Spring 2015

Strategic public diplomacy: Cultivating relationships with foreign publics and measuring relationship outcomes using the Relationship Assessment of Diplomatic Interaction Outcome (RADIO) scale

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Graduate School Form 30
Updated 1/15/2015

PURDUE UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL
Thesis/Dissertation Acceptance

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By Lai Shan Tam

Entitled

Strategic Public Diplomacy: Cultivating Relationships with Foreign Publics and Measuring Relationship Outcomes Using the Relationship Assessment of Diplomatic Interaction Outcome (RADIO) Scale

For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Approved by Major Professor(s): Dr. Jeong-Nam Kim

Approved by: Dr. Marifran Mattson 4/15/2015

Head of the Departmental Graduate Program Date

STRATEGIC PUBLIC DIPLOMACY: CULTIVATING RELATIONSHIPS WITH FOREIGN PUBLICS AND MEASURING RELATIONSHIP OUTCOMES USING THE RELATIONSHIP ASSESSMENT OF DIPLOMATIC INTERACTION OUTCOME (RADIO) SCALE

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty

of

Purdue University

by

Lai Shan Tam

In Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

of

Doctor of Philosophy

May 2015

Purdue University

West Lafayette, Indiana

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"We all make choices but in the end our choices make us." My deepest gratitude goes to my adviser, Prof. Jeong-Nam Kim, and his wife, Yura Jung, who have been the greatest source of motivation in making me a more competent and confident teacher-scholar. I express many thanks to my most encouraging committee members, Prof. Patrice Buzzanell, Prof. Seungyoon Lee and Prof. Meghan Norris, who have graciously provided guidance for my dissertation and academic career. Throughout the years, I have been blessed with the most supportive professors, Prof. Anthony Fung, Dr. Suwichit Chaidaroon and Dr. Alana Mann, without whom I could not have completed my PhD.

"The love of a family is life's greatest blessing." My mother, Aunt Jo and my two little sisters have been my life's greatest cheerleaders. My academic sisters, Dr. Soojin Kim and Dr. Jae Seon Jeong, always offer a helping hand when I am about to fall and hit my head. Cheryl Hsiang and Elizabeth Wilhoit have been the kindest sisters in both my academic and spiritual journeys. My sisters in Christ from Covenant Church, Meg Nixon, Emma Yang and Heather Day, have been rooting for me all along. I am also deeply grateful to have my best friend, MH, beside me to inspire me in the past three years.

"God has a bigger plan for me than I have for myself." I thank my faithful and almighty God for guiding me through my life journey and surrounding me with many loving families and friends. To God be the Glory!

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ABSTRACT

Tam, Lai Shan. Ph.D., Purdue University, May 2015. Strategic Public Diplomacy: Cultivating Relationships with Foreign Publics and Measuring Relationship Outcomes Using the Relationship Assessment of Diplomatic Interaction Outcome (RADIO) Scale. Major Professor: Jeong-Nam Kim.

In response to calls for a tool to measure public diplomacy effectiveness, this study was inspired by the organization-public relationship assessment (OPRA) scale in public relations to develop the Relationship Assessment of Diplomatic Interaction Outcome (RADIO) scale. Its purpose is to measure the *perceived relationship quality* between a country and its foreign publics. *Political*, *economic*, *cultural*, *interpersonal* and *corporate interactions* are proposed to be antecedents whereas *positive* and *negative megaphoning* behaviors are proposed to be outcomes. *Perceived relationship quality* in between the antecedents and outcomes classifies relationships into two types: *experiential* (those with direct experiences in terms of having visited a country) and *reputational* (those without such direct experiences). A total of 52 items is developed to measure perceived relationship quality. Four base dimensions are proposed for both experiential and reputational relationships, namely *interactional bilateralism*, *power mutuality*, *empathy* and *trust*. Two dimensions, namely *relational continuation* and *relational satisfaction*, are proposed for experiential relationships. Two dimensions, namely *relational curiosity* and *relational attentiveness*, are proposed for reputational relationships.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

When Hillary Clinton was interviewed by the Managing Editor of the Time Magazine as the Secretary of State of the United States, she said: “One of my goals upon becoming Secretary of State was to take diplomacy out of capitals, out of government offices, into the media, into the streets of countries” (Stengel, 2011, para. 21). Clinton was coined a champion of public diplomacy for advancing the use of public diplomacy through personal engagement with foreign publics on social media (Seib, 2013). She was also described to have “democratized” diplomacy by institutionalizing conversations between the United States and foreign publics on social media (Suto, 2013, para. 4). In her book *Hard Choices*, she wrote: “For me, smart power meant choosing the right combination of tools – diplomatic, economic, military, political, legal, and culture – for each situation” (Clinton, 2014, p. 33).

