Summary

The Millennium meeting of the Deans and Directors was hosted jointly by the School of Foreign Service at Georgetown University and the United States Foreign Service Institute. The programme at Georgetown offered discussions on conflict prevention, demonstrations of case method teaching and a workshop on the use of information technology in diplomatic training. At FSI delegates were introduced to three key aspects of the Institute’s training programme in languages, crisis management and negotiation in a multicultural environment. The host institutions provided a crisply organised and professionally focused meeting enlivened by the most generous hospitality.

Monday 18 September

Regional Meetings were held by the Asia-Oceana Group, the European Group and the Latin America Group.

An informal reception was offered by the School of Foreign Service in the handsomely panelled Riggs Library, Georgetown University, hosted by Professor Casimir Yost.

Tuesday 19 September

1. Welcome by the Co-Chairs

1a. Ambassador Robert Gallucci, Dean of the School of Foreign Service, welcomed delegates to the 28th Meeting. He noted that we were dealing with rapid change, when international affairs were becoming increasingly important in domestic affairs and peoples were interacting more with other cultures. Yet there was decreasing interest in and commitment to the training of diplomats and to diplomacy as a profession. A crucial part of our task was to help make the link between people’s everyday lives and the international community.

1b. Ambassador Dr Ernst Sucharipa, Director of the Diplomatic Academy of Vienna, added his welcome to delegates, especially to those attending for the first time, and thanked the organisers for their efficient preparation of the Meeting and for the wonderful reception.

1b.1 For twenty-eight years the Edmund Walsh School of Foreign Service at Georgetown and the Diplomatic Academy of Vienna had co-hosted meetings of the Deans and Directors of Diplomatic Academies and Institutes of International Relations (DDDAIIR). A new acronym had emerged which increasingly was used to describe the annual gatherings more simply: IFDT, the International Forum on Diplomatic Training.

1b.2 There were many new independent foreign services. The art of diplomacy was more in demand than ever before, yet the raison d’être of diplomats was questioned everywhere; for example, some doubted the need for national foreign services in the EU context. He was confident, though, that they would continue.

1b.3 He welcomed the fact that there was a good attendance at the Meeting, though once again the Sub-Saharan African states were under-represented. He felt that the Forum needed to address this, and would hope to do better next time.
1b.4 The meetings provided an opportunity of discussing and exchanging views on how to improve the training of young diplomats, including on the job training, in three main areas:
- what to teach, and how it can best be updated;
- how to improve the teaching of international relations (perhaps through improved links with academic institutions);
- how to develop the personal skills, motivation and ethical qualities of individuals.

1b.5 Participating institutions had been invited to submit reports of their activities in the preceding year, and a number had done so. Rather than take up valuable time with oral reports Ambassador Sucharipa invited all to provide information on their work which was made available at the Meeting.

2. Activities and Co-operation of Diplomatic Training Institutions

2a. Reports on Regional Developments in Diplomatic Training and International Co-operation

2a.1 Asia-Oceana Group:

Ambassador Lee Sung-kon reported that in the past year the institutes of the region had pursued their established programmes of teaching, research and publication, and a number were engaged in new initiatives. Programmes of international co-operation were being offered by China, Kazakhstan, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Philippines and Saudi Arabia.

2a.2 European Group:

2a.2.1 Ambassador Sucharipa noted that this was the first time that the European group had held a pre-conference meeting. Institutes from all parts of Europe - north, south, east and west - were represented, and had had the opportunity of an exchange not only on their activities but of their views on the common essence of those activities - the nature and future of effective diplomatic training.

2a.2.2 A number of institutes continued to offer training courses for the states of Eastern Europe and Central Asia. There had been some discussion of whether general introductory courses were still relevant to rapidly developing Ministries of Foreign Affairs.

2a.2.3 New growth was seen especially in programmes of European Union training for diplomats from the thirteen Candidate countries, and also from the Member States under an initiative of the French Presidency to be continued during the Swedish Presidency in 2001.

