the drafting of the Habsburg diplomacy as a whole, it became an element of relevance in the life and in the general formation of the Empire, stimulating the cosmopolitan and knowledgeable attention of many other sectors of Viennese society. Besides diplomats, many were the Austrian and Hungarian men of State who enrolled in it with the objective of deepening their own education, some of them even reaching the coveted position of Chancellor.²

² Idem, *ibid.*, p. 91.

With time the superiority of the Vienna model over the Paris one of old became apparent, and it should come as no surprise that it was the former and not the latter which essentially led to the contemporary developments in the realm of diplomats' training. However, the twin birth, so to speak, left its marks on the original DNA, as it were: in developments that ensued, there has always been a clear tension between the two polar models of training, the French and the Austrian, which, therefore, we should perhaps see as embodying the generative template of what was to follow. The French model was basically focused on early texts and themes, and ministered by experienced "elders". The Austrian model was not merely academic – that would have constituted a blatant error, obviously – but resulted from a blending of professional and academic teaching-learning, anchored on contemporary, future (as well as past) themes, conducted by experts chosen on merit. The *Aufklärung* had arrived.

I have focused elsewhere on the many transformations to which this style of diplomatic training has been subjected, so I shall not go into this here.³ Dates like 1815 and the Congress of Vienna (with the rise of the new Conference diplomacy), the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 (with the emergence of new worries about consular matters and private international as well as commercial law), Versailles in 1919 (with the unstoppable ascendancy of multilateralism), or San Francisco in 1945 (with its confirmation and an apparent end to the Clausewitzian *dictum* that war is an extension of diplomacy by other means) and the massive wave of decolonizations in the 50s, 60s and 70s of the last Century (which spelled multicultural multilateralism for anyone who cared to hear), and probably 9/11 (although it is too early to know if and in what that actually did more than tweak the rules) spelled huge changes in both the subjects needed for the education of good diplomats, and the training tactics used for that purpose. It brought more things, themes and topics, to the fore.⁴ They also brought about a cleavage that I briefly want to bring out: a gap between some States which invested heavily in training and some who did not.

The most meagre of comparisons shows, that those who did deem training essential, are of one of two kinds: one the one hand, States which had, have, or want to acquire or regain a regional, or even global, role, and who therefore need to diversify, by means of different paths to specialization of all sorts, their diplomats' profiles – I am thinking of examples such as the US, France, the UK, Russia, China, India, or Germany, to name the most obvious ones. On the other

³ See my *Diplomatic Institutes and Diplomatic Training*, Vienna Diplomatic Academy, 2008, in print.

⁴ It is interesting to note that changes in diplomatic training appear to have by and large only occurred after conflicts which changed the international system in ways which required the learning of new subject-matters.

hand, small but ambitious States, who strive for an international impact greater than that “mechanically” provided by their small or medium size, as it were, also tend to attribute an enormous importance to training and thus have a tendency to invest rather heavily on that front – here I am thinking of cases such as that of The Netherlands, Israel, Norway, Sweden, Chile, Taiwan, or Portugal. Of course, these groupings are by no means mutually exclusive, essentialist blocs, something I shall want to come back to; they are nevertheless there. My point is that the large majority of cases in which diplomatic training is systematic, intense, and demanding, may be found in these two sets of States: global players who are forced to do so, given the variety of scenarios they find themselves involved in, and small eager ones who want to punch above their weight.

Well, then, what about *CEI* countries, are they “clustered” at this level – if, indeed they come together at all as part of this set of disparate entities? Interestingly, although surely not unexpectedly, they do display common denominators and, for the most part, they exhibit striking convergences, but they do not really belong to any of these two major groups I carved up. So what are the main “attractors” and “repulsors” at work in the *CEI* set, and what may be learnt from those? Let me turn to those two questions one by one.

II. Many, maybe most, of the *CEI* States, are post-Communist entities who were either recently admitted into the Union and into the Atlantic Alliance, or who are on a formal or informal NATO and/or EU tracks for precisely that; although there are a few who are in none of these paths. These are States that, for the most part, in the last decade or so left the now extinct Soviet Bloc. Apart from this political convergence, also at more dry sociological levels they do indeed in many senses crowd together: they tend to display elites of an average to high level of education, but are also rather underprivileged in their international influence; finally, they show, as a rule, an understandable ambition to gain it. In terms of the patterns I detected, and if we overlook political realities on the ground, abstract general conditions appear favourable for a fairly diligent training of new diplomats who will be especially apt for effective action on international stages which have been subject to profound changes.

I shall first focus on two of these States, those that appear to be the most capable of using their recent integration into NATO and the European Union to be able to make a leap to such understandable ambitions: Poland and the Czech Republic. These two examples are very different from one another, due not only to marked dissimilarities in their State traditions but also to their different scale. Notwithstanding that fact – and given that my aim is to show how the pursuit of common strategic objectives spells out the installation of new formal mechanisms of teaching-learning of diplomats – I shall deal with them together, since as we

shall see, they “cluster”; in other words, comparatively, they agglomerate as sort of variations on a common theme.⁵

As stipulated from the outset, a rapid and in many senses laconic survey of the training required in the initial phase of the career of Polish and Czech diplomats will do. I begin with the Czech Republic. The recently recruited diplomats in the Czech Ministry are supplied with a “theoretical part of the course for newly recruited diplomats who successfully passed exams of the recruiting contest which is held by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs every year. [The] course develops the diplomatic skills (negotiation, presentation, etiquette) and further develops knowledge in the subjects important for diplomatic career (international relations, international law, economics etc.)”⁶. This course, defined by the Czech authorities as “theoretical”, has the duration of 5 months, and is

⁵ It is fascinating, although perhaps not really surprising that this cluster somehow overflows *CEI*. An interesting, because rather similar, set of examples is that of the three Baltic States, none of them *CEI* Member-States. I shall mostly focus on Estonia — and its case is not too different a case from those of the “Eastern” countries which we have already looked at. Just like in my previous examples, we will limit ourselves to training given to Estonian diplomats at the beginning of their career. The preparatory entry course in the Estonian Ministry includes academic subjects, which are, in many cases, taught by “in house” staff: “how Estonian Foreign Service works; priorities of Estonian Foreign Policy; international organizations and Estonia’s role in them; Estonia and EU; security policy, NATO; bi- and multilateral relations; trade policy, foreign economic relations; international law; consular affairs”. It also includes training more directly aimed at internal life of the Ministry and at its institutional relations with the external (both national and international): sessions concerning “protocol and etiquette; negotiation training” are therefore offered. The similarities with the Polish case are very easy to be seen. As, however, are also the examples of the other two Baltic States, Lithuania and Latvia. In the first case, the recently recruited Latvian diplomats receive two series of classes: one composed of 32 sessions, the other of 33. In the second, the young Lithuanian diplomats are subjected to an intensive course of 2 months full time, with classes in areas so varied as “public administration, constitutional law, international law, international organizations, international economics, strategic planning, etc. Specialised courses cover international relations, diplomacy, diplomatic protocol, professional skills, psychological training, etc.”. The Lithuanian Ministry of Foreign Affairs specified unambiguously that in these courses “lecturers are university professors and Ministry officials”. What is perhaps more interesting here is the composition of the group of students who attend these courses, which have a stipulated duration of “92 academic hours”. On the one hand, we are faced with “a 2 month compulsory course” as far as the young diplomats who have recently joined the Estonian Career are concerned. However, on the other hand, the course is open: “non-diplomatic staff can join on a voluntary basis”. After this course two other courses follow on the young Estonian diplomats’ professional route. Immediately before their first posting, a second one with the duration of “24 academic hours” takes place. And a third course, complementary to the earlier two and with a strong local language emphasis, is given once they are already posted, with the duration of “50 academic hours”. The Estonian effort to obtain a stronger European and world influence by cutting ties with a Soviet model that had, for half a century, been imposed on them is palpable. Visible too is their wager on a full-fledged intensive training model with a strong academic component to it.

⁶ *Idem, op. cit., Programmes de Formation des MAE de l’UE et institutions de l’UE*, in the section relevant to the Czech Republic.

compulsory and full time; it is a demanding and extremely intensive course which envisages a general improvement visible in the quality of the trainees who undergo it. The course and Institute were designed by a diplomat-academic, an extraordinary gentleman, and is now (mid-2008) led by a diplomat-academic.⁷

Matching this, in Poland, young Polish diplomats who enter the Ministry of Foreign Affairs are submitted to local intensive and formal training courses, which are full time affairs that last for a period of 6 months (a recent lengthening, started not long ago, sometime in 2004 or 2005, the duration was only 10 weeks⁸), courses which consist in entirely academic subjects: “international relations - history and theory; economy; European integration (history, European law, economic integration); international security (legal framework, institutions, proliferation, terrorism); globalization; international organisations and Polish multilateral diplomacy; the history of Polish diplomacy; Polish bilateral relations; international law theory.” This training is complemented by theory modules, but with an applied nature: “consular service; diplomatic protocol and correspondence; negotiations and public relations”⁹. Finally, the Poles add to their training of diplomats a fundamental theoretical-practical set of sessions. As in the Czech case, the Polish “theoretic” training is given, in a large part, by academics from the National Academy of Sciences: in both cases entities tributary to earlier State models and which survived their demise; to these are added, today, university professors from the many public and private universities in existence in the two countries.

In both cases, Polish and Czech, it is highly academically-trained but mostly diplomatic staffs (many of them with doctorates) who are responsible for the more professional training carried out in order improve what is often a not-so-simple post-communist ministerial integration. In the Polish case, the intensive full time six months that the young *Attachés* spend in the Diplomatic Academy straight after they pass the exam to enter the Ministry, are followed by another half year of placement “in central Ministerial services”¹⁰, deemed essential for them to receive some supplementary on the job training. “If and when there is available financing”, the final third of the eighteen months – the last segment of the interval between entrance and confirmation – are used for the placement of young *Attachés* in posts abroad, in “a regime of experimental internship” – they are sent, as a rule, to Embassies and Consulates in other member-States of the European Union, the main Polish priority.

⁷ Respectively Professor Otto Pick and Dr. Irena Krasnicka.

⁸ Personal communication received in Warsaw, 17 November 2005, from the then new Director of the Polish Diplomatic Academy.

⁹ *Idem, op. cit., Programmes de Formation des MAE de l'UE et institutions de l'UE*, in the section relevant to Poland.

¹⁰ *Idem*, personal communication.

In order to complement the points I just made, let me now briefly focus on two other *CEI* States that – notwithstanding their more recent entrance into NATO and the EU – may harbour plausible ambitions of punching above the weight they have had so far, Romania and Bulgaria. What are at once striking are both the similarities with the two earlier examples and, paradoxically, the significant differences which are patent: in Romania and Bulgaria, again Diplomatic institutes have somehow been placed under the control of academics. And, again, the model chosen has, by and large followed the typical 1990s European one of adding to their competitive entrance exams a course combining theoretical training in Law, Politics, Economics and (some) History with more “practical”, and “diplomatic practice-focused” exercises, and with some hands-on on-the-job experience – and, when possible, even with some temporary posting exposure of the young “cadets”, if I am allowed to call it that. For the purpose, the Bulgarian and Romanian MFAs have, like their Czech and Polish counterparts, created Diplomatic Institutes within their administrative reach, so to speak: in both cases they are institutions with a high degree of autonomy, dependent directly on the Ministers rather than on the Ministries they actually articulate with. Understandably – but interestingly, nevertheless – the models chosen follow quite closely the examples of the last two or three decades in what used to be called Western Europe, a point to which I shall want to come back.

Like in the earlier Poland-Czech cluster, the Bulgaria-Romania one congregates diplomats and academics. Unlike Poland and the Czech Republic, nevertheless, Romania and Bulgaria went for a mostly academic staff for their new diplomatic training institutions; perhaps even more to the point, gave these institutions some active functions as sort of strategic “think tanks” for foreign policy planning in core areas of their national interests – nevralgic topics and areas that is, geographically as well as thematically. Significantly, they do this along what to all intents and purposes are two rather different means: in the case of Romania, via the establishment of a superb *corps* of training staff largely recruited in Universities and focused on paired themes (History and Politics of Europe, for example, or International economics and the Hispanic world, or still Russia and contemporary Russian and CIS political dynamics, or yet again, the Black Sea and its security issues, or even CEI) – and it is these people who both teach the newly arrived cadets and who produce briefs and short analyses (as well as some rather longer ones) for the benefit of the Minister and the Ministry decision-makers – irrespective of the attention these latter actually pay to them. In the case of Bulgaria, the mechanics of functioning appear to be somewhat looser and more personalised, as a smaller and somewhat more top-heavy arrangement prevails, in which academics and some diplomats, many of these last linked to the departmental structure of the MFA, join efforts to pass on some theoretical

knowledge to their young students (on what are, *mutatis mutandis*, the same sort of “national interest-intensive” areas), while, simultaneously, centering their briefs on direct contacts and advice provided to the Ministry structure by its notable diplomat-academic Director.

Before turning to other, non-EU examples within the scope of *CEI*, it is interesting to note that in Bulgaria as in Romania, like in Poland and the Czech Republic, induction course are obligatory, longish, and multiplex. In all these cases the aim is ambitious: and it is not second-guessing to assert that it does not give body to a hope to reproduce old templates, but is instead focused on a strong desire to produce diplomats who will be capable of changing, by what may perhaps be called “amplification”, the international impact of their respective States. Induction courses take now from 4 to 6 months, on a part-time basis in Romania (broken up into nine modules), and 3 months full-time in Bulgaria (this time broken up into twelve modules): in both cases this was arranged, by arduous negotiations with the “services” of their respective Ministries, which insist on “having people at work, rather than learning”.¹¹ As stressed before, these mainly “theoretical” endeavours are in the two cases complemented by “diplomatic” practice”; simulations, and the acquisition of language skills. As was the case with the previous clustering, in this later example an obvious similitude is patent between Romania and Bulgaria. This is perhaps not surprisng, particularly if we take into account the fact that both Diplomatic Institutes were in fact created under the aegis of the very noteworthy Dutch *Clingendael*.

Note further that, in truth, the four examples I reviewed so far do not formally differ too much from one another. The institutional strategies followed to achieve the avowed aims of these four *CEI* diplomatic training institutions are not identical, however, and this is, I believe, well attested by the variation in trainers reactions to and attitudes about, their trainees: Czech trainers appear to feel very collegial towards their young diplomats, whom they seem to generally regard as competent and eager to better themselves; Bulgarians are clearly proud of the quality of the new generation of professionals being produced, something the Romanians appear to be somewhat more reluctant accepting; Poles, I do not

¹¹ As Italian diplomat D. Polloni well noted, in well applied sociological-organizational terms, “one constant in many countries is the conflict between training requirements and the operative pressures of the Department, which creates bad feeling and misunderstandings between the training body and the other Ministry departments and causes *viscosity* in the management of young diplomats who are the preferred recipients of the training” (D. Polloni, n.d., p. 39, my own stress). Although the argument used by “the services” resembles the one traditionally used in rural societies to defend child-labour (rather than focusing on the need to either augment personnel or rationalize operations), this unfortunate attitude has by no means kept things still. It has been the case a little bit everywhere that reality has imposed itself and training has been intensifying, even when that did not mean increasing the personnel available for daily working tasks.

really know – although I do suspect they will tend to have outlooks as to their trainees somehow similar to those of Czechs, albeit maybe with a few Romanian-style hesitations. This becomes easily understandable when we use a wider lens: if we focus on the relations between the generations of diplomats and not that between trainers and trainees, in all four cases, not unexpectedly, there seems to be no love lost between the old dinosaurs and the new guards of “young Turks”. This is the result of the fact that, behind the somewhat different institutional strategies pursued, there lies a common objective: radically changing the *status quo* by converging with Europe, while trying to gain a tactical advantage in the new gameplan.

For the sake of contrast, let me now quickly focus on two other EU Member-States which belongs to *CEI*, one an old member of the Union, the other a much more recent one: Italy and Austria. As we shall see, this brings out another cluster, and this time it is a fairly different one. With the intent of rendering the contrasts more vivid, and although given the economy of the present study I do not really do that, one should perhaps display the entire set of formal training carried out throughout diplomats careers, rather than focus merely on initial induction training. These are well articulated, in both Italy and Austria, with the preparatory cadet formation offered. Although the former examples also include medium and advanced training, they do so much more loosely and tentatively. Typically, this entails modules here and there, dispersed along careers. In these two older cases, a very clear strategic depth is patent.

Italy has an *Istituto Diplomatico Mario Toscano* (ISDI), created in 1967 by the eminent jurist Mario Toscano, a well-known Professor of International Law and a great master of History of Treaties and International Politics. The very name chosen, that of a renowned academic, denotes an intention to establish a *para-university* institution which presided over the creation of the *Istituto* by the Italian State. We begin by underlining that the ISDI is firmly rooted in the State apparatus. It is one of the Director General offices of the *Ministero degli Affari Esteri* (MAE), with functions in the areas of training diplomatic personnel and for the management of candidates to the access exams for the diplomatic-consular career and the international organisations in which Italy participates.

The *Istituto Diplomatico* came about as a result of a restructuring of the Italian Ministry which took place in 1967. Its explicit main aim was and is to try to improve and complete the professional qualification of staff, both diplomatic and non-diplomatic, through its courses and the training and revision initiatives, as well as preparation of candidates in the entrance exam for the diplomatic career. It included courses elaborated for not-yet confirmed initiates, or cadets, called *Secretari di Legazione in Prova*. It also included substantially more in depth courses for the *Conseglieri di Legazione*, special preparation courses before postings, courses for *operatori area promozione culturale*, and others

including computer sciences, languages and long-distance learning (*e-learning*) of various types of subjects¹².

Let us once again begin by focusing chiefly on the training made available to young Italian diplomats at the beginning of their career, the *Secretari di Legazione in Prova*. These are obligatory courses with the duration of 9 months. Their format is mixed, and it is so fully: they include an academic part, but above all their aim is the acquisition of practical experience. The ISDI does not itself format and organise this last aspect of the courses, given that it includes visits to multilateral and foreign international institutions, as well as it is expected in *on the job* training in Italian Embassies, Permanent Missions, and Consulates abroad. In a manner similar to that of Spain¹³, the whole process envisions, with clarity, a full preparation of diplomatic staff, so as to better guarantee, while facing an ever more complex and changing international reality, an informed and able defence of the country's interest which the Italian State politically defines as its own.

It is, however, at the more advanced level of training offered to the *Conseglieri di Legazione* that the academic dimension of the preparation of Italian diplomats appears in its plenitude. There one notices the ambition in the acquisition of greater national weight on international stages. For the progression to Embassy Counsellor, the Italian Ministry requires from candidates the attendance of, as well as a good result in, an intensive course of 6 months, for which "High Level Seminars, with academics, scholars, politicians, on a series of international and important domestic questions, [are] required. [This training] even includes visits to public institutes, and updating in current affairs of a political, cultural nature, in questions of national economic policy, etc".¹⁴ The model clearly points in the direction of a training that is more technical-scientific than bureaucratic-administrative; a training which the Italian State has come to plan for its diplomats, according to a logic which is rooted in its will to gradually draw up, and then guarantee, its wider and deeper implantation on world stages: a project the more specialised, more professional, and more creative training model chosen, fits rather well.

Austria, now. Faithful to its tradition from the mid-18th Century, Austria today has a *Diplomatic Academy*, loosely integrated in the University of Vienna, which organises the "Diploma" programme, whose attendance is a legal requirement for the participation in the entrance exams to enter the Ministry

¹² It sounds very good on paper, indeed. The system *in action* is another matter, which deserves to be more closely scrutinized than was possible here.

¹³ Namely by the *Escuela Diplomática*; see my book published in Vienna.

¹⁴ *Idem, op. cit., Programmes de Formation des MAE de pays de l'UE et d'institutions de l'UE*, in the section relative to Italy. See also Domenico Polloni, *Birth of a Diplomat, Procedures for recruiting and training diplomatic staff, a comparative study*, p. 9.

of Foreign Affairs. This exam is restricted to candidates who have background studies in “Law, Science, Politics, or Economics”.¹⁵

The finalities of the Austrian *Diplomatic Academy of Vienna* prove, nevertheless, to be vaster, seeing that it aims to supply the students who attend with the necessary preparation for an international career, not only in diplomacy but also in business and finance, international and non-governmental organisations, and so on. At this level the echoes of traditions originating from the Imperial Austro-Hungarian meticulous structure ring clearly. The Austrian case, for this very reason, is particularly interesting in comparative terms. Once a State of high standing and with a strong regional influence, Austria has seen itself relegated to the status of a small but ambitious State, and knew how to act in conformity by adapting an old structure to these new national ambitions.

The Academy also offers a Special Program in International Studies, a multidisciplinary programme that gives access to MAIS (*Master on Advanced International Studies*), which includes the requirement of presenting and defending a final dissertation. The subjects which it is made up of are very wide and diversified, as can be seen on the list presented for the academic year 2004-2005: the European Union and the International System, Current Affairs in European Security; Economic Implications of the Enlargement of the European Union; Decision Making Process in the Union; Specific Areas of Community Law; Economic Foreign Policy and Foreign Policy of the Community; Transatlantic Relations; European Economic Strategies and International Competition; Latin America, Europe and the USA; the Middle East, Europe and the USA; Balkanisation and Libanisation; Asia between Conflicts and Cooperation; Africa after the Independencies; North American Diplomacy; UN Peace Keeping Operations, Simulation of a UN General Assembly Meeting; Human and Minority Rights; Environmental Security; Politics and Economics of Petrol Markets; International Investment; Public Diplomacy; Diplomacy and the media; Protocol; Etiquette and Diplomatic Correspondence; Rules of Hospitality; Language Teaching.

The centrality attributed, on the one hand, to the basically academic training of young Austrian (and other) diplomats – in a tradition that, as we have seen, is as long as they come – could hardly be plainer. The same can be said of the integrated character of the programs offered: the end objective of preparing diplomats capable of confronting a complex and multifaceted world in a way that preserves autonomy and personal creativity without annulling group coordination, could not be more explicit. Something which, in Italy as in Austria actually in a strong sense carries, or propagates, into the more advanced stages

¹⁵ Domenico Polloni, *op. cit.*, pp. 16-17.

of national diplomatic training. Never, of course, overlooking an always crucial professional training dimension to their teaching-learning processes.

Stepping now outside the EU, let us look briefly at the shape of diplomatic training in two Western Balkan *CEI* Member-States, Croatia and Serbia. As we shall easily see, they another cluster, again not surprisingly: in both cases the entities are Diplomatic Academies tributary to the legacy of the Yugoslav model of old. Although, as we shall see, Croatia does actually appear to be diverging from Serbia, by coming closer to a Romania-Bulgaria type model, perchance due, at least in part, to its *Clingendael* and Austrian Academy experience.

The old so-called “diplomatic school of the [Yugoslav] Ministry of Foreign Affairs” was subdivided with the implosion of the country and State: in 1995, a new organisational unit was created in Croatia (the Diplomatic Academy of Croatia) and three years later, in 1998, an analogous one rose in Serbia (the Serbian Diplomatic Academy). This common progeniture was efficacious: in many senses these are parallel entities. That much is patent in the respective charts of the Diplomatic Academies of Serbia and Croatia. In Serbia, “the Program of the Academy was primarily designed to train young professionals who are beginning to work with the Ministry [of Foreign Affairs]”¹⁶. Croatia also has a Diplomatic Academy, but one with a somewhat wider scope: its finalities are “diplomatic training, publication of relevant editions, research of foreign policy affairs, and cooperation with like institutions”¹⁷. What Serbia says of its Diplomatic Academy is nevertheless certainly also true for its Croatia counterpart: “[the State’s political and social development meant that] the education of diplomats gained in complexity according to the modern standards of diplomatic service and contemporary international developments. With time, this education has become institutionalised”¹⁸. In both cases, the Academies remain within the direct administrative fold of their respective Ministries.

The basic induction course lasts in Serbia for nine months and, following a timeless University tradition, it is divided into three trimesters. In Croatia, it goes on for one year. In the two cases, similarly, the trainers are diplomats, academics (both national and foreign), as well as other civil servants. Insofar as curricular contents are concerned, it is fair to say that theoretical issues related to Law, Politics, Economics, and History manage to live side by side with more practical “professional training”. As could be expected, at least for the time being, Croatian *curricula* focus more on NATO and EU matters than do Serbian

¹⁶ The phrase was taken from the Internet site of the Serbian MFA.

¹⁷ The phrase was taken from the Internet site of the Croatian MFA.

¹⁸ *Ibid*, Serbian Internet site.

ones. Equally, both Academies organise Seminars and regularly come out with publications connected to their particular fields of interest.

Turning to a last example, now, I would like to focus briefly on the Albanian Diplomatic Academy, interestingly – because perhaps not obviously – one obvious member of the very same cluster as the Croatian and Serbian one. The Academy is private, although the President is an Ambassador and the Executive Director an academic. It's basic course is shorter, though, lasting three months full-time, and is broken up into 11 modules, half of which are theoretical in content, the other half either practical or theorico-practical. Although I am not personally acquainted with its operation¹⁹, the Albanian Academy appears to be very focused on contemporary matters and crises, comparatively somewhat more rudimentary than its Serbian and Croatian counterparts, and more tied to building a structure *ex novo* than to maintaining or transforming it. The Albanian Academy is trying to widen its basis and now (mid-2008) has signed legal instruments which associate it with local and neighbouring Universities.

III. Pulling all this together should not be too difficult. There is really no point, I believe, in returning to the four main clusterings I identified: they are as a rule self-evident, and even though they have different historical, sociological, and administrative roots, and display diverse degrees of cohesiveness, groupings are clearly there to be seen. Some of these clusters are as *a priori* entities as could be expected; a few, however, are not at all the “classical” conglomerates one would expect to find. The actors themselves detect the existence of such clusters, as I called them: Macedonia, for example, is still [mid-April 2008] hesitating between the adoption of a Serbian or a Bulgarian model for its up and coming diplomatic training facility. It is still not clear to me, either, where the Hungarian and the Montenegrin schemes fit in. But elective affinities – some, I repeat, rather unexpected ones – are there, quite unmistakably.

To go back to my initial comments: I noted at the outset that the large majority of the cases in which diplomatic training is systematic, intense, and demanding, are to be found in two quite distinctive sets of States: global players who are forced to do so, given the variety of scenarios they find themselves involved in, and small eager ones who want to punch above their weight. So allow me to go back to that general analytical framework and start from that level.

No *CEI* States (even Italy and Austria) actually belong to the first of these. In *CEI* there are no real global players, those States who where that (Austria and Italy, again, are choice examples here) do not really want to regain that

¹⁹ My data was entirely obtained from the official site of the Albanian Diplomatic Academy, although I did benefit from a variety of conversations on the topic.

now lost status they once enjoyed (although it would be argued Italy may be becoming one and Austria would perhaps like to too), and there are no recent major regional players who may want to make up for time lost (although Poland might conceivably be moving in that general direction). And if they do integrate the second set which I initially delineated – that is, if they have the ambition to weigh heavier than what their size and scale automatically grants them – then they should run the extra mile. And this is something that, although some of them may well yearn for, none (not even Austria and Italy) are really there yet.

The immediate geographical (and political) neighbourhood of *CEI* does, nevertheless provide excellent examples of States from one, the other or both sets. East and West of *CEI*, Russia and Germany are clearly global contestants, very global ones at that, and naturally their rich and demanding diplomatic training tags along. North of *CEI*, Northwest, and East of it, Norway, Holland and Israel are wonderful examples of States who manage to rather heavily punch above their weight, partly via the quality of their Universities, the exquisite care they take with their selection procedures, and the well-heeled diplomatic in-house training they demand from their diplomats. As I noticed at the outset, these two groupings are not, in fact, mutually exclusive ones. Notice, for instance, that The Netherlands, like Israel or Portugal – as a moment of reflection shows us – are in good truth members of both my groups: Holland had colonies throughout, mainly in the Americas and Asia, and Israel has to take into account the dynamics of a Jewish diaspora that spreads the world over. Portugal is like Holland here, and like Israel too.

But the cold truth is that no *CEI* State is really in a position comparable to these – notwithstanding Italy's economic and political dynamics and Austria's and Poland's potential bids – so it becomes difficult to mobilize resources for the wide-aperture and high-intensity training of diplomats that having to contend with those scenarios in the real world actually entails. But there would be no harm in trying.

In order to do that, however, a better coordination and a thicker cooperation is needed. This could mean, for instance, a systematic mutual exchange of people and information, the regular sending of *stagiaires* between *CEI* Member-States' Ministries, the organization of joint training courses and, ultimately, the setting up of some sort of a mini-Bologna circuit between them. Perhaps most importantly, and so as to avoid the inevitable bureaucratic viscosity already mentioned, there must be clear-cut political directives on training requirements that will render it impossible for Ministries to constantly force Academies and Institutes to the negotiating table, under labour pressure – and that, of course, requires not only a better rationalization of the MFAs modes of operation, but also the agreement of the national Ministries of Finance – something which only

a powerful political agenda can come up with. This is a tall order indeed. But also, really, a reasonable hope.

A quick word about “administrative proximity” let me call it that, and its correlates: a reality-check, in a way. If this is true, than one would expect that the capacity of a training entity in pushing away (as it must if it is to function as one) pressures from “the services” of MFAs will decrease as its administrative distance from the Ministries augments – or, to put this in other words, those that have direct dependence ties (say, Croatia, or the Czech Republic) will likely be more capable of imposing training than those under “indirect rule” from the central Ministerial structures (say, Romania or Bulgaria, who depend on the Minister rather than on “the machine”), and more so than independent ones like the Vienna Academy or the Albanian one, subjected to “the market’s” visible hand of the MFAs as consumers. *Ceteris paribus*, that is: for, of course, if the Director happens to a personal friend of the Minister, things may flow along different lines.

So, if *CEI* training institutions want to harmonize their efforts, they must be contented with meetings such as the *Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum*, now in its eleventh leg, sharing know-how and experiences, hopefully values and goals too, detecting current trends, cooperating and coordinating so as to avoid overlap, but also to increase synchronization. But always conscious that doing so is *not* a politically neutral exercise and thus that it involves political choices. Diplomacy and, therefore, the training of diplomats, are too close to State sovereignty for it to be otherwise.

Diplomacy, Diplomatic Training and Regional Cooperation

Mladen Andrić*

The current international trends and developments are characterised by a number of new and important features, starting from the fact that there are 200 plus independent states functioning internationally, with withering unipolarity of the U.S.A. that still remain the only super power but within a new global matrix. The world of the 21st century is characterised by an in-depth internationalisation, with a rapid flow of information and innovations, as well as by the massive use of communications, including the new social media and networks. The general values of individual and human rights, dialogue and tolerance, mutual trust and understanding influence not only the trends and patterns of actual growth and development, but also the individual merits and mindsets, tackling the attitudes of modern societies with a capacity to effect profound structural changes.

The Westphalian system of national and/or individual values and interests has moved towards the supranational values and standards, with dynamic international cooperation and closer integration schemes. The centre of economic power has been shifting towards Asia and elsewhere, with new actors benefiting from regional integration and cooperation. New actors benefit from regional associations, *e.g.*, ASEAN, AIPEC, MERCOSUR, and seek further inter-regional cooperation, *e.g.*, S&ED, EU-China, EU-Japan, EU-Russia. We often also speak of BRICKS and Chindia.

The lessons learned from both intra-regional and inter-regional co-operation strengthen the regional approach everywhere. The EU and its regional policies have been evolved over the past several decades resulting in mature structures and effective mechanisms for development. The core EU regional policies are already complemented by a number of structures in the area of Central and South-East Europe, *e.g.*, Adriatic-Ionian Initiative, Central European Initiative

* Ambassador, PhD, Director, Diplomatic Academy, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, Zagreb, Croatia.

(CEI), Central European Free Trade Area (CEFTA), Regional Cooperation Council (RCC), South-East European Co-operation Process (SEECP), South-East European Free Trade Area (SEFTA), the Visegrad Group, including the regional working communities of the Alps-Adriatic and the Danube regions.

It all leads, among other things, towards improving regional and inter-regional cooperation, but also provides for a number of particular benefits. In this context, it seems appropriate to recall once again the wisdom of the brilliant ancient philosopher Lucius Annaeus Seneca in the following quote: *He that does good to another does good also to himself.*

Inter-regional and cross-border ties, based obviously upon the regional and sub-regional patterns, meaning the sharing of same values and goals, lead towards close cooperation and coordination to avoid duplication and possible overlaps. Education becomes the main power of the 21st century, as Jean Monet once mentioned - *If I was to think of the best way to unify the continent once more, it would be through education.* Knowledge and education remain the keys for better understanding. Further transition to knowledge-based societies is still the basis for the overall social and economic progress, as well as a specific European comparative and competitive advantage.

In addition, public diplomacy has increasingly been taking over the vestiges of traditional diplomacy. Current conditions are different than those from the era of negotiating the international rules and procedures after the Second World War, when still the basic international documents on Diplomatic (1961) and Consular Relations (1963) were created in Vienna. Their spirit diminishes with new concepts and dynamism, with changing practices and habits. The post-war period of the still widespread lack of trust among nations, countries and individuals has shifted towards creating open societies and transparent democracies. Today's intensive communication of all kinds, from the new means of traffic and transport to the Internet, with strong business and tourism dynamism, provides for a different attitude.

It seems quite obvious not to avoid the basic international rules and documents, but their procedures could be explained in a more relaxed manner. A new dimension and level of international relations and communication has been arising from the Schengen system in Europe as well as from other regional and inter-regional solutions throughout the world. The threats of terrorism as well as the migration waves, provoked by maldevelopment, natural disasters or political causes, are being taken seriously. However, there is an understanding that people communicate because of their individual business and private reasons, as well as to satisfy their particular needs in education and training, culture, tourism, sports.

A number of cases show that it could be wise to go international by way of going regional, particularly for smaller states, which is also confirmed by the experience of Croatia, particularly in the field of diplomatic training.

On the one hand, the importance of knowledge and training is evident from the fact that the Diplomatic Academy was founded within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs already back in 1995. It was the first institution of its kind in the area of the so-called Western Balkans and among the first ever created in a wider region of South-East Europe.¹ Today, it conducts a comprehensive program of different in-house courses for Croatian diplomats. These range from diplomatic studies for junior diplomats and specialised courses for different ranks of diplomats, via special events and presentations, seminars, workshops and round tables to conferences. Here the international cooperation plays a significant role, enabling the exchange of expert views with others, which obviously widens the scope and knowledge in the field, to preparing and conducting joint activities.

Some of the diplomatic training activities are held in Dubrovnik, an academic and tourist centre, widely known for its contribution to medieval and latter Mediterranean diplomacy, where the following annual international gatherings are organised regularly by the Croatian Diplomatic Academy:

- *Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum (1998 -)*: a three-day conference of diplomats and other experts from academia, NGOs and the media from all over the world, mainly from Europe, discussing selected topics in diplomacy and diplomatic training; specially designed program for junior diplomats, including the workshop; regular publishing of the proceedings; in cooperation with the Central European Initiative (CEI) and the University of Zagreb.

- *Joint Seminar on Processes of European Integration (1999 -)*: a one-week seminar for junior diplomats from Central, Eastern and South-East Europe, with lecturers from Germany, Austria, Croatia, Bulgaria and Hungary; in cooperation with the Hanns Seidel Foundation and the University of Zagreb.

- *Annual Francophone Diplomatic Seminar (2002 -)*: a five-day seminar in French for mid-career diplomats from Europe and the Mediterranean, dealing with the EU trends and prospects, with specific issues well chosen and changing each and every year; in cooperation with the International Francophone Organisation (OIF), the ENA Centre for European Studies, French and Belgian embassies in Zagreb and elsewhere.

Some of the projects are already conducted successfully, but could be revived, *i.e.*, the Dubrovnik Diplomatic Summer School (*DDSS*), coordinated by the College of Europe from Bruges in cooperation with the University of Leicester and the University of Zagreb (2000-2004). There are also some particular outcomes related to the transfer of know-how in the field of diplomatic training. The so called *Dubrovnik Model*² was used as the basis for creating the

¹ Armando Marques Guedes, "Raising Diplomats. Political Genealogical and Administrative Constraints on Patterns of Training for Diplomacy", *Favorita Papers*, No. 2 (Vienna: Diplomatic Academy, 2008).

² Guedes (2008).

Regional Diplomatic Winter School in Sandanski, Bulgaria, which is organised by the Diplomatic Institute of the Bulgarian MFA.

All the aforementioned activities are essentially tools and mechanisms of Croatian public diplomacy, contributing not only to dynamic development of its diplomacy and diplomatic training, but also to its regional and international positioning as a reliable and well-reputed country capable to go international. Most of the lessons learned in Croatia regarding peace, stability, development, regional cooperation, post-war reconstruction and reconciliation are led by high international standards and criteria. The unique experience regarding the communication and negotiations on NATO and EU membership is also offered through tailor-made training programmes of the Croatian Diplomatic Academy.

The need for further sharing of know-how and experiences in this particular field of diplomatic training, particularly by strengthening the cooperation at regional and sub-regional as well as at inter-regional levels, is clearly understood already. There is a wide potential for exchanging views, ideas, concepts and practices pertaining to current training methods and trends. Differently designed mechanisms for further fostering of diplomatic training through regional co-operation could be also ascertained.

There are a number of possibilities and options for improving diplomatic activities by better knowledge management and training, which seem to be more efficiently conducted with alike. It particularly corresponds with the needs of smaller countries challenged by the effects of the economies of scale in a number of fields, including diplomacy.

Croatian experience in the field of diplomatic training also shows the effects of going international by way of going regional, in different sections and niches, including the following:

- **specific diplomatic knowledge**

understanding the international affairs, foreign policy processes and mechanisms (bilateral relations, multilateralism, international organisations and treaties, international relations theories), as well as understanding the civil society, multiculturalism and cultural differences;

- **basic diplomatic methods and skills**

diplomatic writing, diplomatic vocabulary, diplomatic textbooks, diplomatic protocol, foreign languages;

- **additional diplomatic assets**

note taking, speech writing, presentation skills, going public, relations with the media.

New Trends in Diplomatic Training: Bilateral and Multilateral Issues

Milan Milanov*

*I do not know of a sphere of activity more wide-ranging than the
diplomatic profession.*

J. Cambon (1845-1935), French diplomat

In the presentation I am going to deliver to you today, I would like to explore new trends and developments in the domain of diplomacy and diplomatic training. Firstly, I will briefly review the main global trends in the contemporary world in order to provide a context in which we can then consider the operation of modern diplomacy and the implications it has in the area of diplomatic training.

Global Trends in International Relations

Since the end of the 20th century the world has been undergoing a massive process of transformation that has wide-ranging consequences for all spheres of human life and activity. The new international environment that has emerged is the outcome of several overlapping, interrelated phenomena, the foremost of which is **globalization** – perhaps not so new a process but one that has accelerated dramatically in the last few decades.

The end of the Cold War, which amounted to a political revolution, unleashed unprecedented processes of political, economic and social change.

* Director, Diplomatic Institute, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Sofia, Bulgaria.

One of the key impacts of globalization¹ has been the proliferation of actors **and issues** in the international arena. Despite the fact that the nation-state has retained its central role in international relations, traditional state-to-state interaction has been fragmented and complicated as a consequence of the participation of a growing number of non-state actors. The rise of concepts such as those of human rights and minority rights² has prompted a re-evaluation of the idea of national or state sovereignty. Challenges for international law and order have become a characteristic of the new diffused international environment in which actors – state and non-state – advance multiple and sometimes competing claims to territory, resources, markets and legitimacy.

The revolution in information and communication technologies (ICT) has driven the forces of democratization and globalization, providing new communications tools, demanding new organizational processes and altering existing hierarchies and power relationships among both domestic and global actors. The Information Revolution has made information itself a crucial source of power and influence. With the loss of effective control and increasing limitations on sovereignty, governments no longer have the ability to limit or control the communications, transactions and other interactions among entities in international affairs.

These developments pose fundamental challenges to the traditional conduct of diplomacy by reducing hierarchy, promoting transparency, reducing secrecy, mobilizing global social movements and increasing the importance of public diplomacy in international relations. The Internet in particular has changed greatly the power relationship between state actors, NGOs and corporations. Computer and internet technologies have been already an integral part of our intellectual environment for over a decade. The internet fundamentally alters the human understanding about time, space and speed. Internet technologies have

¹ Globalization represents an all-encompassing term that embodies complex and often contradictory phenomena. Some have suggested that it is more appropriate to speak of “glocalization”, a term coined to describe the interplay of local-regional-global interactions, in which *global* and *local* are the two sides of the same coin. Localization works simultaneously to counter or attenuate the forces of globalization. In his book *States, Sovereignty, and Diplomacy in the Information Age*, J. Rosenau points out that “we are undergoing a decentralized fusion of global and local interests”. He calls this dynamic *fraggementation*, “a concept that juxtaposes the processes of *fragmentation* and *integration* occurring within and among organizations, communities, countries, and transnational systems”.

² The most prominent example of which is the evolving theory and practice of humanitarian intervention – itself a controversial subject, not least because of cases where such intervention has been carried out contrary to the fundamental principles of the UN.

become one of the most powerful tools of helping us collect, process, analyze and synthesize relevant information and turn it into operational knowledge. To a large extent, the cyberspace has provided an alternative platform for communication and education.

These trends have already had substantial impacts on diplomacy in various ways, including the very conception of the character of the international system. Sources of allegiance are subtly shifting and multiplying; individuals increasingly perceive loyalties to non-state entities. The rise of strong communities of interest and practice, together with the explosive growth of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)³ and other elements of transnational civil society, complicates demarcating boundaries and state sovereignty, both key features of modern diplomacy.⁴

Diplomacy and Diplomats in an Era of Globalization

Throughout history, diplomacy has been constantly adapting to the demands arising from changes in the international system. In today's globalized environment, diplomacy has to respond to issues that transcend the traditional political-military concerns of classic international relations. As a result of globalization issues such as human rights, transnational crime and terrorism, the environment, international trade, intellectual property and technology concerns, negotiations over technical standards and protocols, have become major issues in relations between and among states, international governmental organizations (IGOs), NGOs and corporations.

Ministries of foreign affairs (MFAs) and their professionally trained staff remain significant players in the conduct of international affairs, despite fundamental changes to the Westphalian state system.⁵ Traditional diplomacy has been adapting to changes in society such as higher levels of democratization, empowerment of the general public and media and more emphasis being placed on ethical issues. Thus, contemporary diplomacy now includes a new focus on public preferences, human rights, cultural differences, international law, transparency and accountability. As a result, new forms of diplomatic

³ It is estimated that at the turn of the 21st century there have been more than 15,000 NGOs active on the international stage.

⁴ As B. Hocking points out, this has added another layer to the globalization discourse concerning the implications of deterritorialization and transnationalism for state actors.