The *Oxford English Dictionary* defines *diplomacy* as “The management of international relations by negotiation; the method by which these relations are adjusted and managed by ambassadors and envoys; the business or art of the diplomatist; skill or address in the conduct of international intercourse and relations” and *public diplomacy* as “diplomacy conducted openly; official efforts to influence public opinion in service of diplomatic goals.” When Prince George and his parents visited Australia in 2014, an opinion poll in Australia found that the support for turning the country, which is currently a constitutional monarch to the royal family of the United Kingdom, into a republic has fallen to its all-time low in 20 years (Sutton, 2014; That, 2014). During the visit of Denmark's foreign minister to China, Denmark borrowed two pandas from China, which the minister described to be "the ultimate symbol of the friendship between China and Denmark and something that only happens on very rare occasions" (Jakobsen, 2014, para. 5). Thus, diplomacy is conducted in a variety of ways for the purpose of meeting diplomatic goals. Rayner and Malkin (2014) stated: "Where China has panda diplomacy, Britain has Prince George diplomacy" (para. 5).

Even though the term *public diplomacy* has been used for decades, it has been given various different definitions. According to Cull (2006), the term was first used by Edmund Gullion, the Dean of Law and Diplomacy at Tufts University, in 1965. In 1966, Gullion defines it as "the means by which governments, private groups and individuals influence the attitudes and opinions of other peoples and governments in such a way as to exercise influence on their foreign policy decisions" ("Definitions of Public Diplomacy," n.d., para. 3). The current web site of the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy at Tufts University states that public diplomacy "deals with the influence of public attitudes on the formation and execution of foreign policies" ("What is Public Diplomacy," n.d., para 1) and "goes far beyond a classical definition involving how elected and appointed government officials communicate, argue and influence policies publicly to a more two-pronged concept involving cause and effect" ("Definitions of Public Diplomacy," n.d., para. 1). In 2005, Crocker Snow Jr., Acting Director of the Edward R. Murrow Center of Tufts University, suggested a major shift of public diplomacy from traditionally representing the actions taken by governments to influence foreign publics to going beyond the realm of governments to include non-state actors such as the media, multinational corporations, NGOs and faith-based organizations ("Definitions of Public Diplomacy," n.d.).

The definition given by Tufts University has focused on the purpose of public diplomacy in changing attitudes and opinions for the ultimate purpose of causing policy changes; others have followed along the same line in defining it. In 1998, Carnes Lord, former Deputy Director of the U.S. Information Agency, stated that the most important role of public diplomacy was to support the national military policy ("Definitions of Public Diplomacy," n.d.). In 2004, Jill Schuker, the former Senior Director for Public Affairs at the National Security Council, defined it as the most effective weapon for reaching out to foreign publics and persuading them about the vision and ideas of the United States. In 2005, Alan Henrikson, Professor of Diplomatic History, defined it as "the conduct of international relations by governments through public communications media and through dealings with a wide range of nongovernmental entities (political parties, corporations, trade associations, labor unions, educational institutions, religious institutions, ethnic groups, and so on including influential individuals) for the purpose of influencing the politics and actions of other governments" (Definitions of Public Diplomacy," n.d., para. 6).

The many definitions of public diplomacy have shared the same assumption of public diplomacy being a crucial foreign policy process of influencing foreign public opinion for the purpose of influencing foreign policy. It makes a significant contribution to the idea of *soft power*, which is the reverse of *hard power* or the use of military or economic power to influence foreign policy decisions (Nye, 2004). Nye (2004) associates *soft power* with a country's efforts to achieve its goals through *attraction* rather than *coercion*. Public diplomacy efforts largely determine the extent of soft power held by a given country and whether the use of hard power is legitimized (Nye, 2008). Public diplomacy is also called *people's diplomacy* because of the significance of involving foreign citizens in the process. Thus, Malone (1998) emphasizes that the objective of public diplomacy is "to influence the behavior of a foreign government by influencing the attitudes of its citizens" (p. 3). It is like a two-step process during which a government utilizes foreign publics as opinion leaders to change the behaviors of their own governments (Yun & Toth, 2009). Thus, facilitating the communication between a country and foreign publics should be the primary goal of public diplomacy for the ultimate purpose of promoting national interests and security (Zhang & Swartz, 2009).