2a.2.4 Discussions on a common EU programme of diplomatic training and on the possible establishment of a European Diplomatic College were at an early stage.

2a.2.5 It was thought that all would benefit from an exchange of experience between the Heads of Training of the EU Member State Ministries of Foreign Affairs and the Deans and Directors at the annual meeting of the IFDT.

2a.2.6 The Group welcomed the programme of conferences at Dubrovnik mounted by the very active Diplomatic Academy at Zagreb under the aegis of the Central European Initiative.

2a.3 Latin America Group:

2a.3.1 Ambassador Astié-Burgos observed that the institutes of the region faced two challenges: the initial training of young diplomats and the continual updating of mid-career diplomats to keep current in an ever-changing international system. He noted that despite profound changes there remained a core of enduring roles and skills. In the post-Cold War global society human resources were the key resource, hence training was vital to enable diplomats to adapt to new realities.
2a.3.2 A meeting of diplomatic academies of the region had been held in Mexico City to mark the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Instituto ‘Matias Romero’. Ten states had been represented.

2a.3.3 A successful meeting had been held also in the Dominican Republic with representatives from Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Peru to discuss ways of fostering further co-operation with the countries of Eastern Europe, Central Asia and Africa.

2a.3.4 A number of institutes offered programmes of international co-operation which were of importance especially to smaller states of Central America and the Caribbean having fewer resources. Some financial support had been provided by the Organisation of American States.

2b. IFDT Website

2b.1 As decided at the 27th Meeting, further development of the IFDT Website had been undertaken by the Diplomatic Academy of Vienna and the Mediterranean Diplomatic Academy Malta. Ambassador Sucharipa generously observed that much of the work had been done by Jovan Kurbalija at Malta.

2b.2 Mr Kurbalija reported that developments in IT globally had made it possible to develop something of practical use to the Forum. The electronic infrastructure was light, involving only the server and the client, and required no special software.

2b.2.1 The IFDT Website-in-progress now had ten pages:
- **Directory**, with two sub-modules: a database of institutions and a database of individuals with specialist knowledge
- **Calendar** of conferences and workshops
- **History** of the International Forum on Diplomatic Training
- **Publications** by member institutions and individuals
- **Research**, providing opportunities for exchange of information on projects
- **Courses** available to applicants from other countries
- **Survey** of member institutions and their programmes
- **Lessons Learned**, providing for shared experience
- **Info Centre** which shows users ‘how to find’ (now the key skill)
- **Digital Resources** which raises awareness of training materials available online.

2b.2.2 Questions arising for the further development of the Website included:
- whether it should be open access or require a password
- what content it should offer, especially about participating institutions
- whether or not it should provide for discussion groups.

2b.2.3 In response to a query about the time institutions might need to invest in the Website, Mr Kurbalija observed that each participating institution ideally should have a contact person with a measure of technical IT knowledge, but that up to date information on individual institutions would be accessed most effectively by hyperlink to their own Websites.

2b.2.4 Ambassador Sucharipa noted that it would be important to keep the Website up to date, and its administration simple. A modest subscription might be required from participating institutions, but that was a matter for discussion and agreement.
(See para 11.5, p13)

2b.3 In the afternoon session Mr Kurbalija demonstrated ways in which IT could be used both in diplomacy and in diplomatic training, especially through hypertext links. Horizontal linkages could be made easily between documents; simulation exercise materials could be continually updated; texts were readily accessible for case studies.
2b.3.1 The Website of the DiploProject was a helpful source of relevant further information: www.diplomacy.edu.


3.1 Chester A. Crocker, Professor of Strategic Studies and Chairman of the Board of the United States Institute of Peace (USIP), introduced a panel featuring the work of USIP in conflict prevention. He observed that it had been done in practice; they were trying to discover whether it could be done in theory.

3.2 USIP was a Federally-funded, Congressionally-mandated independent think tank which for fifteen years had been engaged in education and training, facilitation and policy analysis. It was attempting, for example, to define a framework for reconciliation in Kosovo. It had its own press.