⁵ Some scholars have introduced a distinction between "diplomatic modernity" deriving from institutionalized "Westphalian" models for organizing state-to-state relations and "diplomatic post-modernity" of emerging diplomatic processes and structures beyond the state.

activity have taken shape: public diplomacy, paradiplomacy, cultural diplomacy, economic and commercial diplomacy, corporate and business diplomacy, etc.⁶

Public diplomacy has been a buzz word in diplomatic training. It is obvious that modern international relations are unthinkable without the public component within. Modern diplomacy has to adjust to new social, economic and technological environments. Gone are the times when the art of diplomacy was practiced exclusively within the offices of heads of state and foreign ministries away from the public scrutiny and judgment. Today's professional diplomats are not immune from outside pressures and emergencies. They use public meetings and discussions to advance the national interests of their countries much more frequently than used to do before. A great deal of their work involves open (non-confidential) interaction with people outside their professional realm. They may be members of NGOs, media, trade unions, religious groups, academic and foreign policy institutes etc. In this sense, public diplomacy teaches diplomatic staff how to deal both with domestic and foreign publics.

Public diplomacy is often practiced by non-professional diplomats. Businessmen, doctors, sportsmen, actors, journalists, religious leaders, etc. can well perform the functions of public diplomacy. Public diplomacy is more about "soft power"⁷ which rests with the ability to set an agenda that shapes the preferences of others and make them act in a way one wishes. It is a seemingly difficult task requiring a high degree of common sense, versatility and resourcefulness. In the context of globalization, culture plays a major role in the definition of identity and in the relations between people. Joseph Nye has pointed out the importance of having a *soft power* besides a *hard power*.

Cultural diplomacy refers to a new approach to diplomacy that involves non-governmental and non-professional actors in the making of diplomacy. According to Milton C. Cummings, whereas public diplomacy consists of all a nation does to explain itself to the world, cultural diplomacy – the use of creative expression and exchanges of ideas, information, art, lifestyles, values systems, traditions, beliefs and other aspects of cultures – supplies much of its content.⁸

⁶ It must be noted that the viewpoint that diplomacy has always encompassed such activities (although perhaps not in so pronounced a manner as today) is relevant. The wealth of diplomacy is so inexhaustible that it has and is likely to continue to produce a variety of 'new' forms.

⁷ Drawing upon the concept developed by J. Nye, J. Batora has presented a new definition of public diplomacy as "the development, maintenance and promotion of a country's soft power". Jozef Batora, "Public Diplomacy Between Home and Abroad: Norway and Canada", *The Hague Journal of Diplomacy*, Vol. I, No. 1, p. 54.

⁸ Definition by Milton C. Cummings, cited in Cynthia P. Schneider, "Cultural Diplomacy: Hard to Define, but You'd Know It if You Saw It", *Brown Journal of World Affairs*, Fall/Winter 2006, Vol. 13, Issue 1, p. 191.

Cultural diplomacy is practiced within the context of general diplomacy and is closely intertwined with other generic forms.

The trend towards decentralization of power and devolution of competences from central governments to provincial states has increased dramatically, esp. in some member states of the EU. This trend of greater regional/local autonomy has led to greater involvement of regional and local entities which initiate and conduct their own international relationships.

The international activity of regional governments, or **paradiplomacy** as it has been termed, is a concept that refers to the international relations conducted by sub-national, regional, local or non-central governments on their own, with a view to promoting their own locally specific interests. The international activity of these governments is easily noticeable: they have representation abroad (usually called “offices” or “houses”), lead trade missions, negotiate and sign agreements or even treaties, participate in regional/international organizations and enter into bilateral relations with states and/or other regional governments.

The international activity of regional governments raises a number of questions relating to actors in world politics and international negotiation, the conceptualization by international relations/foreign policy scholars of external-internal linkages, and the boundaries of the field of international relations itself.⁹

New Trends in Diplomatic Training

The environment in which diplomacy operates is changing, and as a consequence also its functions. Diplomacy as a profession has undergone changes in terms of definition, qualification and role expectation. Diplomats are confronted with new actors, agenda items and working methods. They suffer inadequate training and preparation due to various constraints. Adaptation of traditional diplomacy to contemporary realities has become a necessity.

New trends of diplomatic behaviour are emerging in response to challenges such as:

- the changing nature of diplomatic representation;
- greater emphasis on accountability as a result of stronger public awareness;
- the increased importance of consular affairs;
- international activism by non-state actors;
- a focus on creating networks between MFAs and different domestic and international public and private bodies;
- engagement of governments in a dialogue with foreign civil societies and a consequent focus on the utilization of public diplomacy, etc.

⁹ Lecours, A. “Paradiplomacy: Reflections on the Foreign Policy and International Relations of Regions”. *International Negotiation*, No. 7, 2002, pp. 91-114.

In view of the discussed developments in the field of international relations and diplomacy, a corresponding shift in the forms and methods of diplomatic training has occurred. Every institution that offers diplomatic training needs to keep abreast of the times and seek to develop such programmes as to be able to respond effectively to the growing needs of contemporary diplomats and civil servants.

As G. Lindstrom points out:

“For the diplomat of the 21st century, success hinges on being proficient in a multitude of areas and familiar with a variety of tools. Besides knowledge of local language and culture, they need updated expertise in areas such as health, the environment, demographics, and terrorism. They have to know the intricacies surrounding intellectual property rights, dumping, and non-tariff barriers. In addition, today’s diplomats must be comfortable with a variety of technologies, ranging from the typewriter to the satellite phone. They require strong teamwork/partnering skills to collaborate with other groups, such as humanitarian organizations operating in the same host country.”¹⁰

Diplomatic services of the 21st century are open systems that involve communication not just among professional diplomats but also outreach with different strata of society. In this sense, the diplomat of the 21st century needs all the attributes of the diplomat of the 20th century *plus* additional competences. What is more, nowadays there is ‘direct competition’ for talent between MFAs and a growing number of private, public and non-profit entities. This presents a further challenge to diplomatic services which have traditionally been used to being the main competitor for talent.

Contemporary diplomats operate in a very dynamic and complex environment in which they are not the exclusive performers of diplomacy. They need to learn to deal with other professional cultures and with multiple stakeholders, both abroad and at home. Diplomats require a body of appropriate knowledge that needs to be continually updated throughout their career – a more difficult task in diplomacy than in many other professional fields as the scope of work is very broad.

Another complicating factor is that diplomats often find themselves far from the national base of learning for long periods of time. Furthermore, diplomats now have to deal with the reality that there is no longer a place for the ‘gatekeeper’ in a system without gates; a system in which experts in line ministries deal with each other across borders directly, and in which much of international interaction falls outside the direct control of governments.¹¹

¹⁰ Lindstrom, G. “Diplomats and Diplomacy for the 21st Century”, PhD dissertation, RAND, 2002, pp. 1-2.

¹¹ Hemery, J. “Educating Diplomats”, in: Academics, Practitioners, and Diplomacy: an ISP Symposium on the Theory and Practice of Diplomacy, *International Studies Perspectives*, 2002-3, pp. 144-5.

Diplomatic establishments increasingly face the paradox of growing public expectations and diminishing resources. These factors have given rise to new trends in diplomatic training and practice such as:

- the engagement of locally employed staff in more areas of the work of posts abroad, especially in political work, requiring specialist training;
- conjoined training of officials from various ministries engaged in related areas of external affairs;
- growing interpenetration of state and non-state entities in programmes of professional development as each becomes increasingly aware of the contribution the other can make to improved performance;
- strengthening of regional cooperation;
- the beginnings of transnational cooperation as governments look to shared representation within regional structures.¹²

Traditional “in-house” diplomatic training is no longer sufficient to cope with the range of experience and perspectives required for **effective 21st century diplomacy**. The expansion of areas of training such as crisis management, consular affairs, public diplomacy, etc. has been accompanied by a growth in “active learning” methods – simulations, role-playing exercises, e-learning etc. Practical skills training is being adapted to provide diplomats with the new specialist competences they need to be able to perform effectively in increasingly specialized international intercourse. The movement between the public, the private and the civil society sectors is now more feasible than ever before. As a result, there is an increasing amount of cooperation between diplomatic training institutes and non-state actors, who contribute specialist knowledge and expertise in return for access to the foreign ministry’s courses.¹³

Diplomatic training should incorporate the elements of public, business, cultural and media based diplomacy. Public – because diplomats are increasingly involved in public outreach, addressing nontraditional audiences and constituencies and building networks with multiple stakeholders. Business – because diplomats must be familiar with the marketing techniques they can use for branding successfully their home country image and achievements to the foreign audience. Cultural – because diplomats should utilize the potential of

¹² Hemery, J. “Innovations in Diplomatic Training”, Paper prepared for the Conference on “Challenges for Foreign Ministries: Managing Diplomatic Networks and Optimising Value”, organized by DiploFoundation, May 31-June 1, 2006, Geneva.

¹³ Kurbalija, J. Cited in Summary of Discussion document, Conference on “Challenges for Foreign Ministries: Managing Diplomatic Networks and Optimising Value”, organized by DiploFoundation, May 31-June 1, 2006, Geneva.

cultural programmes, exchanges and events in learning about target countries' culture and ways of life and promote their own country's interests. Media – because diplomats must know the ways in which to utilize media for conveying messages and for shaping public debates.

Rather than eroding the role of traditional bilateral diplomacy, the increased intensity of international interaction has promoted a meshing of bilateral negotiations with those conducted in a growing range of multilateral fora. As a consequence, new importance is being given to skills of facilitation and coordination as contemporary diplomats are ever more likely to share negotiating responsibilities with delegates from other government agencies and, on occasion, with members of private organizations. The growing symbiosis between state and non-state actors provides the setting for what B. Hocking has termed *catalytic diplomacy*, a concept based on the recognition of growing interdependencies between actors who enter into bargaining relationships in which key resources – trade wealth, knowledge and legitimacy – are traded.¹⁴

Although professional training opportunities are plentiful, diplomatic staff cannot always benefit from them due to time, space and other resource constraints. At the same time there is an ever-growing need for acquiring and updating knowledge and skills. Besides “traditional” competences new requirements of the times such as “broad scientific and technological literacy” and “Internet skills and Web literacy” have become critical as diplomats increasingly rely on these in the everyday conduct of their work. In this respect, Internet-based education (known as e-learning, on-line learning or distance learning) can be a useful tool in the training sphere. It provides a platform for cross-cultural, cross-professional, cross-national sharing of knowledge and experience. Internet-driven training proves to be a very suitable form of knowledge acquisition, sharing and upgrading of diplomats' professional skills.

Conclusion

Increasingly, the core task and challenge facing diplomatic academies and training departments is training for change: providing staff with the skills and mindset which enable them to adjust to developments in their own ministry and in international relations more widely. More and more, it should become possible for MFAs and state diplomats to learn to adapt their traditional roles and functions from being more inward looking, exclusive and secretive to becoming

¹⁴ Hocking, B. “Diplomacy: New Agendas and Changing Strategies”, in *Net Diplomacy II: Beyond Old Borders*, ed. by Barry Fulton, Virtual Diplomacy Report 15, October 2002, available at <http://www.usip.org/virtualdiplomacy/publications/reports/15.html> [Accessed 11 May 2008].

more reachable, open and inclusive actors, who actively seek the inclusion of other actors, be they state or non-state. MFAs are no longer the gatekeepers of diplomacy but have to share the “diplomatic space” with a wider network of nongovernmental actors. The new image of the *boundary spanner* (anchored in the recognition that boundaries – territorial as well as those demarcating issues and policy arenas – are increasingly porous) stresses the importance of mediating within and across the points of interface between the state and its multiple environments.¹⁵

H. Cincotta has described the world of 2015 diplomacy this way:

“In the decentralized, networked world of 2015, foreign missions tend to be dispersed, mobile, even virtual – and no longer dominated by their political sections. Instead of traditional reporting by cables, diplomats – equipped with digital assistants that could tap huge online information resources – use streaming video, electronic forums, and advanced, encrypted e-mail applications to communicate. The foreign policy agenda of 2015 continues to expand “horizontally”, encompassing new arenas of technology, health, environment, population movements, and economic relations that require deployment of shifting groups of specialists recruited from government and the private sector.”¹⁶

We have begun to experience this reality already. However, we should always keep in mind that the essence of diplomacy is the opposite of the quick fix. In this sense, what we are considering implementing today should be with a view to the future needs of diplomacy. We must identify, develop and offer the kind of knowledge and skills training that will be required in 5 to 10 years’ time.

In a world that is rapidly evolving, the constant infusion of talent from organizations that are internationally engaged is essential if governments are to escape from sterile conservatism. The challenge now is to broaden the use of existing talent in order to enhance diplomacy and increase the likelihood that carriers of change will enter the diplomatic service. This is where diplomatic training – through implementing up-to-date programmes, utilizing new techniques and technology, introducing novel methods of knowledge and skills acquisition, and by encouraging creativity and innovation, undoubtedly has the most crucial role to play in ensuring organizational readiness and the capacity to adapt to the changing global environment.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Cincotta, H. “Postmodern Diplomacy and the New Media”, in *Net Diplomacy III: 2015 and Beyond*, ed. by Barry Fulton, Virtual Diplomacy Report 16, October 2002, available at <http://www.usip.org/virtualdiplomacy/publications/reports/16.html> [Accessed 11 May 2008].

Training Diplomats in Management, Leadership and Negotiations with Non-State Actors

Raymond Saner*

Introductory Comments

My presentation draws on my twenty years of experience as trainer, expert, consultant and university professor with special focus on management and leadership training for private and public sector organizations in Europe, Asia, Africa and North America as well as for almost all of the UN organizations and specialized agencies.

I will also make use of my experience as founder and partner of a 20-year-old consulting firm called Organizational Consultants Ltd. (OC Ltd.) based in Hong Kong and Geneva. OC Ltd. has conducted training programmes for diplomatic academies, some being represented here at this meeting in Dubrovnik. I will also make use of my practical experience as co-founder and director of a fifteen year-old foundation based in Geneva called Centre for Socio-Economic Development (CSEND). CSEND has a successful track record in supporting governments to develop In-service training institutions for their own central governments (e.g. in China, Russia, ex-Yugoslavia and Africa¹) and in comparative research of training within the public sector.²

To summarize, I will try to highlight what I think could be of relevance to your own institutions and to suggest how diplomatic academies could make use of knowledge developed in the fields of management science and management practice and to explore what could be of direct relevance for your curriculum and training practice.

* Director, Diplomacy Dialogue / CSEND – Geneva, Switzerland.

¹ For more detailed information on CSEND's technical cooperation projects, see www.csend.org.

² For information on benchmark data covering in-service training of 13 governments, see R. Saner, F. Strehl, L. Yiu; "In Service Training as an Instrument for Organizational Change in Public Administration", International Institute of Administrative Sciences, Brussels, 1997.

Current Practice

Organizing training courses in Management and Leadership means adding a new topic to the curriculum of many diplomatic academies. Only few academies offer in depth courses on these two subject matters. For instance concerning Management Training, some diplomatic academies offer courses on information management³, or managing the bureaucracy, departments and diplomatic posts⁴, or team management and public speaking⁵.

However, few diplomatic academies go deeper and actually offer courses on project management, managing of team work, or introduction to general management skills.⁶ Regarding Leadership Training, the situation appears even less promising. I have not seen listings of courses on Leadership Training on any curricula of diplomatic academies. My assertion is based on reviewing course offerings of five major diplomatic academies. The actual situation could actually be different than my initial assessment.

Often times, Foreign Service officials are also sent to MBA schools or private training institutions to take management and leadership courses. As a consequence, such outsourcing might not figure on the main course listings of diplomatic academies. Still, I would claim that training in management and leadership remains the exception and that it would be beneficial if these two topics would be more systematically represented on the curricula of diplomatic academies.

Staying with the assumption that my initial observation is correct and that most diplomatic academy indeed do not yet offer training courses in management and leadership, and then one could wonder about the reasons for not listing these two topics in their curriculum. One might speculate that the absence of courses on Leadership Training is due to a perception that leadership is not part of the expected behavior of diplomats. Traditional definitions of diplomacy have often postulated a role for diplomats as being somebody who should support and execute decisions taken by his/her political leaders. Leadership by such a narrow role definition would equate leadership with holding of political office.

In light of the actual practice of modern diplomacy, such an understanding of leadership would be too restrictive. At this point, it might be useful to agree on what we mean by Management and Leadership and compare these definitions with the professional practice of a modern diplomat. For instance from a

³ "Diplomatic Index", Jovan Kurbalija, Mediterranean Academy of Diplomatic Studies, Malta, p.2, Feb. 1999.

⁴ "A Short Guide to Diplomatic Training", Paul W. Meerts, Clingendael, The Hague, 1991 (p.19).

⁵ "Diplomatische Akademie, Diploma Programme, Curriculum 1999", p.3, Vienna, 1999.

⁶ "Education and Training at the National Foreign Affairs Training Centre", Washington DC, *State Magazine*, pp. 42, May 1999.

management science perspective, Management is often defined as “getting things done through other people” and Leadership as “providing vision and purpose for organizations and its staff”. Applying these definitions to the practice of modern diplomacy, one could agree that the activity of management and leadership are also part of a modern diplomat’s job. For instance, the ability to lead and manage seems quite an apparent necessity when one considers the tasks of leading a national delegation at a WTO trade negotiation or when a diplomat is asked to manage a larger Embassy with 50-100 staff and annual budgets up to one million US\$. Or when a diplomat is asked to chair a special task force within the context of an UN conference.

Seen from such a behavioral perspective, most practitioners would agree that training in Management and Leadership should be offered to diplomats. For instance, the results of a training needs analysis organized in 1984 by the New York based headquarters of UNITAR (United Nations Institute for Training and Research) for the diplomats assigned to the United Nations in New York already demonstrated that a significant number of UN assigned diplomats considered the mastery of management principles and techniques as an important requisite to do their job effectively and efficiently.

Such a behavioral view of management and leadership is in fact mostly what our governments and opinion leaders mean when they mention the need for better management and leadership skills of diplomats. This often heard call for better management and leadership skills of diplomats in fact means that diplomats should learn how to better manage their resources, time, staff etc. In addition, many of our governments expect that diplomats should understand how the business community thinks, how the global economy functions and how modern management practices can and should be used in daily diplomatic practice. On top of this, many of our governments have started to streamline their administrations based on concepts of Reengineering and New Public Management principles resulting in a replacement of traditional administrative thinking based on rules and regulations by more modern concepts of public management which emphasizes the application of modern management practices and philosophies. There is disagreement about the right size and function of government, but most experts in public administration agree on the need for increased quality⁷ of services and that in turn demands application of management and leadership concepts and methods. In short, more and more governments and Ministries of Foreign Affairs expect diplomats to know and master management and leadership concepts and skills which in turn means that our diplomatic academies might do well in adding both topics to their curriculum.

⁷ For reference regarding rethinking of quality in government, see R. Saner, L. Yiu, Ph. Levy, “Quality Assurance and Public Administrative Reform: New Developments in Switzerland”, paper presented at the annual meeting of IIAS at Sunningdale, London, July 1999.

Taking into account the limited time available for this presentation, I will highlight a few aspects of management and leadership as they apply to the world of diplomacy. This selection of highlights is based on my 20 years of experience as an expert consultant and trainer in the world of business and in the world of diplomacy. Other experts might consider other parts of management theory as being more relevant for inclusion in the curriculum of diplomatic academies. The field of management science is large; I see this as a first step towards a mutually beneficial interaction between both fields of knowledge. More needs to be done in the future to ensure an efficient transfer of management science to the field of diplomacy and vice versa.

Transfer of Management & Leadership Concepts to Diplomacy: a Few Starters

While it is true that the field of diplomacy predates the field of management science by many centuries, it is also an established fact that management science has seen more rapid expansion in modern times in terms of theory and research than is the case for diplomacy. To give an example, the annual meetings of the Academy of Management⁸, a US based professional association of MBA faculty with international membership attracts each year at its annual meetings an average 7000 MBA scholars and academics. Management science has grown very fast and become more and more specialized to such extent that leading MBA professors worry that too much departmentalization and specialization could seriously limit the relevance of MBA knowledge for the business community.

Some fields of management are more useful for diplomacy than others. Directly relevant might be the fields of organizational behavior, human resource management, conflict management, international management, organizational change, organizational communication, management development, managerial consulting. Other fields would be less directly useful such as research methods, operations management, organization theory, technology management, entrepreneurship, and business strategy. However, even the less relevant specializations could be of use to diplomats depending on the complexity of the problems, which need to be solved in daily practice.

What follows are brief introductions of a select number of management concepts which have direct bearing for diplomatic practice and which therefore could be included in the curriculum of diplomatic academies. They should be seen as a non-exhaustive illustration of how such a transfer from management science to diplomatic training could be envisaged. Many relevant contributions by

⁸ For more information on the *Academy of Management*, see AoM's website www.aom.pace.edu.

management scholars are excluded such as Fiedler, Maslow, Herzberg, Hofstede, etc. just to name a few of the most influential thinkers in the management field.

a) Contingency Leadership

Key contributors to the field of leadership seen from a behavioral perspective are Tannenbaum, Schmidt and Blanchard among many others. Tannenbaum & Schmidt⁹ proposed a continuum of leadership behavior ranging from autocrat (boss dominated) to “abdicrat” (abdication of leadership). In between these two extremes, variations are proposed depending on the urgency of the situation at hand and the competence level of the subordinate staff. The assumption is that a competent leader knows how to change his/her leadership style according to the demands of the situation. Training in leadership would therefore imply that managers/diplomats are given the opportunities to analyze the needs of the situation and to accordingly adopt the appropriate and adequate leadership behavior.

Hersey and Blanchard¹⁰ further developed the Tannenbaum & Schmidt model and included other contributions from the field of contingency leadership studies (figure 3). According to the Hershey and Blanchard model of situational leadership, a competent leader should not only know how to vary his/her style of leadership depending on the tasks at hand and the urgency of the situation, but he/she should also take into consideration the readiness and competence of their followers. If the subordinates are not ready due to motivational issues or are unable to accomplish the task at hand, the leader should then take more control and hold back delegation until the situations permits and/or until the subordinates are sufficiently motivated and capable of executing the task delegated to them.

Applying *situational leadership* to diplomatic practice, for instance, in regard to running the business of an entire Embassy or of a consulate, one should put these leadership models into a historical-developmental continuum. The task at hand of opening a new consulate with few staff is different than for instance succeeding as Ambassador to an Embassy in the capital of a major country. In addition, current situation might change if an embassy has to rapidly increase staff levels due to an external emergency. Leadership then, according to Greiner¹¹, should be consistent with the size -- an evolutionary level -- of an organization which could for instance mean that a diplomat might be a good leader of a small

⁹ R. Tannenbaum, W. H. Schmidt, “How to choose a Leadership Pattern”, *Harvard Business Review*, March-April, 1958, p.96.

¹⁰ Paul Hersey, K.H. Blanchard, “Management of Organizational Behavior”, Prentice Hall, 1988, p.171.

¹¹ Larry Greiner, “Evolution and Revolution as Organizations Grow”, *Harvard Business Review*, July-August, 1972, pp. 37-46.

Embassy but cannot cope with a large Embassy since the leadership requisites would be different.

Moving from conceptual level to application, one should bear in mind that management theory and practice is embedded in a larger socio-cultural field which influences theory building and management practice. There are no universal or generic concepts, which are true across our varied cultures and countries. There is no universally valid approach to management and leadership. All of these concepts need to be seen as they relate to our country's prevalent norms and values. The view that leadership and management practices differ from country to country has become an established fact, thanks particularly to the empirical research done by Geert Hofstede¹² and others. Thus, what would be a culturally appropriate leadership model to adopt in teaching and training of diplomats requires careful analysis of one's own national cultural presuppositions about other cultures.

Many diplomatic academies also offer courses for trainees coming from other continents and cultures. Content and form of management training need to acknowledge and appreciate the cultural differences between the host country offering training courses for foreign diplomats as well as a careful monitoring of possible conflicts or misunderstanding between the course participants coming from at times very different cultural background.

Seen from a pluralistic view, one should also be aware that the process of teaching and training differs depending on the cultural preferences and, often unconscious, expectations prevalent in our countries. To give an example, the expectation regarding the appropriate role of teacher and student differs and so does the expectation of what is the "right or wrong" approach to teaching management. An example being the use of the case method which can be taught according to an American, European or Asian model.¹³

Effective training of leadership and management would hence have to be put into the context of our respective countries in order to be seen as appropriate and realistic. Cultural relativism does not mean that teaching methods and content always have to be adjusted to local norms and expectations.

Sometimes it might actually be beneficial to try new approaches and to demonstrate to trainees "how the Americans, French, Germans, Chinese, etc." practice leadership and how they differ in terms of teaching and training these topics. The key is transparency in terms of where management concepts have

¹² For more information on the cultural relativity of management theory and concepts, see Geert Hofstede, "Culture's Consequence: International Differences in Work related Values", Sage Publ., 1980.

¹³ See R. Saner and L. Yiu, "European and Asian resistance to the use of the American case method in management training: possible cultural and systematic incongruencies", *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5:4, December 1994. pp. 953-974.

been developed, where they can and should be used and what does not work where and why. Discussion of these “contingency conditionalities” can help the diplomats to become cogent about potential choices from a range of leadership and management behavioral repertoires.

b) Managing Stress and Cognitive Dissonance

Modern diplomacy means managing increasing complex relationships and subject matters which were not necessarily part of the list of responsibilities of traditional diplomacy (e.g. media, trade, technology, budgets, etc.). How to manage more with often fewer resources means knowing how to deal with one's own limitations and inevitable stress at times of extreme challenges or long lasting demands for top performance. It is amazing if not shocking to see that our diplomats are basically left to their own wits when it comes to stress management.

In contrast, practically all business schools offer courses on stress management as part of the personal efficacy component of their learning. Executive training programs on stress are standard practice and appreciated by business people and some professions have taken their own initiative in writing their own job related stress management manuals¹⁴ and identified symptoms of stress -- how they manifest themselves physiologically, behaviorally, cognitively and what one can do to decrease stress or better prevent stress altogether. Unfortunately, to my knowledge, none of this is true for diplomats who have to rely on their own resources and luck to survive the multitude of stressful situations, which are part and parcel of a diplomatic career.

Scholars and practitioners in the field of diplomacy have tried to define what makes a successful diplomat. Practitioners like De Callière provided eloquent and insightful views on the make-up of a successful diplomat. British diplomat Harold Nicholson added his own requirements by defining the qualities of a diplomat as consisting of: truth, accuracy, calm, patience, good temper, modesty, loyalty, intelligence, knowledge, discernment, prudence, hospitality, charm, industry, courage and tact.

So far, I have not yet encountered a diplomat fitting all these qualities but even more amazingly, I always wondered how a human being could bring a diplomatic career to such noble heights without having had the chance to survive multiple forms and intensities of stress.

In comparison, managers do not have to aspire to such noble accomplishment of character as postulated by Harold Nicholson but nevertheless are offered

¹⁴ A good example of this is the manual on “Job Stress and the Police officer” published by the US Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, Public Health Service, Washington, 1975.

training in stress management. This does not seem to be the case for diplomats. Looking at the growing demands put on the modern diplomats; I would suggest that diplomatic academies offer training courses on how to manage personal and organizational stress as part of the requisites for professional development.

In addition, diplomats are exposed to cross-cultural shock every time they change country posting and hence need to know how to cope with the inevitable misunderstanding due to cross-cultural differences. A more subtle but even more dangerous form of cross-cultural stress might occur over the life time of a diplomat's career especially for those assigned to postings involving the horrors of war or the distress of humanitarian emergencies and crises.

Facing situations of human rights abuses, torture, POW camps, refugees, internally displaced persons, etc. can also trigger an internal distress due to prolonged exposure to cognitive dissonance. Confronted with such extreme situations of human despair, diplomats might be in a similar situation like a humanitarian worker who sees his/her personal belief and value system seriously challenged.¹⁵

Knowing how to cope with this rather existential moment and even more importantly knowing how to offer support to younger diplomats requires skills in terms of coaching, counseling, and mentoring. Armed conflict and displacement of people have increased; hence the likelihood of stress in a diplomat's career seems assured. It might be most useful for Diplomatic Academies to organize courses, which offer help in dealing with extreme stress and prolonged cognitive dissonance.

Competency Development in Management & Leadership for Diplomacy: Make or Buy?

The purpose of having diplomatic academies is to train and retrain diplomats in competencies that are considered vital to guarantee continued successful performance of our diplomats. However, competency development can either be developed in-house of existing staff or purchased in the labor market.

In many of our countries, companies have cut back or even suspended their in-house training in favor of employing (buying-in) people whenever the company needs specific skills or know-how. This "buy" versus "make" strategy is often explained as being less costly than investing in people who are feared to leave companies as soon as they get better job offers elsewhere or as soon as the competition has identified them as being valuable high performers.

¹⁵ For more information, see R. Saner; "Manifestations of Stress and its Impact on the Humanitarian Work of the ICRC Delegate", *Journal of Political Psychology*, Vol. 11, No 4, 1990.

The saying often heard these days in the business community is: why invest in people when they leave us anyway? The counter saying often heard by managers these days is “Why be loyal to this company when they could fire us anyhow anytime – better leave while you can”. While this description of labor relations fits more with business than with diplomatic service, the underlying question is increasingly put on the table by many governments – “Should we invest in training diplomats? If yes, for which levels? Should we consider “buying-hiring” in top people from outside the Foreign Service establishment?”

Faced with an increasingly globalized world economy and rapid technological change, most of our governments have felt the need to quickly identify and utilise competencies where ever available in order to meet the increasing political and economic challenges. Business know-how is for instance “imported” into diplomacy and government by nominating academics and business leaders to high office and Ambassadorial positions. On the other hand, multinational companies increasingly hire retired diplomats or high-ranking government officials to company boards or deanship positions of universities.¹⁶

It has been the practice in France, the United Kingdom and the US to facilitate cross-fertilization between business, government, Foreign Service and academics and to make sure that knowledge acquired in any of these different fields of expertise are diffused across professional boundaries as depicted in figure 1 below. The arrows indicate possible trajectory of rotation between business, high office in government, diplomacy, and partnership at law or consulting firms and university appointments.

To illustrate this cross-fertilization, a few examples from US practice. George Schultz moved from a top management position at Bechtel Company and teaching assignment at Stanford University to become Secretary of Labor, then Secretary of the Treasury, then Secretary of State and back to Bechtel and Stanford University. A similar example is Jim Baker who moved from a business position to the Republican Party Committee on to become Secretary of State and now back in business. Henry Kissinger moved from being a professor at Harvard to National Security Adviser, to Secretary of State and on to academic assignments and advisory roles while the opposite also occurred, e.g. Jeffery Garten moving from being Under Secretary at the Department of Commerce, to Under Secretary of Trade and on to being Dean of the Yale School of Management.

A different route leads from the Foreign Service to business appointments for instance by former Ambassadors who get appointed as VP for International Relations of global companies. Another variant is the move by former

¹⁶ For more details regarding the transfer from diplomacy to business see R. Saner, L. Yiu, M. Sondergaard “Business Diplomacy: Essential Know-How for Global Companies”, (in press), July 1999.

Ambassadors to become partners of law firms, investment firms, consulting companies or policy advisory agencies. While the reverse move is also well known of US presidents nominating well-known businessmen and owners of companies to the role of Ambassador. The different variants are also being practiced by continental European countries as well as many other countries.

Continued transfer across professional boundaries can offer quick solutions to urgent leadership and management competency requirement. However, in the long run, adequate management and leadership competencies should also be developed from within a diplomatic service which in turn means that our diplomatic academies should help diplomats acquire the necessary business related know-how. Should this not be the case, the temptation of our governments to “parachute”¹⁷ business people and academics into top jobs within the diplomatic service will further increase resulting in more competition between the career diplomats and their “imported” colleagues from business and academia.

To offer courses on management and leadership would be a sensible step by the diplomatic academies to enable career diplomats to “speak the business language” and to be able to demonstrate business acumen. Such an investment would be good for the diplomat’s performance in a world of changing professional roles, good for business because it makes it easier for business to communicate with foreign service personnel, good for the respective country since diplomats, businessmen and leaders of civil society organization can more easily communicate with each other and finally good for the international community at large faced with the challenges of global compact initiative, public-private partnership projects and growing intersectoral challenges due to deepening globalization, internationalization of economic, political, environmental and social issues and much greater interdependencies between different different actors and countries.

Endnotes

Diplomatic Academies have common concerns with MBA schools in that both types of educational institutions offer new knowledge and skills through training courses and lectures to their respective constituencies. The content of the educational inputs is simultaneously similar and different due to the different requirements of both professional disciplines. The focus of this article was to discuss the possible transfer of some concepts and practices of management

¹⁷ Term often used in France to indicate the nominating of elite cadres to top ranking positions in government and large French companies. These elite are mostly pooled from key school such as the *Ecole Nationale d’Administration*. Similar practices of elite recruitment can also be observed in many other countries.

science to the field of diplomacy and how these management competencies could be integrated into the curriculum of diplomat schools.

The knowledge base regarding leadership and management has increased tremendously over the last thirty years. Management scholars have conducted research, reported findings and developed new theories, which in turn have filed many textbooks, and management related articles. Some borrowing of the management and leadership theories could help strengthen the organizational aspect of the diplomatic service. Most MBA schools offer courses at elementary and advanced levels lasting whole semesters. It would therefore be useful to scan the field and to incorporate into the curriculum of diplomatic schools those elements, which are most relevant and directly useful. A culturally sensitive approach, both at national and organizational level, would make such cross fertilisation productive and sustainable.

A Diplomatic Academy for Central and Eastern European Countries: an Immodest Proposal

Aldo Matteucci*

Modesty behoves the learned and informed. The ignorant should be free to follow his folly – the Narrenfreiheit of the Germans. One should wear ignorance on the jacket's sleeve, like a brand label (apparently James Bond will wear such attire in his next movie).

The political landscape in Central and Eastern Europe has drastically changed in the last two decades: numerous countries have undergone a process of systemic transformation, others have emerged through partition. They have all restructured their diplomatic services or created new ones; they all have (re)-established or are about to establish diplomatic academies.

Going down this path has not been easy: ambition and (invented) traditions keep doing battle with budgetary, human resources constraints and an incomplete tertiary educational system – the results may be somewhat less than satisfactory. What should be done? Should these countries continue on their current course, striving to do better, possibly learning from each other's mistakes? Should a new – possibly region-wide - approach be attempted? This is a strategic question to which I'll endeavour to give elements of an answer.

A “regional solution” for a diplomatic academy would imply that the participating foreign services agree on a common “stock” of knowledge to be made available to the body of students from their respective countries. This knowledge would no longer be “tinted” with national ideology or the “national point of view” - the student would no longer receives “national” training at the regional academy – though it would be diplomatic training all the same. In application of the precautionary principle it might be argued that risks from the

* Senior Fellow, DiploFoundation, Geneva, Switzerland.

collateral loss of sovereignty as well as the weakening of the “principal-agent” link entailed in such a regional approach are too high to countenance. Better safe than sorry. National academy trumps the regional one. But is it so?

The present analysis is utilitarian in outlook. It starts out from the basic assumption that education/training of diplomats should be both good and be cost-effective, in other words, that a benefit-cost analysis is appropriate in deciding the strategic course of action. It is argued that weighing these elements can lead to a more considered and less emotional judgement – though in the end judgement it will be. In other words such an economic point of view puts existing structures on par with potential alternatives and implies a readiness to scrap the old for the new, should this appear reasonable.

Influencing the “other” is the desired outcome of diplomacy – the ultimate success being its codification in contractually agreed behaviour between countries, or in a multilateral setting. One can only influence whom one knows, so knowledge of the “other” – the outside world - is a prerequisite. With up to 200 different “others” and many multilateral institutions, as well as huge stock of codified rules of behaviour, it would seem plausible to argue that what an aspiring diplomat has to learn about “others”, beyond the factual knowledge about the world, represents a very significant, nay a preponderant, amount.

Were I to venture a guess, I’d argue that 50-75% of the knowledge a diplomat has to acquire concerns the “other”. A case can thus be made for joining efforts and providing aspiring diplomats “best” knowledge of the “other”, irrespective of their diplomatic service of origin.

Academic teaching aims to map the hyperspace of knowledge, so as to empower the student to expand it as he learns to do independent research. Training aims to empower the student to harness knowledge from the hyperspace toward a prescribed goal as determined by the “principal” – to make knowledge operational in fulfilment of the government’s goals. The first approach is inherently expansive while the second is reductive – it aims to provide ‘just enough’ knowledge “just in time” for a successful diplomatic outcome. Both approaches need to be taught, both approaches are not significantly constrained by sovereignty considerations. These are epistemic techniques free of national “tinges”.¹

Robert Cooper² makes a useful distinction between “vital national interest” (security, integrity and stability of the state) and “national policy preference” (in areas say of health, environment, etc.). Vital interests concern changes in the

¹ There may be regional angles to be considered, but but these are declinations to the common core.

² Robert Cooper (2003): “The breaking of nations. Order and chaos in the twenty-first century”. *Atlantic Monthly Press*, New York; xi + 180 pp.

balance of power within the concert of nations and imply “zero-sum games”, hence the need for a staunch defence, if necessary by use of (naked) power. “Policy preferences” are quite neutral in their effects on the balance of power. Hence, variations in “preferences” do not necessarily imply conflicts between nations or recourse to the use of power in their pursuit – rather it is a matter of explaining oneself to the other, and having the better political arguments, often in multilateral fora. A good case can thus be made that knowledge in the complex areas of “policy preferences” – and even national positions – might be usefully shared at an early stage.

The aforementioned considerations are general in character. They could be (and might be used) to justify a “word diplomatic academy”. Such ambition is beyond the scope of the current exercise. The empirical question is whether there is enough of a “common core” of substance of immediate interest to all countries in the region – Central and Eastern Europe – to warrant a common approach.

It might be useful to point out at the outset that all countries under consideration are “transition countries” and belong to the “EU nebula”. Some have already joined the EU; others hope to do so soon. Other countries may remain in voluntary or enforced holding pattern for some time to come – but in all cases the EU will remain the main economic and political attractor. The EFTA countries have a long experience with the “EU attractor”, and their past experience with alignment and integration of many of their international policies underlies the ensuing considerations.

In the following, I’ll go down a list of major subject matters that are of central political concern to countries in Central and Eastern Europe and explore for each on these policies the degrees of freedom that are available to any of them:

1. Now that a (un)certain amount of regional stability has been achieved, each country is to adapt their internal laws to the laws of the EU (the *acquis*). This is called **integration**. Accession may not be the immediate issue in all cases, but those countries still outside will be gravitating toward an EEA-type approach.

Integration is a horrific technocratic chore. It is not “true” diplomacy in the sense that the content of the *acquis* is not up for negotiation – the length of the transition periods as well as small specialities may be discussed (but the EU is wary of precedents, so the margin for manoeuvre, special deals, and special financial or other technical assistance is limited). One could safely argue that there is a large body of common ground in this area to be shared and that in any case this is a matter of policy preference, rather than “vital national interest”.

Given that the policy trajectory is the same for all countries, the training of diplomats in this area is likely to follow the same paradigm – in depth study of the *acquis*, followed by a process of benchmarking and identification of divergent national preferences.

2. Where applicable, the road to **WTO accession** is a major issue. The accession process is not that different from that of integration – here too the *WTO acquis* (and some difficult WTO+ demands by WTO member countries as a precondition for consent to accession) needs to be incorporated. The same considerations that apply to the EU *acquis* also work here. The volume of work is significant, and so is the knowhow about processes in the organisation.

As part of the accession process *bilateral trade concessions* will have to be negotiated in due course, and this is of course a matter of (vital?) national interest. The degrees of freedom here are limited, however, by the fact that the EU will be (indirectly) a party to the negotiations. Even if EU accession is no more than a medium term goal, the EU will be suggesting to potential candidates not to agree on levels of liberalisation that might imply compensation for the EU in the event of accession. The case of Turkey is indicative: in the framework of the “customs union with the EU” it will negotiate in WTO autonomously to apply EU international trade policies.

To the extent that a country may embark on a policy of *preferential agreements* – the EEA and EFTA-style FTAs are the inevitable structure of choice – rather than full fledged autonomy. These agreements show significant convergence to an “EU standard”. Thus for many years EFTA has followed a policy of “one step behind the EU” policies in negotiating FTAs with preferential partners. One might tentatively argue, in conclusion, that instruction in the international trade is hardly an area where autonomy in instruction should prevail, though there will of course be need for “national tweaking”.

3. The third task is what I’d call **thematic multilateral policies** – health, education, environment, human rights, and international law, international economic policies (IBRD, IMF). Ever since WWI multilateral policies have come to the fore, creating common legislative and material “standards”. These policies represent “positive liberties”³: while they may aim to secure “vital national interests” – like peace and security – they depend on finding a common denominator with other countries. They are based on *sharing* sovereignty and therefore are not subject in the same way to issues of sovereignty.

The “acquis” in this area is staggering, the intricacies of the processes quite daunting. No individual country will have had the full experience of this acquis, so that pooling of separate experiences would significantly enhance the value of teaching. Furthermore, in some areas or institutions, “grouping” among likeminded (be it regions or economic conditions, et.) has become the rule. In others, it is the road to effectiveness. Common approaches involving groups of countries would seem to be the rule.

³ Isaiah Berlin has highlighted the difference between “negative” liberty – the right to be “left alone”, and “positive” liberty, the right to jointly construct a vision with others.

4. Geopolitical security. This is an area where “vital interests” are at the forefront. Do they imply a “national” point of view in instruction? Whether one loves the US, or hates the only superpower; whether one trusts Putin, or worries about its emerging gas cartel; how one is to approach Islam (if this is an issue to be so defined) - all of these questions transcend the borders of each and every Central and Eastern European country. They need to be discussed in common (i.e. in the European context) in order to advance individual nation’s “vital interests”.

The world is becoming multi-polar, multi-cultural, more structured, and more complex. No longer to decision makers rely on just one narrative (as during the Cold War). Understanding this complexity has become far more demanding than it ever was, so that there is a case for having common analysis of evolving trends. To conclude, there would seem to be ample room for a common teaching even in this sensitive area.

5. Regional security: *mutatis mutandis* the same considerations as under (4) would seem to apply. Shared instruction would go a long way to eliminate misconceptions and misunderstandings among the countries concerned.

6. Regional cooperation: by its very nature, such an area would seem ripe for shared instruction.

7. Consular affairs: the “protection” (in the largest sense) of citizens sojourning abroad has become a priority issue in all countries. Common standards are the rule – from rapid reaction in the event of catastrophic events to visa issues – and cooperation is emerging (see Schengen). Shared instruction would seem useful.

8. IT/information: use of IT and sourcing of information has become a major task for diplomats. There is much scope for shared instruction in this area.