To contribute to research on public diplomacy, this dissertation seeks to address the limitations of existing research and to bring theory and practice together by using existing theoretical frameworks to fill the gap of what is needed in the practice of public diplomacy. In short, according to existing research on public diplomacy, public diplomacy has the following conceptual definition: Public diplomacy is the diplomatic efforts of engaging with foreign publics for the purpose of influencing their public opinion to bring about policy change and involves both one-way and two-way efforts to understand foreign publics and build relationships with them through both state and non-state actors.

1.2 Purpose of Study

It is a commonly believed in the business world that "if you cannot measure it, you cannot manage it" (Ryan, 2014, para. 7). However, Ryan (2014) believes that the vast majority of important things in the business world are not measurable. But in terms of public diplomacy, Wallin (2014) suggested that it is important to develop short-, medium- and long-term metrics for measuring public diplomacy effectiveness to ensure that the efforts are meeting their goals. The lack of evaluation tools could lead to the lack of coordination efforts between public diplomacy and public affairs departments, the duplication of evaluation efforts, the lack of a uniform basis in analyzing programs, and a discrepancy between program planning and evaluation (Armstrong, 2010). Despite this, the accurate measurement of public diplomacy effectiveness remains a holy grail (Wallin, 2012).

Because the lack of evaluation tools can lead to a mismatch between program planning and program outcomes, resources could be misallocated as a consequence. There have been repeated calls for the development of a systematic and professional model for measuring performance (Banks, 2011). Without such a tool to measure public diplomacy outcomes, it is difficult to justify the investment of resources into the programs. Practitioners are unable to design effective programs to train their staff and to reach their audience. They are also unable to make predictions on what types of programs best fulfill their objectives. Thus, it is necessary to integrate evaluation into the organizational framework and to conduct evaluation as a long-term strategy (Banks, 2011).

It is desirable to develop a measurement tool for measuring public diplomacy outcomes, but it is not without challenges (Banks, 2011). First, there are many external factors affecting public diplomacy outcomes, such as leadership changes. When Barack Obama became president of the United States in 2008, Europeans' impression on the United States improved. Hence, it is impossible to attribute the outcomes to public diplomacy efforts alone. Second, internal factors could also affect the outcomes, such as the objectives of the funding institutions and their resources. Third, there are inherent problems in the development of a measurement tool, such as the duration of the measurement period, having to turn intangible outcomes into measurement outcomes and having to adjust the measurement tool in accordance with the changing environment. But without taking the first step to attempt to develop a measurement tool, *smart diplomacy* could turn into *dumb diplomacy*. For instance, the efforts made to undermine adversary regimes like Cuba and Russia are counter-productive efforts of *covert public diplomacy* that has perpetrated the failure of traditional diplomacy (Beehner, 2014).

The lack of scholarship attention has been one of the major challenges in the development of a measurement tool because research is essential for building a foundation for performance evaluation (Banks, 2011). Moreover, Banks has highlighted other difficulties for developing a tool. For example, the impact of public diplomacy can only be seen in the long term. It also requires a lot of resources to measure the intangible changes in awareness, attitudes and perceptions. In addition to the changes in political leadership, changes in the development of new media technologies also require changes in measurement. Without a baseline scale on which one can benchmark against for the development of a measurement scale, developing a scale which can address all the problems that Banks has highlighted remains difficult.

A measurement scale for public diplomacy may not necessarily address all the problems, but it will ideally address some of them. Attempts have been made to measure public diplomacy efforts. Qualitative and quantitative methods were used to measure the positive impact of exchange programs and engagement through social media; program participants reported a higher level of favorability towards the United States than non-program participants (Wallin, 2012). The Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs conducted surveys and focus groups with public diplomacy professionals and academics and reviewed public diplomacy programs and expert speakers, but the lack of time, funds and access caused the efforts to fall short of what was expected (Armstrong, 2010). Also, due to the small sample size, the findings drawn from the study could not be substantiated. Nevertheless, the graduate students involved in the study were commended for "attempting to quantify the unquantifiable" (para. 11).

In 2012, Tara Sonenshine, the Under Secretary for Public Diplomacy and Public Affairs, reasserted the importance of measuring the aggregate impact of public diplomacy in influencing public opinion and the interest that the country has in measuring the effectiveness of public diplomacy (Sonenshine, 2012). Although Hillary Clinton was acclaimed for her use of *e-diplomacy* for engaging with foreign publics, *e-diplomacy* also faced the same problem of the lack of measurement tools which are necessary for developing timely and measurable public diplomacy programs (Funnel, 2014).