3.3 Nations and regional organisations found it increasingly difficult to cope with proliferating conflicts, hence the logic of conflict prevention: it imposed less strain on domestic and military resources, and it provided better settlements - a more durable fabric for peace.

3.3.1 Conflict prevention involved a wide range of tools and processes at a critical stage in the life cycle of conflict between the breakdown of stable peace and the onset of confrontation, and also at the stage of post-conflict peace building.

3.3.2 Techniques varied according to the circumstances:

- confidence building measures
- legal adjudication and protection
- fact finding and special envoy missions
- facilitation, peace conferences and conciliation
- humanitarian, economic and military assistance
- education and training programmes
- institution building
- helping to create regimes, norms and good precedents

3.3.3 However, it was possible to observe in the post-Cold War world a new level of disenchantment with intervention, as for example in Myanmar, Tajikistan, Colombia and Sierra Leone.

3.3.4 An international fire brigade perhaps was needed, a system to be kept in place with its own logistics and communications, with established rules, norms and procedures on both what to do and how to coordinate with others. It required readiness to act combined with the right attitudes and skills to get the job done.

3.3.5 Diplomats of course had been doing conflict prevention for centuries. The Concert of Europe, for example, had developed confidence building measures including buffer zones, arms restraint and arms reduction. Thus good practice was well established; it had not been invented in the United States in the twentieth century.

3.3.6 Recent successes included threat reduction in Korea, reduction of tension in the South China Sea, and preventive deployment in Macedonia.

3.3.7 Notable failures could be seen in the Balkans, in Central Africa, in the Horn of Africa and in South Asia.

3.3.8 Successful conflict prevention required an attitude of leadership and positive engagement in the process. People needed to ‘think outside the box’, to address the missing ingredient, to engage in institution-building of legal and education systems, to focus on gender inequity, to take part in civil society projects and to work to shape public opinion.
3.4 Pamela R. Aall, Director of the USIP Education Program, offered three case studies of NGO roles in peacemaking, opening channels which had been closed to government officials.

3.4.1 Non-official bodies had different missions from government and from each other, focusing variously on humanitarian aid, human rights, civil society building or development education. Being independent organisations answerable often only to themselves, NGOs consequently might have little leverage. Therefore, in deteriorating circumstances, did they have a role? If so, could it be served best early on? or at the end? And in any event, what role?

3.4.2 A positive example was offered by the Community of St Egidio in the Mozambique peace talks.

3.4.2.1 The Community was a small lay Catholic organisation based in Italy but independent of the Vatican. Their primary mission was poverty alleviation, and through their work on the ground in improving conditions they had earned the trust of both the government and the rebels. Through a personal link with a Mozambican bishop they had been invited to be observers to discussions on the prospects for peace. Gradually they had become more active, suggesting possible options. Their role thus had grown organically into mediation by an outside organisation. They had used their relationships and their prestige to gain confidence, in a sense borrowing leverage.

3.4.3 A similarly successful example was offered by the South China Sea Informal Working Group facilitated by Indonesian and Canadian former diplomats and academics. They had dealt with functional issues of piracy, pollution and navigational safety which were not a challenge to national sovereignties in an area beset with contested claims. They had adopted an ‘under the radar’ approach, with practical, problem-solving dialogue groups building an atmosphere of trust and generating the practice of engagement.

3.4.3.1 This NGO role had been one which the United Nations and governments could not play precisely because the NGOs were powerless and non-threatening, and chose to hide their successes. It could work in other circumstances up to a point, depending on the goodwill of the participants, the low stakes involved and the avoidance of sensitive issues.

3.4.4 A third example of successful practice could be seen in the work of Drydan Hobodic, Assistant Professor of Social Psychology at the University of Belgrade. Prof Hobodic had developed a course in conflict resolution and mediation training parallel to that at the University from which he was excluded. The programme was twice oversubscribed by students taking the course independently.