The list could be extended. But the conclusion already seems inevitable. When the world is so much more complex than the national structures and specificities, it would seem reasonable to pool forces among like-minded and like-placed states so as better to train diplomats to understand the world and its ways, rather than focus on national peculiarities. At the level of junior diplomat, I’d guess, 75% of the education/training would appear best obtained by joint efforts. What remains is a 25% “national tweaking” that has somehow to be addressed. More about it below.

The shared instruction approach would be cost-effective in two added ways. For one, it is easier to get better quality of instruction. In addition, external funding is more likely to emerge for a shared approach than for national endeavours.

The question remains – national and country-specific peculiarities are realities; they range from administrative procedures to national history, whatever. Taking such elements into consideration is fully necessary and legitimate, even though this may be no more than “tweaking” – declinations of a common

paradigm after (or in parallel) with “core” teaching. How are the budding diplomats to receive appropriate education/instruction in these areas? I propose a solution that attempts to create a hopefully liveable compromise.

The School at Eton might be a guide in this respect. Groups of students are lodged in separate “houses”, which provide for a more intimate and family context. The same principle could apply to a regional diplomatic academy. Given a common campus, each participating country would have its own “house”, under the directorship of one (or more) nationals – say a senior or retired ambassador – whose task it would be to complement the core (common) teaching with “national” topics, say a day a week. The specifics would be for review. The length of the academic year of the Regional Diplomatic Academy could also be tailored to allow for a balance between the common and the national teaching, say by allowing for “national trimester” to complement to shared core.

There are many possible declinations of this basic model, and I shall leave it up to a review of my basic argument better to define the proposal.

Much is to be said in principle for an evolutionary approach to existing social institutions as well as for nurturing competitive diversity as a means to test alternative approaches. Do such qualitative considerations apply to the case of national diplomatic academies and should they override efficiency arguments?

I wonder. An evolutionary approach is best adapted to meeting life’s grand uncertainties - diplomatic training is a technocratic task usefully approached in a pragmatic fashion. Replacing a national by a regional diplomatic academy should not disrupt the functioning or build-up of a diplomatic service unduly (though I do not underestimate the resistance to change). Competition is useful if it leads to the “survival of the fittest”. Diplomatic academies, however, are small national monopolies, so the “unfit” need not be forced to change or disappear.

At least as a working hypothesis there is no reason to prefer a priori the structural status quo of national diplomatic academies over alternative models like the regional one. The cost and effectiveness of pursuing the current piecemeal paradigm may be worth considering in a sober and pragmatic fashion.

II. MODERN EUROPEAN DIPLOMACY, LIFELONG LEARNING AND DIPLOMATIC TRAINING

The Importance of Communicating Europe

Rosa Batoréu*

First of all, allow me to express, on behalf of Her Excellency Secretary of State for European Affairs of Portugal, her sincere appreciation for the invitation extended to her by the Diplomatic Academy of Croatia and by the Central European Initiative to address such a renowned Forum.

In the context of the topic that is the subject of this Seminar “Modern European Diplomacy and Training” I will today on the particular aspect of what we call “**Communicating Europe**”. This is indeed an important aspect of the integration process. And it is an increasing challenge for us, diplomats and officials working in the area of European Affairs.

We thought that this could be a topic of relevance in a Forum attended by representatives of Central and Eastern countries, including some who are in process of closer integration in or the European Union.

Public diplomacy is not a new concept. What is new however is that broad acceptance that it forms an essential part of relations and, in a world increasingly “wired”, is subject to the evolving transformations of how information is transmitted, how is it perceived and has access to it.

The recognition of this fundamental shift – communication as an important tool for building and sustaining participatory democracy – will re-shape the way we work which can only be effective if we can reach ever wider audience and involve, and here I am referring in particular to the European Union, the grassroots movements in the formulation and understanding of new policies and their subsequent dissemination.

In the European Union the need to communicate more effectively became especially in the aftermath of the referenda in France the Netherlands. The “no” to the Constitutional Treaty by the French and Dutch voters showed that there many perceptions and misperceptions about Europe and the road it was meant to take.

* Deputy Director General for European Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Lisbon, Portugal.

Consequently, a new approach to European Communication was developed. Commonly known as “Communicating Europe”, this policy puts citizens at the heart of the heart of the European policies, based on three strategic principles: **(1)** listening to citizens, that is, taking their views and concerns into account; **(2)** communication on how EU policies affect their everyday lives; and **(3)** connecting with citizens by “going local”, which is, addressing people in their national or local settings, using their favourite form of media.

Globally speaking, “Communication Europe” represents a common effort by Member States and the European Institutions towards its citizens in order to make them an inclusive part of the European decision-making process. The over-reaching goal is to greater democracy and transparency within the EU and to empower citizens through the promotion of an active European citizenship.

Innovative ways have been tested in order to achieve this, such as internet debates conducted, for instance, on the “Debate Europe Website”. Other tools, like civil society projects have been gathering increasing numbers of participants and, equally, more co-funding from Brussels.

It is, thus, a very welcome breakthrough that, in 2009 and for the first time, priorities related to “Communicating Europe” were part of a broad partnership involving the different European Institutions – the Council, the Commission and the European Parliament – and the Communication National Plans of member states.

A good example of this common approach can be found in the information and dissemination activities that will precede this year’s election to the European Parliament. There will be coordinated interventions by the European institutions in all Member State and some of this information material will be the same in the 27 countries, including the use of a common logo. Of course, member states can then adjust their interventions to make meet more effectively national needs objectives.

In Portugal, to give you a concrete example, there will be a clear focus on increasing voters’ turnout which has levelled in recent elections. It is important to reverse this trend at a time when the European Parliament could see its powers considerably strengthened, should the Lisbon Treaty enter into force.

In addition to a road-show that will travel the country involving the Commission, the European Parliament and the Centre Jacques Delors – a former Commission information centre that has evolved into a department of the Portuguese Foreign ministry – other specific actions will be undertaken. It is foreseen to engage national and media in this process both through the supplying of training course to journalists and the placing at the disposal of the media of a varied range of informative material. Social networks, web networks and blogs also be engaged and, whenever necessary, offered adequate information. By

the some token, specific groups will benefit from specific attention, like young people and, particularly, first-time voters, rural population or population with lower academic qualifications. People working for local or regional councils will likewise be involved in these activities since their participation is considered to have multiplying effect.

On a broader level, the present difficult economic and financial environment represents an important opportunity for the EU and its institutions to impress on the European citizens the real added value of Europe in shaping the future of the international financial environment and regulatory schemes. Conversely, in areas such as international energy security, climate change or migrations, isolated interventions by member States run the risk of not meeting the intended objectives or of falling short of making any significant difference. Therefore, the best way forward is to foster a results-oriented Europe that can be reckoned with only by citizens but, as importantly, by world leaders and international organizations at large.

The goals and structure of diplomatic training in new circumstances can not be underestimated. As you may be aware, the EU has established the **European Diplomatic Programme** (EDP) back in 1999. This programme has been recently revised to take into account the new institutional references and to incorporate adjustments arising from the experience in the course of its several editions. Portugal has been an active participant and supporter of this Programme and has been engaged, at the European level, in the debate on diplomatic training in general.

The **European Training Programme** is focused on enhancing the contribution of member States to the CFSP¹ and other external of EU. In this sense, the EDP seeks to complement existing training arrangements offered by the European Commission and Member States. Its target groups are junior diplomats all national Ministers of Foreign Affairs as well as from the commission and the Council Secretariat.

The underlying objectives of this Programme are very relevant instead: **(1)** the creation of personal networks among European diplomats; **(2)** the raising of a common diplomatic awareness with regard to the specifically European dimension of diplomacy; and **(3)** providing a learning environment where officials can be trained a unique framework that goes beyond their national settings.

An area where the intervention of EDP could possibly be envisaged is in the formation and training of members of the future European External Action Service that will put in place should the Lisbon Treaty enter into force.

¹ Common Foreign Security Policy.

The modalities of such an intervention would be worked out possibly in partnership with national training academies. In this context, it could also be relevant to foster synergies with academies institutions with a particular European vocation such as the Collage of Europe or the European University Institute in Florence.

Finally, I would like to draw your attention to the fact that, more recently; an accrued consideration has been given to the importance of extending the EDP framework of common training to include participants from candidate countries in order to increase their familiarity with the complex web of EU matters and institutions.

To conclude, let me be briefly address a very stimulating aspect of the EU External Relations. I am referring to the **European Neighbourhood Policy** (ENP). Coming from the south-west of Europe we are usually seen as being particularly active in the context of the Mediterranean component of the ENP. This is indeed a limited rendering of our views as far as the European Neighbourhood Policy is concerned. Portugal has shown a firm engagement and pursued an active role in the debate that gave shape to the concept of Eastern Partnership whose official launching is taking place in Prague, as we gather.

To wrap up these remarks I would like to wish this Forum and its participants all the success. May it always contribute to bring our countries and peoples closer together.

New Trends in Diplomacy and Repercussions on Diplomatic Training

Karl Paschke*

British writer George Bernard Shaw, famous for his witty and intelligent quips, once said or wrote: “the only disadvantage of being an intellectual is that you have to keep on learning as long as you live”. Being the great mocker that he was, it is obvious that G. B. Shaw made this remark with a smile, tongue-in-cheek, as Americans would say. What he really meant was that the **prerogative**, the **privilege** of being an intellectual is to **be able** and to **feel the urge** to continue learning throughout one’s life.

When I look back at my career of 40 (plus) years, I congratulate myself for having chosen the Foreign Service as my profession, because it was the Foreign Service which gave me the chance, but also required me to continue learning, to face new challenges, to adjust to new environments from the first til the very last day of my career. Very few jobs provide you with this kind of opportunity; very few jobs defy **routine** as strongly as diplomatic life.

This Conference in Dubrovnik is set to study the question “what are the new trends in international diplomacy and what do they entail for the requirements of training programmes for diplomats today?”

Maybe the first aspect we need to discuss in this context is the differentiation between **experience** and **routine**. During many years in any public service position, you build up a basis of experience which enables you to do your job better than a novice. Now that is a truism. Of course, a senior diplomat has a better and more comprehensive knowledge than a youngster of the practices and techniques which apply in the conduct of international relations. But it is also true that, while diplomatic procedures tend to be rather conservative, the situations in which a diplomat has to prove himself are so manifold that creative reaction and adjustment are called for much more often than just going by the book.

* Ambassador (ret.).

Let us tackle right away one of the key aspects of our subject: diplomatic training – what should it really aim at, what should it try to achieve? And another – related – question in this context: Should a Foreign Service offer a formal and structured training period to its young recruits or should it throw them into the cold water of practical service right away?

The latter question is answered differently in different countries. The Brits f.i. who are considered to have one of the best diplomatic services world-wide do not believe in extended formal training, but in the principle of learning by doing, of training on the job.

The French run the famous ENA (*Ecole Nationale d'Administration*) which provides post-graduate professional preparation for all branches of Government, not specifically for the Quai d'Orsay.

The Germans have traditionally operated a diplomatic school as an integral part of the Foreign Ministry and run a formal post-graduate training course for junior officers who are selected in a competitive exam and receive a special grooming for their future career.

When you look at the many different systems out there, they all have their pros and cons, but I personally have a certain preference for a formal training period at the outset, an induction course of sorts.

Why? Foreign Services are by nature a somewhat peculiar employer. Most university graduates who apply for a diplomatic career have only a very limited knowledge of what Foreign Service really means. They may have romantic perceptions about life in far-away countries. They know little about the constraints which diplomatic life entails. They are usually not familiar with the conditions under which public service in general and Foreign Service in particular operates.

I have always been of the opinion that an induction course should address such issues. It should smoothly and carefully introduce the junior officers to the reality of what belonging to the international diplomatic community means. Let me be a bit more specific: Young academics today tend to think that bureaucracies are by definition outdated and should be radically reformed, hierarchies should be questioned and, if possible, abolished. The truth is that Foreign Ministries and Embassies are hierarchically organised and must be in order to function properly. Junior officers should learn and understand this early on. At the same time, team work is indispensable in the diplomatic world. Diplomacy is not a job for loners. Thus, the ability to work constructively in a team must be developed soonest.

Communication, formal and informal, is also essential for every Foreign Service officer. By “Communication” I mean the ability to present factual information as well as personal views in a way that the individual interlocutor or the audience understand and accept the presentation; but it also means the ability and readiness to listen and appreciate partners' points of view. Young people

normally do not even think about how they come across to others or they believe that they are naturally good communicators. But there is in most cases a big potential for improvement and it should be developed and enhanced by relevant training and instruction.

Foreign languages are the No. 1 tool for diplomats. To be conversant in the language of the country where one serves is indeed not only desirable, but in many cases indispensable when the diplomat, as he should, tries to discover and understand the heart and soul of the society with which he interacts. This may not always be easy, particularly in countries with very difficult languages (CHI, JAP f.i.). But in my view, efforts to become familiar, at least to a certain degree, with the language of the host State should be considered a must for Foreign Service officers throughout their careers.

English has become, in the past 50 years, the No. 1 international language, the lingua franca world-wide. The French may deplore this, but one has to face reality. English seems to be a fairly simple language, and therefore many people think that their English knowledge is good and sufficient when it is really quite poor. Diplomats, on the other hand, must have a highly sophisticated command of this language because more often than not, when it comes to international negotiations, the negotiating language is English. And in order to negotiate effectively, you must be able to comprehend all the nuances of a text and propose convincing and accurate alternatives if you wish to bring your own views to bear – particularly when you compete with native English speakers who would otherwise “out-nuance” you no end. Very good English knowledge is absolutely obligatory when you serve in a multilateral assignment. Almost all international organisations are today dominated by the English language, most of them more than that: they are indeed thoroughly entrenched by Anglo-Saxon habits, thinking, procedures, and manners.

As a matter of fact, English is **not** a simple, easy language. On the contrary, it is complex, tricky, and fast-developing. Hence my firm view that advanced English courses must be offered to junior diplomats from the first day on during their training period, with an emphasis, of course, on diplomatic idiomatic expressions and text analysis.

The predominance of English should, on the other hand, not reduce the ability and motivation of diplomats to learn additional languages, particularly the language of their posting, as I said earlier. So this is a challenge for life-long learning.

Many foreign services offer incentives in the form of premiums for officers who master additional languages; others underwrite the expenses for respective courses; some require their officers to attend total-immersion language courses before transferring them to a new assignment and grant them a temporary leave

just to study a difficult idiom. I think this **is** a new trend in diplomacy which should continue and expand.

Let me wrap up briefly what I have said so far:

I do favor a formal training period for the new recruits of a foreign service. It should primarily aim at inducing the novices into the peculiarities and requirements of the diplomatic profession, perhaps shatter a few false perceptions and clichés about it, and then focus on developing and enhancing pertinent “soft skills” which are important for Foreign Service work: communication, negotiating techniques, report writing, team work, languages, to name just a few.

When I was responsible for the training of the junior officers in the German Foreign Service between 1972 and 1977, we adjusted and changed our training programme quite frequently in response to new challenges that we saw coming up.

An example: It dawned on me at some point that our trainees would before long have to learn to work with the computer and that this new tool would become relevant in data-gathering also in the field of foreign policy. Little did I know about the future in the field of IT at that time, but remember I am speaking of the early Seventies of last century, roughly 35 years ago. I did some research and shopping around and came up with an IBM product, a computer-based simulation of an international relations situation with a number of fictional countries interacting, a game of sorts with several teams of players in which all the options, steps and moves had to be translated into numbers and processed to advance the game. Most of my trainees at the time, all of them highly intelligent and well-educated university graduates, had never before worked with a computer. The visibly enjoyed the gaming experience and it may have helped them to cope better and earlier with the information technology explosion which occurred just a few years later and revolutionised bureaucracies world-wide.

This example illustrates an aspect of diplomatic training which is obvious and self-understood and yet deserves to be emphasised: the contents of diplomatic training must continuously be reviewed and updated, if necessary. This is clearly the case **today**, as we speak. Never before has the world changed as fast as nowadays.

In the following part of this presentation, I will try to focus on those changes which seem to be particularly relevant in the international context. But I will already state at the outset: the breathtaking change of pace is **in itself** a convincing argument for the necessity of continuous, life-long learning. No senior diplomat in 2007 can effectively and adequately respond to today’s professional challenges only with the experiences and tools which he has acquired three decades ago. Too much has changed in the meantime. Thus, mid-career training is needed more than ever before.

I already mentioned the explosive development which information technology has had in the past two decades. I would submit that the IT revolution is the No. 1 cause for most of the changes which we have experienced and continue to experience in the international world. Just look at the speed with which information and news travel around the globe and think of some of the consequences.

A natural disaster in Bangladesh makes headlines in the media all over the world within hours; compassionate reactions and aid offers come in overnight. Atrocities by the Janjaweed militias in Darfur, even if the Sudanese Government tries to deny them, are being reported and in the UN discussed and condemned the next day. World markets react spontaneously and nervously to events which at first glance seem to have little direct relevance: a *negotiating échec* in the Middle East will immediately raise the price of crude oil in Amsterdam, negative performance figures by a few large US businesses will drive stocks down not only in Wall Street, but in London, Frankfurt and Tokio simultaneously.

What do these examples tell us? – Interdependence in international affairs has intensified enormously, the “global village” has become a reality.

A logical consequence which I see for Foreign Services is the dramatic increase of facts and data which diplomats have to grapple with. This calls for stringent knowledge management. What is important, what is less relevant? Diplomatic reporting has to be streamlined and better focused. The entire relationship between the foreign ministry and the missions abroad has to be redefined because interaction between the Ministry and the Embassies around the world has been advanced and facilitated, but also fundamentally shaken up through Internet, E-Mail, and cell phone. All these developments have to be managed and this is where continuous learning comes in. Heads of Missions, Heads of Chancery, clerks, telecommunication experts must be brought up to speed recurrently in order to deal successfully with the significant impact which IT has had on the management culture of foreign services.

As a footnote I should mention that IT in itself represents a complicated challenge for foreign services, as a matter of fact, for all public services: To stay abreast of the pace of development of information technology is particularly difficult for public administrations which depend on annual budgeting and respective advance planning; the time lag between budget drafting and implementation makes it almost impossible to avoid planning mistakes and hardware investments which may be obsolete already at the date of delivery. – So much about what I would call the **IT challenge**.

Let me now turn to the new trends for diplomacy which Globalism has **substantively** created. Globalism has dramatically increased the range of global

subjects, of topics which deserve and require the continuous observation of the international community. Even smaller countries can no longer afford to limit their diplomatic activities to their neighboring region, but are forced to think globally. Logically, we are witnessing a growing importance of multilateral organisations. Diplomatic training must today prepare Foreign Service officers for the specificities of work in the UN System, in the EU and in other multilateral bodies.

What are those specificities? The answer could be the topic for another lecture. Let me just say that while bilateral diplomacy usually aims at managing the relations between two individual countries at mutually advantageous conditions, multilateral diplomacy tries, in drawn-out processes of consensus- and compromise-seeking between a large number of States, to settle multilateral, global or regional problems and to advance common objectives. Motivation for multilateral work must be solid and modest at the same time. Multilateral progress is measured in centimeters or inches at best. In some cases, progress must be seen merely on the process of negotiating, not in any measurable results. As my old boss, Foreign Minister Hans Dietrich Genscher used to say about the MBFR talks in Vienna which never produced anything tangible: “As long as they talk, they don’t shoot.”

Speaking about arms reductions, this subject became a very important new trend in diplomacy in the early Seventies of last century. Think of the CSCE process which had a fundamental impact on East-West relations over time. Negotiating about arms control between two blocs of adversaries required particular skills and expertise of the negotiators. Because of the complexity of the subject, it brought about a new breed of diplomats, the “arms controllers” or the “missile counters”, in the Foreign Ministries Arms Control Units spruced up, and the issue of disarmament became part of the agenda for diplomatic training, too. I happened to be the German Foreign Office Spokesman from 1980 to 1984 and had to study the intricacies of arms control negotiations quite thoroughly in order to be able to inform journalists about details on a regular basis. It is true that after the disintegration of the Soviet Union, arms control and disarmament were considered politically less relevant for a while, but very soon new types of conflict became the concern of the world community and, thereby, the concern of diplomacy.

Managing such conflicts politically calls for diplomatic involvement of many partner countries, it normally also involves the United Nations and other international organisations like EU, OSCE, NATO. We are looking at a totally new challenge for international diplomacy and I find it imperative that preventive diplomacy, peace-keeping, and peace-building are made a subject of diplomatic training today in the form of case studies, simulation and theoretical research.

Another multilateral theatre which has become a new challenge for diplomats at least in Europe is the **European Union**. Young diplomats must be made aware as part of their training of the integration process in all its facets, because the united Europe is not a static phenomenon, but a living project, a steep uphill road, a reality and a vision. While the Brussels bureaucrats grapple with a multitude of dossiers and millions of technical details which only seasoned experts can master, an important task remains for the diplomats: co-ordination of EU policy, so that the Governments do not lose sight of the ultimate goal of the Rome Treaties, the peaceful, harmonious, mutually beneficial **political** integration of our continent. And it must be underlined: **EU policy** is considered by almost all Member States an integral part of **Foreign policy** and is being co-ordinated by the **Foreign Ministries**, the direct co-operation of other Departments between Member States notwithstanding.

Another new trend which must be mentioned in this context is the tendency to integrate more and more specialists into the staff of Embassies, civil servants who do not hail from the Foreign Ministry, but from other Departments (Finance, Commerce and Trade, Interior, Justice, Environment, Science, Transport, Energy). This reflects the enormous expansion of subjects which play a role in international relations today and challenges the management skills of the Ambassador, the co-ordinating head of Mission.

Many other new topics have become trendy and very important in international relations and should be somehow covered in diplomatic training: Energy Policy, Climate Change, Human Rights. I will only discuss one more recent trend which has gained prominence in the conduct of international affairs: **public diplomacy**.

“Public Diplomacy“, obviously an Anglo-Saxon term creation, describes and gives a new, expanded meaning to what in the past used to be referred to as “public relations“, “promotion“, “networking“, “lobbying” – not accidentally Anglo-Saxon terms, too. In the USA and in Great Britain, it was recognised earlier than elsewhere that foreign policy is not limited anymore to confidential interaction and dialogue between Governments and the Ambassadors accredited to them, but that today diplomatic missions need to reach out to the wider public, to the political class, to the civil society in the host countries in order to get across, explain and gain acceptance and understanding for the views, positions, and attitudes of their Governments. In short: efforts to better inform, increase knowledge about the envoy’s home country, create goodwill and foster friendship in the host country have become a central, daily task for diplomatic missions. The modern Ambassador has to be a communicator who interprets and canvasses support for his country’s interests and aspirations among Government circles, Parliamentarians, political parties, the business community, the social partners,

the media, the representatives of academic and cultural life. To achieve this goal, he must build up and cultivate a dense and stable network of contacts in all areas of society in his host country.

Public Diplomacy also encompasses the task to battle misinformation, clichés and prejudices which still linger even between nations that are geographically close and related by a long history. Public Diplomacy calls for creativity, fresh style and persistence to get the messages across.

During my relatively long career, I have met some Ambassadors who were true Public Diplomacy geniusses, many who did a credible job in this new field. But I have certainly noticed that communication skills can be learned and trained. So this is one more diplomatic qualification which can be fostered by mid-career training.

I come back to the starting point of my presentation. You have heard me identify many new trends in international relations, probably too many to be all included adequately in a training curriculum for junior foreign officers. This is one reason for me to again emphasize the importance of continuous, life-long learning in our profession.

The essential precondition, however, for the success of a diplomat today as in the past is his/her willingness to stay curious, open for new impressions, hungry for intellectual challenges, modest about achievements and experiences made, prepared to learn new things til the day of retirement (and beyond, if you ask me).

Lifelong Learning and Diplomacy

Željko Kuprešak*

It is my great honor and privilege to welcome and greet you all here today, on behalf of Croatian Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, as well as our Diplomatic Academy which is, together with the Central European Initiative Secretariate, a co-organizer of this most important Forum. I would like to use this opportunity to extend many thanks to Ambassador Kreid for the approval and granting of the CEI's support for this project, as well as for CEI's "share of work" in the organization.

I am very glad to see you all gathered here in such a great number to discuss and exchange the views on one of the most debated and elaborated policies, influencing the entire future course of Europe in so many ways – the lifelong learning.

The economic and social changes occurring in today's highly globalized world, rapid technological progress and the problem of the ageing population in Europe, called for a development of the new long-term strategies resulting in the transition to the knowledge-based societies, as the European comparative advantage *par excellence*, in which the process of the lifelong learning is, of course, given a high priority.

Although not new as a concept, the importance of lifelong learning, as a new approach to education and learning in general has become an integral part of the European strategy for an overall development. By embracing this concept, aiming to improve knowledge, skills and competence throughout one's life, it seems that we have finally found an answer to how to put to practice the Aristotle's assertion that *All men by nature desire to know*.

One of the characteristics of this new approach to learning is to provide opportunities to learn not only at the academic institutions, but also from home (primarily through e-learning) and during our free time, which is surely to make the lifelong learning even more attractive to everyone.

* Ambassador, State Secretary for European Integration, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, Zagreb, Croatia.

To this end, I am sure we are all very much looking forward to discuss, during the forthcoming days of this Forum, all the new ideas and proposals that come from you, the representatives of the states of the Central European Initiative - thus contributing together to the further enhancement of the existing lifelong learning process and practices, especially in the field of diplomacy.

The knowledge society that today we strive for does not discriminate anyone – it includes all the citizens, regardless of their age, sex or race. The knowledge society is a society that can best preserve our mutual core values of freedom, democracy, and full respect for all human rights. It is also a cornerstone of a knowledge economy, promoting research, development, innovation and creativity, to the benefit and prosperity of all. By fully accepting this concept that knows no borders, knowledge is finally recognized as the main ‘engine’ of the overall development, both social and economic, not only at the national, but at the level of the entire continent. Education and knowledge bears so much of a positive potential - as Jean Monet said once, if he was to think of the best way to unify the continent once more, it would be through education. Indeed, knowledge is the real power of the 21st century.

The importance placed today on the lifelong learning in Europe, as the main tool to achieve the knowledge based societies, is maybe best reflected in the current EU policies - our Forum is taking place just a few days after a conference organized in Berlin under the German Presidency of the European Union, launching the Lifelong Learning Programme. This Programme is designed to cover the period of 2007-2013 and is the first funding programme to cover the full range of learning opportunities from childhood to old age, aiming to provide the support to study, train and teach abroad, and that foster interchange, cooperation and mobility between education and training institutions and systems within the EU, helping them become a world quality reference. This Conference testifies to the notion that investing in people is the best long-term investment, and is fully consistent to the Lisbon Process of 2000, aiming to build the most vibrant and competitive economic area in the world through knowledge - thus achieving full employment and an increase in living standard for all the citizens in the EU.

Croatia fully welcomes the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning of the European Commission, as well as all the efforts undertaken in the domain of creating a unified educational system in Europe.

Accession to the EU means that Croatia, even though it has its own educational system, achieves the common goals of the EU related to the future of the education and training systems. Croatia is currently working on the development of national education policies in accord with the Lisbon Agenda. To this end, several documents pertaining to the life-long learning at the national level were passed and adopted, just to name the most important ones – the

Strategy for Adults Education (2004), whose implementation is ensured through annual Action Plans, and the Adult Education Act (2007). The reform of the Vocational Education and Training has been defined as one of the priorities and is being harmonized with Copenhagen Declaration. Furthermore, the Agency for Adult Education was established in May last year. Parallel to adopting new regulatory documents, Croatian Government has decided to increase the regular budget of the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports, which is responsible for education at all levels. It is important to note that, apart from the Ministry, there are many stake holders in the Croatian educational system – other ministries, agencies, non-governmental organizations, associations and trade unions, and the policy coordination is being carried out through partnerships between state authorities, economic actors and academic institutions. Furthermore, the lifelong learning is also acknowledged as a foundation for the future economic and social development in the Government's Strategic Framework for Development 2006-2013.

As for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, I am pleased to stress that all the programmes which are being carried out by the Diplomatic Academy, which is the central place for our diplomatic education and training, are well-tuned with the lifelong learning objectives and methods. All the programmes are very carefully planned ahead, respecting equally individually expressed needs with that of the Ministry as a whole. This year, the Diplomatic Academy will also commence its e-learning project, enabling all the Ministry's employees to attend all the training programmes, thus continuing their education process even when they are serving their mandates abroad.

Finally, I would just like to conclude that I am very pleased that Dubrovnik was given the opportunity to host this important gathering – apart from its great architecture, Dubrovnik has been famous throughout its long history for its love for art, science, and, of course, the pursuit of knowledge. Many great and even world famous scientists come from this city, just to name a few – Ruđer Bošković (18th century), who is considered a predecessor of contemporary physics, Marin Getaldić Ghetaldus (16th century), a famous physicist and mathematician, to whom some even attribute the invention of the telescope, and Marin Držić (16th century), who is viewed as one of the greatest writers of the Renaissance period.

Dubrovnik is also a place famous for its long diplomatic tradition, whose roots can be found at the very beginnings of the Dubrovnik Republic founded in the 13th century. The extraordinary skills of its diplomats are still very intriguing and thus subject to studies of many researchers and historians from all over the world.

Let all aforementioned famous figures from Dubrovnik, together with a long-standing diplomatic tradition of this beautiful city, serve to all of us as an

additional incentive and inspiration during our stay within these ancient city walls.

In the end, I would like to use this opportunity to wish all the participants a successful and fruitful discussions, whose conclusions will certainly contribute to the overall raising of the public awareness to the importance of the lifelong learning in general and bring the concrete proposals on how to utilize and put to practice all its new and existing methods in diplomacy.

This Forum which starts here today, will surely serve as a remarkable contribution of the CEI to the rest of Europe, unified in knowledge and education, prosperity and democratic values.

The CEI Support to Lifelong Learning in its Operational Activities

Harald Kreid*

Almost all of the CEI's operational activities have something to do with learning because they represent know-how transfer in a general sense dissemination of state-of-the-art expertise, training workshops, academic courses and post-graduate research.

The term "lifelong" could also be applied to most of our activities in the sense that our training and learning programmes are usually addressed to persons who have already completed their formal education and are now offered an additional opportunity to up-date or to complement their knowledge.

Let me, therefore, go briefly through the instruments which the CEI has at its disposal for its operational activities and try to identify in each case to what extent they represent contributions to the concept of life-long education.

There are various kinds of **operational activities** of the **CEI**:

- Co-operation Activities
- Feature Events
- Technical Cooperation Projects
- The Know-how Exchange Programme
- Partnerships in EU Programmes
- The CEI University Network
- The CEI Science and Technology Network.

Cooperation Activities are financed from the CEI Cooperation Fund. The CEI Cooperation Activities require applicants to provide at least 50% of the total project cost and they have a ceiling of € 30.000. They could, therefore, be defined as small projects of limited duration, although in some cases CEI

* Ambassador, Director General, CEI Executive Secretariat, Trieste, Italy.

co-funding is demanded even for projects with a considerable budget. The CEI Cooperation Activities have been a success. Since the inception of the CEI Cooperation Fund 351 projects were co-financed by the CEI with a total amount of € 4,3 million. The advantage of this Fund is that the procedures are relatively simple, the decision making is fast and the payment is prompt. Furthermore, this is a good example of a demand-driven, bottom-up approach and, until now, there have not been other similar instruments around to compete with this Fund.

If we look at the 73 applications we received for the second half of the current year asking for CEI co-financing of around 1,2 million EURO, quite a number of them could be classified as **lifelong learning**. Let me just give you a few examples:

- Professional Training Course on Archival Sciences (Italy)
- The Use of Biomass as a Primary Source of Energy (Serbia)
- Alpbach Summer School on European integration (Serbia)
- Workshop on Renewable Energy (Serbia)
- Capacity Building and Networking in Maternal, Child and Adolescent Health (Italy)
- International Training Course Combating Romaphobia, anti-Semitism and Islamophobia (Bulgaria)
- Regional Harmonisation of Teaching Curricula (Serbia)
- Training for Young Orchestra Conductors (Croatia)
- Frontiers of Knowledge in the XXI Century (Italy)
- Dialogue on the Central European Cultural Heritage (Hungary)
- Mediterranean Summer School: Slavism as an Aspect of European Identity (Slovenia)
- International Multi-art Summer Courses (Albania)
- The Museum as Instrument of Social and Economic Development (Italy)
- Polis Adriatic Meeting of Architects (Croatia)
- International Summer School on Information Literacy (Italy)
- Workshop on Music Education (Albania)
- Summer School on Teaching Methods (Montenegro)
- East European School for Hands-on Primary Science Education (Serbia)
- Workshop on Green Buildings (Austria)
- International Seminar on Breaking the Barriers of Disabled Young People (Bulgaria)
- Capacity Building for Lawyers in the Balkan Region (Italy)
- Youth Leadership Seminar on Employability (Macedonia)
- Youth Conference on Information Technology and its Impact on Youth Media (Macedonia).

Feature Events and Activities are a special category of Cooperation Activities which are recurrent in nature and either carry the name of the CEI in their title or dedicate a special segment to the CEI. The advantage of these events is that, in the course of time, they should become institutionalised and provide high visibility to the CEI. They can be improved and enlarged from year to year and thus offer a growth potential which the sporadic projects do not have. Ideally, the CEI should support a Feature Event in each of its areas of activity and they should be geographically well-distributed. As a rule, there should not be more than one such Event in each CEI Member State. At the moment, there is an imbalance between EU and non-EU MS which requires to be remedied.

Among the current Feature Events, the following could be subsumed under the life-long learning concept:

- The CEI Prague Forum of Human Resource Development and Training
- The CEI Venice Forum of Curators of Museums of Contemporary Art
- The CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum
- The CEI Journalists' Forum
- The CEI Forum on Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency
- The CEI Youth Forum

and, perhaps to a lesser extent,

- The CEI Youth Orchestra and
- The CEI Summit Economic Forum.

Technical Cooperation Projects are financed out of the CEI Trust Fund at EBRD. The main purpose of TCPs is to prepare bank lending by paying the costs of preparatory work (e.g. feasibility studies) needed as a basis for subsequent loans. The partner in this process is the EBRD whose rules and procedures are applied to the use of the Trust Fund. While the majority of these TCPs are of technical nature, there are a number among them that fit our concept of life-long learning, e.g. the series of training courses in commercial law (offered in several CEI countries), capacity building in the communication sector (Serbia), training of agri-managers (Czech Republic and Belarus), or an Expert Forum on challenges of the post-privatisation phase (Macedonia).

The **Know-how Exchange Programme** was launched as a response to the specific situation of the CEI with seven MS that have joined the EU recently (in 2004 and 2007) and have acquired the know-how in the accession process which is of particular relevance to the non-EU CEI MS. The KEP is, therefore, a tailor-made instrument of cooperation which has been employed in a flexible and user-friendly manner during the last years. The creation of this facility was much applauded by the CEI working structures, especially the High Level Meetings.

Here are a few examples of **KEP projects** that are of interest in our context:

- Introduction to Public Finance Management (Donor: Slovenia; Beneficiary: Macedonia)
- Sharing Policy Know-how in CEI Transition Countries (Donors: Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia; Beneficiaries: CEI non-EU MS)
- Peer Review Initiative in Regional Economic Development (Donors: Austria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy; Beneficiaries: Croatia, Romania and Ukraine)
- Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development in South East Europe (Donors: Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia; Beneficiaries: Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia & Montenegro).

Partnerships in EU Programmes handled within the EU Project Implementation Unit of the CEI Executive Secretariat have become more and more important both in terms of the areas of cooperation and in terms of EU funding allocated to the CEI. Currently, the CEI is a partner in 12 EU-funded projects with a total value of more than nine million EURO, of which the CEI's share amounts to around 1 million EURO.

The comparative advantage of the CEI has been an important asset in the participation in EU funded programmes and it is both in the interest of the CEI and the other partners in such programmes that this network of experts of the CEI is not only preserved but further developed. The main tool for the implementation of these projects are the CEI Project Implementation Groups which are being established in an ad hoc manner on the basis of the existing CEI Working Structures.

These EU Partnership projects cover a wide ground and range from the areas of transport, SMEs and environment to Information Technology and Spatial Development. The "learning-content" is particularly strong in the following projects:

- the RAVE SPACE project – Raising Awareness of Values of Space through the Process of Education – tries to create new teaching tools for promoting the awareness of space among authorities and public opinion
- Great-IST – Preparing for International Cooperation in Information Society Technology – intends to integrate science and research centres of the 11 participating CEI MS into a common European Research Area
- ALSO deals with the Achievement of the Lisbon Strategy through know-how exchange between regional development planners.

It may be questionable if and to what extent the **CEI University Network** can be viewed as an instrument for life-long learning, since it is, of course, mainly targeted to the young and to persons who are not as yet holding a job. Yet, there are at least two reasons why this Network should be mentioned here: one, it is not only targeted at post-graduate students but also permits the enrolment of persons already involved in professional careers; and two, it also supports advanced Ph.D. studies in select areas, usually reserved to persons already employed.

The CEI University Network is based on the principle of mobility of students and teachers at academic level through teaching grants and scholarship awards. Since the start of its operations in 2004, the CEI UniNet has implemented activities involving more than 90 universities and institutions of higher learning in 60 cities in the CEI Member States. It has offered about 300 scholarship awards and 120 teaching grants amounting to a total CEI contribution of EURO 432.000.00.

Joint Programmes are the key element of the Network's functioning. They require the cooperation of at least two universities from different CEI countries and, thus, constitute an important element of trans-national cooperation. Some of the Joint Programmes that have been supported by the CEI during the last years and which contain elements of life-long learning were:

- Cartography and Geographical Information Systems
- E-Business and E-Government Technologies
- Summer School of Classics
- Alpen Adria Summer University
- Regional Cooperation and European Integration
- Transborder Policies for Daily Life
- Planning and Management of Cooperation for Central and Eastern Europe and the Balkans
- Building University Excellence in a Knowledge-based Society
- Management of Protected Areas
- Transmission Channels with Memory in Quantum Information Theory.

Turning now to the **CEI Science & Technology Network** we might say that this is a good example of life-long learning but then you actually expect scientists to do just that. The researchers and scientists are per definition persons who are dedicated to the acquisition of knowledge during their entire active careers so that for them life-long learning is not an exception but a rule and in this sense it may appear redundant to emphasise the merits of this Network in the context of our Forum. Yet, I believe that the concept and the achievements of this CEI Network deserve mentioning and I am, therefore, drawing your attention to it.

This CEI Network is based on the cooperation of the CEI Executive Secretariat with a number of Trieste-based centres of excellence. It should be noted that Trieste enjoys an extraordinary density of scientists, namely 37 per 1000 inhabitants (which should be compared to the Italian average of 2.9 and the European one of 5.7).

The CEI has concluded **Protocols of Cooperation** with the most important research centres, i.e.

- the International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology
- the International Centre for Science and High Technology
- the International Centre for Theoretical Physics
- the International School for Advanced Studies
- “Elettra” Synchrotron Light Laboratory.

The CEI works with these institutions in two ways: **1.** it associates itself to a select number of workshops and seminars paying the participation of scientist from its non-EU MS. In this way the CEI ensured a minimum presence of the scientific community from Eastern European countries which otherwise might not be included in these events which are, it needs to be stressed, organised at a global level and usually count with the participation of Nobel laureates and other top international scientists; **2.** the CEI offers a programme of Fellowships which allow researchers to use the facilities of the Trieste Centres for up to 10 months. Examples of **scientific activities** co-financed by the CEI are:

- Winter College on “Quantum and Classical Aspects of Information Optics”
- School on “Wireless Networking for Development”
- School on “Ion Beam Analysis and Accelerator Applications
- Course on “RBNA Structure and Function”
- Course on “Computer Methods in Molecular Biology”
- Workshop on “Geometry of Vector Distribution”.

It deserves mentioning that we have now moved into the phase of establishing a so-called **Secondary Network** by which we mean partner institutions of our Trieste Lead Institutions. The first institution associated to the Network was the Academy of Sciences of Belarus which concluded a partnership agreement with the International Centre for Theoretical Physics. A second step was made by the School for Advanced Studies with its University Consortium including the Universities of Bratislava, Budapest, Prague, Vienna and Zagreb. In the context of this University Consortium the CEI supported financially the “Dubrovnik School in Theoretical Physics” which was held in August and September of last year.

Knowledge Management in Diplomacy

Jovan Kurbalija*

Diplomats need to know a certain amount, but there should be no trace of erudition or pedantry in what they know, and their knowledge should agreeably surprise and perhaps impress those with whom they are speaking, but never embarrass, offend or shame them.

Ivo Andric, Nobel Prize Laureate for Literature (1961)

Diplomacy can be defined as a knowledge profession. The knowledge used in diplomacy appears in a variety of forms, starting from the general knowledge gathered in the course of regular education, knowledge of particular subjects such as international relations and international law gathered through specialised diplomatic training, and ranging to knowledge gained through experience, such as knowledge of regions, tacit knowledge of how to react in particular situations, and knowledge of procedures.

The diversity of diplomatic knowledge reflects the diversity of diplomatic activities, which range from stable, procedure-like, consular and protocol activities to highly unpredictable negotiations with warlords. In modern international relations, characterised by lower certainty and predictability, diplomats increasingly have to deal with novel situations which require a wide diversity of knowledge and skills.

The current focus on knowledge, including the possibilities of its management, coincides with the emergence of information and communication technology (ICT), and in particular the Internet. Knowledge has become a key factor in economic growth. Management guru Paul Drucker introduced the term “knowledge society” in order to describe a society based on knowledge as a

* Director, DiploFoundation, Msida, Malta.

key economic resource as opposed to previous ones based on land and natural resources.¹ This paper deals with the impact of ICT/Internet on the use of knowledge in diplomacy.

Definition of Knowledge

The attempt to understand the concept of knowledge is as old as civilisation, and has always been a central theme of philosophy. Epistemology and logic are the two key knowledge-related disciplines that developed in ancient philosophy. Epistemology discusses the nature, structure and origins of knowledge, while logic analyses the validity of reasoning.² Today, the philosophical discussion on the nature of knowledge continues to be as intensive as it has been throughout history.

For the purpose of this paper, we will limit our discussion on the definition of knowledge to its practical relevance for knowledge management in diplomacy. Knowledge is usually defined together with data and information. Data are “raw materials”. After we add structure and meaning to data we get information. At the top there is knowledge, usually described as information given meaning in a particular context.³

Although the theoretical model of data-information-knowledge looks neat, it is difficult to apply in reality. There are too many overlaps, and the terms information and knowledge are used interchangeably, which will also be the case in this paper.

For diplomacy, a profession dealing with other nations’ cultures, it is important to keep in mind that knowledge is differently perceived in different parts of the world. In western tradition, given its modern form by the eighteenth-century enlightenment, knowledge is viewed as the product of our thinking

¹ P. Drucker, *Post-Capitalist Society* (Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann, 1993), 7.