3.4.4.1 This was not so much a tool for policymakers as a reminder that within societies there were processes such as this to be nurtured and protected, building peace in the community from the bottom up through the development of civic consciousness and individual responsibility.

3.5 Neil J. Kritz, Director of the USIP Rule of Law Program, examined the role of ‘transitional justice’ in conflict management.

3.5.1 As the nature of conflict changed so the tools of conflict management had to be adjusted. Ninety percent of conflicts now were intra-national, and new norms of international humanitarian law were evolving applying to internal conflict.

3.5.2 In the transition to peace mechanisms were needed to cope with past abuses, to integrate them in the peace process in order to break the cycle of conflict. As in El Salvador, Guatemala and Bosnia, these included:

- criminal trials and war crimes tribunals which focused on the perpetrators of atrocities; whole groups were not guilty, individuals were, and were accountable
- non-criminal sanctions which focused on the institutions responsible and how to deal with them, as for example through removing key people from their posts or providing transitional external administrators
- victim-focused compensation and restitution - a long term process
truth and reconciliation commissions which addressed and recognised problems, bringing together conflicting versions of reality and history and so avoiding passing the conflict on to the next generation.

3.5.3 USIP and others were offering a form of ‘soft intervention’: advice on legal norms, conventions and institutions, including a database of truth and reconciliation processes, which helped to raise expectations of what could work and would be available to those trying to build peace. The South Africans, for example, had looked to the Chilean model, the Guatemalans to the Salvadoran experience.

3.5.4 Communication between adversaries could be facilitated even through the codification of ordinary daily activities, as between Israeli and Palestinian judges and lawyers on rules applying to traffic accidents, a confidence building measure in the larger peace process.

3.6 In concluding the panel Chester Crocker observed that Track II diplomacy was complementary to Track I. A great deal of informal leverage was available which could be brought together more readily now through information technology. Neither governments nor NGOs could manage conflict successfully alone, hence the value of a collaborative approach around which domestic support could be mobilised. As Ronald Reagan had said, there was no limit to what could be achieved if we stopped arguing about who was going to get the credit.

3.7 A number of observations were made in the ensuing discussion:

- fire precautions were needed as well as a fire brigade; it was important to look at the roots of incipient conflict and to put out a helping hand, to open a dialogue; in this effort institutes of the Forum could be useful informal tools for Ministries of Foreign Affairs (Meerts)

- there were perhaps limitations on official/non-official partnership owing to the differences between state actors’ national interests and apolitical non-state interests; a potential problem of political contamination (Fearn)

- there was no neutrality; NGOs had to take sides; by engaging in conflict they became a factor in it. As many NGOs were government grantees, they were accountable to the funding body. Even where independent, as in the field of human rights, NGOs often were vulnerable and needed to maintain links with government for protection (Aall)

- need to provide resources to Sub-Saharan Africa to take a wider perspective on conflict resolution, to help African diplomats play a more positive part (Johnson)

- need to link security-exporting with security-importing nations generally, to build linkage through training, visits and IT information exchange (Crocker)

- need to be cautious of Western bias in thinking and analysis, applying Socratic method to systematise thinking on conflict. Every conflict was unique; all conflict was illogical, hence one couldn’t introduce the logic of conflict resolution or homogenise conclusions. Pontificating from prosperous settled societies was not helpful (Abu Jaber)

- each case was different, but each institution also had unique specificity, special cultural affinities which might link third parties and warring parties (Crocker)

- important not to impose paradigms without local knowledge, but it was useful also to identify indicators of conflict (Aall)

- good to systematise what had been improvised; Track II was needed when Track I broke down. Role of mediator was an Arab concept, but it could escape control and needed to be guarded. Training was needed of Tracks 1-5 people now that the international community comprised both state and non-state actors (Long)
need to incorporate human rights in diplomatic training; lessons from the past needed to be continually relearned (Portales).