² Plato and Aristotle laid the foundations of epistemology. The fundamentals were further developed after the reformation within the framework of rationalism. *Cogito, ergo sum* became the key slogan of the rationalist approach. The approach centred around knowledge, human thinking and a supposedly rational reflection on society. The line of inquiry into epistemology was continued through the work of Kant and Hegel, and towards modern times, by the German philosopher Edmund Husserl, founder of phenomenology, Martin Heidegger, Jean-Paul Sartre and others. Cognitive science developed through a combination of traditional epistemology with linguistics, computer science and neuroscience. The key focus of cognitive science is on the human mind and thinking processes, including knowledge as a result of these processes. (Source: Neil A. Stillings, *Cognitive Science: An Introduction* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Bradford, 1991).

³ For more about the use of the terms data and information in the field of knowledge management consult T. Davenport and L. Prusak, *Working Knowledge* (Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1998), 2.

process. This does not correspond with other cultural traditions, such as the Japanese culture, which does not draw a separation between the observer and the knowledge that is observed. Hinduism also has a blurred line between self-knowledge and external knowledge.

In knowledge management theory this dichotomy is described as through explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is the “externalisation” of knowledge in the form of books, databases and other artefacts that can be transferred to others. By writing a book, writers create explicit knowledge (text) from tacit knowledge (experience, understanding of the subject, intuition).

Later on, readers internalise this explicit knowledge through interpretation and contextualisation. In this way explicit knowledge becomes tacit. The main challenge of attempts to manage knowledge has been to identify and codify tacit knowledge.

Based on these considerations, we find the most appropriate definition of knowledge for our paper, to be one provided by Davenport and Prusak: “Knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. In organizations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organizational routines, processes, practices, and norms.”⁴

What Can Diplomacy Borrow from Business?

Knowledge management started in the business sector. Government, including diplomatic services, borrows techniques and methodologies from the business sector. For several reasons, however, there are limits to the application of expertise from the business sector in diplomacy.

First, there is a difference in function and organisation. While companies are established in order to generate profit, diplomatic services promote national interests in particular, and maintain international order in general. Companies have a strong feedback loop in the form of market and profit. This makes them constantly strive to increase efficiency. Diplomatic services usually lack this feedback loop. The function of official representation and the complex environment in which diplomatic services operate renders any attempt to measure efficiency almost impossible.⁵

⁴ T. Davenport and L. Prusak, *Working Knowledge* (Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1998), 3.

⁵ C.K. Prahalad, and G. Hamel, “The Core Competence of the Corporation”, *Harvard Business Review* (May-June 1990): 79-91.

Second, processes in the business sector are organised in order to achieve some quantifiable result at the end (profit). Processes in diplomacy are not simple instruments to an end, but have importance in themselves. The process is a significant part of the solution for a specific problem, as is clearly seen for example, by the Middle East peace process.

Third, time has a different meaning in business and in diplomacy. While in the business sector the guiding principle is to do more in less time, in diplomatic services the equation is more complex. Often it is necessary to have some delay between message and response. Sometimes the time factor is an important element of diplomatic signalling. Delays in response, the channels through which a response is sent, etc., are all part of diplomatic signalling.

These major differences between the business sector and diplomacy influence the application of knowledge management in diplomacy. In the business sector, knowledge has instrumental value which is directly applied to particular circumstances (management campaigns, interaction with customers, etc.). In diplomacy, knowledge has a more general importance. It is the basis of organisation and is more often used indirectly, for reacting to new situations, than directly, to deal with expected situations.

How Does the Diplomatic Professional and Organisational Culture Affect the Use of Knowledge and Information?

ICT/Internet challenges many professions by being not only tools but also a trigger for substantive changes in the way professional life is organised and performed. The interplay between diplomacy and ICT/Internet has been shaped by four elements of diplomatic organisational and professional culture: hierarchy, exclusivity, secrecy and one-way communication with the public. These four elements are part of the foundation of traditional diplomacy and they determine the scope and success of any reform of diplomacy.

Hierarchy

Hierarchy is the core principle of the organisation of diplomatic services. Like the military, in the past, diplomats wore uniforms according to their ranks. Today, there are no uniforms, but diplomats have a clearly defined rank starting from attachés up to ambassadors. Hierarchy in diplomacy has two aspects: organisational and functional.

The organisational hierarchy consists of diplomatic ranks, starting from the attaché and ending with the ambassadors. Diplomatic ranks are used for the internal organisation of diplomatic services. Diplomats progress in their

career through the ranks. In *Network Diplomacy*, Jamie F. Metzl argues that “those functions that require the highest level of accountability, particularly the decision-making functions, should remain hierarchical structures”.⁶

The functional aspect of hierarchy influences the way diplomacy is conducted. The rank of a diplomat who leads delegations, welcomes foreign guests, negotiates or attends social functions could be part of diplomatic signalling. The higher the rank, the more relevance a particular state assigns to a particular action.

This double relevance of hierarchy: organisational and functional, deeply entrenches hierarchy in diplomatic professional and organisational cultures. The way to handle hierarchy has been one of the main challenges for projects introducing ICT/Internet in diplomatic services. Smith and Sutherland correctly observed this challenge: “Vertically organized bureaucratic structures, especially hierarchical organizations such as foreign ministries, are at a disadvantage in a networked information society.”⁷ One of the first examples of the challenge for a hierarchy was the technical possibility for junior diplomats (e.g. attaché) to send an e-mail directly to the minister of foreign affairs, bypassing the hierarchical structure. Most other attempts to introduce ICT/Internet in diplomatic services worldwide (e.g. sharing of information, automation of work processes) faced hierarchy as an important limitation. This challenge was particularly highlighted by emergence of Web 2.0 (blog, wiki, Twitter) which further flattens the hierarchical distribution of information.

The analysis of “CableGate”, the recent WikiLeaks of US State Department diplomatic documents, shows how difficult it is to balance hierarchical and networked information management. Wide access to classified information was the result of the reform of information handling after the “9/11” terrorist attack in the US. Post “9/11” analysis shows that the US administration had all the information required to prevent the terrorist attack. The problem was that data were handled by separate agencies and that there was no way to connect the dots among available information. This leads the US administration to shift from a hierarchical (need to know) to networked information management, allowing almost one million people to have access to classified information. One of them, US Army Private Bradley Manning, leaked the information. It is very likely that the reaction will now be to shift back to hierarchical information management. But the question of finding the right solution will remain open.

⁶ Jamie F. Metzl, “Network Diplomacy” (*Georgetown Journal of International Affairs*, Winter/Spring 2001). <http://www.carnegieendowment.org/publications/index.cfm?fa=view&id=681>.

⁷ Smith, G. and Sutherland, A. (2002). “The new diplomacy: real-time implications and applications”. In: E. H. Potter (Ed.). *Cyber-diplomacy: managing foreign policy in the twenty-first century*. Montreal: McGill-Queen’s University Press, p. 52.

Exclusivity

Exclusivity is based in the aristocratic origins of diplomatic professions. Today, diplomacy is no longer an exclusive aristocratic profession, but exclusivity still remains as an important aspect of the “professional ethos”. Although diplomatic privileges and immunities are granted in order to enable diplomats to perform their functions, they are still a relic of the formerly exclusive position of diplomats. Archaic language calling ambassadors “extraordinary and plenipotentiary” reminds us of the exclusive role of diplomats. ICT/Internet introduces egalitarian communication bypassing formal social conventions and protocols. It conflicts with the traditional exclusivity ethos of diplomacy.

Secrecy

Secrecy has always been one of the core characteristics of diplomacy. The first embassies, established in Renaissance Italy in the 15th century, were built as a way to protect secret communication. In modern times, secrecy was particularly important during the Cold War. Diplomats were in the front line of battle between the USA and the USSR and their satellites. The protection of information from spies was highly important. It influenced the way diplomacy was conducted and the way diplomatic services were organised. The “need to know” principle was the basis of information management. According to this principle, diplomats only had access to information of direct relevance and concern for them. Other information was not shared within the diplomatic service. This approach is exactly opposite to the principle of sharing information, facilitated with the introduction of ICT/Internet.

Since the end of the cold war, most diplomatic services have facilitated access to a broader range of information. Yet, secrecy and the “need to know” principle still influence the decisions of diplomatic services when it comes to the use of ICT/Internet. More recently, security reasons prevailed over access to information in the decision of many diplomatic services to block the use of emerging Internet services such as Twitter, Facebook and Skype. The shift towards more security in diplomatic services is likely to gain momentum after “CableGate”. For many diplomatic services, striking the right balance between security and e-functionality will remain highly challenging.

One-Way Communication

One-way communication has been the way diplomatic services communicate with the public, by issuing press releases and conducting press conferences. Traditional media, such as the printed word and TV, supported one-

way communication. ICT/Internet has introduced two-way communication by adding numerous channels for the public to voice their opinion about diplomatic activities. Today, through blogs, Twitter and Facebook, the general public can voice their views about any public policy issue, including foreign policy. Diplomatic services cannot ignore this development. Diplomats have to respond to comments and engage with the public.

Approaches, Tools, and Techniques for Knowledge Management

This section will focus on: Access to information and knowledge; Procedures and organisation; Training and human resources.

Access to Information and Knowledge

The Internet is a major source of information for teachers, students, journalists and researchers on everything from scientific experiments in CERN to the latest news from Iraq. The Internet has become the principal source of information due to two main developments.

First was the explosive growth of information on the Internet. This process accelerated with Web 2.0 technology, when millions – previously consumers – became *producers* of information and knowledge. The entry barrier for creating content on the Internet was lowered. It no longer required sophisticated technical skills. With a few clicks anyone could create a blog, upload a video or contribute to Wikipedia.

Second was the emergence of sophisticated search engines such as Google. These tools ameliorated the risk of excessive information leading to overload. Abundance could be as bad as or worse than a scarcity of information.

Major Tools and Techniques

Wikipedia is a web-based encyclopaedia with 17 million articles written by contributors around the world. Wikipedia introduces a new way of creating knowledge by relying on the wisdom of many volunteers. It challenges the traditional paradigm of centralised editing and authoring of reference materials, such as encyclopaedias. The initial criticism about the reliability of data on Wikipedia is being addressed by various review procedures. Wikipedia has become a common reference source for many Internet users. It is highly relevant for diplomats because it provides complete and up-to-date coverage of main diplomatic events and policy developments. Very often, Wikipedia contains

first-hand information from the people on the spot. Only a few large diplomatic services can provide coverage of international events comparable to Wikipedia.

Wikipedia inspired similar projects within diplomatic services. The US State Department established Diplopedia, which has over 12.000 articles. Articles are contributed and edited by diplomats. It is becoming a valuable resource for information and knowledge in the State Department. The Canadian diplomatic service also has an internal wiki with more than 6.000 articles.

The blogosphere is another highly relevant source of information and knowledge. The blog as a communication space is well-established. Blogs have been around since the 1990s. Today there are more than 100 million blogs with an informal, but well-established, ranking procedure. The blogosphere filters expertise “upstream” from lesser-known to more popular bloggers. It provides the “wisdom of the crowd” and the aggregation of expertise. The most relevant blogs eventually reach the “summit” of the most popular blogs. From the “summit”, information is often picked up by the mainstream media and policy makers.

Blogs are particularly influential in specialised policy fields such as climate change, migration and food security. They influence policy and agenda-shaping in international negotiations.⁸ Traditionally, agenda-shaping was influenced by experts organised in scientific and professional communities and traditional media like the International Herald Tribune and the Economist. Diplomats would choose a particular issue and frame it according to the pressure of the scientific community as fact or truth, or as public opinion, formed by the most influential media.

Today, blogging is increasingly important for agenda-shaping for several reasons.

Firstly, blogging helps to accumulate expertise which would be otherwise lost. It includes the expertise of people who are not approved by the established professional and scientific communities (turf protection).

Secondly, those traditionally established communities are increasingly moving to blogs. Professors and researchers have blogs. Part of their expertise that used to be transferred to policy-makers through official consultancy is now available free of charge on their blogs.

Thirdly, as we have already indicated, the mainstream media is increasingly basing its writing on news from the blogosphere.

⁸ In climate change policy there are a few opinion shaping blogs: <http://www.realclimate.org/> and <http://climatedenial.org/>.

Box 1: Example from Serbia – Relevance of Web 2.0 for Traditional Diplomacy

Here is an example of the importance of blogs for diplomats. In Serbia the question of visa regimes with the European Union was highly sensitive and emotionally charged. Many Serbian citizens consider it to be a punishment and an unjust restriction of movement. The stories about unfair treatment and incidents from EU embassies were very frequent on the B92 Blog, which has been highly influential in shaping public opinion. Most EU diplomats based in Belgrade were not aware of the importance of blog communication in Serbia, including concrete negative comments about the consular officials of their respective countries. They were still following only official newspapers and TV as the main indicators of public opinion. Blogs and other web 2.0 mediums can be more useful in identifying the “pulse of the society” by identifying the prevailing views of intellectuals, policy makers and other opinion formers. It is going to be a significant challenge for diplomatic services to learn how to participate in this new form of communication, which is generally informal and spontaneous; that is, highly ‘undiplomatic’.

Data-mining facilitates deriving useful insights from vast amounts of data by establishing relevant relationships and discovering patterns. The function of data-mining could be illustrated with example from diplomacy. One can find the information whether, for example, Croatia signed and ratified the Kyoto Protocol to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change. With a bit of search skills one may also find all conventions on climate change signed and ratified by Croatia. But, it is very difficult to find all climate change conventions signed by Croatia but not, for example, by Brazil and Argentina. One could go further and try to link signature/ratification data to statistics about CO₂ production or any other economic/social parameters which may provide a useful input for further diplomatic and political activities.

With most of this information available on the Internet, this type of advanced data-mining will become increasingly important. Although, Google has revolutionised access to information, much more can be achieved by using more intelligent ways of accessing and organizing information. Thus, data-mining can derive very useful information out of otherwise unconnected data. The new information can be used as the basis for further diplomatic activities.

Procedures and Organisation

Knowledge as an Institutional Resource

The first step for the better use of knowledge in organisation is the recognition and appreciation of knowledge as an institutional resource. Knowledge can be identified both as the knowledge employees bring with them to their work, and the knowledge generated through the activities of an institution. Often these are rhetorically acknowledged as a primary resource of diplomatic services, but when it comes to day-to-day and organisational issues, this is not the case. Sometimes, paradoxically, a piece of furniture has a higher declared financial value than top expertise in internal organisation and accounting. Such a situation can lead to enormous institutional and political losses. Once data, information and knowledge are recognised as the key resources of diplomatic services, most knowledge management improvements will be easier to implement.

Change of Organisational Structure

Modern technology enables the transformation of the traditional organisation of diplomatic services based on the separation of headquarters and diplomatic missions, towards a diplomatic service operating as an integrated system. The integrated organisation can better utilise available knowledge and skills. For example, it can solve the risk of losing available expertise through regular rotation between diplomatic posts. The rotation, which is guided by different reasons including personal and family preferences, could lead to a situation where, for example, an expert on multilateral issues such as climate change ends up working in a bilateral diplomatic mission. Restricting that person to dealing exclusively with bilateral issues would be a loss both for the service (expertise) and for that person (personal, academic and professional interests). While technology (Internet, communication tools, etc.) now provides the facilities to integrate diplomatic services, organizational changes are necessary to enable this integration. One possibility is “diplomatic time-sharing”: a diplomat will have time allocated for various activities, regardless of physical location. For example, a specialist on the law of the sea sent to a bilateral mission may dedicate 20% of his/her time to consultancy on the law of the sea. In diplomatic services with a constant rotation of the staff, one of the challenges is how to organise proper handovers. The US State Department introduced Deskipedia as a system where each diplomat should provide information about his/her roles, duties and other relevant information for the post, facilitating the assimilation of a new diplomat in the position.

Knowledge Management and Main Procedures

The functioning of diplomatic services is based on numerous procedures. In these procedures knowledge and information are both used as input and also created as an output of these processes. These processes can be divided into three main groups:

- a. *Highly repetitive and routine processes* are those which follow a clear sequence; each step is predictable. Most of these processes are related to consular activities such as issuing visas or passports. The steps involve filling out forms, asking other departments for recommendations, checking criminal records, issuing visas or passports, etc. These procedures could be translated into computer algorithms and facilitated through specially developed computer applications with limited need for human intervention. It is not surprising that quite a few countries have already introduced automated procedures for e-visas.
- b. The majority of diplomatic activities fall into the category of *semi-repetitive tasks*. They are particularly relevant for the increasing number of international regimes in the field of environment, trade, human rights, etc. Based on international conventions, these regimes consist of machinery that organises regular meetings, processes documents, provides opinions, controls implementation of conventions, etc. These activities are carried out through more-or-less regular processes. Reports are prepared for specific periods of time; meetings of various committees are organised repeatedly in a more or less routine manner. The form is repetitive, while the content varies, depending on developments in the field. In bilateral relations, activities are increasingly following certain set patterns as well. Bilateral cooperation regimes established by bilateral conventions, for example, consist of regular meetings of mixed committees. Moreover, technical conventions in the field of double taxation, air-service transport, and investment are also established according to clear patterns. The repetitive aspects of these activities could be managed through automated applications. In addition, advanced knowledge management techniques can be designed to retain expertise developed in the framework of these activities, especially in the areas of high technical expertise (environment, trade, etc.).
- c. The last group of activities associated with diplomacy are *non-repetitive activities*. These are the cream of diplomatic activities, consisting mainly of negotiation both on multilateral and bilateral levels aimed at solving

international crises or bilateral problems, establishing new bilateral and multilateral regimes, etc. These processes require a lot of information and knowledge which cannot be codified into consistent logical structures. However, some of these activities could be supported by wikis and other social media tools.

Training and Human Resources

Box 2: Internet and Human Resources Management

Inspired by LinkedIn, the Canadian Foreign Ministry introduced “Connections”- a platform with the main aim of collecting staff profiles and facilitating optimal use of human resources. The system could help in identifying staff with particular language skills and expertise. It can be particularly useful in a time of crisis, when the identification of the staff with right skills and knowledge is time-sensitive.

Knowledge cannot be managed in the same way as other resources, and it cannot be managed “separately from the people in whose heads it resides”.⁹ The key to the success of knowledge management projects is their acceptance by the people who use them. More than in any other area of the use of technology, the rule that “humans make or break” applies to knowledge management.

One of the biggest challenges of knowledge management is the organisational shift towards an information and knowledge sharing culture. In order to describe this shift, in particular with Web 2.0 (blog, wiki, Facebook), Tim O’Reilly called this technology “an attitude technology”. The success of technology depends on the attitude of users and their readiness to interact and collaborate. Web 2.0 tools, such as Facebook and Twitter can be extremely powerful in harnessing the input of users, providing users are ready to contribute.

The change of organisational and professional cultures is a demanding task. People often fear and resist change. It is particularly challenging in knowledge-intensive profession such as diplomacy, where access to knowledge and information determines career progression. Thus, it is often difficult to persuade people to share their knowledge.

The change process requires time combining gradual organisational changes and a new way of conducting training. Participation in information-sharing activities (e.g. contribution to wiki, internal blogs) should be linked to career-promotion. The training activities of new diplomats should focus more on the use of e-tools, team work and information sharing.

⁹ “Knowledge Management, Encyclopaedia of the New Economy”, *Wired* 6.03 (March 1998): supplement.

Conclusions

The emergence of the concept of knowledge management in the business sector re-opens the old question of the role of knowledge in diplomacy. Diplomats have been reflecting on their working methodologies and the importance of knowledge since the early days of diplomacy.

The key condition for the successful implementation of knowledge management in diplomacy is the acceptance of the new techniques by diplomats themselves. Whenever knowledge management initiatives are artificially imposed they are not likely to succeed (not only in diplomacy).

Knowledge management initiatives must be bottom-up. They should be carefully planned and implemented, with continuous adaptation based on the responses of diplomats. In order to succeed, knowledge management projects must address the specific features of diplomatic professional culture in which the possession of knowledge and information is jealously guarded.

Most diplomatic services, like other institutions, are not aware of the extent of knowledge and information they possess. The first step in introducing knowledge management should therefore be to activate this knowledge. Although this task is primarily organizational, technology can help.

While knowledge management should be needs driven rather than technology driven, it is still important to follow developments in the technological field. These developments can stimulate new ideas and provide tools for solutions to traditional problems. This is particularly the case with a new social media tools such as wiki, blog, Twitter and Facebook.

In order to maximise the use of knowledge, diplomatic services have to undergo a gradual but profound restructuring. Any one-time grand design in this respect is doomed to failure. The process itself will determine the shape and characteristics of new knowledge-based structures for diplomatic services.

Public Diplomacy, New Media and Social Networks

Nenad Prelog*

Is there any relation? Public diplomacy, new media and social networks are methods by which relations between people and organizations are managed. All rely on accurate information, and the most important is the process of analyzing what the information means. The raw material is information: getting it, assessing it, and putting it into the system for the benefit and puzzlement of others.

Redefining Disciplines

In short: the advancing of interests through the sustained exchange of information toward:

- Changing attitudes and behavior
- Reaching agreements
- Solving problems.

World Internet Usage (May 5, 2009, 11 am)

World Population	6,751,175,000
Internet users	1,597,233,000
Penetration	23.65%

Cyber JR, PR, PD

In cyber world all protagonists have to be more “mobile”, since much of our real work is already conducted “on the move”, in airplanes, hotel rooms, at conference sites, at “micro” missions, at all hours and in every corner of the globe. The challenge is to operate at peak efficiency in a world that is growing smaller, and at a pace that is growing faster.

* Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, Zagreb, Croatia, UN GAID Strategic Council member.

Virtual JR, PR, PD

Social, economic, and political interactions are more and more mediated through electronic means rather than face-to-face communication. Today, in almost any part of the world, public can be mobilized through radio, telephones, fax machines, and the Internet, creating “virtual,” or electronic, communities that are basically divorced from notions of a territorially defined political community.

Are we expecting a chaos in the future?

In the U.S. Department of State there are 23,000 individuals worldwide in nearly 250 embassies and consulates. It processes 2.5 million cables and 25 million e-mail messages a year. In 1999 alone, an estimated eight million new secrets were classified, a ten percent increase the previous year.

Some important changes which have major impact on traditional concepts

- Fast introduction of ICT
- Language and cultural diversity
- New information geography
- Transparency
- Blogs, social networks.

We know, but do we understand what is happening

It took radio 38 years to reach 50 million people, personal computers 16 years, and television 13 years... it took the Internet only four years to reach 50 million people. Internet traffic is doubling every 100 days. The marginal costs of transmitting information have dropped to near zero.

Language and cultural diversity

If I'm selling to you, I speak your language. If I'm buying, dann müssen Sie Deutsch sprechen [then you must speak German] (*Willy Brandt*). Every two seconds there is a new internet user in the world. It could be your next e-customer – if you speak his language.

Listen what business says

52.4% of the world's online population doesn't speak English, and the non-English market accounts for 70% of the world's purchasing power. Reports say that internet use is expected to grow by 79% in Asia, 123% in Latin America, and more than 2,000% in Japan over the next few years. GlobalSight gleefully predicts that by 2005 the number of non-English users will reach 700 million – 70% of the web's 1 billion users world wide.

Where have all the borders gone...

Localization and globalization by such transnational media as the Internet and other information networks is changing the character and governance of the nation-state. National identities and allegiances are fragmenting along ethnic, religious, and cultural lines; and global markets, not political borders, are coming more and more to determine economic regulation and growth.

Only one earth

Territory as the primary basis of power in the international system is on the way out, while a yet-to-be-identified integrator of global networks is on the way in. The power of information technology, harnessed by the commercial world, has created and now enforces global relationships.

Tell me where you are, I am going to tell you what you need

- Laws and tax regimes are based on geography, not network topology
- There is a growing interest in determining physical location of the user
- Location is used more and more as a search parameter.

Who is a believer?

How can journalists, policymakers, PR people and diplomats maintain their credibility with a public that has access to multiple-source global information flows?

Public diplomacy?

... has the goal of informing and influencing foreign publics, to advance mutual understanding and to promote policies and goals of particular country
... is now part of a global conversation
... operates through actions, relationships, images, and words in 24/7 news streams.

We should learn to...

- **understand** how the information revolution is transforming the character of international relations and conflict;
- **explore** the impact of new information technologies on institutional structures and operational effectiveness in the field;
- **identify** ways how information and communication technologies can strengthen preventive diplomacy, conflict management and resolution;
- **find** areas of potential cooperation between crisis management groups, with special focus on using new information and communication technologies.

Virtual organization

The organization of work will be influenced less and less by the physical location of an issue, and will be more and more centered around communities of interest, be they trade-related, culture-related or whatever. The intention is to make much more use of “virtual work teams” focused on a single topic.

There is not free lunch if...

I'm giving you something of value at no cost; I will charge you with your time.

You want quick access to custom made information you have to pay with your privacy.

Times they are a-changing...

40% Americans as very important source of information about campaign cite internet.

19% American go online at least once a week or more to do something connected with campaign.

6% go online every day for political reason.

Development of Web Concept (Web 1.0)

- **Web 1.0** → (connected machines, nodes)
- Provide the information flow
- Browsers → insight into content
- Description of content done through language
- Routers, Protocols
- Engineering, Computer Science.

Development of Web Concept (Web 2.0)

- **Web 2.0** → (connected people, network)
- Interaction, collaboration, uploading, folksonomy
- Social networks, Blogging, Wiki
- User → Author
- Sociology, Economy.

Development of Web Concept (Web 3.0)

- **Web 3.0** → (connecting of knowledge)
- Semantic web, relations, artificial intelligence, natural language communication

- Knowledge enhancing and improvement
- Content, not description of content
- Psychology, Linguistics, Statistics.

Processes are simultaneous

New phase in development does not replace the older one!

Moving from material to virtual.

From content to links.

From products to services.

Fast but lasting

New Media collapses traditional concepts of time and space as information moves around the world in less than a second.

Unlike traditional media, search engines enable information, to be quickly and easily accessed long after it was created.

Internet/web 2.0

consist of the social networking, blogging, wikis and information aggregating tools that nurture individual expression and competition of ideas.

Public Diplomacy 2.0

focuses on the *mode* of discourse, promoting the *competition of* ideas instead of specific ideas.

Before: What was not on television, looked as never hapenned...

But today:

If there is no data on **Google.com** about somebody it seems he never existed and acted.

Who does not have a profile on Facebook – does not exist.

You are not in Wikipedia – you did not succeeded.

If you book is not on **Amazon.com** for this book would be better it has not been printed.

Why blogging?

Bloggers speak the language and idiom of the region, know the cultural reference points and are often able to converse informally and frankly rather than more formal language of government spokesperson.

Building these bottom-up communities means that the conversation can't be one way. It means taking criticism publicly. It means investing the resources to build the communities and keep the dialogue going.

Credibility and how to reach it

Israeli government officials hold news conferences about the Israeli-Palestinian conflict on Twitter. U.K. Foreign Secretary David Miliband has active blog.

Diplomats should by all means communicate their government's message, but must be aware that thanks to generational changes and new technology, the skepticism with which that message will be greeted has never been greater.

The Example: The Wiki as a Weapon of Mass Collaboration.

At the end...

- Going to the start.
- **Web 1.0** provided insight into diversity.
- Information about things and people.
- **Web 2.0** provided possibility of reacting.
- Real answers are hard to find.
- More local content and languages.
- Easy to publish: diversity creation.
- **Web 3.0** will provide convergence of real life and virtual space.
- From description of content to the content itself.
- Laws of one world function in another (and another way around).

Crisis Management: Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training

Nabil Ayad*

Modern Ambassadors 1533

17th Century Modern Diplomat

- A trained theologian
- Well-versed in Aristotle and Plato
- An expert in mathematics and physics
- An expert in civil law
- Able to speak and write Latin, Greek, Spanish, French and German and
- Had a taste for poetry!

The Globe Today – from Google Earth

The Media World Today & the Internet State

How small is the Globe?

We can see cars in parking lots and see many public and private buildings in most parts of the world by searching Flickr or Google Earth.

How fast does information travel?

Events are flashed around the world as soon as they occur in words, photos, and videos.

Who presents news?

Events are frequently not covered as fast or as well in conventional media, as they are in social media such as Blogs, FaceBook, and Twitter.

* Director, Diplomatic Academy of London, University of Westminster, UK.

Global communication

When I look back to the world of diplomats and politicians about 25 years ago when the Diplomatic Academy began, it was relatively simple and manageable when compared to the world today. Today, globally we are on the cusp of major changes to communication, political, economic, and ecological systems.

Complex problems

At this point in time, the beginning of the 21st century we seem to be confronted by a labyrinth of problems for which there is no obvious solution or end.

President Obama: News Conference – 100 Days

At the news conference, he noted that he came into office confronted with two wars, the greatest financial crisis since the 1930s, and that there is a risk of pandemic disease. (He did not even mention climate change and dilemma about carbon burning fuels.)

World Bank News Conference – April 27th

The World Bank warned that developing countries face “especially serious consequences of the financial crisis”. More than “50 million people” are being driven “into extreme poverty, particularly women and children“, they said.

Pick your crisis

- Aside from unanticipated crises, the diplomat today is confronted with:
- Medical Crises – Fear of Pandemic
- Economic Crises – Financial Collapse
- Political Crises – Wars, Terrorism
- Natural Disaster – Climate Change, Destruction of Plant and Animal Species.

Global communication

Instantaneous messaging makes the world a much more complex place. Unlike their counterparts in the past, diplomats are not only confronted with crises and problems, they are confronted with numerous tools of mass global communication.

Type of training

What type of training can assist people in the field to deal with both ongoing global crises and the quickly arising regional or local crisis?

Five focuses

I am going to discuss five focuses which should make diplomats better prepared to handle both types crisis.

Focus #1 – Knowledge

Programs structured so that participants understand:

1. Roots of today's problems
2. Point of view of each major player
3. Divergent potential solutions.

Today's problems – such as the economic situation, global climate change, and destruction of many species (such as fish which affect the food supply) - are **multidimensional**. The problems have been leading to spin off crises in various parts of the world. As a result, diplomats need knowledge of the potential impact of these problems on various areas of the world. The growing involvement of non-professional actors in diplomatic activities such as NGOs, businesses, pressure-groups, lobbies and other non state actors – diplomats need to be able to interact with these groups as well as with governments.

The globalization in the field of economics and finance – the diplomatic needs a sound grounding in international law and the linkages between economic and political power management. The problems do not have one simple solution. Therefore, **diplomats need knowledge** of a variety of solutions and **need to understand** which one will be acceptable in a given situation.

Focus #2 – Branding & Image Projection

Diplomats need to be aware of the role of “branding” or “image” in any country's foreign policy, and particularly the role in their home country's foreign policy. If they are aware of the image they should be projecting as representatives of their country, they will know how to present themselves and their country in a crisis situation.

For example, the Bush White House emphasized the importance of “Transformational Public Diplomacy” – transforming how the world viewed the US though providing information about US policies through better mass communication. The Bush White House felt that their diplomats could resolve crises by using modern technology to better communicate US policies. The role of the US diplomat was to project a positive image of the intentions of the US in any crisis.

The Obama White House with Hilary Clinton as Foreign Secretary, emphasise “smart diplomacy”. Diplomats are supposed to be pragmatic, rather

than idealistic; supposed to listen, rather than tell; and use whatever tool will work in a given situation. As a result, the US diplomat in a crisis would behave differently than under Obama “smart diplomacy” than under Bush “transformational diplomacy”.

Diplomatic training must emphasize the importance of understanding his or her country’s branding and adapting his or her behaviour in a crisis situation to the image that needs to be projected.

Focus #3 – Planning

Much progress has been made in assessing threat levels and planning for emergencies in the years since September 11, 2001. In almost every country there has been an improved response to THREATS and to RECOVERY once a disaster has occurred. Improved communication and transportation networks, as illustrated during the Tsunami Natural Disaster, have revolutionized responses.

Diplomats need training to evaluate the usefulness of crisis planning for:

- The safety of personnel and property in diplomatic missions.
- The response to complex humanitarian emergencies – due to natural or military interventions.

Although primary operational responsibility for law enforcement and public order rests with the police of the state or territory in which the mission operates, crisis planning should include contingency operations in the case of the breakdown of civil authority.

Since Diplomatic Missions are responsible for perimeter security including physical barriers against suicide bombers, entry controls, duress and intruder alarms, and internal communication and warning systems, the diplomat needs training to be able to evaluate the “on the ground” effectiveness of these systems.

Diplomats need to be trained to ensure:

- 1) All emergency numbers are clearly posted where diplomatic personnel live and work.
- 2) A chain of contacts for personnel to link up with in the event of specific emergencies.

Diplomats need to know how to maintaining a good working rapport with host country’s police and military, since these services are essential to the diplomatic safety of missions in a crisis situation.

Most countries have an interagency operational approach for economic, political, humanitarian, and military factors in a crisis. The diplomat needs to be able to evaluate the effectiveness of the host country's approach, with a view to suggesting ways diplomatic mission can assist with improvements.

In the case of a crisis caused by a natural disaster such as an earthquake or a pandemic disease, the diplomat also needs to know how to evaluate the effectiveness of current plans. They need to ensure cooperation with NGOs as well as to be aware of international transportation and trade routes.

The diplomat needs training to conduct post incident debriefing to ensure the recognition of what was done well and where there were problems to ensure the response to the next crisis will be more effective.

Focus #4 – Communication

The diplomat needs training in all aspects of modern communication from managing media scrums to utilizing and monitoring social media.

Developments in information technology allow networking which can expand far beyond national boundaries - diplomats must be equipped with the knowledge and ability to make use new information technologies as they develop.

The ability to manage media scrums is essential to branding and image management. As a result, the diplomat needs specific training on how to establish a good relationship with the media, screen appropriate press releases, and conduct interviews.

On the ground understanding of and relationships with the government, the military, the police and the people in the host country are essential in a crisis. These relationships can be improved through monitoring local mass media and social media.

President Obama's election was won partially through use of social media, such as FaceBook and MySpace. On May 2nd, he announced WhiteHouse 2.0 – launching pages on social networks MySpace, Facebook, Flickr, and the micro-blogging service Twitter.

Because these services are commonly used around the world, diplomats need to know what they do well and need to be able to monitor and to contribute to them in their host countries. They can provide invaluable information and feedback.

Focus #5 – Autonomy

In addition to the skills mentioned above, the diplomat needs the ability to be able to act autonomously. In crisis situations, contact with the home country and with other organizations can be lost. The diplomat has to be able to “think on his or her feet”.

Because each crisis is different and to an extent can never be fully planned for, the final and most important element of diplomatic training has to focus on the ability to be autonomous and make on-the-ground decisions.

The following skill sets need to be enhanced through training:

- Patience and good listening skills.
- Highly developed analytical skills.
- An ability to build trust.
- High level communication skills to use persuasively with all parties including the media.

Following these skills, we will be able to:

- Bring people together as teams, build consensus, and generate compromise.
- Focus on process as much as outcomes, in order to build methodology to deal with future crises & solve future problems.

For the past 100 years, diplomats have been responsible for two-way education, advocacy, building alliances, negotiation, conflict resolution, consular services, crisis management, and dealing with privileged information. Now, given the geopolitical trends already underway and the global reliance on information technology – the diplomat needs both media relations skills and social media skills.

Diplomatic Performance Measuring Outcomes

Accountability & outcomes

In all aspects of government related work, two key concepts prevail – accountability and outcomes.

Role of the diplomats

What is the role of the diplomat? How do we determine whether he or she is accountable? How do we measure if his or her accountability is achieving the desired outcomes?

Added value

In the 21st century the role has expanded greatly due to geopolitical, economic and social changes and advancements in technology.

Measurement of accountability

Governments can develop and administer assessments to determine the extent to which a diplomat is carrying out assigned duties.

Professional attributes

Personal credibility, adaptability, decisiveness / decision making ability, initiative, communications skills, information technology skills, and professional development - can be assessed.

Job performance

Quantity & quality of work, team working skills, multitasking, work load management skills, problem solving skills, technical skills, compliance with policies and methodologies, ability to close deals, managing relationships & expectations, and other parameters – can be measured.

Management skills

The ability to manage work teams and projects effectively, to keep within budget, to plan budgets effectively, to define & communicate standards for quality, and to provide timely & adequate performance feedback / appraisals to team members - can be assessed.

New requirements

New requirements (such as dealing with non-state actors, dealing with globalization, effective use of public diplomacy and use of information technology) can also be assessed.

Desired outcomes

Will any of these measurements ensure that desired outcomes are going to be achieved?

Measurement of accountability

Some governments are requiring their diplomats to sign performance based contracts which reflect desired outcomes.

Outcomes

Outcomes are the essential focus. Do diplomats and foreign missions achieve the necessary outcomes in today's society?

Final Comment

However well governments plan and communicate for crises, the final analysis and decision making is still within the mind of the human decision maker, **the diplomat who is on-the-ground**. It is therefore essential to give that diplomat every possible advantage to confront crises. The **well-equipped human decision maker** is the final outcome of good diplomatic training.

Women in Diplomacy

Vivian S. Walker*

By virtue of circumstance, women have been involved in diplomacy of one kind or another for centuries. For example, in 1529 two women established one of the treaties that laid the foundation for modern Europe. Louise of Savoy and Margaret of Austria negotiated the Treaty of Cambrai (or the Paix de Dames / **“Ladies’ Peace”** as it became known) on behalf of their respective countries. And there are many more examples.

Today, nearly every contemporary diplomatic service in the world has female Foreign Service officers, women who became diplomats by choice rather than by circumstance. According to a recent count, there are 23 female Ministers of Foreign Affairs currently in office in Europe, North and South America, Africa and Asia.

My focus today is the evolution of the role of women in the American Foreign Service, a tale that is both cautionary and instructive. At the same time, I would like to consider the question of the “Ladies Peace”. Are women better at diplomacy than their male counterparts? Do women practice diplomacy differently than men?

But let’s start with a little history. In 1804 a Mrs. March became the first female Employee of the Department of State. A forerunner to today’s data input specialist, she was hired to bind volumes of recently passed legislation. During the 19th century a number of women tried and failed to join the US diplomatic service. According to one learned gentleman diplomat writing in 1909, “Perhaps the greatest obstacle to the employment of women as diplomatic officers is their well-known inability to keep a secret.”.

The women’s suffrage movement began in earnest in 1863 and culminated 47 years later in 1920 with the ratification of the 19th constitutional amendment. This amendment, which gave American women the right to vote, inspired women in all professions to expand their employment opportunities. And so from 1921-23 ten women tried to pass the exams for the diplomatic and consular services.

* Embassy of the United States of America in the Republic of Croatia, Zagreb.

Of them, only one succeeded: in 1922, Lucile Atcherson became the first woman permitted to join the US Foreign Service, having received the third highest score on the entrance exam.

Nevertheless, despite fears among some male diplomats that there would be a “flood” of women recruits, only six women passed the exam and received appointments as officers between the early 1920s and the beginning of World War II. Popular attitudes about women certainly did not help the cause. Traditional gender stereotypes, along with binding cultural norms, prevailed. Women, it was said, would be no match for the macho culture of Latin American societies, nor they would be able to function effectively in Islamic cultures owing to social restrictions placed on women. Nor could women deal with the less savory aspects of consular affairs, requiring visits to tough customers in local prisons, dealing with drunken sailors or coping with intimidating police officials. Many assumed that women would simply not be taken seriously by their counterparts in foreign affairs ministries.

Finally, and perhaps most damaging, women, many argued, were incapable of functioning as a diplomat and as a wife (or mother, for that matter). In fact, when women were appointed as Foreign Service Officers, it was simply understood that they would remain single. If a female FSO got married, she had to resign, a policy that remained in place until 1972, more than fifty years after Lucille Atcherson joined the diplomatic corps. [Lucille, by the way, was compelled to leave the Foreign Service a few years after she joined because she, that’s right, got married!]

The number of women in the Foreign Service grew dramatically during and after WWII owing to wartime manpower shortages and the subsequent expansion in the number of global diplomatic organizations. And in 1933 Ruth Bryan Owen (daughter of William Jennings Bryan: minister, orator, and populist politician) became the first female Chief of Mission at the Minister Rank. Frances Willis became Ambassador to Switzerland in 1953, the first female career diplomat to be appointed as an Ambassador and the third woman to be admitted to the US Foreign Service.

Despite these achievements, recruitment of women into the U.S. Foreign Service remained at a mere 7% between 1961 and 1971. In 1969 the rate of promotion for women was only a third that of men and very few women made it into the senior ranks. However, the rapid and powerful social changes that swept the United States in the 1960s and 1970s slowly gained influence within Department of State, most important among them the growing Women’s movement. In the early 1970s women in several US foreign affairs agencies came together to form the Women’s Action Organization (WAO), which successfully addressed many of the gender based inequities that prevailed in the Department

of State. First to go was the ban on marriage for women in the Foreign Service. This new policy opened the door to the employment of working married couples, otherwise known today as “tandem couples”. Other major reforms brought about by the WAO included the reduction (but not, alas, elimination) of discrimination in hiring and assignment practices, and a reduction of the disparity between allowances granted to men and women.

A US Court of Appeals ruling on a class action suit brought against the State Department in 1976 (*Palmer v. Baker*), found the Department to have violated Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and to have engaged in gender discrimination in a wide range of activities, including the Foreign Service exam, assignments, evaluations and awards. In a subsequent case, the Voice of America and its parent organization, the United States Information Agency, were likewise found to have been guilty of sex discrimination and ordered also to compensate the victims.

In the 1980s the Department of State also made a significant advance with respect to gender in the realm of policy making with the establishment of a new foreign policy directive on the worldwide status and rights of women. As introduced by then Secretary of State Cyrus Vance, “a key objective of US foreign policy is to advance worldwide the status and condition of women”.

Women’s rights have also been institutionalized in the U.S.’s human rights policies. A significant portion of the State Department’s Annual Human Rights Report, for example, is devoted to the protection of women’s rights and the promotion of gender equality, under the rubric of Section 5: Discrimination, Societal Abuses, and Trafficking in Persons. For each country, the report looks at violations of laws protecting against gender discrimination, the handling of incidences of rape, and other forms of violence against women, including and especially spousal abuse/domestic violence, discrimination in the workplace (salaries, employment opportunities, sexual harassment), and status of gender equality legislation.

But enough of historical context. Let’s get down to the real question: Is diplomacy a feminine art? Is there such a thing as a “Ladies Peace”? The eminent American playwright, congresswoman, journalist, social activist and diplomat Clare Boothe Luce certainly thought so, having once said: “Women . . . have been taught to use gentle words . . . to learn how to get what they want in the interests of their family. Diplomacy is a feminine art” (1976 speech). [It is worth noting that in 1953 Luce, the fifth female US Chief of Mission and the first woman assigned to Rome, a major post vital to US interests, faced tremendous opposition from Italian Foreign ministry officials. They did not want the “humiliation” of working with a female Ambassador. Happily for all involved, Luce went on to become one of the most popular US Ambassadors ever to serve in Italy.]

Former Secretary of State Madeline Albright agrees that women are in some ways very well suited to being diplomats, as she said recently in a comment about the current Secretary, Hillary Clinton: “I think there are advantages to being a woman Secretary of State. A lot of diplomacy is being able to put yourself in the other person’s shoes. Frankly, I think women are better at that. We are better listeners, and there has to be a lot of listening in diplomacy. I was able to develop good personal relationships and to speak frankly. I had a standard line I used: *I have come a long way, so I must be frank.*”

A 1994 study of the 44 US women Ambassadors and Ministers who were appointed between 1933 and 1994 (“Do Women Make Better Ambassadors?”) looked at some of the characteristics of successful women diplomats. These characteristics included high energy levels and athleticism, and high levels of scholastic achievement (nearly all were early and lifelong readers). Although these women exhibited strong ideals, and were both physically and morally courageous, they were also pragmatic: they looked for immediate and practical solutions to complex problems.

Interestingly, many of the female Ambassadors interviewed for this study indicated that their gender did in fact prove to be an advantage in doing their jobs. For example, most agreed that they were able to speak bluntly to male officials without causing offense. As females, they were not seen as threats by their male counterparts; in fact, many host country officials turned to them for advice. And as women, they were able to mix more freely with women in Islamic and other cultures where male diplomats simply do not have access to the female population. These women were able to glean first hand, intimate knowledge of hidden cultures and social problems with a profound, if invisible, impact on local governments. The women interviewed also said that the ability to listen carefully and to pick up on details enabled them to make politically astute analyses and policy recommendations. As a group, their preferred management style was collegial rather than hierarchical, and they preferred consensus over top-down decision making. Overall, these women were perceived as more credible and genuinely compassionate than their male predecessors.

It is difficult, however, to measure the impact of female ambassadors on US foreign policy. It is true that a few women have been appointed to the highest levels of the State Department; in fact three of the four most recent Secretaries of State have been women: Albright in 1997, Rice in 2005 and now Clinton in 2009. Other women who have made notable contributions to American foreign policy include Jeanne Kirkpatrick who, in 1981, became the first female US Permanent Representative to the United Nations; she was also the first woman to serve as one of the president’s top advisors on the National Security Council (to be followed two decades later by Condoleezza Rice). And in 1985 Rozanne

Ridgeway became the first Assistant Secretary of State of a geographical Bureau (European and Canadian Affairs); she went on to become the US chief negotiator for the historic Reagan-Gorbachev summits.

In 2005, women made up 34% of the Foreign Service – the percentage is likely to be slightly higher today. Women have been joining the Foreign Service at a higher rate than men in recent years. In 2006, for example, 55% of the entering class of FSOs were women. By 2006, women held approximately one third of all ambassadorships, though major ambassadorial assignments continue to be given almost entirely to males: only 25 percent of the members of the Senior Foreign Service are women.

It is clear that although more and more women are entering Foreign Service fields, the increase is still concentrated in lower positions. Women remain largely under-represented in the top administrative and policy decision-making positions. As an early study concluded, “women must keep pressing for inclusion”. Women, “... cannot wait for men to open the door and invite them into the foreign policy process”.

Conclusion: Is there a “Ladies Peace”?

Though distinguished by differences in style and manner, I believe that substantively male and female diplomats are equal in ability and potential. In part it comes down to cultural context: the role of women in any given society is determined to some degree by cultural norms and expectations. But in the end I believe it really is a question of individual skills and credibility.

As Julia Chang Bloch, one of our former Ambassadors to Nepal noted, “I found that success did not turn on making a difference as a woman ambassador, but on establishing credibility with my Nepali interlocutors, the Embassy staff, my State Department handlers, and the foreign policy community. To be taken seriously, women ambassadors have to establish their credibility. In my case, credibility turned on how well I managed the totality of the bilateral relationship – from revolution to trade to aid – as well as how well I ran the Embassy.” Or, as Madeleine Albright put it: “People knew that we could have a good discussion but that ultimately my job was to represent the interests of the United States.”.

That said, there is a double standard that haunts all women who cope with the competing responsibilities of career, marriage and motherhood. Though increasingly the US Foreign Service has made great gains in the process of assigning tandem couples and creating family friendly environments at overseas posts, the fact remains that women diplomats, like all of their professional female counterparts, have to make difficult decisions between their careers and their families, especially if their husbands or partners have competing professional

interests, or if they have young children, or children with special needs. Some diplomatic couples make the choice to take separate foreign postings, to the benefit of their respective careers, but to the possible detriment of their relationship with their spouses and families. And it is quite true (and somewhat ironic) that more unmarried foreign service officers end up serving in hardship assignments to unaccompanied (i.e. no family) posts, which their counterparts with children turn down.

In conclusion, the “Ladies Peace” is an ongoing negotiation: it is a delicate balance of professional skills and experience, combined with personal priorities and preferences. What is clear is that women diplomats are just as good as their male counterparts. Less clear are the choices that they must make. While all the legislation is in place, societal norms and expectations still have a profound effect on true gender parity in the diplomatic service.

International Law and Modern Diplomacy

Stanko Nick*

Our world undergoes a process of constant changes in practically all spheres of human activities and this process is nowadays more complex and much faster than ever in recorded history. It might be fair, perhaps, to admit that two areas referred to in the title of my address – that is, diplomacy and international law, specifically – could be qualified among those social disciplines which seem to be more inert, more development-resistant than, let's say labour legislation, international financial control etc., let alone technical progress in communications, space research, medicine etc.

Nevertheless, as the distinguished audience assembled in this hall cannot [with exception of my dear friend Jovan Kurbalija!] boast to belong to the privileged technocratic, information technology elite, let me try to “defend” and justify the development achieved in those two fields.

Without pretention to even try to enumerate most significant achievements, we could only single out a few really remarkable steps forward that break through quasi eternal or at least centuries-long sacrosanct truisms. Let's mention first the case of monitoring the elections in any sovereign country - be it elections for the parliament, for the local authorities, for the president of the republic or any kind of referendum. Had anyone suggested - say 30 or 50 years ago - to send, an observing mission from an international organization or, *horribile dictu*, from a neighbouring state, it would most probably be considered as a first class *casus belli*. Another example: human rights and fundamental freedoms, very often rights of a national, religious, ethnic or linguistic minority.

It's commonplace nowadays to witness all kind of interventions - not just protests, sending postcards and staging mass demonstrations in front of foreign embassies, but addressing formal, official *demarches* by governments in favour of a group of people (sometimes just one person) considered to be discriminated in **their own country**. Again, not long ago, it would be taken as a blunt case of

* Stanko Nick (1935.-2010.), Croatian Ambassador, an international lawyer and a career diplomat.

interference in internal affairs of a sovereign state. Not any more. Today - at least in Europe - people are free to sue their own government to European Court for Human Rights if domestic justice does not proceed well. I am not here to glorify the development of international law, but huge progress has been achieved in areas which for centuries remained uncodified or left to regulation by each and every interested country - just for the sake of example let me mention Geneva Conventions on the law of armed conflicts, Vienna Conventions on diplomatic and consular relations, a series of very important environmental protection treaties or UNCLOS (UN Convention on the Law of the Sea).

Very significant change of attitude – although not reflected in international legal instruments and yet less in international jurisprudence – can be noted in the field of diplomatic privileges and even immunities. Still far from being broadly accepted, there are however growing tendencies to reduce the two mentioned categories, to “democratize” diplomacy and bring diplomatic status closer to that of “ordinary” people, submit them to legal system not only of the sending state, but more and more that of the receiving state. It starts with parking and traffic regulations, but goes swiftly towards some clearly status issues (question of diplomatic passports or ID cards), and then straight to the question of all questions – the responsibility of diplomats in front of receiving state courts – including criminal cases. There are already some precedents where the sending state withdrew the immunity of its diplomat and left him to be sentenced by local tribunal.

Croatia also, in spite of short period since its appearance at the international scene, made a contribution - not very fortunate – in this area: within a period of a couple of years two of Croatian diplomats in Asian countries have been blamed in the local press for sexual harassment of some of their local staff. The then president of Croatia, against the opinion of the international legal service of the Ministry of foreign affairs, decided to instantly withdraw the diplomats in question, without any investigation, thus contributing (probably involuntarily) to the impression that the accusations were justified. There were, of course quite a few other cases in various countries, particularly concerning diplomats of former colonies, serving in former metropolis.

In one, probably quite simplified, sentence: diplomats seem to be more and more on the way to lose their specific position based on their very personal status and keep only those prerogatives, immunities and remaining privileges justified exclusively with the concern about their possibilities to fulfill the task entrusted upon them by the sending state, therefore the **functional** instead of **personal** prerogatives.

Let me come to a slightly different, yet very relevant, aspect of the subject, the one that should concern specifically young colleagues in diplomatic service:

the role of diplomats in creating the atmosphere of tolerance and international cooperation. Still in the eighties of the last century Poland came to the UN with an incentive named “Preparing societies for life in peace” (or something similar). It was a very thorough concept, going to the deep roots of mistrust, of national, racial, religious or any other intolerance and hatred, aiming, in the long, at elimination of violence from international affairs. In spite of its noble objective, the Polish incentive did not (and probably could not!) achieve its final objective, but the idea is not forgotten and deserves every possible support and promotion. As it was mentioned above, there was an unexpectedly fast progress made in those last thirty or so years concerning the protection and promotion of human rights, but – at the same time – also a number of extremely savage, bloodthirsty conflicts in Africa, Asia, here in the Balkans, the tragic September 11 in New York and a whole wave of dramatic acts of international terrorism in all parts of the world.

It seems that the young, educated people in all spheres of social activities - and among them the young diplomats in the very first front-line – could be instrumental in achieving decisive progress in the field of respect for differences, their consideration as additional value within overall cultural capital of a society or a nation. Already the in-depth study of a foreign language is no doubt the first step in direction of appreciation of another culture, hopefully also of different way of thinking, and then also of the readiness to attentively listen to and consider other peoples’ arguments.

A propos of the word **listen**. Most diplomatic schools pay necessary attention to various techniques of negotiation, including of course most convincing ways of presenting negotiator’s views, best order of submitting own arguments, developing capacities of public speaking, debating and arguing; specialists teach future diplomats how to dress for different public occasions, what to do with their hair, hands etc. All this is undoubtedly good and useful in a profession which depends to a great extent upon the overall impression of an individual and certainly also not only upon simple eloquence, but above all upon the ability of expressing one’s thoughts clearly and doing it convincingly. However, not very often another important skill is taught, skill to a great extent determining directly the convincingness and even the very capacity of speaking – the glorious skill of **listening**. And there can be no listening without the proper respect for the interlocutor, his situation and his needs.

Our region, with all its differences, its rich history and experiences – bad and good, equally – could very well lead in opening those ways. And education of young diplomats should be considered as good long-term investment in creating the atmosphere of mutual tolerance and better international cooperation.

Diplomatic and Consular Training in New Circumstances

Dančo Markovski*

Allow me at the beginning to greet you all and to congratulate to our host the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of the Republic of Croatia for excellent organization of this important Diplomatic Forum. At the same time I would like to express my gratitude for the possibility to share my views on the theme: diplomatic and consular training in new circumstances.

In these twenty minutes I will try to highlight the historical process of changes of the diplomatic and consular service that was passing through in the last two decades in some South East European countries and to highlight a few questions that I believe, will confirm the necessity for new accessibility in training of diplomatic and consular officers.

From historical point, I will mention several phases through which these services passed in early 90s, leaving some marks on their further development. Namely with the fall of communism and disintegration of the Soviet Union, Yugoslav Federation, and Czechoslovakia, new independent states were established based on democracy and multiparty system. In those circumstances their governments were faced with needs of organizing their own Foreign Service and establishing diplomatic consular net abroad, a hard and painful process if we take into consideration the lack of personal and financial potential, but above all, the complexity of international situation, military conflicts in some areas, unrecognized right of self determination, international recognition even the political skepticism in some cases from the international community.

States or constitutional units who were in some union or federation didn't have some significant role in foreign policy. Diplomacy as a part of central administration was concentrated in the federal government. Republics basically were allowed to participate with some percent of personal. Changes in the socio-

* Ambassador of the Republic of Macedonia to the Republic of Croatia, Zagreb.

political system provoked entire reconstruction of diplomatic consular personal that as indoctrinate by the communism ideology were replaced with new cadre without some essential experience.

With the process of international recognition new governments were preoccupied with organizing of central organs for foreign policy by taking over civil servants from other organs or institutions, recommendation of political parties and open competitions. This process in some way marks the second phase of establishment and consolidation of diplomatic-consular service. Besides the positive, in some cases this process was interrupted by some negative appearances such as:

- Political voluntarism of the political parties in power who very often interfere with changing of the personnel in order to create administration close to their political option. As a result of this situation civil servants were worried about their future after every parliamentary elections which led to self-censorship.
- Lack of founding of a strong centralized service capable to govern activities of diplomatic and consular missions.
- The appointments of the head of missions very often involved the members of the party in power who, after change of government, usually were falling into disfavor.
- Absence of the system of education and training for creating professional personnel capable of performing its duties and functioning as a real service to their citizens, companies and state interests.
- Lack of criteria for evaluation and advancement of employees through hierarchy in the ministry or in the mission were provoking dissimulation and dissatisfaction among them.

The third phase began in the second part of the 1990s with the serious acceptance of the idea of NATO and European Union integration, process to hum states from SEE aimed their policy. Meeting the criteria – standards for membership have had positive impact for overcoming the above mentioned problems and adequate organized professional administration including the diplomatic and consular service as part of it. In the recent years most of the newly established countries organized diplomatic academies or training courses for their diplomatic and consular personal.

In the **second part** of my presentation I will speak about the question of consular services in its modern development, role and place in the ministries of foreign affairs and diplomatic network abroad. The transformation process of consular service in the recent several decades of last century, provoked a big

changes in her primary function trade representation, which this service have had in the past, pronouncing its dedication for protection of its citizens during their travelling or reside abroad. Consular service turns into the close democratic department to the people, entrepreneurs and companies.

A new direction of the consular service was provoked by the liberalization and globalization of the world market economy, enormous circulation of goods, democratic changes in a number of states after the collapsing of communist regime – which led to open borders especially for the citizens from the former member states of Warsaw treaty, and followed by establishing Schengen system of free movement without passport control, as well as expansion of international tourism.

In those constellations of changes in international relations, citizens who travel or residence abroad very often need help or legal assistance in various events related to the institutions of foreign state, such as readmission, medical assistance, social security, imprisonment, education, administrative and notaries services, organizing the process of elections, activities for economic and trade relations, cultural and other rights and obligations related to domestic legislation and international agreements – law, legal counselling, administrative and notary services and different types of help.

Besides this, we are all aware of the global challenges like organized crime in all its forms, terrorism and natural catastrophes in which often are involved individuals or larger groups during there stay abroad. Of course we can not go buy and not mention the organization of electoral process, activities bind with economic and cultural cooperation and other activities and obligations which emerge from the legislative body and the international agreements signed between the states.

On the other hand it is important to stress out the cooperation of the diplomatic servants with the other state organs, ministry of justice, min. of interior, social and health services. However one must not forget the importance of fruitful cooperation between the government and the non-government sector.

Achieved level of protection or care of own citizens very often is determining evaluation of the activities of the MFA and its diplomatic and consular missions by domestic political public and the reputation of the state in the international community.

The role of the consular service which is inevitable when connecting the diplomacy and the society is represented by the necessity for effective resolving of the requirements of the citizens abroad by the government bodies.

The need for further redefining and updating of the role of the consular service and reaching the necessary standards means essential harmonizing with

the EU legislation, as a precondition for providing real services and protection of the large number of citizens staying abroad.

All of the above mentioned undoubtedly leads towards the following **conclusions**:

- The consular servants are liable to excellent knowledge of the national legislation of their own state, which means being well prepared solicitor.
- The training for acquiring consular administrative practice should take place from the very beginning of their career.
- This service must have an equal position with the rest of the ministries departments, a case which is more or less encountered in ministries where the consular service and its employees is seen as second rated.

Countries with limited diplomatic networks with 2-3 employees in embassy must pay attention to the training of the diplomatic staff when it comes to mastering the consular issues if they aim towards being a reliable service. (Imagine a situation when the ambassador and the two other diplomatic servants are only considering political or economic issues, and are not being prepared to provide simple consular assistance, and thus they reach towards the most bureaucratic response “contact us in a week”, which is the time they need to get instructions from their MFA regarding their actions, or the time they need to exchange e-mails or call their colleagues asking for advice. This is simply unacceptable in the 21st century when people obtain information the moment they ask for it.). The diplomatic consuls must never forget that their prime duty is to serve the citizens. At this point I would like to draw your attention on determined contemporary forms of the consular service presented via the **Virtual Consulate**.

The development of the information technology which conquered the modern world in the last decade of the previous century, has established new standards in the communication world. The World Wide Web led to the creation of the virtual world which makes it easier to communicate and obtain information from any place in the world. The transformation of the means of communication in the business world and in the world of an individual has also made its way in the administration of states, becoming an imperative for an efficient execution of services towards the citizens, as well as connection and cooperation with other states in different areas of common interest. Therefore, in parallel with adoption of information technology in daily life, the states moved towards administration called e-government. This implies a new modern form of assistance in the work of the ministries of foreign affairs, first of all in the developed countries with a tendency for further expansion.

The Virtual Consulate aims towards improving the consular administrative services to the citizens abroad via internet, which means a quick access to any required information.

The services consist of providing responses to general questions on visa regime, (documents necessary for visa application), information regarding certain events or activities, video contact with the consular servants in charge of Virtual Consulate in the Embassy, the Consulate or the Ministry.

Within the framework of the proclaimed decisions of the ministries of foreign affairs regarding the further promotion of the cooperation with the citizens staying abroad on different grounds, providing legal advice, applying for visas, information regarding the area of tourism, economy and education, the need for establishing Virtual Consulate is inevitable. This new form of consular service is justified on several bases.

Firstly, the establishment of Virtual Consulate represents a modern form of consular service aiming towards providing a continual contact with the citizens or the foreign subjects in order to fulfil their requirements and interests in countries or territories where a consular office does not exist.

Secondly, from the aspect of organization, establishment of this new concept represents an opportunity to ensure a greater presence in the foreign countries among emigrants, which, currently, due to the small number of DCP and the limited financial capacity of the state, does not manage to fulfil the requirements of this category of citizens, i.e. to realize the programmes for thorough connection of those citizens, but also to improve its own promotion in the world, if the lack of consulates across the continents is taken into consideration.

From the aspect of content, the virtual consulate represents an informative tool which contains useful information regarding the state, especially in the area of visa regime, the economic and the trade sphere, foreign investments, the area of education, science and culture, as well as the statutory regulations which are in the field of interest of the citizens staying abroad for a longer period.

Financial aspect of the establishment of virtual consulate does not represent a significant item in the budget of the ministry, because after the content is determined, the need for prompt maintenance and continual activity remains, as we have already noticed on the web sites of the foreign ministries or embassies in the last fifteen years. It means that the ministry itself or the consular office shall conduct the work of the foreign consulate by specially entrusted consular servants.

As far as the staffs are concerned, the competence over the virtual consulate should be in the framework of the directorate of consular affairs that shall be receiving and answering the requests. At the same time, the rest of the directorates shall contribute, providing support from their domain of work.

From theoretically legal aspect, the virtual consulate does not comprehend the classic concepts of the consular offices contained in the Vienne Convention for consular affairs, or the consular conventions which aim towards the regulation of the consular affairs between two states. The impossibility for a direct execution of the basic consular functions (protecting the interests of the state and the citizens, providing administrative-notary services, providing assistance on ships, boats and planes, etc.), means that there exists an indirect electronic communication regarding certain requirements – submissions that do not necessitate direct contact, i.e. presence in front of a consular agent.

This is the exact reason for the justification of the virtual consulate in the modern world of communications, whose task is to provide the necessary information without any complicated administrative procedures or personal presence of the claimant. The best example would be demanding information regarding the visa regime of a state to which the concerned citizen would like to travel or providing visa application forms, when the citizen comes from a state where there is no consular office, i.e. in a state such as China, India, Russia, where there is only one or two diplomatic consular office.

Diplomatic Training for Conflict Resolution (Keynotes)

Andrea Despot*

How to handle Pandora's Box?

European Academy Berlin

- ... is an independent, non-partisan, non-profit NGO providing political education and training on European affairs
- ... organizes and hosts seminars, conferences, workshops, summer schools
- ... serves as a platform and brings together people from all over the world
- ... offers expertise, experts and training tailored to target groups such as diplomats, journalists, military, politicians, high potentials, civil society actors
- ... provides training aids, trains the trainers, cooperation in the field of political education
- ... employs innovative and effective teaching methods and modern training

New patterns of conflict

- asymmetric conflicts
- tendency to challenging state authority
- decline of number of interstate war – increase of internal conflicts: ethnic strife; conflicts over secession/territorial integrity
- break down of fixed structures of sovereignty and governance
- significance of regional patterns of conflict

* European Academy Berlin, Germany.

- culture matters!
- likelihood of third-party intervention due to human suffering and media transparency

Diplomatic training

- increased sensitivity to cultural aspects
- multi-track approaches: addressing elites and grass-roots; operating at structural-constitutional levels as well as regional and community levels
- emphasis on indigenous resources and local actors
- preventive diplomacy – promotion of good governance
- virtual diplomacy

Promoting Culture: Spicing-Up one's Image (Summary)

Nina Obuljen*

Culture diplomacy is in the process of change. Although the role of national governments is diminishing and the state no longer has the monopoly in this field, it certainly still has vital interests there. Cultural work has always been and remains an element of classic diplomacy. The state should take essential responsibility for planning, establishing contacts, and ensuring protocol matters. Diplomats must also ensure adequate treatment of cultural goods and services originating in their country.

Cultural relations are one of the soft powers and can help bring about important changes. Cultural work conducted by diplomats is about presenting their country while at the same time learning about the cultures of others in order to remove false stereotypes. It should not and cannot be limited to the desks of the cultural attachés; broader involvement is necessary for success.

It is not so much about the number of cultural events organized by the embassies; it is rather about how broad an audience is being reached. Cultural relations require substantial resources to be invested.

As we promote our national identities, European identity must be promoted at the same time. There is awareness of such challenges as preserving one's national identity and linguistic diversity in modern conditions.

The role culture plays is reflected in that it is considered to be the third pillar of the EU and is adequately reflected in the EU foreign policy agenda. Creative industries account for 3% GDP generated within the EU.

Europe does not stop where the EU external borders are drawn at any given time. Diplomacy must promote a cultural greater Europe.

* State Secretary, Ministry of Culture, Zagreb, Croatia.

Business and Diplomacy: a New Paradigm (Summary)

Joško Klisović*

During many diplomatic discussions, political issues tend to be prioritized at the expense of economic ones. Yet economy is the backbone of the country as a whole. Strength of the national economy contributes to the country's international standing, although is not always the deciding factor.

Business interests must be part of national foreign policy. A good diplomat will know their country's economy – the way it works and its capacities. Diplomacy must be primarily charged with creating a proper framework for businesses and securing “minimum safety” conditions for their operation: by way of establishing contacts in the host country, negotiating agreements, such as on trade and transportation that are of special immediate importance.

Companies need information that diplomats can provide on the host country's legislation and other aspects. Such information may otherwise be difficult and/or expensive to obtain. Diplomats must sometimes use the necessary means available to them, including political tools, in order to directly protect the interests of some companies. It is diplomacy that must step in when such vital matters arise as last winter's energy-supply crisis or fishery disputes.

On the other hand, businesses do not need diplomats to do business for them. Rather, diplomats are expected to organize, coordinate, inform.

Finding an ideal structure within any given state that is to support businesses in international relations may be a challenge.

* Secretary General, Atlantic Trade Ltd., Zagreb, Croatia.

III. NATIONAL CASE-STUDIES

Diplomatic Training of Junior and Senior Staff: a Continuous Improvement of Skills and Knowledge

Milan Milanov*

REPORT on the Training provided to
Junior and Senior Diplomatic Employees to
Enhance their Knowledge and Reinforce their Skills

Already at the time of its establishment in 2003, the main objective and principal activity of the Diplomatic Institute in Sofia was to introduce a systematic approach to the training of Bulgarian diplomats and employees in the embassies throughout the world. The institute has helped establish common standards in the diplomatic profession which can be used as training standards for both junior and senior employees. By employing this systematic and modern approach in the diplomatic training of employees of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the institute has contributed to the preservation and handing down to the coming generations of specialists the acquired experience, thus ensuring continuity in the diplomatic career. Having the ambition to raise the prestige of Bulgaria as a foreign political factor, the institute also provides training to diplomatic service representatives from other countries.

By pursuing a consistent policy of this kind, the institute is trying to satisfy the top level requirements and professional expectations that stem from the country's membership in NATO and the EU which make Bulgarian diplomacy part and parcel of the diplomacy of the big Euro-Atlantic family. In the period of debates about the future of a single European diplomatic service, it is the mission of our institute to train personnel that is going to successfully meet this professional challenge.

* Director, Diplomatic Institute, Sofia, Bulgaria.

The institute organizes training courses that are tailor-made for the individual stages of the career development of diplomatic staff. These courses vary in terms of form and content and the most important one is designed for the junior staff of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Such course was conducted for the seventh time last autumn. The courses play a major role in formulating the overall policy and in projecting the public image of the Diplomatic Institute. This is a three-month course organized with the aim of enhancing the knowledge and extending the practical skills of trainees which they are going to need in their operational diplomatic practice. In order to achieve this priority objective, the course is structured in a way that makes it possible to strike a balance between the theoretical part, i.e. the lectures, and the interactive exercises. We develop the writing skills of our trainees by teaching them how to write out standard diplomatic documents, aide memoires or press releases, we reinforce their oral skills by involving them in discussions and debates, we prepare for them case studies, we enhance their skills at conducting bilateral and multilateral negotiations in simulation games, and we develop their protocol skills by organizing meetings with high-ranking Bulgarian and foreign diplomats.

Pursuant to the Diplomatic Service Act of 2007, this course should be attended by trainee-attachés who, upon successful completion of the course, shall sit for an examination in order to obtain their first diplomatic rank – that of an attaché.

The lecturers are selected from among the traditional group of experts that the institute has been working with and include diplomats, academic lecturers, researchers, foreign diplomats as well as some other diplomatic staff from the embassies in Sofia, and visiting lecturers from other schools of diplomacy and from the institute's partnership network. The recruitment and selection of lecturers depends on the feed back that we receive from the participants at the end of the training courses and on the impressions gained by the training course coordinators.

This course is organized in the premises of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs where the lecture hall can be easily rearranged to accommodate the interactive forms of training. It is equipped with all the training and supporting aids that a trainer may need when presenting to the participants different materials, films, etc. The library of the institute is available to the trainees for Internet access and they can find there the literature that they may need when preparing their political reports.

The **topics** included in the curriculum take into consideration the major priorities in the foreign policy of Bulgaria, as well as the essential knowledge and skills that have to be possessed by every modern diplomat. This program is made up of the following modules:

- Bulgaria's foreign policy – strategic trends and priorities
- Conducting negotiations and international law
- Diplomatic protocol and ceremonial
- Multilateral diplomacy
- The European Union
- Security policy
- Diplomacy in South-East Europe.

The **methods** used in the training course designed for junior diplomats are trying to combine the lecture format with some interactive forms of training where priority is given to simulation games. Here are examples of some simulation exercises that were organized during the last course of training:

- Conducting negotiations in the Far East, involving six parties
- Simulation of a decision-making process at the United Nations
- Simulation of a decision-making process in the EU
- Presentation of expert reports
- Simulation of a decision-making process at the OSCE
- Debate on the status of Kosovo
- A practical session at Studio 2 of the Military TV Channel.

According to the course participants, this type of exercises is among the most beneficial ones as it provides them with the opportunity to not only extend their knowledge in a particular area, but to also familiarize themselves with the decision-making mechanisms of the institutions and organizations that are important in the foreign policy domain.

During the course, every participant is asked to prepare an expert report on a foreign political topic of the day, to concentrate on a real problem that he/she has been working on, and to provide a couple of scenarios and forecasts for the future development of the problem. On the basis of the analyses they have made, they have to come up with some recommendations for the future position of Bulgaria on the relevant problems at the end of their expert reports. While preparing the reports, the trainees work under the methodological supervision of a consultant. The consultant should not only act as a reviewer, but should also guide the trainees in formulating the text of their reports and should share in their failure or success. Most of the consultants are senior diplomats from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, experts from the Diplomatic Institute or from some other research institution.

The text on which the trainees work throughout the course is presented at the final examination in the form of a 10-minute presentation. The reviewers and the examination board members, who are appointed by the Minister for Foreign Affairs, receive the texts of the expert reports prior to the examination and listen to the presentations at the examination. We have opted for this kind of examination because it combines the individual preparation of trainees with testing of their basic diplomatic skills which involves making written analyses of topics of the day by using information from multiple sources and synthesizing large amounts of data, arriving at particular pragmatic conclusions and making recommendations for foreign political behavior, presenting orally the analyses they have made, and putting forward sound arguments in defense of their theses.

The **experience** that we have gained on the basis of the seven courses conducted indicates that the future diplomats tend to concentrate their attention on topics related to regional cooperation, as well as on the trends in South-East Europe. Just a few of the trainees' reports focused on security problems and on some European integration issues, thus leaving the topics of bilateral relations, of America, Africa or Asia almost outside the scope of their attention.

The training course that is designed for junior employees or for trainee-attachés, who are going to obtain their first diplomatic rank, is among the most important training programs of our institute. We have already gained some experience in organizing this course but because of its duration this course has turned out to be somewhat demanding of our staff in terms of serious effort and organizational skills. The course has established itself as an important instrument in the training policy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and as a first step in the career development of each and every diplomat. What is more, this course has had a serious effect on the formation of the Bulgarian diplomatic service because it is the first step that the young diplomats have to surmount in their diplomatic career. All this is favored by the fact that the successful completion of this course was stipulated in the Diplomatic Service Act of 2007 as a pre-condition for obtaining the first diplomatic rank.

However, our training ambition today is targeted at the senior, as well as the middle level of diplomats. I am well aware of the fact that all diplomatic schools consider the organization of this kind of training a major occupational challenge because of the high level requirements and the heavy work load of the two target groups. At the same time, I assert that the further specialization and updating of the knowledge and skills of these groups of diplomatic staff is of primary significance for the professional image of the diplomatic profession in the individual countries, as well as in the pan-European context.

We have the following experience in this area: we organize a yearly training course for senior diplomats which we break down into short-term thematic

modules. The aim of the institute is to offer senior diplomats some 10-15 different modules, out of which they can choose a minimum of 8, depending on their professional realization and career profile. Within this training course, each senior diplomat has to prepare an analytical material in an area of his/her own choice. The analyses that we eventually collect in this manner are further used for research purposes of the institute, as well as for the needs of the governing authorities of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The lecturers in this program are mostly representatives from leading schools of diplomacy from the institute's international partnership network, representatives from the embassies in Sofia, and experts from some academic or research centers. The interactive training format, in the form of discussions, debates or exchange of opinions, is the leading principle in this program. A large part of the training takes place in English, French or German which provides the participants with the opportunity to extend their knowledge and vocabulary in different spheres.

The objective of this course is to help the professional development of the middle level career diplomats by placing the stress on their skills in conducting negotiations, in analyzing and prognosticating foreign political information, in the way one has to behave before a movie camera, in team work, and in management skills. During this course of training, the trainees are given the opportunity to master special vocabularies in the main European languages. This program was first implemented in 2005.

The courses that concentrate on individual topics within the sphere of diplomacy make up another essential element of the training policy of the Diplomatic Institute. These courses are also designed for employees from some other administrations who work as Bulgarian representatives abroad. Such programs are very important for enhancing the popularity of the institute, as well as for the positive assessment of its activity in the area of vocational training.

A prominent position among the special courses is occupied by the course in consular diplomacy which is a joint initiative of the Diplomatic Institute and the Consular Relations Directorate of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. As the aim of this course is to cover a wide range of problems, it begins with the Vienna conventions which regulate the diplomatic and consular relationships, the nature and characteristics of the consular activity, the relevant statutory acts, the bilateral consular relations, the Schengen visa policy, the migration issues, and the border policy. The activities of some government agencies (e.g. for refugees, for emigrants or for children) whose operations are directly or indirectly connected with consular issues, or with the policy of Bulgaria in this area, are also covered by this course.

The course participants are usually employees from the special directorates of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and from some government agencies or institutions which deal with consular issues.

By the end of this course, the trainees are expected to:

- have enhanced their knowledge, and more particularly their practical skills, which they need in their operational diplomatic or consular work in this country and abroad;
- have acquire and further develop practical skills in preparing standard documents of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for the consular services;
- be able to withstand their positions in the course of negotiations;
- to have got used to team work, as they will need the acquired habits in Bulgaria's diplomatic or consular missions abroad.

In order to be able to achieve the aforementioned primary objectives of this course, we had to strike a balance between the training in a lecture format and the practical exercises conducted at the Visa Center of the ministry's Consular Relations Directorate.

At the end of the course, an interview is organized for the participants by an examination board which is appointed by the Minister for Foreign Affairs. The successful completion of this course is a *condicio sine qua non* for the employees that are going to work in the Bulgarian consular offices abroad.

The training course in military diplomacy is another essential element of our program. This course is targeted at employees from other administrations who deal with diplomatic issues. We organize this course jointly with the "Rakovski" Military Academy while the participants are from the Ministry of Defense, the General Staff [of the Bulgarian army], and the Military Academy.

In addition to the lecture format, the program also provides for important interactive elements, such as the elaboration of individual or collective theses on particular topics, simulation games, discussions, defending analytical papers, etc. The lectures are grouped together in individual modules which focus on the following topics: introduction to military diplomacy; conducting negotiations; public diplomacy and protocol; organization of, and resources for the military diplomacy; international security organizations, such as the UN, NATO, the OSCE, and the EU; security problems in South-East Europe.

Each module highlights the experience of Bulgaria in the relevant sphere: e.g. the country's membership in international organizations and its role as a regional factor of security on the Balkans and a full-fledged member of NATO and the EU.

A particular characteristic feature of this course is the fact that, because of their extensive experience, the participants largely contribute to the training format and content. The interactive component of this program is particularly enhanced as, in addition to the simulation games and debates, it also provides for presentations which the trainees have to prepare and then discuss in plenary sessions. During the course, the participants have to write out, individually or collectively, theses on the relevant topics. All these varied forms of training make it possible to improve the presentation skills of the participants, to teach them how to work in a team, to extend their knowledge, to improve their skills, and to let them get further experience from the case studies and the topics of the day that are discussed and debated on the basis of the experience of everybody.

In addition to the special courses that the institute organizes for diplomatic staff, it has yet another mission - to organize language training for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs employees. The Diplomatic Institute organizes regular language courses, for both beginners and advanced learners, in six languages. The language courses span from September to June and the institute has signed agreements with the Fulbright Bulgarian-American Commission for Educational Exchange, the International Francophonie Organization, the Goethe Institute, and the Italian Cultural Institute. If necessary, the institute organizes language courses in Spanish, Russian, Greek, Portuguese, Polish, Slovakian, Slovenian, and Serbian which are conducted by academic lecturers.

Since 2007, in addition to the regular annual language courses, we have also been organizing language programs for the administrative and technical staff who are going to work abroad for a longer period of time.

Every year, we provide language training to some 350-400 employees. This activity has a special place of importance in the overall training policy of the institute and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs because any enhancement of the knowledge and language skills of the diplomatic staff is essential for the successful realization of the diplomatic profession. Having fluent command of the language of the country in which one is going to work, is an invaluable asset to everybody, as it makes it possible for one to get closer to the culture of the country and to understand the mentality and the attitudes of the people. Therefore, thorough language training is one of the essential instruments for the effective realization of the diplomatic profession.

In **conclusion**, I would like to say something that is going to add to the entire picture of training activity of our institute. This is the training of foreign diplomats. The training courses that are designed for foreign diplomats are coordinated with the Bulgarian Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the ministries of foreign affairs of the relevant countries. The latter are the ones that specify the topics, as well as the areas in which their diplomats are going to be trained. We

have provided such training to diplomats from Azerbaijan, Albania, Armenia, Afghanistan, Croatia, Georgia, Greece, Kazakhstan, Kosovo, Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Uzbekistan, the Ukraine, Serbia, and Turkey.

Representatives from leading diplomatic schools of diplomacy from the institute's international partnership network, representatives from the diplomatic missions in Sofia, as well as experts from research or academic centers are usually invited to lecture within the framework of this program.

These training courses aim to extend the dialogue with the relevant countries and to provide expert training in order to satisfy the training needs of the modern diplomatic service, and more particularly of junior diplomatic staff who are at the beginning of their career development. We try to familiarize the young diplomats with the mechanisms of modern diplomacy, as well as with Bulgaria's experience as a member of the system of international organizations. Such training programs usually try to provide favorable conditions for the representatives of individual countries to get to know and understand one another and to build up an atmosphere of trust and dialogue.

A successful example of the above is the Winter School of Diplomacy which we organize for young diplomats from South-East Europe and the Black Sea Region. Such school was organized for the fourth time this year. I believe that together with your Summer School of Diplomacy it is an example of providing an atmosphere of trust and understanding in our region by using the instruments of public diplomacy.

Establishing New Diplomatic Training Framework

Božin Nikolić*

It is an honour, ladies and gentlemen, for me to join such distinguished Diplomatic Forum organized by Diplomatic Academy of the MFA of the Republic Croatia in this beautiful city of Dubrovnik. In the same time it gives me a great pleasure to address such a special Forum and distinguished group of diplomats and scholars.

I am particularly pleased that our panels over the next days will address the question of diplomatic training, trends and prospects. Unfortunately, I missed last year Diplomatic Forum due to similar reasons. In that time, our Diplomatic Academy, in cooperation with the Directorate General for the European Union of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Serbia, holds a Seminar: “EU Modern Diplomacy – Young Leaders in Diplomacy” in Belgrade, from 15-17 April 2008.

I would like to take this opportunity to share with you my views on establishing new diplomatic training framework.

As our world becomes more complex each day, the new technologies provide new ideas which should be implemented gradually in training process. To successfully address the many needs of modern diplomacy training should be short, intensive and interactive, giving participants opportunities of working with specialist trainers to develop personal professional skills and knowledge.

The current diplomatic training used in the majority of training institutions worldwide is focused on new challenges and diplomatic skills which will be useful in the 21st century. The traditional knowledge-base of diplomats has been significantly extended to include new areas of competence and prepare diplomats effectively for their future responsibilities.

However, recent economic developments have demonstrated the need that continuous training is indispensable to meet challenges in international politics,

* Director, Diplomatic Academy, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Belgrade, Serbia.

security and economics. Budgets everywhere are tight, but all foreign ministries need more urgently than ever to invest in diplomatic training.

We know what we are, but not what we may be.
William Shakespeare

Global Initiatives

On 24-26 September 2008, the College of Europe successfully hosted the 36th Meeting of Deans and Directors of Diplomatic Academies and Institutes of International Relations. The International Forum on Diplomatic Training was dedicated to “New Challenges to Diplomatic Training” and took place at the Egmont Palace in Brussels.

The Director General for External Relations at the European Commission, Mr. Eneko Landaburu, opened the conference with an address on “The future of EU diplomacy”, before the participating groups from Africa, Asia, Europe, North and Latin America individually discussed the regional dimension of diplomatic training. The ninety participants had the opportunity to take a fresh look at practical training skills by following workshops offered by College professors on negotiation skills, project management, intercultural communication, public diplomacy and international negotiation with the help and support of the College’s academic staff/assistants.

The plenary sessions generated dynamic exchanges of views and lively debates. The closing lecture on “Raising diplomats as fit” by Prof. Marques Guedes from the New University of Lisbon shed light on vital qualities a diplomat needs to become accustomed to. The Forum concluded by a gala dinner in the historical setting of the Provinciaal Hof, offered by the City of Bruges.

Regional Initiatives

The **18th International Courses for Young diplomats Nicolae Titulescu** in Poiana, Brasov was organised by the Romanian Diplomatic Institute, from October 25 to November 1, 2008 and the main topic was Multilateralism between legitimacy and efficiency at the start of the 21st century.

The **15th International Junior Diplomats Training Program** in Ankara was organised by the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Turkey, from April 20 to May 22, 2008 and the Program included courses on topics such as international political issues, Turkish foreign policy, diplomatic correspondence and negotiation technique.

The **11th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum** on “Diplomatic Training and

Regional Co-operation” in Dubrovnik was organised by the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Croatia with the support of the Central European Initiative (CEI), from April 17 to 19, 2008. Forum discussions included diplomatic training and regional co-operation particularly within the CEI. There was special focus on the prospects and improvement of regional diplomatic education in Southeast Europe.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of the Republic of Croatia - Diplomatic Academy, announces that the **10th International Seminar on European Integration Processes** for young diplomats from Central, Eastern and South Eastern Europe organised in cooperation with the Hanns Seidel Foundation and the Centre for Advanced Academic Studies Dubrovnik, University of Zagreb, took place in Dubrovnik, Croatia from 6th to 10th of October 2008. The seminar is envisaged to deepen an insight into the European integration and to exchange experience between the young diplomats coming from the new member states of the EU and the potential member states of the EU.

Fourth Winter School in Diplomacy

The town of Sandanski welcomed today, 16th of March, 2009 the fourth Winter School in Diplomacy, organized by the Diplomatic Institute in cooperation with the Hanns Seidel Foundation and the European Academy – Berlin. The 7days long seminar on “The Enlargement of the European Security and Stability Zone through Bilateral and Multilateral Cooperation” is attended by 30 young diplomats from 14 countries of the South Eastern Europe and the Black Sea region. The participants were greeted by Professor Milan Milanov, Director of the BDI, H.E. Michael Geier, Ambassador of Germany to Bulgaria, Mr Bogdan Mirchev, representative of the Hanns Seidel Foundation in Bulgaria and Ambassador Mladen Andrić, Director of the Diplomatic Academy of Croatia. The Ambassador of the Czech Republic to Bulgaria, H.E. Martin Klepetko introduced the young diplomats to the priorities of the EU Czech Presidency.

Montenegro Diplomatic Summer School “Gavro Vuković”, Berane and Kolašin, 2-6 June, 2008 - The first Montenegro Diplomatic Summer School “Gavro Vuković” is devoted to the challenges for diplomats from small countries in the process of European and Euro-Atlantic integration and provide an excellent opportunity for an exchange of opinions and ideas concerning current issues and processes in the EU and NATO, but also for networking among young diplomats from the region and other countries of the EU.

The **International seminar “EU Modern Diplomacy – Young Leaders in Diplomacy”** in Belgrade was organised by the Diplomatic Academy “Koča

Popović” of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Serbia with the support of the “Hanns Seidel Foundation”, from April 15 to 17, 2008. The participants of this first Seminar were the best students of the diplomatic academies or diplomatic institutes of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs from Southeast European countries or their outstanding young diplomatic representatives. The Seminar was also attended by ten young diplomats from a group of the most prominent students at the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Serbia in the last few years.