3.8 Resources for diplomatic training in conflict prevention and conflict resolution included:

- ‘Training Programme for Practitioners’ (USIP) - interactive role play with teaching tools
- ‘Managing Global Chaos’ (USIP) - basic text for role plays
- Carnegie Commission on Prevention of Deadly Conflict
- Georgetown University Case Studies.

3.9 Ambassador Mahmoud Farghal reported that a major conference on Conflict Prevention was being mounted by the Egyptian Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Cairo on 12 February, 2001, with representatives from many African countries.

4. The Case Study Teaching Method

4.1 Practical workshop demonstrations were offered in two groups led by Professor Maryann Cusimano and Professor Louis Ortmayer.

4.2 The facilitators emphasised that case method did not attempt to offer a complete history or explanation of events. It was a method of engagement, complementing other resources such as texts and documents.

4.2.1 It challenged students to think critically for themselves by getting back to the time of the case, putting aside what was subsequently known about outcomes, and questioning actors’ assumptions. It was helpful in developing interest and intellectual curiosity and verbal and debating skills. It built confidence by affirming students’ own perceptions.

4.2.2 Both facilitators skilfully demonstrated the method, posing questions to the group rather than delivering pre-digested answers, focusing attention on participants’ observations and conclusions rather than on the authority of their own knowledge. They managed to engage almost all members of their groups in the discussion, including the initially sceptical.

4.3 Participants concluded that there were strengths and weaknesses in case method teaching.

4.3.1 The strengths included:

- an insight into contemporary thinking
- illumination of the many dimensions of decision-making and policymaking
- wide discussion of the issues
- active engagement of students in learning, with improved long-term retention

4.3.2 Potential weaknesses included:

- much depended on the facilitator’s knowledge of the subject and quality of facilitation - confident enough to give students the lead, strong enough to direct and guide
- insufficient background knowledge of context, culture, actors
- consequently superficial treatment of complex problems

4.3.3 It was thought essential to balance case method with other learning resources.
5. The conference Reception and Dinner was held in the Copley Formal Lounge, with special guest speaker The Honorable Marc Grossman, Director General of the United States Foreign Service and Director of Personnel at the State Department.

5.1 Ambassador Grossman reviewed the new issues, goals and challenges facing diplomacy in the twenty-first century. He focused in particular on three themes:

- globalisation was tying states and societies together at a speed and intensity which outpaced our capacity to comprehend it; governments were lagging behind the fund managers in managing change (Tom Friedman, ‘The Lexus and the Olive Tree’)

- modern strategy required thinking ahead to the end game, but it was decreasingly clear what and where the end game would be; at best it was possible to see one or two moves ahead, but fast followers would always be too late (Philip Evans and Thomas Webster, ‘Blown to Bits’)

- governments had to manage better the tension between centralisation and decentralisation; the value of information was measured now not by who held it but by how useful it was to the team; those in command had to change from retaining to sharing information as a sign of authority and leadership.

5.2 These core challenges had implications for recruitment and training. In ‘the war for talent’ (McKinsey) diplomatic services had to adapt in four key ways:

- attract a diverse work force that reflects the diversity of society
- improve the balance between work and family
- change the way people work and what they do, from observing and reporting to promoting national interests and confronting global dangers to democracy
- give priority to training and continual skills upgrading in:
  - languages and intercultural communication
  - management
  - global issues
  - public diplomacy
  - negotiation
  - preventive diplomacy and international peace operations
  - communications technologies.

5.3 In response to questions Ambassador Grossman observed that:

- there was likely to be more movement in and out of foreign services; it was possible, though, to promote a diplomatic career as a vehicle offering changes of job and recurring new challenges

- many were still motivated by a sense of patriotic public service, though salary levels had to be broadly competitive

- diplomats could no longer afford to be generalists; specialist knowledge and skills were needed to manage international affairs credibly

- ministries of foreign affairs had to be seen to embrace change in order to convince their legislatures to invest in that change

- it was important for a foreign service to maintain a balance between continuity and honourable tradition on the one hand, and keeping closely in touch with what the nation is about and is trying to achieve.