The participants were welcomed by most successful young diplomats of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The work of this sort of international gathering of young diplomats was devoted to leadership in diplomacy, modern aspects of the development of, and new trends in, diplomacy, as well as the modalities of developing the professional characteristics of a “diplomat of the new era”.

Remarks about the current political international affairs were made by distinguished diplomats from the Serbia and other European countries, including Mr. Živorad Kovačević, President of the Council on Foreign Relations of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and President of the Governing Board of the Diplomatic Academy, as well as directors of some European diplomatic academies, including Mr. Milan Milanov, director of the Bulgarian Diplomatic Institute, Mrs. Irena Krasnicka, director of the Czech Diplomatic Academy, Mr. Radu Dudau from the Romanian Diplomatic Institute and Mr. Jovan Kurbalija, Managing Director of the DIPLO Foundation.

In addition to actively participating in the Seminar, young and best diplomats were interested in setting up a Club of Diplomatic Excellence, as well as in continuing the practice of holding similar seminars in the future. Mrs. Ljiljana Milojević-Borovčanin, director of the Directorate for the EU institutions gave a comprehensive lecture on the diplomatic excellence.

*With regard to excellence, it is not enough to know, but we must try to
have and use it.*

Aristotle (384 BC - 322 BC)

The First Meeting of the Representatives of BSEC Diplomatic Academies

The BSEC was established in 1992 and its Member States, apart from Serbia, include Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Georgia, Greece, Moldova, Romania, Russia, Turkey and Ukraine. In the framework of the Chairmanship of the Republic of Serbia of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation Organization

(BSEC), the First meeting of the Directors of Diplomatic Academies and Institutes of Ministries of Foreign Affairs of the BSEC Member States was held in Belgrade from 30-31 January 2007.

Assistant Minister and Acting Director General of the Directorate General for Multilateral Cooperation, Ambassador Dejan Sahovic, underlined that this type of organization is the best way of cooperating among countries of the region. Ambassador Leonidas Chrysantopoulos, Secretary General of the Permanent International Secretariat of BSEC referred to the meeting as the “cornerstone of better mutual understanding among the Member States in the daily diplomatic activities and practices”. “I consider this meeting to be the initial step in the development of long-term cooperation among the Member States”, said Chrysantopoulos, adding that its primary objective is education of diplomats in these countries.

The directors of diplomatic academies presented the programmes of diplomatic training and those of cooperation among the Member States. The Director of the Diplomatic Academy, Ambassador Božin Nikolic, proposed that a new course be organized on “Economic Diplomacy”. During the two-day meeting, the participants adopted the final draft of the Memorandum of Understanding and Cooperation among the Diplomatic Academies and Institutes of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs of the BSEC Member States, to be signed in Belgrade at the 16th Meeting of the Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs.

Memorandum of Understanding on Cooperation among Diplomatic Academies and Institutes of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs of the Member States of the Organization of Black Sea Economic Cooperation

The Diplomatic Academies and Institutes of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs of the Member States of the Organization of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC) hereinafter referred to as “the Parties”:

- **recalling** the priorities of the Republic of Serbia Chairmanship (November 2006 – April 2007) to explore the scope for new BSEC initiatives in the field of education;
- **taking** into consideration the importance of enhancing cooperation through the execution of multilateral activities among the Parties;
- **aspiring** to create a framework for permanent and close cooperation among the Parties for the better education and training of diplomatic staff

and civil servants in accordance with BSEC main goals and objectives and in conformity with Article 23 of the BSEC Charter;

- **wishing** to further enhance cooperation among the Parties and develop mutually beneficial relationships within the Black Sea region through the exchange of information and the implementation of joint activities.

Have agreed as follows:

I. Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this Memorandum is to strengthen cooperation among the Parties, and, to this end, the Parties will contribute to the fulfillment of the following objectives:

- a) to carry out joint programmes and projects that may contribute to improving the quality of training and retraining, studies and projects serving the agreed common objectives, priorities and activities of BSEC;
- b) to increase the exchange of knowledge, experiences and achievements in application of new teaching methods and about BSEC;
- c) to ensure and achieve high-quality levels of education and qualification in diplomatic training, using various forms of partnership.

II. Forms of Cooperation

1. For the purpose of this Memorandum, cooperation will be guided by the following:

- a) The Parties will actively exchange information on their programs, courses, seminars and other academic activities they intend to organize.
- b) The Parties will exchange information on teaching methods and methodological tools developed and applied in the syllabi of the Parties.
- c) On the basis of reciprocity, the Parties will exchange professors, lecturers, experts and trainees in fields of mutual interests.
- d) The Parties will exchange information on publications, magazines, articles and studies related to their fields of interest.
- e) The Parties will consider the possibility of organizing conferences, specialized training courses or seminars for diplomats and government officials in diplomacy and international affairs.
- f) The Parties will facilitate projects and the production of publications on subjects of mutual interest, particularly those that contribute to the dissemination of knowledge of their relations.

g) Experts of one Party may participate in conferences, symposia and round tables hosted by the other Party. The Parties will inform each other of such events.

2. The Parties will consider the possibility of:

- a) granting scholarships for specialized study and professional training or upgrading skills;
- b) developing joint cooperation activities with relevant institutions in third countries and international organizations;
- c) any other modality agreed upon by the Parties.

3. The Parties may jointly prepare cooperation programmes, in accordance with the mutually identified priorities within the scope of the respective BSEC areas of cooperation.

Diplomatic Academy “Koča Popović”, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Serbia

In 1998, the diplomatic school of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs has grown into the Ministry’s new organizational unit – the Diplomatic Academy. It was established with a view to providee diplomats with knowledge and skills necessary for the successful functioning of the Ministry. In October 2002, Academy started with new educational program:

- regular annual program for young diplomats
- foreign language classes
- seminars, workshops
- discussions, lectures, special courses
- courses and seminars abroad.

Lectures are given by experts from the Ministry (Ambassadors or senior professional diplomats), University professors from Serbia, other state administrators, foreign lecturers and other experts in international relations and diplomatic practice.

Programme (Academic Year 2009-2010)

Trimester I: Foreign policy and international relations /18/, Serbia’s diplomatic history /12/, International public and diplomatic law /18/ and Diplomatic practice /12/.

Trimester II: Consular law and practice /12/, International negotiations /12/, Introduction to EU law and institutions /12/ and International organizations /12/. Elective subject: Security in current international relations /12/ and International economic relations /12/.

Trimester III: Public diplomacy: culture and information /8+8/, Serbia's political and economic systems /18/, Diplomatic protocol /6/, State administration system and record management /4+4/. Elective subject: European Union as an actor in international relations /12/, Human rights /12/ and Military diplomacy /12/.

Diplomatic Training in Albania

Lisen Bashkurti*

Let me start my contribution by addressing few cordial words to my Croat colleagues. Since almost ten years ago, Croatia has promoted such a wonderful activity in closer cooperation with CEI to bring together diplomats, experts, professors from all over the Region in order to offer the opportunity for them to meet each other, to know each other's experiences, challenges and to work further together for better future in our Region that has historically been known as "powder ked".

It is not by accidental that Croat colleges have chosen Dubrovnik as the suitable city for this event. Dubrovnik is the Croat national identity value, it is Croat cultural proud, it is Adriatic Pearl; it is most significant city where the past, the present and the future live together in harmony. And thanks to Croats tremendous hospitality spirit this City has been turned into such an attractive Mediterranean beach so everybody feel himself like at home.

I am Albanian and my ancestors used to come, to ship, to trade and to cooperate with Dubrovnik citizens many centuries ago. If we have a look to Dubrovnik ancient library everybody can easily find *Dalmaticum Iliricum Dictionario*. This dictionary is authentic document that demonstrate the old tradition of friendship and cooperation between Albanians and Croats, those two old European peoples that shared together the Adriatic Sea promoting peace, stability, prosperity and development in the area.

I did made this introduction neither as promotion for Dubrovnik nor for bilateral Albanian Croat traditional friendship, but because of our own business-the diplomatic training.

* Ambassador, President, Diplomatic Academy – Centre for International Relations and Diplomacy, Tirana, Albania.

From War to Peace – Balkans Diplomatic Challenge

When I came for the first time in Dubrovnik, almost 17 years ago, at early morning the landlord of Hotel knocked to my door saying “please, get out of here as soon as you can, because the bombardment started over Dubrovnik”. Our hotel was located not far from old centre of the city. We left the city furiously under the bombing.

Now after so many years we meet each other in very different political environment. The Balkans let behind nationalism, wars, hatreds, revenge, rivalries and is moving to the right path-toward peace, stability, democracy and prosperity.

This is a real peaceful revolutionary movement that should be led now by diplomacy. Is the Balkan diplomacy prepared to face such a challenge?

That is the first dilemma we face in our diplomatic training in Albania and around it. The bad legacy, the nationalist doctrine heritage, the old diplomatic practices and the outdated diplomatic performance overwhelming the Balkan diplomacy for the time-being are real challenges for diplomatic training in my Country, but more or less also in some other countries in the Region.

Of course there are a several reasons coming up from old fashion political leadership or from our old schools and universities dealing with international relations and diplomacy. But, anyway the diplomacy in itself can not be excluded from responsibility. I think that one of the most sufficient ways to overcome these challenges inherited from the past is the organisation of joint training programme in regional levels and giving up more and more from national isolated training programmes. Joint training programmes made us being more regionalist and europeanists rather than nationalists; make us looking in broader view and in longer perspective. This is why I personally highly appreciate Croats initiative to organize such a forum as the best way to modernize diplomatic training in the Balkans.

From Nationalism to Euro-Atlantics-Another Balkans Diplomatic Challenges

During the conflicts and wars no one show interest for diplomacy and diplomats. It also happened during the Balkans crises from 1991-2008. Political and military leaders occupied territories, mediums, public opinion nationally and internationally. Only after the wars and conflicts diplomats in the Balkans came out from the corners where they were frustrated and tried to give their own contribution for peaceful post conflict reconstruction process. It was a little bit later, but better later then never. Now it is time for diplomacy more then ever.

But the Balkan diplomacy now needs to be concentrated in paving way for European and Euro-Atlantic integration. It means the establishment of new philosophy and relevant diplomatic instruments. This is because to my perception mostly the diplomatic clocks in the Balkans have been stopped in Versailles System and Cold War philosophy. It means that more then ever we need modern diplomats.

The Balkans needs the diplomats who know history of Europe and get lessons from that in our realities; the European processes and support it in our region; the European Union institutions and tried to built those in our countries; the European Union perspective and strongly work on that with public opinion; *aquis communitares*, and made effort to adopt it our national parliaments; European enlargement challenges and try to push that forward in our transition countries; European Reform Treaty and contribute to improve image about it after Constitution failed. It means we really need diplomats in European format. Unfortunately we are very far from that requirement.

This legitimate ambition can not be reached being based only in national or in regional training programmes. It needs very intensive and frequent European diplomatic training programmes. European Union should know that the most serious challenge of the Balkan countries is the capacity building and in that context the diplomatic capacity is above all.

Newly Independent States in Front of Diplomatic Challenges

The dissolution of Yugoslavia Federation after '90s opened way for establishment several independent states in the Balkans. These new states, including the newest, Kosovo, need more then the others to establish diplomatic service. The lack of capacity building in these new states is quite obvious.

In case of Macedonia, Kosovo and Montenegro, The Albanian Diplomatic Academy that I use to lead since in its establishment 10 years ago, have carried out long, medium and short term training course on international relations and diplomacy. As the result more then 1100 experts have being trained within 5 years. Actually some of them are part of diplomatic service even in ambassadorial levels, some others are working in state institutions, some are involved in politic and are even elected the Member of parliaments. This contribution of ours did help these states but did not fulfil all their requirements.

In order to advance in our efforts, the Albanian Diplomatic Academy initiated the idea to sign an agreement with several universities in Skopje, in Tetovo and in Prishtina. Therefore Academy and this Universities Consorcium carried out advanced postgraduate studies for MASTER Degree. We prepared together the Curricula and Syllabus in accordance with Bologne Declaration of ECTS. After such a job done National Agencies gave us Accreditation Certificate.

Actually, we have two generation prepared in SEEU in Tetovo, one generation in FON University in Skopje and two generations in Royal University Iliria in Kosovo. This experience is succeeding wonderfully because we have joint academic and diplomatic capacities from all our countries and moving them from one university to another, sharing experience, information, practises in broader concept.

I think this successful experience need to be further developed including all regional Diplomatic Academies and Universities that have Faculties on International Relations and Diplomacy. Wider concept we have more modern diplomats we prepare. In this course I would appeal to all participants to join our efforts in widening the postgraduate joint programmes because it impacts directly the quality of training. And I think that all of us should be prepared and also to contribute how to assist these new states in training diplomatic staffs. It would be great regional contribution.

Diplomatic Training: Some Experiences from Romania

Daniela Zaharia*

Romanian Diplomatic Institute (RDI) is an independent institution under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs authority, created in 2005. President: Minister for Foreign Affairs. Diplomatic Council: former Romanian ministers for foreign affairs after 1990. Board of directors – Director general.

Mission and Activities

1. Training diplomats

- Basic diplomatic program for young diplomats
- Intensive specialized programs for mid-career diplomats
- On-line courses for Romanian diplomats in the Foreign Service
- Academic responsibility for the “Nicolae Titulescu international courses for young diplomats”
- Special programs for foreign diplomats

2. Training civil servants

- Introduction in international relations
- Intensive specialized programs (protocol, regional studies, EU institutions, etc.)

3. Research and documentation

- Research and documentation for the MFA and other institutions
- Publications
- Public conferences
- Scientific events

* Training Director, Diplomatic Institute, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Bucharest, Romania.

4. Editing the Romanian Diplomatic Documents Collection

5. Institutional contacts

- International contacts (Diplomatic Academies and Institutes, International relations research institutes and universities)
- National contacts (Universities, research institutes, NGOs)

6. Media covery for international issues

Steps and Dilemmas for a Curriculum Construction

Basic principles: The program must give a broader understanding of the background of the international issues. The program must be policy related. Knowledge combines concepts, information and skills.

Initial data

- International standards in diplomatic training
- Young diplomats' professional profile
- MFA needs and requirements
- Training resources

Main dilemmas

- Type of training: theoretical, technical or birocratical?
- Trainers: academics or MFA senior diplomats?

An Adjustable Solution

Statistics: university background - young diplomats 2007/2008

B.A. LEVEL – The number of BAs / participant (1 BA = 74 %; 2 BA = 26 %)

BA specialization (BA field of study)	B.A. number	% 38 participants
Law	19	50 %
International relations and European studies (IRES)	5	13 %
Political and administrative sciences (PAS)	7	18 %
Economic sciences	10	26 %
History	4	10 %
Other (foreign languages, journalism)	3	8 %

LEVEL: MASTER – The number of MA degrees / participants (37 masters / 38 participants) 1 MA: 21, 2 MA: 8, Without MA degree: 9

MA specializations	MA degrees	% 38 participants
International relations/ EU st. (IR/EU)	18	47 %
Economic studies	7	18 %
International / EU law	6	16 %
Public communication	3	8 %
Administration	3	8 %

LEVEL: Ph.D. – 1 PhD / 7 candidates

Curriculum for the Basic Diplomatic Training Program 2006-2008

Time distribution per discipline

Field of study		%	
Theoretical	International politics	20 %	32 %
	Romanian foreign policy	5 %	
	Security studies	7 %	
Theoretical / Technical	International Law (public, diplomatic, EU, HR)	15 %	30 %
	International Economy	10 %	
	European institutions and politics	5 %	
Technical	Diplomatic function and techniques (protocol, analyses and counseling, negotiation, communication, public diplomacy, management, etc.)	38 %	38 %

The Role of Lifelong Learning in Croatian Educational Policy

Tihomir Žiljak*

Europe should become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth, with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion. (Lisbon strategy)

Lifelong learning is not a novelty in Croatia. Children and adults have been learning throughout their lives in school, family, church, various organizations, at work and while enriching their free time.

As early as 1333 there was a school in Dubrovnik, compulsory elementary school was introduced in 1874, first Sunday school was opened in Zagreb in 1846, adult education has been carried out in an organized manner since the end of the nineteenth century, and in 1907 Albert Bazala initiated a founding of the Peoples' University, following the example of similar organizations in Prague and Vienna. At that occasion he wrote: "Development of the moral and aesthetic culture can not be considered if both lower and highest classes are not risen to that level of education where they could appreciate the gifts of culture and enjoy them; without that, there can be no talk about the fulfilment of family and civic duties and without the education there can be no true moral or political freedom."

A novelty in Croatia today, 100 years later, is that the **lifelong learning** has become one of the bases for Croatian educational policy in its connection with the other educational policies in Europe. But what caused the break of great Croatian adult education tradition and why andragogical tradition hasn't been used in recent lifelong learning process?

The state of adult education must be in 90-ties described in the context of triple transition: democracy, market and state transition in the post-war

* Expert and lecturer at *Public Open University Zagreb*, Croatia.

environment. This context is also important for the building of institutions while forging a national identity.

In 1991 some changes of education system were made in response to political changes and trends. There were too many quick, rash solutions which destabilized educational institutions. Adult education organizations were struggling to deal with the problems that resulted from war (programs for refugees, socialization of soldiers and war victims, work with unemployed etc.) Restructured management had a negative impact on the quite well developed system of adult education. Some of these organizations are accused as part of former communist indoctrination system. Despite all of these accusations, there were no significant changes in organizational structure of adult education institutions. While large number of cultural centers, peoples universities were broke up in transitional countries, in Croatia there are still working but with some obstacles.

Although adult education formally became part of the public education system, there was also no funding from the national budget for educational programs of open universities and secondary school.

Local government has great influence in organizational management, creating programs but – education is mostly market oriented. In the same time, there was large scale of NGO, private educational centers and colleges.

The last decade has seen as substantial **fall in employment**, especially in those enterprises that have been **privatized** or run down. As a result of what happened during the transition period, register unemployment has risen substantially and reached its peak in 2002. The unemployment rate is slightly decreasing in last couple of years (around 16%). In March 2007 there were still 16,6% unemployed with high share of long-term unemployed.

The structure of unemployed has changed, with a large increase in long-term unemployment: over half of the unemployed fall into this category. Potentially, they are marginalized and excluded. They are older then average, they have skills that are not demanded by other employees, and they have no experience for job seeking.

There are, also, about 40.000 ex soldiers or *war veterans* in Croatia. Most of them have incomplete or poor educational qualifications, and Croatian Government designed special program trough which they are motivated and financed to obtain new qualifications.

Educational attainment is another problem. In Croatia, any person who has finished primary school, which is also compulsory school, is considered literate. The obligation to attend primary school applies to all Croatian citizens until the age of 15. The principal reasons the recent changes have occurred have been social and economic changes, demographic trends, changes on the labour market and the accession to the EU.

According to the 2001 data, 40,37% of population finished only elementary school or less (including those without any education) and in March 2007 there were still 16,6% unemployed with high share of long-term unemployed. However, 18,62% of the population aged 15 or older did not finish even 8years Primary school and there are only 2-3% of adults who participate in education (EU goal is 12%).

The decreasing unemployed rate in recent years can be attributed to the slight recovery of the economy, changed procedures for registration as an unemployed person and an improved performance of the employment service, a problem resulting from the war. Among the working population 8,64% did not finish 8years Primary school.

In 2003 the project for adult literacy was **launched** under the title “For a Croatia of Literacy: the Way to Desirable Future – the Decade of Literacy in Croatia 2003-2013”. Through the project any adult person can finish primary education and obtain first qualification. And in *Public Open University Zagreb* through this project in last two years about 300 persons have finished primary education.

How Can Croatian Approach to Lifelong Learning Be Described?

Approach (based on LLL) has been formed during the last five years within the Conception of Changes in the Education System of the Republic of Croatia (2002), Declaration of knowledge: towards Croatia based on knowledge (HAZU, 2004), Policy Recommendations for Raising Croatia’s Competitiveness (2003), and has been presented in the Education Sector Development Plan 2005 – 2010. The **lifelong vocabulary** has entered the elementary education (preparation of the students and the lifelong learning of the teachers), high schools (especially vocational schools), higher education and it has linked all educational levels. Still, the lifelong learning can be seen most clearly in the adult education.

Development objectives from **Education Sector Development Plan 2005 – 2010** have a goal to adapt the adult education system to labour market needs and the ability of adults to learn, especially in the case of vulnerable target groups, reduce illiteracy rates and create conditions for the completion of primary and secondary education in order to increase the number of employable workers.

Key words are: employability in knowledge based society, flexible methods of education for flexibility to labor market needs.

The Competitiveness Council lists education and lifelong learning as its first priority and the related recommendation reads: “New forms of lifelong learning and retraining for deficit skills should be organized, especially for the industries identified as the bearers of future development. Educational

institutions are expected to offer accelerated programs and a mixture of full and part-time courses, flexible methods of education (distance learning), more adult education sites, and to show greater flexibility to labor market needs. Individuals should be financially encouraged (via tax breaks or loans) to enroll in adult education programs. The adult education programs that are of general national concern (primary education, acquiring first qualification and retraining for deficit professions) should be fully financed by the state while other programs should be financed in equal parts by the state, local government and the students themselves.”.

The implementation of the **Strategy for Adult Education (2004)**, together with the **Adult Education Act (2007)** needs to ensure the employability and coping with the risk society to each individual. The main objectives are competitiveness, employability and economic development while the social dimension of the lifelong learning and citizens’ political competences have been less present.

Implementation has largely been the responsibility of the state authorities, educational institutions and the individuals. At the same time in this document and in few former analyses is recognized that adult education is most neglected part of the Croatian education system. The intention of the educational changes is to create more quality and more efficient education which would enable the achievement of an economic development and social cohesion in the knowledge based society.

Lifelong learning Benchmarks are similar as those in **Lisbon agenda**. You can find difference in participation in adult education and in Private expenditures on education. The improvement in the education of the population will be achieved by:

- decreasing the cost of education and training, while introducing sources and mechanisms for stable financing;
- reforming the traditional education system and introducing flexible educational programs;
- harmonizing educational opportunities with labor market demands and increasing the availability of information concerning the existing educational offerings;
- recognizing the knowledge and skills acquired in different forms of informal education;
- adapting the education system to meet the needs and capabilities of adults as pupils;
- strengthening adult education institutions by encouraging the development of adult education science;
- establishing and developing a system of quality control in adult education.

Recognition of the concept of lifelong learning as the basis of educational development presumes a reconceptualization of all segments of education. In the system of lifelong learning, adult education presents its most extensive phase, and the way in which is adult education is interpreted in Croatian educational system is therefore very important. Lifelong education is not a mechanical prolongation of education into adult age, but linking of education of children, youngster and adults into system

Which Are Key Institutions of the Implementation?

Education in Croatia at all levels (basic, secondary and tertiary education) is within the competence of the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports. But there are many stake holders in the Croatian educational system: ministries, agencies, services, professional NGOs, associations, trade unions.

The **Ministry of Science, Education and Sports** will have the leading role in coordinating and implementing the above tasks:

- increase investment by the business sector and the state in adult education at all levels;
- develop participation and responsibility of social partners;
- define activities and measures for asserting the right to education for all citizens during their lifetime, especially for target groups (the unemployed, war veterans, the illiterate, young people with inadequate education, etc.);
- conduct continuous professional training of teachers who participate in education and training programs for adults;
- the use of information and communication technologies in education and learning will be encouraged.

The development of vocational education in the Republic of Croatia, as the basis for development of national economy, has been entrusted to the **Agency for Vocational Education**. The activities of the Agency include planning, developing, organizing, monitoring and evaluating the school and extracurricular system in the field of vocational education. The main development objectives are to achieve the quality vocational education adapted to the demands of labour market.

The **Agency for Science and Higher Education**, as the independent body, evaluates and monitors the quality of higher education and science institutions and contributes to elimination of potential drawbacks. Apart from the quality assurance in higher education and science, the Agency is entrusted with the assistance to National Council for Higher Education and National Council for

Science. The Agency also includes the national ENIC/NARIC office as the information centre on academic recognition and mobility.

Adult education is an especially important area for economic and social development: competition, increasing employment opportunities, social cohesion, active citizenship, development of democracy and civil society, as well as the sustainable development of all regions. At the end of 2004, the **Government of the Republic of Croatia** defined the development of adult education in the following documents: *A Strategy for Adult Learning* and *Action Plan for Implementing the Strategy for Adult Learning*. In the meantime, a proposed *Draft Act on Adult Education* has been made.

A priority is the recognition of adult education as an integral part of the education system. This is based on the concept of lifelong learning and the principles of openness and equal access, creativity and flexibility of forms, methods and content. Links between policy, theory and practice in adult education will be created by developing partnerships through the participation of adults in defining, monitoring and developing lifelong learning.

In 2006 the Croatian Government adopted the Ordinance on **Agency for Adult Education** and it was expected, that Agency will be fully operational at the end of 2006. The activities of the Agency include monitoring, development, evaluation and improvement of the adult education. Agency is still without its permanent headmaster, still hasn't got suitable location and hasn't got sufficient number of experts but is faced with growing number of demands according to new Adult Education Act.

National Centre for External Evaluation, as the central institution, in cooperation with schools, prepares and carries out the **State Matura**, and its independence guarantees the expertise in preparation and execution of the exam as well as the regularity and protection of all procedures and data. The basis for creating a National Qualification Framework is the definition of State Matura competences.

The **Croatian Employment Service** is a key player in handling unemployed people and partly also redundant workers, and its systems are being modernized. But it is up against many difficulties. The shortage of job opportunities makes it hard to place unemployed people into work, especially long-term unemployed who are not attractive prospects to employers. Approaches to provide new skills for the unemployed are not well developed, and the number of training opportunities falls well short of needs. Employers are not sufficiently engaged with the employment service, and without employer support the work of employment service is very difficult. Insufficient time is devoted to counseling and advice to the unemployed, so they can be offered opportunities appropriate to their needs. Most of these difficulties stem from a shortage of resources.

The **Ministry of the Family, war veterans' Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity** has a budget to provide professional training and subsidized employment for ex-soldiers and members of their families, while the **Ministry of the Economy, Labour and Entrepreneurship** runs a programme to support small business etc. There are two national adult education associations: **Croatian Association of Peoples Open Universities** and **Croatian Andragogical Association**. They represent interests of people's open universities, schools and other providers of adult education programmes. They also arrange seminars and conferences about adult education and trainings for trainers.

The state, local authorities, social partners, educational institutions and civil society institutions will contribute to increasing all citizens' motivation to learn and to developing Croatia into a society based on knowledge. Such motivation will be created in a partnership environment by encouraging a learning culture and sensitizing the public to educational organizations and communities. **Policy coordination** for lifelong learning has only just been developed, as well as **partnerships** between state authorities, economic organizations and educational providers.

Priority target groups for lifelong learning include: **students** in regular school and faculties who should learn how to learn, **adults** without complete primary and secondary school education, **adults** with complete secondary education that does not correspond to the needs of the labor market, people living in **specific areas** (e.g. islands), people with **special educational needs** and others. Each target group needs to be approached with respect based on its unique needs and abilities.

The development of the Croatian economy rests on the competitiveness of its labor force. Therefore, continuing efforts will be made to allow adults to complete as high a level of adult education as possible. By developing educational programs for continuing training this will be possible. By developing mechanisms for higher educational access rates, adapting criteria for enrollment, stimulating flexible content and teaching approaches, and securing financial support, the conditions will be created for including adults in higher education programs. One of the main aims of the education system is to increase the opportunities for including adults in the education system. It is the responsibility of the education system to enable the adult population to develop the knowledge and skills necessary for daily life.

Adult education has an important role in meeting the needs of the labor market. The emphasis will be on training adults who have less schooling in literacy and math and vocational skills, which will contribute to their employability. Those who implement nationwide adult education will contribute to the development of an education system with defined levels of achievement, aligned with those in the European Union.

Croatia's education system, is slowly making the transition from a system that favored rote-learning, discipline, and lecturing to a system that fits the needs of a democracy with a globally integrated free market that needs problem-solving skills, creativity, communication skills, and flexibility. Changes have been slowed down by the lack of resources, but it should not be neglected that in Croatia some analyses and changes in education system have been made.

Public education expenditures were about 4,4 % GDP and the plan has been to increase them to 4,9% by the 2010 (almost the same as the EU average), but the bigger problem are the private expenditures on education institutions as share of GDP, which were only 0.003 in 2004, compared to 0,62 in the EU. This part of adult education has been significantly larger and has been paid for by the attendants. Different ministries of government offices manage budgets for specific adult learning and training programmes. However, given that there is no explicit policy focus for adult learning, there is no identification of total adult learning expenditure in any office's financial information. Financial resources available are not allocated in relation to careful assessment of the needs.

Individuals and enterprises both fund learning. No comprehensive survey has been undertaken to establish the extent and patterns of investments by employers in training. Companies in Croatia are reluctant to train, as long as they can attract trained people from labour market; some do not appreciate the need for and value of training; and some, when under serious cost pressures, cut back training budgets as an apparently avoidable expense.

Individuals fund training too by taking fee-based courses at Higher education institutions, Peoples Open Universities, private language and business schools. The sum up, even though the Government spends certain amount of State Budget on adult education no incentives are given to encourage co- investments, benefits are not equally shared, there does not seem to be clear rationale for the allocation of resources. Analyses of wages have shown that returns of human capital investment have been growing since late 90's.

Lisbon Agenda, Bologna Declaration and Amsterdam Criteria

And few words about external factors or europeanizatcion external factors have become more important for educational reform than domestic tradition and institutions. The outside framework has been generally defined by the Lisbon process and Bologna process for the higher education and Copenhagen process for the VET. Croatia signed the Bologna Declaration in 2001 at the Ministerial Conference in Prague and so took on the obligation to harmonize her system of higher education with the Declaration's requirements by 2010.

Three priority goals for the period 2003 to 2005 have been achieved which are the prerequisites for the attainment of other goals aimed at the creation of a common European area of higher education:

- establishment of a quality assurance system in higher education;
- adoption of a system based on two main cycles (first –undergraduate studies lasting at least three years, second – leading to MA/MSc or PhD degrees);
- recognition of foreign diplomas;
- establishment of a system of credits (ETCS) as a means of promoting student mobility.

Reform of the VET is defined as one of the priorities in Croatia and is being harmonized with Copenhagen Declaration, and its defined priorities. The reform of the VET sector has received a support from the CARDS programme.

The CARDS 2001 project (completed in November 2004) has produced several outputs, the most important being a Green Paper for Vocational Education and Training⁸ that sets out a clear vision and a plan of measures that need to be taken in order to modernize the Croatian VET system in line with EU practices and standards.

CARDS 2002 VET project – Modernization and Institution-Building project (completed in December 2006) has helped in preparing new legislation in vocational education and training and, building on the results of the previous project, has started a curriculum reform process and activities for developing NQF, developing VETIS (VET Information System), school networking, in close co-operation with the social partners.

The CARDS 2003 Centers of Excellence project, which is going to finish soon, help introduce newly developed curricula in larger multi-purpose, multi-sectoral school centres. The goal is to establish 10-12 centres of excellence in all areas of Croatia, which will be the foundation for education in new modern technologies, play an important role in the transfer of the experiences from other educational policies.

Policy learning, policy transfers and policy networks play an important role in the transfer of the experiences from other educational policies. Important is a participation of Croatian representatives in the implementation of the Copenhagen and Bologna processes, participation in international organizations as well as cooperation on the development of the EQF and CROQF. Especially important is a role of the CARDS programmes 2001, 2002 and 2003 through which vocational education reform and the upcoming 2004 adult learning programme have been formed.

This process of implementation of lifelong learning into the Croatian educational policy can be described as **Europeanization of the educational**

policy. At first, as a modernization, that is, using this initiative to introduce standards that are adequate in view of contemporary technological development, changes in the scope and character of literacy, changes in the communication space together with the changes of political context in which the educational reform has been implemented. Secondly, connection with European initiatives which have become part of the national policy process as a part of a common European policy vocabulary, good practice transfer, cooperation with other European countries. In the present moment that does not exclude educational policy reform as a part of a global process and using non-European experiences (above all, Japanese, American, Israel, which present minister has been mentioning gladly and often).

In Croatia Europeanization of the educational policy has been accepted as a synonym for the modernization, as an abandonment of the previous traditional school approach that is not appropriate for the contemporary society (technology, labour market, population structure). What is visible in such description of Europeanization is a smaller interest for the country's own experiences. Declaratively it has been referred to Croatian tradition, for example in the Basic foundations for the development of Croatian national framework (Polazne, 2006). However, professional discussions have mainly been focused on the experiences of other countries. One can notice a lack of assessment of effects that the last few domestic reform has made. Only a passing reference has been made to the two last century reforms.

That shows that **Goetz's warning** has been confirmed in our case too, that in the middle and eastern Europe modernization has been slower than it has been expected, which has been a result of communist heritage, insufficient resources (human, financial, organizational), often changes of the personnel, conflicts with the inadequate foreign advices, time gap between the formal organizational changes and changes of values, norms (Goetz, 2001:1039).

Specific quality of the Europeanization process in the middle and eastern Europe is that it has been limited by diffusion of influences and determined by the way EU functions (various EU bodies and agencies send different messages and signals) (Grabbe, 2001:1026). It is also determined by the interaction with other processes of changes, and the Europeanization is often neither a sole nor the main lever of changes.

In situation where local initiatives are reduced and partner cooperation on the reform between the state, the economy and the unions has not been very efficient – personal participation in **policy networks** is especially important. Those who give meaning and propose a sense of changes, through their, who hold a common set of causal beliefs and share notions of validity based on internally defined criteria for evaluation, common policy projects, and shared

normative commitments, specific vocabulary, way of thinking and discourse practice – those stakeholders are of key importance for the implementation of the initiative. A conclusion could be made that for a process of creation of qualification frameworks, international connections and influence of transnational policy groups is more important than national stakeholders. Why? There are a few possible answers.

On the **national level objectives** are still being consolidated: basis foundations proposal has reduced the objectives to employability, and active citizenship and social cohesion have been significantly less present. One can notice that the institutions that go along the education have been underdeveloped, that is, there are still in the process of developing and creating a basis for some future activities. Agency for vocational education has changed three locations in a year, and on the beginning it even worked without telephone and e-mail. Agency for the adult education has just been formed, and still lacks staff, National centre for external evaluation spends all its resources on national high school graduation and can hardly fulfill ambitiously set tasks. Department of Ministry of science, education and sport for the lifelong learning has been invisible. Statistic and other data that is necessary for making decisions has only now started to be gathered. Expert basis is fluid, so for example, a journal for vocational education or science institute for the adult education don't exist. Finally, discontinuity should be also mentioned – change of the ruling party means an essential turn in the educational reform, and there are no distinct evaluations of former reforms or developed attitude towards the educational tradition that would be useful for future definition of objectives and educational policy measures. Because of that, changes occur in large part through expert networks supported by system of European subsidies.

We can notice better progression and completion in education, better secondary school enrolment with better gender ratio increasing public expenditure in education, but Croatia still occupies 53rd place out of a total of 55 countries included in the World Competitiveness Rankings and Croatia is sited in losing ground environment.

This research shows that **Croatia** must continue with the necessary structural reforms, especially in areas such as the domestic economy, employment, the labor market, management practices, and scientific-technological infrastructure.

Maybe the expectations we have from education have been too big and unreal. All problem of our country can not be solved by education. Alison Wolf puts a question: *Does Education matter?* And in Croatia the same question has been asked by Branimir Krištofić, whose research has shown that education has not got direct impact on economic development. There is no development without education, but only education itself cannot guarantee economic and

social development. It is very important who learns, what does one learn and who organizes educational process, how educational policy is linked to the public policies and, of course, social capital and global environment are also very important in this process.

At the End...

The whole process of incorporation of lifelong learning principles can be seen as a part of the process of Europeanization of national educational policy, that is, taking part in European initiatives which have become a part of the national policy process as a part of common European policy vocabulary, good practice transfer and comparison with other European countries. European arguments have been used to modernize educational system in a way different than the attempts of the specific modernization in the period of socialism (in the seventies). Because of that the process of changes in Croatian educational system can be seen a part of convergence of educational policies on the European level.

Croatian lifelong learning system could be described as a new, nicely wrapped car with installed old engine and some new parts that have not be adjusted for harmonic functioning. There is enough fuel in the car, but there are no rear-view mirrors so you can not look behind.

A driver has a valid driving licence, but has never driven this model and has not been trained for driving it, but he has been assuring passengers that this is the best ride they have ever had. While driving, he's been using other's, borrowed map, that is not the most precise one and which uses incomprehensible signs. Although driver keeps stepping on the gas, the speed remains the same, and he is aware that it would be difficult to reach destination in time. Driving schools enter lifelong learning too! Do we think that only we have such questions? Even best models have similar doubts...

Diplomacy of the Republic of Dubrovnik: Historical Case of Regional Cooperation and Diplomatic Skills

Svjetlan Berković*

I. Introduction

The origins of Croatian diplomacy date back as far as to the age of the first Croatian rulers and experience their full development under the multi-centennial existence of the Republic of Dubrovnik, thus making it one of the most important elements of the independence and existence of this South-Croatian territory.

The Republic of Dubrovnik was in existence as an independent state from the middle of the 14th century, when it acquired all the qualities of statehood and sovereignty, up until the beginning of the 19th century, i.e. in over four and a half centuries. The elements of its statehood were very clear: it had its own territory and borders, its own population inhabiting this territory, an independent legal system and organisation of government, it acted in accordance with the then applicable standards in international relations. In addition to its internal sovereignty, Dubrovnik also enjoys international sovereignty, expressed through its independence in dealings with other states, which, *inter alia*, includes the recognition of other states, freedom in the conclusion of international agreements, autonomy in the establishment and maintenance of diplomatic and consular relations, including the autonomous appointment and dispatch of its diplomatic and consular representatives and the receipt of foreign ones. Further to the above mentioned and other facts of relevance, it is beyond doubt that the Republic of Dubrovnik was a state which enjoyed all elements of statehood, state sovereignty and international legal capacity.

All of the mentioned largely contributed to the speedy economic, cultural and overall development of the Republic of Dubrovnik. The achievements of

* Ambassador of the Republic of Croatia to the Republic of Slovenia, Ljubljana.

Dubrovnik in the field of science, literature, music, medicine, architecture, state administration and several other areas were exceptional, especially considering its small number of inhabitants, the problematic situation in its neighbouring region and its permanent exposure to external threats.

One of the most important determinants allowing for this comprehensive development of the Republic of Dubrovnik was its diplomatic and consular service. It is beyond question that the cultural, diplomatic and political heritage of the Republic of Dubrovnik constituted a significant factor in the process of integration of the Croatian nation which followed in the 19th and 20th century, as a link in the efforts to establish a modern independent Croatian state.

Very early on Dubrovnik set up a service responsible for managing its foreign policy, i.e. for gathering information on foreign policy and protecting its merchants and trade relations.

Even though there are some arguments to the effect that Venice and some other Italian city-states are to be considered as the origin of diplomacy, Dubrovnik has, at the same time, a well organised diplomatic and consular service and developed rules governing these issues, in some matters it was even more advanced than Venice.

Despite all these facts, abundantly supported by the documents of the historical archives, the general public is still insufficiently familiar with the diplomacy of Dubrovnik and its place in the European diplomatic theory and practice.

II. Geographical and Economic Characteristics

Dubrovnik's geographic location is foremost determined by its position of a protected harbour with direct access to the open seas, easily accessible by ships, not only from the Adriatic but also from ports located in the Mediterranean Sea, which characteristic was of particular importance in relation to the Eastern Mediterranean. On the other hand, its hinterland provided it with natural protection – additionally strengthened by heavy fortified city walls, but also access to a large portion of the Balkan Peninsula.

Dubrovnik's geographical position, especially with regard to Turkey, backed by Dubrovnik's shrewd diplomatic service, resulted in Dubrovnik's role of intermediary in relations between the then European powers and Turkey, symbolically denoting Dubrovnik as the "gates to the East", a role wisely played by Dubrovnik over the centuries.

By its number of inhabitants, the Republic of Dubrovnik never represented a major force. Over the centuries, the number of inhabitants depended on the economic development and other circumstances, and varied between 25 and

90 thousand, of which 4 to 7 thousand lived within the confines of the city. According to official data, right before the fall of the Republic, there were 31,245 inhabitants, of which 4,175 lived within the city walls.

The Republic of Dubrovnik was a particularly Catholic state where the Catholic religion was the only official one. However, there was a high degree of tolerance for all members of the Jewish, Muslim and Orthodox communities. Being a fully Catholic state, over the centuries Dubrovnik enjoyed special consideration and protection by the pope and many European rulers.

For many centuries Dubrovnik was a city and a state focused on seafaring and trade, which were the origins of its intensive economic and overall development. It played a significant economic role in the Balkans and the Mediterranean and disposed of well developed merchant relations and seafaring routes which reached as far away as the Atlantic and the Indian Ocean.

Two periods were of special importance for the economic development of Dubrovnik. Dubrovnik experienced particularly intensive economic growth during the 16th century. However, this economic boost was terminated by the great earthquake of 1667 which ruined Dubrovnik's economy. The repeated economic rise took place in the period from the middle of the 18th century until the abolition of the Republic of Dubrovnik.

III. Structure of Government

The Republic of Dubrovnik was an aristocratic (patrician) republic. However, despite the domination of the nobility and the feudal system, the Republic of Dubrovnik was never founded on an autocratic system, which was the characteristic of many countries of that time. The country's fate was the several responsibilities of the joint leadership for which all the subjects of Dubrovnik had to bear certain obligations and responsibilities.

This is, amongst others, supported by the manner in which the Rector (*knez*), nominally the head authority, was elected, and the limited scope of his authorities. There are also other elements of the political system's organisation which confirm this, such as, for example, the head role of the Senate as a body of collective authority, the manner of passing the votes, the periodical elections, limits to the consecutive election of the same person to the same function and the procedure of selecting diplomatic and consular representatives.

There are sources dating back to the 11th century, making reference to the peoples' (popular) assembly, a convention of all citizens, which ratified the laws adopted by the patriciate. In addition to this body, there was also the **Great Council** (*Consilium maius*), an assembly of the patriciate, which over time assumed the authorities of the popular assembly. The Great Council was

comprised of all the patriciate, upon prior verification of their patriciate status and age and submission of certificates evidencing their education and good behaviour.

Over the centuries, the **Senate** or the Council of the Rogatory (*Consilium rogatorum*) was the most important body of the Republic. Over time it became the government of the Republic of Dubrovnik, which remained so until the abolition of the Republic in 1808. Senators were elected amongst the members of the Great Council. Senators, most often three of them, carried out the main governmental tasks. Senators were elected for life and performed their duties without remuneration.

The Senate almost single-handedly passed decisions concerning the current issues of foreign and domestic policy. The Senate was also responsible for electing the diplomatic and consular representatives of the Republic by a majority vote (by use of balls) and laying down all essential issues for their operation, such as the scope of their authority to take action, the manner in which to act, the number of members in their entourage and the like. The Senate deliberated on all important issues concerning foreign relations, read received letters, discussed the standpoints to be taken on issues and the contents of replies, determined the government's strategy and the tactics of its diplomatic and consular representatives abroad.

The **Small Council** (*Consilium minus*) was the Great Council's and later the Senate's executive body, responsible for developing and carrying out decisions. In fact, it only represented the channel through which the Senate received its correspondence, and together with the Secretariat carried out the technical and administrative work (drafting of directions and their supplements, setting the cipher and the like).

The youngest member of the Small Council was responsible for directly executing the reached conclusions. He acted as a kind of Foreign Minister, i.e. performed the role of state secretary even though his functions were not clearly defined. By performing and implementing individual conclusions, he maintained relations with foreign diplomatic and consular representatives accredited to Dubrovnik.

The **Rector** (*knez*) of Dubrovnik (duke, count) formally held the highest representative role of the Republic of Dubrovnik in foreign policy matters. He was elected by the Great Council by an absolute majority of votes. He was elected amongst members of the Senate. He summoned the councils and chaired the sessions.

At the occasion of voting in councils, the Rector carried one vote, just like the others. His position was the one of "first among equals" (*primus inter pares*), an in case of his absence, he was replaced by the eldest member of the Small Council.

The Rector received foreign diplomatic and consular representatives accredited to the Republic of Dubrovnik, who presented him with credentials. He held the keys of the city gates, was responsible for the Republic's seals and carried out judicial powers in matters of lesser significance. The Rector's term of office varied. In the 18th century he served a one month term of office. The Rector was reduced to a political figure with no substantial authority. In matters of foreign policy, his role was exclusively that of representative and ceremonial nature. In addition to the aforementioned, there were also other bodies of government.

The Republic of Dubrovnik never fostered any occupational intentions neither did it wage any wars aimed at achieving such goals. Moreover, its military never played a significant role in international relations. Dubrovnik's army was scarce and its purpose was solely to protect the Republic, maintain internal order and preserve the borders.

IV. Foreign Policy of the Republic of Dubrovnik

Over the centuries of its existence, Dubrovnik was, in geopolitical terms, located in the centre of contacts of the super-powers of that time. Dubrovnik was permanently exposed to the threat of the Republic of Venice, in the first place, and some hinterland countries as well. Being a small state Dubrovnik did not dispose of a significant army or other means of influence. Being a fragile country and with a view to protecting its existence and development, it had to rely, in the first place, on diplomatic skills and maintaining peace and harmony with everyone.

Upon arrival of the Turks to the territories of the Balkan Peninsula, Dubrovnik found itself in the abyss between the East and the West. Dubrovnik balanced between its relations with Turkey – as a “responsible payer of the *harač* (tribute)”, which allowed it to use the privileges and benefits deriving from such status, and at the same time building good relations and positioning itself towards European states, seeking protection, in the first place, from the Pope, with a view to preserving its position of the outpost of Christianity surrounded by the Turkish Muslim Empire.

Powerful countries of the time, such as the Hungarian-Croatian Kingdom, Turkey, Spain, the Papal State and the Kingdom of Naples supported the existence of a neutral Republic of Dubrovnik as a buffer between the East and the West.

Despite recognising the “supreme authority” of initially the Hungarian-Croatian Kingdom and thereafter Turkey, the Republic of Dubrovnik managed to establish and preserve over the centuries all the relevant constituents of independence and sovereignty. This was particularly evident at the time of the

Turkish invasions when many medieval countries, such as the Byzantine Empire, Bulgaria, Serbia, Bosnia and Hungary perished.

The main task of Dubrovnik's foreign policy was to preserve the freedom and sovereignty of the Republic, build good relations with everyone, and to protect and develop Dubrovnik's merchant activities and seafaring. Dubrovnik's foreign policy was founded on the principle of preserving neutrality in international conflicts and emphasising its position as the last Christian foothold in South-Eastern Europe, which should, in line with the doctrine of Christian universalism, be granted a special and privileged treatment by Christian countries.

The following were the main constituents and principles of Dubrovnik's foreign policy: wisdom and a comprehensive approach in analyses and assessments of foreign policy issues, realistic, pragmatic and cautious decision-making, awareness of own capacities and potentials and special attention on accurate and up to date information.

Such foreign-policy positioning granted the Republic of Dubrovnik exceptional economic, cultural and overall growth and long-lasting survival, in which it outlived its major rival and adversary – the Republic of Venice.

V. Dubrovnik's Diplomatic Representatives

The roots of Dubrovnik's diplomacy can be found in the far past, already in the Statute of 1272. With a view to enhancing its connections and protecting its political interests and the interests of its merchants and merchant colonies, already in the 14th and 15th century Dubrovnik sent its diplomatic representatives to various missions, it appointed an increasing number of consular representatives. For this purpose the Great Council and thereafter the Senate adopted a set of rules on the organisation and activities of the diplomatic and consular services.

Dubrovnik's diplomatic representatives can be categorised into three main types as follows: extraordinary or temporary (*ad hoc*) diplomatic representatives – the so called *poklisari*, who were sent to other countries for the purpose of carrying out specific political and/or ceremonial tasks; the so called *poklisari harača* who brought the *harač* (tribute) to Turkey at Constantinople, thus performing also diplomatic activities, who had all the characteristics of permanent diplomatic representatives; and permanent diplomatic representatives dispatched by the Republic of Dubrovnik at a later stage of its existence. In addition to this, it is necessary to emphasise that Dubrovnik's consular representatives comprised an important element of Dubrovnik's Foreign Service, since they often carried out, as it was usual at that time, diplomatic functions in addition to their consular activities.

V.1. Extraordinary (*ad hoc*) Diplomatic Representatives

Over the centuries, throughout Europe and in Dubrovnik too, there were only extraordinary diplomatic representatives, i.e. extraordinary *poklisari*. These were the diplomatic representatives of Dubrovnik which were sent by the Republic on demand (*ad hoc*), when need arose and for a limited period of time. *Poklisari* were sent to major European capitals, such as the Hungarian-Croatian Kingdom, Spain, Venice, the Papal State, the Kingdom of Naples, Austria, France and other countries. It was only from the end of the 17th century that Dubrovnik appointed its first permanent diplomatic representatives, which was later than in the rest of Western Europe - Venice started dispatching permanent diplomatic representatives as from the 15th century.

In addition to the main capitals of Europe, Dubrovnik also sent its diplomatic representatives elsewhere, as follows: **a)** to Zadar – upon appointment of a new Venetian *providur* (governor) of Dalmatia, a special diplomatic representative (the so called *Nobile in Dalmazia*) was dispatched to Zadar; **b)** to the Turkish governors of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the pasha of Bosnia and the Sandžak of Herzegovina; **c)** envoys were also dispatched to the pasha of Skadar (Scutari, Shkodër) and to many other western countries, to deal with less significant political issues; **d)** to the Maghreb countries (Berber countries called *Barbaria*) captains of Dubrovnik's ships were sent as envoys.

V.2. Diplomatic Envoys of the Tribute (*poklisari harača*)

The dispatch of Dubrovnik's diplomatic representatives – the so called *poklisari harača* (diplomatic envoys of the tribute) to Constantinople and the overall relations with Turkey were throughout centuries a priority issue for Dubrovnik's diplomacy. Moreover, by replacing one another in Constantinople, *poklisari harača* had the characteristic of permanent diplomatic representatives.

They presented their letters of credence to the sultan and to the grand vizier. Thereupon, they were received by the sultan whom they greeted in an address delivered in Croatian.

From the middle of the 15th century they were entrusted with the task of bringing the *harač* (tribute), which Dubrovnik paid for the freedom of trade, to the Turks. It was paid each year (e.g. in 1453 it equalled 1,500 Venetian gold ducats, afterwards it reached 12,500). Later on, when the *Porte* in 1703 reduced the *harač* to a third, it was paid once in every three years. The obligation to pay the *harač* was in fact the only obligation of Dubrovnik to Turkey. Negotiations with the Turks were neither easy nor simple. *Poklisari* always had to be ware of the fate of numerous foreign diplomats in Turkey whom the sultan “in

righteous anger” kept under house arrest or had thrown away to the *Castle of Seven Towers* (especially when diplomats of countries with which Turkey went to war were concerned). The so called *Ambassador’s Tower* where “obnoxious diplomats” were locked away was abolished only in 1827, after Turkey’s might was significantly reduced. Moreover, it was not rare that the Turks also failed to respect the inviolability of Dubrovnik’s diplomatic courier or diplomatic mail.

V.3. Permanent Diplomatic Representatives

Permanent diplomacy appears first in the 15th century (Venice, Milan and other). Colonial conquests increase the role of diplomacy and the necessity to dispatch permanent diplomatic representatives. Dubrovnik lags behind in this process – with an exception as regards the dispatch of the aforementioned *poklisari harača*.

As from the end of the 17th century the Republic of Dubrovnik had permanent diplomatic representatives in Vienna (since 1684). By the end of the 17th century the Republic of Dubrovnik had its permanent representatives in Rome as well. Thereafter, as from the beginning of the 18th century the Republic of Dubrovnik appointed permanent diplomatic representatives to Naples and at the end of the 18th century to Paris.

Even though the Republic of Dubrovnik appointed its permanent diplomatic representatives to particular countries, when necessary it continued with the practice of dispatching extraordinary *poklisari* to these countries, as was the case in Rome and Vienna.

Consequently, as from the 17th century Dubrovnik dispatched its extraordinary (ad hoc) diplomatic representatives (*poklisari*), but also its permanent diplomatic representatives.

Since 1358, when Dubrovnik released itself from Venetian rule, up until the abolition of the Republic of Dubrovnik, almost all European countries sent their diplomatic and consular representatives to Dubrovnik, and with the establishment of the so called permanent diplomacy, many of them kept there their permanent diplomatic or consular representatives in Dubrovnik.

V.4. Appointment of Diplomatic Representatives

As already indicated, the Senate was in charge of Dubrovnik’s foreign affairs and all activities related thereto including the appointment of Dubrovnik’s diplomatic representatives. The procedure of electing the diplomatic representative was prescribed into detail, amended and supplemented over time as necessary.

Already in the 14th and 15th centuries elaborate rules on the appointment, activities, rights and duties of Dubrovnik's diplomatic representatives (*poklisari*) dispatched to various missions and consular representatives as well, were in place. These rules were laid down in the so called Green Book (*Liber Viridis*) and the Yellow Book (*Liber Croceus*).

Upon the election of diplomatic representatives the senator or councillor related to the person being elected did not have the right to chose and was bound to leave the session before the election procedure. Diplomatic representatives (*poklisari*) had to give an oath before leaving for their mission.

On 3 November 1331 a decision was passed prohibiting a person carrying out a public service in Dubrovnik from being elected at the same time for another office, such a person had to choose only one of them. This also applied to Dubrovnik's diplomatic representatives. Under a regulation of 4 December 1366, a pecuniary fine was laid down for a person selected for diplomatic duty who then declined it.

Diplomatic representatives were bound to strictly adhere to the orders received. Amongst other things, without prior approval of the Senate, they were not permitted to bring along with themselves objects they could sell or give away during their diplomatic mission, they were prohibited from assuming other obligations (services or tasks), generating revenues or other advantages (a regulation of 9 January 1406). A punishment was to be imposed for violations of these provisions.

The reforms to the rule laying down the procedure for the selection of diplomatic representatives of 4 March 1763 were of special importance. Namely, they provided that the selection of diplomatic representatives in the future was to be carried out by partial selection, and sometimes by draw. The purpose of this provision was to prevent harmful agreements and interest groups amongst senators in the procedure for the selection of diplomatic representatives.

V.5. Letters of Credence

The letters of credence (credentials) were drawn up in line with a much decorated sample then in use in Western Europe. In the credentials the Rector and the councillors of the Republic of Dubrovnik state that the person presenting the letters of credence shall have the special honour of delivering them in the capacity of diplomatic representative of the Republic of Dubrovnik (in this place such persons name and title were stated). This is the reason why the addressee was asked to benevolently receive the representative, hear him and fully trust what he is conveying on behalf of the Republic.

When leaving a foreign country Dubrovnik's diplomatic representatives were usually invited to an audience with the head of the respective country and most frequently would receive farewell letters wherein the foreign head of state would, also in a much decorated form, bid his farewell to and express his greetings and pleasure with the diplomatic representative and his country.

V.6. Rank of Diplomatic Representatives

As has already been indicated, in addition to extraordinary diplomatic representatives (*poklisari*), who were dispatched to extraordinary - temporary (*ad hoc*) special missions, the Republic of Dubrovnik also sent permanent diplomatic representatives to particular European capitals. The following diplomatic ranks (diplomatic titles) of permanent diplomatic representatives were present in Dubrovnik's foreign service (as of the 18th century):

Minister plenipotentiary (minister resident) - however, this rank was seldom granted;

Chargé d'affaires - diplomatic representatives of the Republic of Dubrovnik were most commonly granted this diplomatic rank;

Agent - this rank held all the characteristics of a diplomatic representative but was lowest in rank.

V.7. Assistants of the Diplomatic Representatives

Diplomatic representatives (*poklisari*) of Dubrovnik also had assistants in the execution of their diplomatic mission. The associates of Dubrovnik's diplomatic representatives were as follows.

The permanent diplomatic function of secretary appears for the first time in the 18th century at Dubrovnik's mission to Vienna. However, there is earlier mention of secretaries to the mission with extraordinary diplomatic representatives. The so called *dragomani*, as secretaries to the mission of *poklisari harača*. Their role carried special weight in Constantinople since the *Porte* required all written communication between itself and the foreign diplomatic representatives to be conducted in Turkish. Candidates referred to as the "young men of language" (*mladići jezika*) were educated at the expense of the Republic for *dragoman* service. First they learned Turkish (and Arabic) and acquired other appropriate skills in Dubrovnik; thereafter they spent from two to three years of professional training in Turkey. Even though Dubrovnik used Croatian outside Constantinople for its correspondence with Turkey, a *Turkish translation office* was set up in Dubrovnik.

Already under a regulation of 1358 it was laid down that a diplomatic representative (*poklisar*) was to be accompanied to a mission by a treasurer. The

treasurer's task was to accept the state funds allocated for the mission and ensure their spending in accordance with the instructions of the head of mission. Upon return to Dubrovnik the treasurer had to hand all receipts over to the managers of state assets and together with the head of mission give an oath that the funds allocated for the mission have not been used for other purposes.

In addition to their extraordinary and permanent diplomatic representatives and consular representatives, the Republic of Dubrovnik acquired relevant foreign policy information in other ways. In this process, an important role was played by the informal diplomacy, comprised of Dubrovnik's dignitaries living abroad, such as Dubrovnik's humanists at the Hungarian court at the end of the 15th and beginning of the 16th centuries, Dubrovnik's merchants in London in the middle of the 16th century, commanders of Dubrovnik's ships, scientists, dignitaries, merchants, priests and other patriots, friends and confidants of Dubrovnik. They sent to Dubrovnik's Senate reports on important political, economic and other events in the world, took an active role before the authorities and distinguished persons of the country in which they resided in protecting and promoting the interests of Dubrovnik.

VI. Dubrovnik's Consular Service

VI.1. Development of the Consular Service

Within its trade colonies (the Balkans, the Levant) Dubrovnik set up bodies which directly *in situ* represented and protected the interests of Dubrovnik's trade and merchants, making reference to negotiated contracts and privileges enjoyed by Dubrovnik, and for the purpose of carrying out judicial powers between the subjects of Dubrovnik who resided in such areas.

It is not known precisely when Dubrovnik's first consular representatives (consuls)¹ were established, however, Dubrovnik had them in place as early as in the 13th century (Gregorius de Petragna in Brskovo, 1278 – 1282), which was, for example, earlier than England. Already by the end of the 13th century there was an increase in the number of consuls of Dubrovnik in the territories of the Balkan Peninsula (*Slavonia*).

Also very early on, already in the 14th century, Dubrovnik adopted modern regulations concerning its consular service (*Book of Conclusions*). The first consuls of Dubrovnik in the Mediterranean were established at the end of the 14th century in Italian ports (first in Siracusa in 1390).

¹ At that time consular representatives were treated only as consuls, it was only later that their rank differentiated depending on their consular vocation. The consular ranks were as follows: consul general, consul, vice-consul and consular agent. This has been accepted in the contemporary consular service.

In the 16th century, when Dubrovnik's economy experienced a great boost, especially its maritime trade, the Republic of Dubrovnik had 50 consulates. Dubrovnik had 44 consulates in the western Mediterranean, most of them (36) in Italian ports, 4 in Spanish ports, 2 in France, and one on the island of Malta and in Senj. At the same time Dubrovnik had 6 consulates in the area of the Eastern Mediterranean.

After the great earthquake of 1667, which resulted in great destruction and damage the Republic of Dubrovnik managed to recover and from the middle of the 18th century once again achieve great economic and overall development. Already from the middle of the 18th century it once again had some 50 consuls and general consuls (also 31 vice-consuls or a total of 81 consular representatives), of which 34 in the West and 16 in the Levant. This was, for example, more than Austria had at that time – it had 37 consular representatives. At the same time, in 1787, the Kingdom of Naples had 24 consulates and 5 vice-consulates.

Hence, as from the middle of the 13th century until the fall of the Republic, for over five and a half centuries, consular representatives of Dubrovnik were active in many trade ports, primarily in the territories of the Balkan peninsula and from the 14th century in many Mediterranean ports of the west. Dubrovnik's consular representatives were recognised official representatives of the independent and sovereign Republic of Dubrovnik and played an exceptional role in its viability and development.

VI.2. Appointment of Consular Representatives

Dubrovnik's consular representatives were chosen by a majority vote of the Senate pursuant to a published announcement. They were elected into office under a decree on appointment (*privilegium consulatus*), and were granted a patent letter which was, under a decision of the Senate, issued by the Rector and the Small Council, contained a list of their rights and duties and determined the consular area which fell under their jurisdiction. Before assuming office they had to obtain a permission of the country in which they were to operate (the host country), the so called *exequatur*², which was granted in the form of a diploma and in Turkey in the form of a *ferman* or a *berat*.

It was often the case, especially in the areas of the Western Mediterranean and Western Europe, that foreigners were elected as consular representatives. These were mostly distinguished and wealthy foreigners who did not receive a regular pay for their work – they were so called **honorary consular representatives**. Through the appointment of many foreigners as its consular representatives, the

² Lat. *exequatur* – to be done.

Republic of Dubrovnik made a significant impact on the development of the honorary consular representative institute.

Contrary to the situation in the Western Mediterranean, Dubrovnik's consular representatives in the Eastern Mediterranean (the *Levant*) were mostly from Dubrovnik. They performed consular activities as their profession and received a salary for this – the so called **career (professional) consular representatives**. Since the end of the 17th century Dubrovnik's consular representatives were granted consular titles (ranks) which are still in use: consul-general, consul and vice-consul. Consuls-generals and consuls could appoint vice-consuls in some more important sites of their consular jurisdiction Vice-consuls were subordinate to the consul who was responsible for their work to the Senate of Dubrovnik.

VI.3. Functions of Consular Representatives

Dubrovnik's consular representatives carried out all activities which, at the time, fell under the consular service. They were familiar with local regulations and customs, and the way of doing business and commercial relations. They represented and protected Dubrovnik's merchants and seamen before the local authorities, issued and authenticated documents, made sure that the subjects of Dubrovnik abroad adhered to Dubrovnik's regulations and passed judgments in their mutual disputes. The subjects of Dubrovnik abroad were bound to accept the authority of Dubrovnik's consular representative.

In the Middle Ages consular representatives also carried out judicial powers over the subjects of the country of the respective consular representative. Just like elsewhere throughout Europe and the Mediterranean, over time the judicial powers of the consuls ceased, hence, their primary task was to provide protection to their citizens in relation to the authorities of another country, with special emphasis on protecting the interests of trade and seafaring.³ The consular representatives' role in the conduct of diplomatic (political) activities diminished over time since these operations were assumed by permanent diplomatic representatives of one country (the sending country) accredited to another (the receiving - host country).⁴ However, in the event when there were no permanent diplomatic missions between two countries, the consular representatives kept on performing diplomatic (political) operations.

³ In contemporary consular relations a consular representative of one country to another is not permitted to carry out any judicial powers since this is being considered as a violation of the receiving - host country's sovereignty.

⁴ In the past consular representatives often also performed diplomatic (political) activities and there were no clear distinctions between the diplomatic and consular status.

Dubrovnik's consular service, as part of its foreign affairs service, had all the characteristics of the European consular service of that time. Consular representatives received patent letters and instructions, conducted official correspondence, and issued official documents and the like. They maintained permanent written communication with the government of Dubrovnik and sent to it various reports; they had their consular jurisdiction and seal, sometimes even a cipher.

VII. Main Characteristics of the Operations of Dubrovnik's Diplomacy

Since the Republic of Dubrovnik was a country small in size and population and without military potential, surrounded by great powers of the time, it founded its viability and prosperity on skilled evaluations and conduct of foreign policy, as well as the subtleness and capacity of its diplomatic and consular service. Dubrovnik's government and its diplomatic and consular service had to dispose of reliable information, realistically analyse relevant issues and information and reach the right conclusions, be familiar with the circumstances and desires of other entities, select trustworthy and competent diplomatic and consular representatives, and apply all the available methods of diplomatic activity. Dubrovnik's diplomacy also took an active part in the protection and promotion of Dubrovnik's interests and provided support to Dubrovnik's trade and seafaring which were very important elements of the viability and prosperity of the Republic of Dubrovnik.

VII.1. Collection of Information

When exchanging letters with its diplomatic representatives abroad, the Senate emphasised how important it was to be well informed. In addition to the ordinary reports received from *poklisari* and envoys, the Senate also received reports from its consular representatives, trusted individuals from abroad, Dubrovnik's merchants in Turkey and Italy, distinguished compatriots, foreign entrepreneurs and others. It was in particular in the 17th and 18th century that the government of Dubrovnik maintained correspondents and confidants, who would independently and often without the awareness of the diplomatic representative, dispatch reports on the most important events. The Senate also used newspapers to obtain information. Moreover, in the 18th century Dubrovnik's diplomacy, like many others in Europe, used its banking connections to gather political and various information of importance.

VII.2. Instructions

The Senate used instructions for the purpose of determining the guidelines and standpoints for individual diplomatic representatives, defining their tasks and missions, outlining some actions and drafting in advance the text of their most important statements. In accordance with a decision of April 6th 1370 the elected diplomatic representative was prohibited from taking part in the discussion defining the instructions and their drafting, and he was obliged to strictly adhere to the instructions received and act within their framework. The instructions were often drafted in Croatian, even though they were, from the 14th century onwards, generally composed in Italian (up to then in Latin), because in the Republic of Dubrovnik Italian was used as the “language of diplomacy”.⁵ Instructions for the Bosnian pasha or pashas of other regions, as well as in general for Turkish authorities, were predominantly in the Croatian language. Hence, all extraordinary and permanent diplomatic representatives, *poklisari harača*, consular representatives as well as any other official representative of the Republic of Dubrovnik, were obliged to act in accordance with the instructions received.

VII.3. Cipher

Dubrovnik’s diplomacy started using the cipher very early on. Its first mention dates back to the 15th century, whilst the earliest example dates back to May 22nd 1574, i.e. to a letter of Dubrovnik’s *poklisar* Gučetić, accredited with Charles IX of France (1560 – 1574). In this letter, written in Italian, there are some Croatian words used to inform that the king is ill and that other gentry already consider him dead.

Dubrovnik was familiar with the *nomenclator* which contains symbols for previously determined terms (emperor, navy, Turks and other), and symbols without meaning, the function of which is to make the decoding more difficult. The nomenclator is the predecessor of the modern cipher code. The cipher evolved in the 18th century. Its main logic was that every letter in the alphabet is replaced by a sign, number or letter.

⁵ For the diplomatic purposes Dubrovnik used Italian since it was, at that time, one of the leading languages in maritime trade and international relations in the Mediterranean. However, not even then, as is not even the case in contemporary diplomacy either, there was no exclusive *official diplomatic language* but there was the domination of particular languages depending on the applicable rules, customs or situations.

VII.4. Diplomatic Mail

Dubrovnik's diplomacy used couriers who transferred the Republic's official correspondence. The courier service was well organised and famous for its speed and reliability. This is why the courier service, upon the Senate's approval, carried mail to foreign diplomatic representatives as well. However, it was not rare that the Turks did not respect the inviolability of diplomatic couriers, stopped them and seized their diplomatic mail. The diplomatic mail was also carried by ships leased by the government of Dubrovnik, with instructions to the captain to drop the mail into the sea in cases of emergency. Dubrovnik's diplomatic or consular representatives were responsible for the swift and reliable delivery of mail and had to send it in duplicates, e.g. a duplicate by another route so that at least one copy would always reach the destination.

VII.5. Ceremonial

The Republic paid special attention to ceremonial issues. Even back in 1676 the Republic employed, as a permanent civil servant, a *ceremonist* or a *master of the ceremony* whose function corresponded to the present day chief of protocol. Rules on ceremonial have been preserved in the Dubrovnik Archives; they are enclosed in two books (*Ceremoniale I* and *Ceremoniale II*). It is a manuscript of about 400 sheets.

The ceremonial was in line with the customary European ceremonial of the time, even though less glamorous than at the leading European courts, however it was detailed and gracious. The Small Council determined the time and other details concerning the audition with the Rector and the handing over of the credentials. Issues of protocol and ceremonial are very important in international relations since they are linked to the dignity and the status of a country and its representative. They are based on reciprocity and have political significance and consequences. Since the issues of rank and ceremonial in general were, at that time, not defined between countries, until the Vienna Rules of 1815, there used to be some incidents in Dubrovnik as well. Amongst the various handbooks in the Secretariat there was also a book called *Titolario*. It contained their full names and titles and a denotation of how the person concerned should be addressed, of how a letter should be commenced and ended, provided that all letters from Dubrovnik bore the signature: the Rector and the councillors of the Republic of Dubrovnik.

VII.6. Mission Termination

As is the case in contemporary diplomacy, it was also the practice in the past that the diplomatic mission of a permanent (regular) diplomatic representative of Dubrovnik ended for regular reasons (expiry of office) or extraordinary reasons (withdrawal, dismissal and the like), whilst the one of extraordinary (*ad hoc*) representatives terminated primarily upon completion of the particular task concerned. Diplomatic representatives could return to Dubrovnik only upon permission of the Senate (permission *licentia redeundi*).

Under a decision of March 6th 1498 the Great Council laid down that the instructions which the diplomatic representative received had to be read and discussed in the Senate before a note of dismissal was issued to an extraordinary diplomatic representative, with the right of every council member to lodge an objection. Upon their return to Dubrovnik, extraordinary *poklisari* had to submit an oral, and since 1571, also a written final report which was kept confidential. After the discussion on the mission, in which each senator had the right to express his personal view, and which would last for several months, the Senate would issue a dismissal note to extraordinary *poklisari*, sometimes with a special citation, if the mission was very successful. If the mission did not end successfully, the Senate would instigate an investigation.

VIII. Conclusion

The Republic of Dubrovnik was a unique phenomenon of European history and international relations. A small and free South-Croatian state survived amongst powerful neighbours for over four and a half centuries primarily due to its successful diplomacy. Already in the 13th century Dubrovnik had a developed diplomatic and consular service in terms of which it was, over the centuries, equal to Venice and other states. Dubrovnik's diplomatic service was a key element for the existence and prosperity of the Republic of Dubrovnik; it belonged to the most developed of the time. It was in particular Dubrovnik's consular service that largely contributed not only to the development of the institute of honorary consular representatives, but also to the European consular service in general.

Peacefulness, good cooperation and relations with its neighbours and all others, neutrality in international conflicts, negotiations and keeping allies at various sides, the development of commercial relations, devotion of each of its subjects and the positioning of state interests above personal ones were the principles of Dubrovnik's diplomacy which laid the ground for the several centuries long existence of the Republic of Dubrovnik, the result of which was that no battles were fought from the middle of the 15th century before Dubrovnik's fortifications and that no enemy army entered the city before 1806.

Even though it was permanently threatened by its various external enemies, the Republic of Dubrovnik managed to achieve centuries-long independence as the only autonomous and sovereign Croatian state from the middle of the 14th until the beginning of the 19th century.

Conclusion: The Diplomacy of the Republic of Dubrovnik represents one of the most developed and sophisticated diplomatic service of its time and at the same time a key source of Croatian diplomatic tradition.⁶

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⁶ An extraordinary large source of materials on diplomacy, almost all relevant documents of the Republic of Dubrovnik, have throughout its existence been preserved in the Dubrovnik State Archives.

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APPENDICES

10th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum 2007 – Programme & Report

11th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum 2008 – Programme & Report

12th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum 2009 – Programme & Report

Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum, 1998 - 2010



**10th CEI DUBROVNIK DIPLOMATIC FORUM
LIFELONG LEARNING AND DIPLOMACY
Dubrovnik, Croatia, 14 -17 May 2007
Organised by Diplomatic Academy
Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of Croatia**

PROGRAMME

May 14 – Day 1

08:30 - 09:00 **Registration of the participants, Centre for
Advanced Academic Studies,
Don Frana Bulića 4, Dubrovnik**

09:00 - 09:30 **OPENING OF THE SEMINAR**

Welcome speeches:

Dr. Mladen Andrić, Director, Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, Zagreb, Croatia

Mr. Harald Kreid, Director General, CEI Executive Secretariat, Trieste, Italy

Ms. Ivana Burdelez, Director, Centre for Advanced Academic Studies, Dubrovnik, Croatia

MORNING SESSION

**CONCEPTS AND OBJECTIVES OF
LIFELONG LEARNING**

09:30 - 10:30 **Dr. Petar Turčinović** - Croatian Ambassador to Montenegro, former Director of the Diplomatic Academy, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia

- “Importance of Lifelong Learning in a Modern Society as well as in the Field of Diplomacy (as applied in the current programmes of the Croatian DA)”
- 10:30 - 11:00** Family Photo in the Courtyard / Coffee break
- 11:00 - 12:00** EU Commissioner for Education, Training, Culture and Multilingualism or other EU representative
“Lifelong Learning Programme for the Knowledge Society”
- 12:00 - 13:00** CEI Executive Secretariat - representative
“CEI University Network - goals and challenges”
Discussion
- 13:00 - 14:00** Lunch break
- AFTERNOON SESSION**
LIFELONG LEARNING AND DIPLOMACY
- 14:00 - 15:30** **Dr. Svjetlan Berković, Croatian Ambassador to Sweden**
“Lifelong Learning and Diplomatic Profession”
- 15:30 - 16:00** Coffee break
- 16:00 - 17:15** **Prof. Jan Melissen, Director of Diplomatic Studies Programme at the Netherlands Institute of International Relations *Clingendael***
“New Trends in Diplomacy”
- 17:15 - 17:30** Coffee break
- 17:30 - 18:30** **Mr. Željko Vukosav, Head of Department for Diplomatic Training and Publishing, Diplomatic Academy, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia**
“Economic Diplomacy - Adapting to Imminent National Goals, Croatian Experience”
Discussion
- 20:00** Dinner

May 15 – Day 2

LIFELONG LEARNING IN A GLOBALISED WORLD

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| 09:00 - 10:30 | <p>Dr. Pero Lučin, Member of the Croatian negotiating team for the accession to EU, responsible for the Chapter on Science and Education</p> <p>“Science and Education for a Knowledge Society - Case of Croatia”</p> <p>Discussion</p> |
| 10:30 - 11:00 | <p>Coffee break</p> |
| 11:00 - 13:00 | <p>Dr. Jovan Kurbalija, Director of DiploFoundation, Msida, Malta</p> <p>“Diplomacy and Knowledge Management”</p> <p>Discussion</p> |
| 13:00 - 14:00 | <p>Lunch break</p> |
| CHANGES IN DIPLOMATIC TRAINING | |
| 14:00 - 15:30 | <p>Dr. John Hemery, Director of the Centre for Political and Diplomatic Studies, Great Britain</p> <p>“Innovations in Diplomatic Training”</p> <p>Discussion</p> |
| 15:30 - 16:00 | <p>Coffee break</p> |
| 16:00 - 18:30 | <p>Dr. Jovan Kurbalija, Director of DiploFoundation, Msida, Malta</p> <p>“Applying Modern Teaching Skills and Techniques in Diplomatic Training - brainstorming, teamwork, negotiating techniques, etc.”</p> <p>Discussion</p> |
| 19:00 - 20:00 | <p>Visit to Dubrovnik Archives – Sponza Palace</p> |
| 20:15 | <p>Dinner</p> |

May 16 – Day 3

09:30 - 12:00 MORNING SESSION

Workshop – Creating Ideal DA Programmes

(goal: identifying strengths and weaknesses, emphasising current needs, contents to be included and values to be developed)

Moderators- Dr. Petar Turčinović, Dr. John Hemery, Centre for Political and Diplomatic Studies, Dr. Jovan Kurbalija, DiploFoundation

10:00 - 10:20 Coffee break

12:00 - 13:00 Lunch break

13:10 - 15:15 **Sightseeing of Dubrovnik**

15:30 - 17:00 **Lifelong Learning and Diplomacy – Best Practices and Experiences**
Participants from CEI member countries are invited to present situation in their countries

17:00 - 17:30 Coffee break

17:30 - 19:00 **LLL&D - Best practices and experiences – continuation and discussion**

20:00 Dinner

May 17 - Day 4

09:00 - 10:00 **Dr. Elisabeth Hofer, Director of the studies, Diplomatic Academy, Vienna, Austria**
“Career Development and Lifelong Training as a Tool on the Road to the EU and as a Concept in the Development of a European Diplomacy”

10:00 - 10:45 **Mr. Tihomir Žiljak, expert, lecturer at Public Open University Zagreb, Croatia**
“The role of LLL in Croatian Educational Policy”

10:45-11:00 Coffee break

- 11:00 - 12:30** **Ms. Efka Heder, international expert, ETF-
European Training Foundation**
“Vocational Education and Training as a means of
LLL strategy”
- 12:30 - 13:30** Lunch
- 13:30 - 15:00** **Concluding remarks – Director of Diplomatic
Academy, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia**
Evaluation of the Forum
Handing over of Certificates of Attendance
- 15:00 - 17:30** Trip to the island of Lokrum
- 19:00 - 20:00** Dinner

Departure of the participants

REPORT

on the 10th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum “Lifelong Learning and Diplomacy” Dubrovnik, Croatia, 14 – 15 May 2007

Summary: The international event of the CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum on “Lifelong Learning and Diplomacy” in Dubrovnik, 14-15 May 2007, was organised by the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of the Republic of Croatia, with the support of the Central European Initiative. The Forum was attended by 28 participants from 13 countries of the Central European Initiative and two participants from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Afghanistan. Keynote speakers at the Forum were prominent Croatian and international diplomats and experts in diplomacy, lifelong learning and education in general. At the end of the Forum, attendants were issued certificates of participation.

1. The Forum was officially opened by **Mr. Željko Kuprešak**, State Secretary at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration, **Ambassador Harald Kreid**, Director of the Executive Secretariat of the CEI, **Mrs. Ivana Burđelez**, Director of the Dubrovnik Advanced Academic Studies, the venue of the event, and **Mr. Željko Vukosav**, Head of Department at the Diplomatic Academy of the Republic of Croatia. They all noted the importance and necessity of lifelong learning and education in today’s globalised world of quick changes, as well as the importance of permanent improvement in diplomacy.

2. The work of the Forum was organised in keynote presentations, discussions and workshops. Keynote speakers were prominent experts, scholars and diplomats. The Forum introduced a number of topics related to education and lifelong learning, the importance of modern trends in diplomacy, changes within ministries of foreign affairs, and changes in the programs of diplomatic education and training. Several examples of lifelong learning in CEI countries were presented, as well as examples of education and training at several diplomatic academies.

3. The introductory lecture on the “**Importance of Lifelong Learning in Modern Society and Diplomacy**” was presented by **Dr. Petar Turčinović**, **Croatian Ambassador** to Montenegro and the former Director of the Diplomatic Academy of MFAEI, who specifically underlined that we live in a world of quick changes requiring quick adaptation in all areas. The only option is education focusing on the integral system of education and lifelong learning, as recognised and heavily funded by the EU. Speaking of the changes Dr. Turčinović stressed

that there are many questions that will need to be answered by the diplomats of the 21st century, and in this context he pointed out the need for a good and continuous education of modern diplomats.

The second lecture was presented by **Dr. Harald Kreid, General Director of the Executive Secretariat of the CEI**, who spoke about the support provided by the CEI for the programs of education and training, saying that most operative activities of the CEI are related to training. He also said that the CEI supported lifelong learning, and that most attendants of the CEI-led activities have already completed their formal education and are undergoing further training. The third lecture on “**New Trends in Diplomacy and their Effect on Diplomatic Training**” was presented by **Ambassador Karl Paschke**. Ambassador Paschke highlighted the importance of formal education for young diplomats who should be made familiar with the specific features and requirements of the diplomatic profession, as well as continuously learn the skills needed in the diplomatic profession such as communication, negotiation, writing reports, team work, foreign languages etc. However, considering the many changes occurring in the international context, the quantity of information, the communication between the ministries and missions, he stressed the need for further training of *mid-career* diplomats. He also stressed the importance of public diplomacy and communication skills.

The last keynote speaker on the first day was **Dr. Svjetlan Berković, Croatian Ambassador** to Sweden, who spoke about “**Diplomacy of the Republic of Ragusa**” and “**Lifelong Learning and Diplomatic Profession**”. In his first lecture Dr. Berković presented an overview of the diplomacy of the Republic of Ragusa from 13th to 19th century, which can serve as a good example of how a small state can use diplomacy to protect its independence and sovereignty. In his second lecture Dr. Berković underlined that diplomats need to be familiar with the basic diplomatic areas and possess specific personal qualities.

4. On the second day, **Dr. Irena Krasnicka, Director of the Diplomatic Academy of the MFA of the Czech Republic** presented her lecture on “**Lifelong Education of Diplomats of the Czech Republic**”. Dr. Krasnicka said that 83 % of the new staff joined the MFA of the Czech Republic after 1989, which put a great strain on the training of diplomats. The Diplomatic Academy has existed for 10 years now, providing professional education for diplomats, which is a requirement to become 1st Secretary and Counsellor. In the opinion of Dr. Krasnicka, diplomatic courses improve horizontal communication within the Ministry, but the training in communication skills is still inadequate.

The next lecture on “**Career Development and Lifelong Learning as a Means on the Way to the EU and a Concept of Development of European**

Diplomacy” was presented by **Dr. Elisabeth Hofer, Director of the studies at the Diplomatic Academy in Vienna**. Dr. Hofer introduced the operation of the Diplomatic Academy in Vienna, established 250 years ago, and the variety of training courses adjusted to different target groups, from the MFA of Austria to postgraduate studies for young diplomats from all over the world. She further stressed the topics and areas which are important for the lifelong learning and diplomacy such as: EU enlargement, reform of EU institutions, decision-making process, development of the European diplomatic service, globalisation, environmental changes, terrorism, proliferation, migration, noting that diplomatic academies have the opportunity to become institutions of lifelong learning if they are flexible enough to adapt to new situations and quickly respond to international demands.

5. The other part of the day was dedicated to changes in diplomatic training, with two lectures: **“Innovation in Diplomatic Training”** was presented by **Dr. John Hemery, Director of the Oxford Centre for Political and Diplomatic Studies**. Dr. Hemery pointed out that appropriate training should help a diplomat deal with current issues, focusing on priorities, teaching him/her the newest knowledge and skills in using information. He believes that lifelong learning should be flexible and, if need be, organised in short and concentrated modules from 3 to 10 days, and they should also include *mid-career* diplomats. Five main areas of importance to diplomatic training are: 1. consular affairs, 2. crisis management, 3. public diplomacy, 4. climatic changes and 5. multilateral diplomacy. The second lecture on **“Diplomacy and Knowledge Management”** was presented by **Dr. Jovan Kurbalija, Director of DiploFoundation from Geneva**. Dr. Kurbalija specified the great potentials of using information technology in modern diplomacy. He stressed the importance and effectiveness of *e-learning* in training diplomats.

6. The third day there were workshops whose purpose was to arrive at an ideal program of diplomatic training, which is the Work Program of Diplomatic Academy. Following the initial *brainstorming*, participants were divided into three groups, and each group attempted a different approach to this task. **The first group**, headed by Dr. J. Kurbalija, arrived at four areas in which particular attention should be paid to diplomatic training: 1. Practice (solving problems in practice), 2. Personal qualities, 3. Skills and 4. Knowledge. In addition, they believe that consular affairs have been neglected in the programs of diplomatic academies, and that diplomatic training should develop knowledge of one’s own country, and intercultural communication as knowledge and skill.

The second group headed by Dr. P. Turčinović arrived at the following categories necessary for having a good and successful diplomatic academy: selection of the best candidates, good training program, lifelong improvement

and *online* learning, and - fourth - excellent management. It is necessary to set up the precise measures and goals for each category.

The third group headed by Dr. J. Hemery believes that a good organisation of training requires to bear in mind the purposes, e.g. of the EU integration. Bearing this in mind they noted three categories to be taken into account when setting up programs for diplomatic academies: 1. Skills, 2. Qualities (values) and 3. Knowledge. They believe they would prefer a training department to a diplomatic academy, because for most countries it is less costly to hire external experts. They favour learning by doing and propose that the first step in diplomatic learning should be an introductory course lasting up to 6 months, combined with practical work. They propose *tailor-made* courses, and would make part of the training for mid-career diplomats compulsory.

Then the participants presented the situation in the countries they came from. It was apparent from the presentations that most of the neighbouring countries (except Slovenia) have within their ministries separate units dealing with diplomatic training. In most countries initial diplomatic courses or studies lasting from 4 months to 2 years and language courses are provided to beginners, and most countries make effort to provide shorter courses for mid-career diplomats.

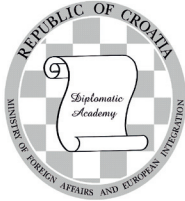
7. On the last day, three lectures were presented by two speakers from Croatia and Mrs. Heder of the European Training Foundation. **Dr. Pero Lučin**, a member of the Croatian team for negotiations with the EU in charge of the chapter on science and education, spoke about “**Science and Education for Knowledge Society**” in which he mentioned that more investment in education and research was planned, and that the plan envisaged 50,000 science doctors by 2025 who should carry the development of the society. He also spoke about the inadequate use of IT and young generations learning in a different way.