**Wednesday 20 September**
Programme at the National Foreign Affairs Training Center, Arlington

6. Ambassador Ruth Davis, Director, welcomed the Meeting to the Foreign Service Institute (FSI), and took the opportunity of thanking her colleagues Ruth Whiteside and especially Ambassador Don Johnson who had organised the programme.

6.1 She welcomed also the co-operation the Forum exemplified and encouraged between public and private institutions of education and professional training.

6.2 Ambassador Davis briefly reviewed the development of FSI from its foundation in 1946 to its move to the Arlington campus in 1993 at the initiative of Secretary of State George Schultz. FSI now had over 500 staff and some 12,000 students from the State Department and more than 40 other US Government agencies. It taught over 200 languages and offered courses ranging in length from one day to a full academic year to officials at all stages of their careers and to their families.

6.3 FSI promoted training as a recurring professional activity integral to a Foreign Service career. Officers progressed along a continuum of leadership and management development, acquiring at the same time specialist skills and language competence. There were separate schools for area studies, for professional skills such as policy analysis and public diplomacy, and for leadership and management. Their programmes were integrated with each other and with the language training programme.

6.4 FSI’s students were adults (average age 40). The philosophy of training thus was geared to adult learning by doing rather than by listening, with flexible pacing to accommodate individual learning patterns. IT was an important contributor to this flexibility. The benign environment of the campus was designed to minimise stress and to facilitate learning.

7. Tour of the Foreign Service Institute

7.1 The Transition Center provided information for families preparing for postings and for career outplacement.

7.2 The Information Center provided resources on everything from car insurance to protocol, to maintaining long distance relationships and raising bilingual children. Many of its holdings could be accessed at www.state.gov/infor.

7.3 The Consular Training Center provided realistic opportunities for officers to practise dealing with citizens’ problems, adjudicating visas, interviewing applicants, visiting prisoners, even caring for victims of torture.

7.4 The Multimedia Center provided Intranet-based support to all of FSI’s courses, from live broadcasts in taught languages to activities based on current developments. Typically students spent one hour at the computer for every five with a teacher.

8. Crisis Management

8.1 Nedra Overall, Director, Pat Schmid, Deputy Director, and John Haralson, Lead Trainer, introduced FSI’s management training programme. Modular courses were offered to 6,500 staff each year, integrated with other courses. Crisis Management Exercises also were conducted at each post overseas every thirty months to reinforce the training and test the readiness of the post Emergency Action Committee. Task Force Exercises helped to develop intra- and inter-departmental co-ordination. Exercises were conducted at military bases as well to help bridge the professional and cultural gulf between civilian and military staff.

8.1 Delegates took part in an exercise simulating the work of an Emergency Action Committee faced with a hurricane, an earthquake or an accident. The exercise was designed to emphasise key attributes of successful crisis management:
• communication / co-ordination / tranquillity / judgment / flexibility
• preparation / planning / practice / repetition
• leadership (by example)

9. Language Teaching and Learning

9.1 FSI’s language programme was conditioned by the US cultural context; they could expect little prior linguistic competence. It was politically unsustainable to introduce a language threshold or qualification for entry to the Foreign Service, as it would distort the mix and narrow the pool of candidates.

9.2 Their approach was targeted at the terminology, vocabulary and cultural needs of a given posting - the job was identified first and then the training applied to it. Greater cultural awareness was not a specific aim, except as a means to an end.

9.3 Accelerated Personalised Training represented a major recent change in pedagogy. Its principal tenets were:
• individualisation through a learning consultation and diagnostic questionnaires
• flexibility and choice
• technology-supported learning
• job-specific focus

9.4 The pattern of teaching comprised 5 hours of class work with a number of teachers in groups of 2 - 4, two hours of multimedia or language laboratory work, and two hours of homework.