Mr. Tihomir Žiljak, and expert lecturer at Public Open University Zagreb, presented his lecture on the “**Role of Lifelong Education in Croatian Education Policy**”, in which he said that there is a large number of the (long-term) unemployed in Croatia, and that lifelong learning can be a means to overcome this problem. **Mrs. Efka Heder**, an expert of the European Training Foundation in Torino, spoke about “**Vocational Education and Training as a Means in the Strategy of Lifelong Learning**”. She noted that the basics of the Lisbon Strategy include education, which should provide competitiveness, economic development, jobs and better social cohesion of the society. Mrs. Heder spoke about the strategy of vocational education and training in the EU, and about the priorities of the vocational education in transition countries.

8. Participants of the Forum filled out a survey to evaluate the following aspects of the Forum: timely manner of information and communication

with participants, seminar content, quality of lectures and lecturers, venue, accommodation and organisation. In regard of these categories questions were asked to which participants answered by choosing a number on a scale from one to five. Most of the categories mentioned were evaluated highly, with additional remarks and proposals that need to be taken into account in the organisation of further similar events. In regard of the program content and keynote speakers, participants asked for more discussion time, individual presentations and workshops.

The most frequently commended keynote was “Innovation in Diplomatic Training” by **Dr. J. Hemery** who scored best with the participants. In addition to Dr Hemery participants also commended **Dr. J. Kurbalija**, Director of DiploFoundation from Geneva, and **Ambassador K. Paschke**. Participants evaluated other keynote speakers highly as well, saying their expertise and experience considerably contributed to the success of the meeting. The observations related to further training particularly referred to *e-learning*, distance learning, quick learning programs. We believe that these and similar topics should be considered in selecting the next focus for a future event organised by the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of the Republic of Croatia.



**11th CEI DUBROVNIK DIPLOMATIC FORUM
“Diplomatic Training and Regional Co-operation”
Dubrovnik, Croatia, April 17-19, 2008**

PROGRAMME

Thursday, April 17th – Day 1

08:30 - 09:00

Registration of the participants

Centre for Advanced Academic Studies (CAAS),
Don Frana Bulića 4, Dubrovnik

09:00 - 09:45

**Opening of the 2008 CEI Dubrovnik
Diplomatic Forum**

Welcome addresses:

Ms. Ivana Burđelez, MA, Director of the CAAS, Dubrovnik, Croatia

Mr. Đuro Market, Member of the City Board of Dubrovnik, Croatia

Ms. Dinka Živalj, Adviser to the Secretary General of the Regional
Cooperation Council (RCC), Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina

H.E. Dr. Pietro Ercole Ago, Secretary General of the CEI Executive
Secretariat, Trieste, Italy

H.E. Mr. Željko Kuprešak, MA, State Secretary for European Integration,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration (MFAEI), Zagreb,
Croatia

09:45 - 12:15

**1st Session: Diplomatic Training and Regional
Co-operation in Europe, particularly in the CEI
area**

Moderators: H.E. Dr. Pietro Ercole Ago, Secretary General, CEI Executive Secretariat, Trieste, Italy; H.E. Mr Željko Kuprešak, MA, State Secretary for European Integration, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia

09:45 - 10:15 “Regional Co-operation in an Ever Greater Europe: Some Reflections from a ‘New’ Member State”, H.E. Dr. Peter Györkös, Hungarian Ambassador in Zagreb

10:15 - 10:45 “Diplomatic Training and Regional Co-operation: Some Current Issues”, H.E. Dr. Mladen Andrić, Director, Diplomatic Academy, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia

10:45 - 11:15 Family Photo in the Courtyard & Coffee break

11:15 - 11:45 “Regional Co-operation in the EU Context: from the SP-SEE to the SEECF/RCC”, Ms. Tea Karaman, National Co-ordinator for the CEI, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia

11:45 - 12:15 Comments and discussion

12:15 - 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 16:15 **2nd Session: Diplomatic Training in Europe and European Diplomatic Training**

Moderators: H.E. Dr. Lisen Bashkurti, President of the Albanian Diplomatic Academy, Tirana; Mr. Zoran Vodopija, Head of Department for Political Analysis, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia

14:00 - 14:30 “European Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training”, Dr. Gerhard Reiweger, Deputy Director, Diplomatic Academy of Vienna, Austria

14:30 - 15:00 “Defence Public Diplomacy: Image Projection and Reputation Management”, Prof. Dr. Nabil Ayad, Director, Diplomatic Academy of London, University of Westminster, UK

15:00 - 15:30 ”International Law and Modern Diplomacy”, H.E. Dr. Stanko Nick, Zagreb, Croatia

15:30 - 16:00 Comments and discussion

16:15 - 18:00 **Sightseeing of Dubrovnik – Guided tour**

20:00 Dinner

Friday, April 18th – Day 2
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09:00 - 12:30 **3rd Session: Diplomatic Training: Regional and Country Cases**

Moderators: Dr. Gerhard Reiweger, Deputy Director, Diplomatic Academy of Vienna, Austria; Dr. Ivan Šimonović, Vice-Rector for International Co-operation, University of Zagreb, Croatia

09:00 - 10:00 “Diplomatic Training in the CEI Area and its Comparative Background”, Prof. Dr. Armando Marques Guedes, President, Diplomatic Institute, MFA, Lisbon, Portugal

10:00 - 10:30 “New Trends in Diplomatic Training: Bilateral and Multilateral Issues”, Prof. Dr. Milan Milanov, Director, Diplomatic Institute, MFA, Sofia, Bulgaria

10:30 - 11:00 Comments and discussion

11:00 - 11:30 Coffee break

11:30 - 12:00 “Online Diplomatic Training in Regional Context”, Dr. Jovan Kurbalija, Director, DiploFoundation, Geneva, Switzerland

12:00 - 12:30 Comments and discussion

12:30 - 14:00 Lunch

14:00 - 17:15 **4th Session: Diplomatic Training: Regional and Country Cases**

Moderators: Ms. Ivana Burđelez, Director, CAAS, Dubrovnik, Croatia; Prof. Dr. Raymond Saner, Director, Diplomatic Dialogue/CSEND, Geneva, Switzerland

14:00 - 14:30 “Diplomacy of the Republic of Dubrovnik: Historical Case of Regional Co-operation and Diplomatic Skills”, H.E. Dr. Svjetlan Berković, Croatian Ambassador in Stockholm

14:30 - 14:45 “German Political Foundations in CEE and Diplomatic Training”, Mrs. Aleksandra Markić-Boban, Head of the Office-Croatia, Hanns-Seidel Foundation, Zagreb

- 14:45 - 15:00** “Winter Diplomatic School: Bulgarian Experience”, Dr. Violeta Karaivanova, Head of the Training Department, Diplomatic Institute, MFA, Sofia, Bulgaria
- 15:00 - 15:30** Comments and discussion
- 15:30 - 15:45** Coffee break
- 15:45 - 16:15** “Diplomatic Training in Albania”, H.E. Dr. Lisen Bashkurti, President, Albanian Diplomatic Academy, Tirana
- 16:15 - 16:45** “Challenges of Establishing a New Diplomatic Service”, H.E. Milivoje Baletić, Director of the Diplomatic Academy “Gavro Vuković”, MFA, Podgorica, Montenegro
- 16:45 - 17:15** Comments and discussion
- 17:15 - 18:30** **Round-table on the Prospects for Fostering Regional Diplomatic Training in South Eastern Europe**
- Moderators: H.E. Milivoje Baletić, Director, Diplomatic Academy “Gavro Vuković”, MFA, Podgorica, Montenegro; H.E. Dr. Mladen Andrić, Director of the Diplomatic Academy, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia
- Meeting of directors and other representatives of the diplomatic academies and/or institutes from the SEE countries, open to all participants of the CEI Forum
- 19:00** Dinner

Saturday, April 19th – Day 3
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09:00 - 11:00 **5th Session: Some Prospects for Regional Diplomatic Training**

Moderators: Dr. Aldo Mateucci, Senior Fellow, DiploFoundation, Geneva, Switzerland; Ms. Tea Karaman, Croatian National Co-ordinator for CEI, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia

09:00 - 09:30 “Training Diplomats in Management, Leadership and Negotiations with Non-State Actors”, Prof. Dr. Raymond Saner, Director, Diplomacy Dialogue/ CSEND, Geneva, Switzerland

09:30 - 10:00 “Business and Diplomatic Ethics”, Mr. Igor Pokaz, MA, Head of the CEO’s Office, Atlantic Group, Zagreb, Croatia

10:00 - 10:30 Comments and discussion

10:30 - 11:00 Coffee break

11:00 - 12:30 **Closing Session of the 2008 CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum**

Moderators: H. E. Dr. Harald Kreid, Alternate Secretary General of the CEI Executive Secretariat, Trieste, Italy; Prof. Dr. Milan Milanov, Director, Diplomatic Institute, MFA, Sofia, Bulgaria

– an additional discussion on the contents and findings of the CEI Forum just before being closed, with an introductory of the Alternate Director General of the CEI and brief summaries of young diplomats from the CEI member states, open to all participants of the CEI Forum

11:00 - 11:30 “The CEI in the Context of Regional Co-operation and as an Instrument for the Training of Diplomats“, H.E. Dr. Harald Kreid, Alternate Secretary General, CEI Executive Secretariat, Trieste, Italy

11:30 – 12:00 Presentations of young diplomats from the CEI member states

12:00 – 12:30 Comments, discussion and concluding remarks of the organisers

12:30 - 14:00 Lunch

(Free time)

Departure of the participants

REPORT

on the 11th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum “Diplomatic Training and Regional Co-operation” Dubrovnik, Croatia, 17 – 19 April 2008

Summary: The 11th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum on “Diplomatic Training and Regional Co-operation”, organized by the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of the Republic of Croatia with the support of the Central European Initiative (CEI), traditionally took place at the Centre for Advanced Academic Studies (CAAS) in Dubrovnik from 17–19 April 2008. With 38 participants from 15 countries, 12 of them members of the CEI, including high representatives of the CEI and the Regional Cooperation Council (RCC), the 11th Forum was dedicated to diplomatic training and impacts of regional co-operation, particularly in the CEI area.

1. The Forum was officially opened by **State Secretary Mr. Željko Kuprešak** on behalf of the MFAEI of the Republic of Croatia, and **Ambassador Dr. Pietro Ercole Ago**, Secretary General of the CEI Executive Secretariat. The participants were also welcomed by **Ms. Dinka Živalj**, Adviser to the Secretary General of the RCC, **Mr. Đuro Market**, Member of the Dubrovnik City Council, and **Ms. Ivana Burđelez**, Director of the CAAS Dubrovnik.

2. The Forum was attended by diplomats and other experts in the field of international relations, foreign affairs and diplomacy, representatives of diplomatic education and training institutions from the CEI member states and other European countries. As usual, the CEI and the Croatian Diplomatic Academy also endeavoured to ensure the participation of as many young diplomats as possible to offer them an opportunity to learn and actively participate in the activities at the Forum. The three-day gathering was divided into five sessions conducted in the form of lectures and discussions, with a round table on the prospects of fostering diplomatic training in Southeast Europe.

3. Session I - “**Diplomatic Training and Regional Co-operation in Europe, Particularly in the CEI Area**” was dedicated to diplomatic training and the need for regional cooperation in the area, not only as regards the CEI member states, but also in a wider European context. This was confirmed by **Dr. Peter Györkös**, the Hungarian Ambassador to the Republic of Croatia, in his lecture in which he emphasised the important role of diplomacy in cross-border

cooperation as well as in wider regional cooperation networks in various areas. Ambassador Györkös especially underlined regional cooperation programs and initiatives as opportunities to contribute to better economic development, mutual understanding and transfer of experience.

Ambassador Dr. Mladen Andrić, Director of the Croatian Diplomatic Academy, provided an introductory explanation of the correlation between diplomatic training and regional cooperation, stressing the relevance of education to the progress and mutual understanding in the 21st century as reflected in the necessity of lifelong learning, as well as the opportunities for regional and sub-regional cooperation in the CEI area among the countries that share the same social, political and economic values and setting, particularly in the EU environment with its standards and criteria.

Ms. Tea Karaman, National Co-ordinator of the Republic of Croatia for the CEI, drew attention to the high level of participation of Croatia in diverse forms of regional cooperation. The practice thus far points to a scarcity of experts who would be included in the cooperation in a suitable manner, as well as the need for agreement in order to avoid overlapping and duplication of activities. Ms Karaman expressed her belief that smaller countries should be more active in creating regional policy, running counter to the often present imposed forms of co-operation and problems.

4. In Session II - “**Diplomatic Training in Europe and European Diplomatic Training**”, **Dr. Gerhard Reiweger**, Deputy Director of the Diplomatic Academy in Vienna, spoke about the need to develop concepts for training of future EU diplomats bearing in mind that the Lisbon Treaty establishing, among other things, diplomatic service, should come into force in 2009. In his discourse Dr. Reiweger drew attention to a number of questions that should be answered and/or activities to be engaged in so that the preparations for the forthcoming, demanding and certainly very challenging job would be carried out well. Some of the questions which need to be answered are: should the existing staff be included in training; what qualifications should be required from the persons recruited into service; finances; who shall be in charge of the education; what about outsourcing.

The second speaker, **Dr. Nabil Ayad**, Director of the Diplomatic Academy of London, University of Westminster, who spoke about the great change in diplomacy and in the communication today, underlined the role of the media and the quantity of information being processed on a daily basis. The importance of communication and of “projection the desired image” brings to the term of public diplomacy, which has become very relevant today and Dr. Ayad holds that training in public diplomacy should be the most important part of the diplomatic training. In the conclusion of Session II, **Ambassador Dr. Stanko Nick**

(Croatia) spoke about international law and modern diplomacy, using a number of examples from his rich practice to underscore today's high interrelation and mutual relevance of law and diplomacy in the current conditions of the EU.

5. The keynote speaker in Session III - **“Diplomatic Training: Regional and Country Cases”** was **Professor Dr. Armando Marques Guedes**, President of the Diplomatic Institute of the MFA of the Portuguese Republic, provided an introductory lecture on **“Diplomatic Training in the CEI Area and Its Comparative Background”** in which he presented diplomatic training in several CEI countries in great detail, including an overview of the historical development of diplomacy and related diplomatic training in these countries. Professor Marques Guedes underlined the common historical heritage, for example from the period of the Habsburg Monarchy, the communist regime and of the transition, as well as of the current affiliation with the EU, or regarding the status of accession countries and/or countries aspiring to EU membership. All this, however, Professor Marques Guedes holds, does not make an adequate basis for a systematic, intensive and demanding diplomatic training that can only be afforded by a number of countries we can consider as global players, while most CEI states are not in a position to commit to diplomatic training in the afore-mentioned manner. However, what can be done by diplomatic training establishments in harmonizing their activities under current circumstances, the insufficient political and financial dependency on the ministry or the central government, includes: a better and more intensified cooperation and exchange of information and possibly also of “interns” among the ministries of CEI member states, following the example of other countries such as the U.K. and Germany, the exchange of experience, harmonization and prevention of overlapping.

Professor Dr. Milan Milanov, Director of the Diplomatic Institute of the MFA of the Republic of Bulgaria, spoke about new trends in diplomatic training as regards bilateral and multilateral issues, referring to the experience of the Bulgarian Diplomatic Institute before and after joining the EU. The closing lecture of the session was given by **Dr. Jovan Kurbalija**, Director of the DiploFoundation from Geneva, on the subject of **“Online Diplomatic Training in Regional Context”**, where the importance of modern technologies and the Internet as ever more present in learning and using information and data today was stressed. However, in his opinion, the frequent situation in which users learn about a subject by performing internet searches is not comparable to the situation in which users learn by means of specialized online courses, i.e. education in which the learning subject matter has been processed from the aspects of pedagogy and didactics by experts, using modern technologies so that the user receives the maximum benefit from new technologies by making the knowledge acquired in this manner readily applicable. For this reasons he advocates the on-

line support for a diplomatic training that is being already developed within the DiploFoundation.

6. During the Session IV the discussion on the same topic continued - **“Diplomatic Training: Regional and Country Cases”**, and several cases were presented, including the keynote of **Dr. Svjetlan Berković**, Croatian **Ambassador** to the Kingdom of Sweden, on **“Diplomacy of the Dubrovnik Republic: Historical Example of Regional Cooperation and Diplomatic Skills”**. Dr. Berković presented a number of characteristics of the Dubrovnik Republic and its medieval diplomacy that was surprisingly well developed and extensive as well as mature and prudent for its time. Once again international diplomatic events presented a special occasion to make international professional circles familiar with historical facts, and it was interesting to see the great attention paid by diplomats and scientists concerned with diplomacy and diplomatic training to the lecture on diplomacy in the Dubrovnik Republic, the diplomatic representatives of that time, their preparations, as well as the cities and countries that Dubrovnik had diplomatic ties and relations with and in which it had diplomatic missions at the time.

A lecture on **“Challenges of Establishing a New Diplomatic Service”** was given by **Ambassador Dr. Milivoje Baletić**, Director of the Diplomatic Academy “Gavro Vuković” of the MFA of Montenegro, who discussed not only the challenges faced by one of the youngest European nations in establishing its foreign service, but also training of its diplomatic staff and preparing young diplomats for the service. Ambassador Dr Baletić underlined the achievements of their “young” Diplomatic Academy where several groups have already been provided the basic diplomatic training with the assistance of domestic as well as of foreign, particularly regional experts. Several other cases from different countries with organised diplomatic training, including regional or cross-border co-operation, were also presented.

Mrs. Aleksandra Markić-Boban, Director of the Office of the Hanns Seidel Foundation in the Republic of Croatia, presented diplomatic training projects conducted in collaboration with diplomatic training institutions in some of the CEI member states as a contribution to the general political education and development of democracy. The international diplomatic seminars began in 1999 with the Diplomatic Academy of the MFA of the Republic of Croatia, and the 10th joint seminar on the European integration processes is taking place in October 2008. In recent years, such seminars have also been organised in Bulgaria, Serbia and Ukraine. The Bulgarian experience in organising and implementing the Winter Diplomatic School was presented by

Dr. Violeta Karaivanova, Head of the Diplomatic Training Department in the Bulgarian Diplomatic Institute, who introduced this 7-day conference

organized by their Institute and co-organized by the Hanns Seidel Foundation, as well as by the European Academy from Berlin and the German MFA. The annual conference attended by 24 young diplomats from SEE and Black Sea countries is dedicated to European integration, regional cooperation and security issues.

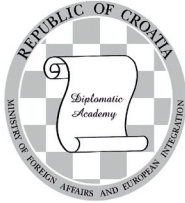
“Diplomatic training in Albania” was presented by **Dr. Lisen Bashkurti**, President of the Albanian Diplomatic Academy, who stressed the importance of the concept of diplomatic training and its relation to regional and transborder cooperation and briefly presented the case of Albania, particularly the framework of the Diplomatic Academy of the MFA as well as of the Albanian Diplomatic Academy which is a non-governmental organisation being also active outside Albania, with experience in training Macedonian diplomats (ethnic Albanians) and in the preparations for establishing foreign service of Kosovo and training the future staff, thus contributing to regional cooperation and development of good neighbourly relations and of the neighbouring countries.

7. During the Forum, there was a special **“Round table on the prospects for improving diplomatic training in Southeast Europe (SEE)”** that gave the opportunity to the heads of diplomatic training institutions from Albania, Bulgaria, Croatia and Montenegro to present the their country cases as well as proposals for the improvement of regional cooperation. The common denominator and the starting point for further cooperation was recognised in the process of approaching the EU membership by all SEE countries, as well as in the context of the simultaneous establishment of EU diplomacy, regarding which all the participants declared their interest in further intensive exchange of ideas, information and experience. They mentioned coordination of diplomatic training programs, particularly in technical areas such as diplomatic and consular law, diplomatic protocol and also regarding the skills and techniques of public, economic and cultural diplomacy, which could be facilitated by more targeted exchange of programs and lecturers. In this regard further exchange of views between the directors of diplomatic academies was agreed in principle, to be followed up at the upcoming international diplomatic conference in Bulgaria in October 2008. It was also agreed that in the future some diplomatic seminars for junior diplomats from Central, Eastern and SEE that are organised every year in Bulgaria, Croatia, Serbia and Ukraine under the sponsorship of Hanns Seidel Foundation, e.g. at least one lecture with discussion, should be dedicated to the exchange of diplomatic experience of SEE states in practice and training.

8. In the final discussion on **“The prospects for regional diplomatic training”**, **Professor Dr. Raymond Saner**, Director of the CSEND from Geneva, gave a lecture on training diplomats in management, leadership and negotiations with non-state actors, which is becoming increasingly important and present as the characteristics of “traditional” diplomacy gradually disappear. In

the second lecture, **Ambassador Dr. Harald Kreid**, Alternate Director General of the CEI Executive Secretariat and former CEI Director General, spoke about the changes within the CEI framework which should result in improved and more efficient cooperation and utilization of funds. In this context, a number of areas were reduced by means of cooperation among working groups, annual meetings, together with a concurrent increase of financial funds to be used by other CEI member states.

Ambassador Dr. Kreid elaborated on the other part of his lecture's title "**The CEI in the Context of Regional Cooperation and as an Instrument for the Training of Diplomats**" by disputing that the CEI had a role in training diplomats, with a restriction to merely indirect participation in diplomatic training, for example in supporting this forum as well as some activities of the Diplomatic Academy in Vienna. However, he added that since its establishment the CEI has provided opportunities for civil servants and diplomats from Eastern, Central and Southeast Europe to participate in multilateral environments and acquire relevant experience.



12th CEI DUBROVNIK DIPLOMATIC FORUM
“Modern European Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training”
Dubrovnik, Croatia, 7-9 May 2009

PROGRAMME

Day 1: Thursday, 7 May 2009

08:30 - 09:00 **Registration of the participants**
Centre for Advanced Academic Studies (CAAS),
Don Frana Bulića 4, Dubrovnik

09:00 - 09:45 **Opening of the 2009 CEI Dubrovnik
Diplomatic Forum**

Welcome addresses:

Ms. Vlasta Brunsko, Head of the CAAS Office, Dubrovnik, Croatia
High Representative of the City Board of Dubrovnik, Croatia
H.E. Dr. Gerhard Pfanzelter, Alternate Secretary General, CEI Executive
Secretariat, Trieste, Italy
H.E. Mr. Aleksandar Heina, Director for Europe and North America,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration (MFAEI), Zgreb,
Croatia

09:45 - 12:45 **1st Session - European Dipomacy and
Diplomatic Training**

Moderators: H.E. Dr. Mladen Andrić, Dr. Irena Krasnicka,
H.E. Dr. Gerhard Pfanzelter

- 09:45 - 10:00** 12th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum:
Introductory Remarks - H.E.
Dr. Mladen Andrić, Director, Diplomatic
Academy, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia
- 10:00 - 10:30** Diplomatic Training: a View from the EU Presidency
– Dr. Irena Krasnicka, Director, Diplomatic Academy,
MFA, Prague, Czech Republic
- 10:30 - 11:00** Family photo in the courtyard & Coffee break
- 11:00 - 11:30** Modern European Diplomacy and Diplomatic
Training – Ms. Rosa Batoréu, Deputy Director
General for European Affairs, MFA, Lisbon, Portugal
- 11:30 - 12:00** Comments and discussion
- 12:00 - 12:30** Presentation of the Croatian magazine
New Diplomacy – Ms. Daniela
Dumass, Editor-in-Chief, Zadar, Croatia
- 12:30 - 14:00** Lunch
- 14:00 - 17:00** **2nd Session - Diplomatic Training: Trends and
Prospects**
- Moderators: Mr. Hrvoje Kanta, H.E. Mr. Dančo Markovski,
Prof. Dr. Milan Milanov
- 14:00 - 14:30** Diplomatic Training of Junior and Senior Staff: a
Continuous Improvement of Skills and Knowledge
– Prof. Dr. Milan Milanov, Director, Diplomatic
Institute, MFA, Sofia, Bulgaria
- 14:30 - 15:00** Diplomatic and Consular Training in New
Circumstances – H.E. Mr. Dančo Markovski,
Ambassador of Macedonia to Croatia, Zagreb
- 15:00 - 15:30** Establishing New Diplomatic Training Framework
– H.E. Dr. Božin Nikolić, Director, Diplomatic
Academy, MFA, Belgrade, Serbia
- 15:30 - 16:00** Coffee break
- 16:00 - 16:30** Public Diplomacy, New Media and Social
Networks – Prof. Dr. Nenad Prelog, MFAEI,
Zagreb, Croatia

16:30 - 17:00	Comments and discussion
17:00 - 19:00	Sightseeing of Dubrovnik – Guided tour
20:00	Dinner

Day 2: Friday, 8 May 2009

09:00 - 12:30	3rd Session: Diplomatic Training and Crisis Management
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Moderators: Prof. Dr. Nabil Ayad, Dr. Andrea Despot,
H.E. Dr. Mario Nobilo

09:00 - 09:30	Crisis Management: Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training – Prof. Dr. Nabil Ayad, Director, Diplomatic Academy of London, University of Westminster, UK
09:30 - 10:00	Diplomatic Training for Conflict Resolution - Dr. Andrea Despot, Deputy Director, European Academy Berlin, Germany
10:00 - 10:30	Multilateral Diplomacy: Croatian Experience, H.E. Dr. Mario Nobilo, Director for Multilateral Affairs, MFAEI, Zagreb, Croatia
10:30 - 11:00	Security Issues in Diplomatic Training: Case of IAEA – H.E. Mr. Mario Horvatić, Director General, State Office for Nuclear Safety, Zagreb, Croatia
11:00 - 11:30	Coffee break
11:30 - 12:00	Women in Diplomacy – Ms. Vivian Walker, Deputy Chief of Mission, US Embassy in Zagreb, Croatia
12:00 - 12:30	Comments and discussion
12:30 - 14:00	Lunch

14:00 - 17:15 **4th Session: Diplomatic Training: Regional and Country Cases**

Moderators: H.E. Mr. Mario Horvatić, Prof. Dr. Markiyan Malsky,
Prof. Dr. Vlad Nistor

14:00 - 14:30 Diplomatic Training: Some Regional Experiences
– H.E. Dr. Lisen Bashkurti, President, Albanian
Diplomatic Academy, Tirana

14:30 - 15:00 Diplomatic Training: Some Experiences from
Romania – Ms. Daniela Zaharia, Training Director,
Diplomatic Institute, MFA, Bucharest, Romania

15:00 - 15:30 The BDI Winter School in Sandanski – Ms. Biliana
Decheva, Head of Department for Training,
Diplomatic Institute, MFA, Sofia, Bulgaria

15:30 - 16:00 Coffee break

16:00 - 16:30 Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training: Some
Reflections from German Practice – H.E. Dr. Bernd
Fischer, German Ambassador to Croatia, Zagreb

16:30 - 17:00 Creating the EU Diplomatic Training Curriculum –
Dr. Gerhard Reiweger, Deputy Director, Diplomatic
Academy of Vienna, Austria

17:00 - 17:30 Comments and discussion

17:30 - 18:45 **Round-table on Diplomatic Training in South
Eastern Europe**

Moderators: H.E. Dr. Mladen Andrić, Prof. Dr. Milan Milanov,
H.E. Dr. Božin Nikolić

Meeting of directors and other representatives of the diplomatic academies
and/or institutes from the SEE countries, open to all participants of the
CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum.

19:00 Dinner

Day 3: Saturday, 9 May 2009

09:00 - 10:30 **5th Session - Some Other Relevant Aspects for Diplomatic Training**

Moderators: H.E. Dr. Lisen Bashkurti, H.E. Dr. Bernd Fischer,
H.E. Dr. Božin Nikolić

09:00 - 09:30 Promoting Culture: Spicing-Up one's Image – Ms. Nina Obuljen, State Secretary, Ministry of Culture, Zagreb, Croatia

09:30 - 10:00 Business and Diplomacy: New Paradigm - Mr. Joško Klisović, Secretary General, Atlantic Trade Ltd., Zagreb, Croatia

10:00 - 10:30 Comments and discussion & Coffee break

10:30 - 11:30 Special presentation: Medieval Diplomacy - Case of the Republic of Dubrovnik - H.E. Dr. Syjetlan Berković, Croatian Ambassador to Slovenia, Ljubljana

11:30 - 12:30 **Closing Session of the 2009 CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum**

Moderators: H.E. Dr. Mladen Andrić, Ms. Vlasta Brunsko, H.E. Dr. Gerhard Pfanzelter

– brief summaries on the contents and findings of the Forum sessions presented by young diplomats from the CEI member states, with final remarks of the organisers of the Forum, including possible additional comments of other participants

12:30 - 14:00 Lunch
Free time
Departure of the participants

REPORT

on the 12th CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum “Modern European Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training” Dubrovnik, Croatia, 7 – 9 May 2009

Summary: The 12th Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum of CEI traditionally took place at the Postgraduates Studies Centre in Dubrovnik, organised by the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and European Integration of the Republic of Croatia, and with the support of CEI. This time the focus was on “Modern European Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training”, and from 7-9 May, the Forum discussed current trends and prospects of modern diplomacy, its particular bilateral and multilateral aspects, as well as the goals, content and organisation of diplomatic activities and education in Europe. There were 38 participants from 16 countries, 12 of them CEI Member States, and among them also the Deputy Secretary General of CEI.

1. CEI Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum on “**Modern European Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training**” was officially opened on behalf of the MFAEI RC by **Mr. Sc. Aleksandar Heina**, Head of Division for Europe and North America, and **Amb. Dr. Gerhard Pfanzelter**, Deputy Secretary General of the Executive Secretariat of CEI. On behalf of the host spoke **Mr. Đuro Market**, member of the Dubrovnik city government, and **Mr. Sc. Vlasta Brunsko**, Director of the Dubrovnik Postgraduate Centre, whereas the program of the Forum was introduced by **Amb. Dr. Mladen Andrić**, Director of the Diplomatic Academy of the MFAEI RC.

2. As usual, the Forum was attended by diplomats and other experts in international relations, foreign policy and diplomacy from CEI Member States and other European states, and from the U.S.A., including 14 heads of diplomatic training institutions, as well as 10 junior diplomats, in accordance with the practice of CEI and DA MFAEI RC to enable junior diplomats to learn from experts at such professional forums and to participate. The three-day Forum featured five sessions, keynote presentations and discussions, and there was also a panel discussion on diplomatic training in SEE.

3. The first session on “**European Diplomacy and Diplomatic Training**”, where the European context of diplomatic activities and training was discussed, was steered by keynote speakers and the discussion that followed towards the challenges of the European cooperation and public diplomacy. This was initiated right at the start by **Dr. Irena Krasnicka**, Director of the Diplomatic Academy

of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic, who briefly introduced the mission and activities of the DA in Prague during the Czech presidency of the EU. The Czech contribution to the development of the *EDTP-European Diplomatic Training Programme* was conceived to help junior diplomats learn the necessary skills and techniques and familiarize themselves with the institutional framework of the EU and the initial knowledge and experience. In creating *the EU diplomacy to come*, the Czech Republic hold the differences in Europe important, where “the EU and Europe make a recognizable political and cultural context”.

At the initiative of Croatian Embassy in Lisbon, the special guest was **Mrs. Rosa Batoréu**, Deputy Director for European Affairs of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Portugal, as the second Portuguese attendance of the Forum in a row, an additional event in already regular bilateral political consultations. Mrs Batoréu spoke about the importance of public diplomacy within the foreign policy of the EU, stressing the principles of its effectiveness – listening to citizens; communicate EU policies on a daily basis and link citizens on the local level. According to the new institutional framework of the Lisbon Agreement, the goals and the organisation of diplomatic training focus on the capability of building personal contacts among diplomats, raising the level of awareness of the importance of communication and provision of an environment conducive to learning.

The session was concluded with the presentation of **Mrs. Danijela Dumas** who introduced the Croatian professional magazine *New Diplomacy* as its Editor-in-Chief.

4. In the session on “**Diplomatic Training: Trends and Prospects**” individual national experiences in diplomatic training were presented. **Prof. Milan Milanov**, Director of the Diplomatic Institute of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Bulgaria, presented the work of this institute in Sofia, established in 2003, where they develop systematic training of Bulgarian diplomats and staff - junior, intermediate and senior, and consular officers (*improving diplomatic activity by combining theoretical knowledge and practical skills*). They hold important openness and international dimension, and according to the *Dubrovnik model (!)* they organise, in cooperation with the Hanns Seidel Foundation, the Winter School for junior diplomats from Balkan and Black Sea states, publish dedicated collections of papers and an international periodical in English.

Dr. Božin Nikolić, Director of the Diplomatic Academy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Serbia, spoke about the activities of the Belgrade Academy, established in 1998, where they develop, similarly as in other SEE states, internal and international programs. The importance of active cooperation that can also be reinforced through the development of the regional diplomatic training network was mentioned by **Dr. Lisen Bashkurti**, President

of the Albanian Diplomatic Academy, stressing the benefits of close cooperation with universities as well as political and diplomatic synergy. **Prof. Nenad Prelog**, MFAEI RC, spoke about public diplomacy, new media and the social network, and the importance of analysing information. Localization and globalization, transnational media and other information available on the Internet, are changing the character and administration of the nation state and diplomacy. He stressed the importance of mobility (*today, business is not only conducted from the office, but also in conference from hotel rooms and airplanes*).

5. In the third session on “**Diplomatic Training and Crisis Management**” **Prof. Nabil Ayad**, Director of the Diplomatic Academy in London, mentioned the difference between traditional and new diplomacy, asking whether traditional diplomats are really necessary today. He tried to answer by setting up the requirements for every diplomat to meet. For instance, he believes that a diplomat must effectively function under pressure, have good communication and planning skills, know how to poignantly summarize and convey information in a targeted manner and create projections and alternative scenarios, but also have some autonomy to make decisions out in the field. If all these requirements are met, then you can say that diplomats are necessary and of national interest.

Dr. Andrea Despot, Deputy Director of the European Academy in Berlin presented the specific diplomatic training for conflict settlement and regulation. In the new conflict paradigm, dominated by asymmetrical conflicts, increasing international conflicts, ethnic strife and clashes, secession and territorial integrity, it is important to teach all these things to diplomats through professional seminars, conferences and workshops. The role of the media is very important in this regard, because of their great reach and influence. What should be emphasised is respect for cultural differences, with greater effort in preventive diplomacy, not waiting for the conflict to break out. **Amb. Dr. Mario Nobile**, Director of the Multilateral Affairs Division of the MFAEI RC, spoke about the disintegration of the USSR, Czechoslovakia and the SFRY and the changes that resulted in international views and actions. The activities and achievements suggest that the OSCE did not manage to offer any particularly effective results, whereas NATO asserted itself and even acted for the first since its establishment beyond the territory of its Member States, which is all suggesting *focus on reform in this and other multilateral organisations*.

Mr. Mario Horvatić, General Director of the Nuclear safety Office of the Republic of Croatia, emphasised that today, we are witnessing a *nuclear revival*, saying that e.g. the U.S.A., China and India are increasing their stockpiles of nuclear materials, and simultaneously solutions are being sought to prevent the use of nuclear material for military purposes.

The third session was concluded by **Mrs. Vivian Walker**, Deputy U.S. Ambassador to Croatia, speaking about *Women in Diplomacy*. In an interesting historical overview of the activities of women in diplomacy, she mentioned that until the 1970s women had no place in U.S. diplomacy, in spite of all their qualifications. The truth is quite the opposite, because women are better listeners and have strong intuition, and sometimes, e.g. in Islamic states, have access to places that are otherwise strictly prohibited to men. Women in diplomacy are still in a more complex position than men, because they also have a tough choice to make – the career or the family – resulting in women often declining unique and tremendous career opportunities to keep the family together. Mrs Walker mentioned that men are never in such a situation, but it is widely known that *behind every successful man there is an even more successful woman*.

6. In the fourth session on “**Diplomatic Training: Regional and National Cases**”, Romanian experience was presented by **Mrs. Daniela Zaharia**, Director of the Diplomatic Institute of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Bucharest, where they make effort for their programs to enable broader understanding of the background of international developments and their political context, all through combined presentation of the basic concepts and information and through teaching skills. The main dilemmas of the Bucharest institute were what type of training to apply (theory or practice), and which trainers (university professors or senior diplomats), and like many institutions of that type they opted for a combination.

Mr. Dančo Markovski, Macedonian **Ambassador** to Croatia, clarified the historical process of changes in diplomatic and consular activities in the past twenty years in SEE states, which necessarily led to a new approach to the training of diplomatic and consular staff. He spoke in more detail about the content and character of modern consular services, and about the different role and characteristics of diplomatic activity at the MFA and in a foreign network. German **Ambassador** to Croatia **Dr. Bernd Fischer** introduced German formula for “successful diplomacy” ($4 + 7 = 11$). It is based on the four basic diplomatic activities – reporting, familiarity with the receiving state and its customs, public diplomacy, economic diplomacy. He sees business diplomacy as the most important field of diplomatic involvement today, because the main goals are helping one’s own country to export and encouraging investment in the receiving state, and “Embassies have access to the areas that are not accessible to companies”.

Dr. Gerhard Reiweger, Deputy Director of the Diplomatic Academy in Vienna, spoke about the *Creation of EU Diplomatic Training* and the basic principles of functioning of the European diplomatic training i.e. about the development of the European Diplomatic Training Initiative (EDTI) program into

the European Diplomatic Training Program (EDTP). He stressed the cooperation among EU Member States in consular training and activities as the area in which practical advantages of operative cooperation and activity are already visible in the short term, and joint consular representation abroad and service provision may become a useful basis for broad joint diplomatic action of the EU.

7. During the Forum, there was a panel discussion on *diplomatic training in SEE states*, where heads of diplomatic training institutions from Albania, Austria, B-H, Bulgaria, Croatia, Macedonia, Romania and Serbia, as well as from Germany and the United Kingdom, presented their view of the future and possible ways to improve the work of diplomatic training institutions in SEE and beyond it. They spoke about the creation of the network of Diplomatic Academies in Central and Southeast Europe to exchange lecturers and attendees, undertake joint research work and publications as a contribution to training processes, which was proposed by the Albanian representative and supported by Romanian representatives. Nevertheless, other participants presently decline any arrangements for the formalisation of cooperation between institutions in this field in Central and Southeast Europe, but they by all means accept further cooperation in any specific projects depending on their respective interests and possibilities.

In this context possibilities were opened to cooperate within the framework of the European Academy in Berlin, on whose behalf **Dr. Despot** said that *no energy is to be wasted on devising new content, but the existing programs and initiatives should be deepened and improved*. She offered concrete training cooperation, stressing that they were ready to be a partner to DAs from this region, e.g. through the improvement of programs, scholarships, better links between institutions, information exchange. (In this context the cooperation between the European Academy in Berlin and the Croatian and Serbian DAs and the Bulgarian Diplomatic Institute has been generally agreed on, envisaging a one-week training program for young diplomats from Bulgaria, Croatia and Serbia in Berlin in 2010 focusing on “EU, foreign policy, BRD”, where they would gain insight in German foreign policy and institutions, as well as compare it with the foreign policy and diplomacy in these three states, respectively, and their relations to the EU. Possible joint program is being conceptualised!)

8. In the last session “**On Other Relevant Aspects of Diplomatic Training**”, participants discussed economic and cultural diplomacy. **Mr. Joško Klisović**, Secretary General of Atlantic Trade, spoke about the newly-established paradigm of business and diplomacy, where *business interests must be part of the national foreign policy, including diplomatic activities*. A good diplomat must know how the economy of his sending state operates, and must recognise the same in the receiving state. Diplomacy must primarily set up the

framework for business entities and create conditions for them to communicate and operate, through establishing contacts in the receiving state and negotiations on agreements, particularly in the areas of trade and transport that are particularly important to any state. On the other hand, business entities need no diplomats to do their business for them, but they expect diplomats to organise, coordinate and communicate on the receiving state.

The *Promotion of Culture* was presented by **Mr. Sc. Nina Obuljen**, State Secretary at the Ministry of Culture of the Republic of Croatia, saying that cultural diplomacy is in the process of change, and that cultural relations are *soft power* that can help to bring about substantial changes in international relations. A diplomat active in the field of culture is focused on presenting and promoting his own country, and simultaneously getting familiar with other cultures, among other things to be able to recognise, overcome and eliminate false stereotypes.

9. Simultaneously with the Forum, possible theme and structure for the next, 13th Dubrovnik Diplomatic Forum, were discussed, and it was generally agreed that the 2010 Forum would be dedicated to public diplomacy, with the working title “**Strategic Public Diplomacy**”. CEI Member States are not sufficiently familiar with each other, and it is even more complex than that when it comes to broader international recognisability and positioning of the states from Central, East or Southeast Europe that actually make up CEI. It is a unique company of states whose joint prospects are determined by the EU and NATO i.e. “geography and history” and, consequently, the future together.

On the other hand, the mechanisms and tools of modern public diplomacy, in addition to traditional inter-state channels, are spreading and directing diplomatic activities towards communication with non-governmental structures and individuals, with feedback effect on profiling public opinion and state/public policies. It is, therefore, necessary to also strategically conceptualise real and possible impulses and effects of public diplomacy. U.S. and British attendees showed particular interest in the Forum, and Deputy U.S. Ambassador to Croatia **Mrs. Walker** promised to bring U.S. experts and provide additional funding for the Forum, whereas Director of the Diplomatic Academy in London **Prof. Ayad** wanted to help with the development of programs and involvement of European experts. Such an approach and such plans were expressly supported by Deputy Secretary General of CEI Ambassador **Dr. Pfanzelter** who is to take over as Secretary General of the Executive Secretariat of CEI (where the decision about the level of co-financing the Forum is usually made!) from 1 January 2010.

What remains in this context is to launch a debate with them and other interested experts on the program, to be able to send the formal proposal to CEI bodies by mid-September of this year as usual, in order to organise and have 13th Forum in May 2010.

DUBROVNIK DIPLOMATIC FORUM

Dubrovnik, Croatia, 1998 – 2010

- 2010: STRATEGIC PUBLIC DIPLOMACY
- 2009: MODERN EUROPEAN DIPLOMACY AND DIPLOMATIC TRAINING
- 2008: DIPLOMATIC TRAINING AND REGIONAL CO-OPERATION
- 2007: LIFELONG LEARNING AND DIPLOMACY
- 2006: BUILDING CAPACITY FOR NEGOTIATING WITHIN AN ENLARGED EU
- 2005: CULTURAL PROMOTION AND DIPLOMACY
- 2003: PUBLIC DIPLOMACY AND MEDIA
- 2002: DIPLOMACY AND BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT IN COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION
- 2001: ECONOMIC DIPLOMACY IN COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION
- 2000: DIPLOMACY IN THE ERA OF GLOBALISATION
- 2000: PUBLIC DIPLOMACY AND MEDIA
- 1999: DIPLOMACY FOR THE 21ST CENTURY: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT
- 1998: THE ROLE OF DIPLOMACY IN COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON EDUCATION AND TRAINING