9.5 Romance language courses lasted 24 weeks; hard languages were offered in 44 weeks; super hard languages took 88 weeks, with in-country training centres at Seoul, Yokohama, Taipei, Beijing and Tunis.

9.6 Language incentive pay encouraged use of and reassignment within a given language competence. Language training might continue in post, work permitting. It was the embassy itself which determined language competence needs in post. Language training was available worldwide via Intranet, complete with online mentor.

9.7 The cost of training an individual from Level 0/0 to 3/3 was approximately $250,000. The US Foreign Service faced the same difficulties as did other foreign services in securing an adequate return on this investment.

10. Negotiations in a Multicultural Environment

10.1 Courses in cross-cultural negotiation were offered at FSI four or five times a year to groups of 25, taught principally by specialist trainers on contract.

10.2 The presentation was given by Craig Storti, an independent negotiation trainer and one of FSI’s regular contributors (cstorti@carr.org).

10.3 He observed that beliefs, values and assumptions underpinned individual behaviour, and differed from individual to individual, though perhaps as much as half could be called universal or ‘human nature’. It was important not to generalise, as nothing general ever happened, only specific things happened to individuals.

10.4 He led delegates through a series of role play dialogues illustrating the differing aims and assumptions of the interlocutors.

10.5 Delegates also tested the basis of their own cultural assumptions in an exercise which involved placing themselves on a scale of 1 - 5 in respect of four key categories of behaviour:
• View of human nature - from trusting to distrusting
• Concepts of right and fairness - from universalist to particularist
• Communication style - from direct to indirect
• Of time and people - from monochronic to polychronic

10.6 Mr Storti’s final exercise gave delegates an opportunity of measuring how accurately they apprehended American culture by testing their perceptions against poll data in fifteen categories of behaviour.

10.7 The session as a whole illustrated vividly the differing norms that generate misperception and misunderstanding, and routinely confound negotiations.

11. Concluding Session

11.1 Ambassador Sucharipa spoke for every delegate in warmly thanking Ambassador Davis and all the staff at FSI for a remarkable day, wonderfully organised and full of activity and interest. As with the sessions at Georgetown, the FSI programme had really got into the trade of training diplomats. He hoped that the Meeting could keep that spirit in future, focusing on training and teaching.

11.1.1 He looked forward to welcoming Members of the Forum to the meeting in 2001 which would be hosted by the Diplomatic Academy of Vienna, in accordance with established procedure. (It was confirmed subsequently that the meeting would be followed by a two-day excursion to Budapest where the Budapest University for Economic Sciences would arrange a suitable programme.)

11.2 Professor Yost encouraged delegates to send their suggestions for the 2001 Meeting at Vienna to Ambassador Sucharipa or to him. They would try to develop a coherent draft agenda.

11.3 Ambassador Abu Jaber proposed that the meeting in 2002 should be held at the Jordanian Diplomatic Academy. Members of the Forum thanked Ambassador Abu Jaber for this kind offer.

11.4 The question of assisting delegates from developing countries, especially from Africa, to attend Meetings of the Forum was raised. A modest subscription of perhaps $100 per institution per annum was proposed. No decision was taken.

11.5 Clarification was sought on the way forward for the Website. It was agreed that the Website would be maintained by the Mediterranean Academy of Malta. Individual members of the Forum would be responsible for updating the detailed entries relating to their own institutions. Members of the Forum would have access to the Website free of charge. The Mediterranean Academy of Malta would distribute information on how to proceed with such updates. Interested members should nominate a webmaster for that purpose. In addition, the Mediterranean Academy of Malta was prepared to offer knowledge and research services at a fee by arrangement.

11.6 Ambassador Sucharipa extended renewed thanks to both host institutions for a memorable Millenium gathering. In closing the meeting, Ambassador Davis thanked participants, hoped they had profited from the day at FSI and looked forward to continuing the productive relationship fostered by the Forum.

Dr John Hemery
Rapporteur

Attachments
Agenda
Programme
List of participants
E-mail addresses of participants