In view of repeated calls for the development of a tool for measuring public diplomacy effectiveness, the objective of this dissertation is to develop a scale to measure public diplomacy *outcomes* based on which practitioners can measure the *perceived relationship quality* between a country and its foreign publics. It adopts the different categories of public diplomacy efforts involving both state and non-state actors as predictor variables and foreign publics' communicative actions as the outcome variables of the perceived relationship quality. Due to the similarities between *public relations* and *public diplomacy* (e.g. Fitzpatrick, Fullerton, & Kendrick, 2013; L'Etang, 2009; Signitzer & Coombs, 1992; Yun & Toth, 2009;), the existing organization-public relationship assessment (OPRA) scale in public relations is used as a reference guide to develop the Relationship Assessment of Diplomatic Interaction Outcome (RADIO) scale.

CHAPTER 2. PUBLIC RELATIONS AND PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

2.1 Similarities between Public Relations and Public Diplomacy

According to the web site of the *Public Relations Society of America*, a vote in 2011/2012 found that public relations is best defined as "a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics" (Corbett, 2012, para. 1). Lee and Jun (2013) borrowed the organization-public relationship scale (OPR) from public relations to measure the relationship between South Korean students and the U.S. embassy in South Korea because of the relevance of public relations to public diplomacy. L'Etang (2009) highlighted the similarities of the roles between public relations and public diplomacy practitioners in their responsibility of managing communication for building relationships with foreign publics. Yun and Toth (2009) explained that public diplomacy involves foreign publics in public affairs to achieve mutual understanding and allows a higher level of openness in civil society.

Even though much research on public diplomacy highlights its significance in *changing attitudes*, public relations and public diplomacy share similarities in terms of their purpose of *achieving mutual understanding* through relationship building. Signitzer and Coombs (1992) have discussed the similarities between the two. The one-way asymmetrical approach is similar to the tough-minded approach in public diplomacy which focuses on the purpose of influencing foreign attitudes. It is the one-way communication approach which primarily uses public diplomacy as a means to cultivate national image (Zhang & Swartz, 2009). The two-way symmetrical approach is similar to the tender-minded approach in public diplomacy which serves the purpose of creating a climate of mutual understanding (Signitzer & Coombs, 1992). It involves the cultivation of a favorable communication environment for the purpose of promoting mutual understanding to advocate national interests (Zhang & Swartz, 2009).

2.2 One-way Public Diplomacy Efforts

One-way public diplomacy efforts refer to activities which involve disseminating information to foreign publics for the purpose of persuading them (Signitzer & Coombs, 1992; Zhang & Swartz, 2009). A nation may seek feedback from them, but the ultimate purpose is to persuade them, not to be influenced by them. The Broadcasting Board of Governors (BBG), which is an independent agency which oversees all U.S. government-sponsored international broadcasting around the world, is an example of one-way public diplomacy efforts. Its mission is "to inform, engage and connect people around the world in support of freedom and democracy" ("About," n.d., para.2). Some examples of the broadcasting networks it oversees include the Voice of America, which consists of the programming of radio, television, and the Internet in 43 languages, and the Middle East Broadcasting Network, which is responsible for operating Alhurra Television and Radio Sawa to disseminate favorable information about the United States in 22 countries in the Middle East and North America.

One-way public diplomacy activities strive to convey favorable information about a nation, but such types of purpose-driven programs are often criticized for only seeking to manipulate public perception. China has been advertising on the electronic billboards at the Time Square in New York City (China and Public Diplomacy: A CPD Reader, 2012). China has also spent $6 million broadcasting CCTV internationally in English, Arabic, Spanish and Russian "to get China's story out to the world" (The Listening Post, 2012). But the Listening Post of Al Jazeera posed a critical question of whether China was practicing its "soft power" or "hard sell" skills because Al Jazeera's reporters were banned from investigating the many social issues that China had been unwilling to address. Therefore, China's broadcasting of CCTV internationally was only seen as serving the purpose of rebuking foreign media's portrayal of China's issues and building a favorable image of the nation. Such criticisms points to the need of examining whether public diplomacy can be effective just as a *messaging* function. As the *behavioral, strategic management paradigm* of public relations portrays, if a country treats its foreign publics poorly, no matter how much messaging efforts it has made, its reputation will not be improved. It is actions which speak louder than words, not the other way around (Grunig & Kim, 2011). Therefore, a relational approach to measuring public diplomacy effectiveness, which emphasizes *mutual understanding*, would capture the importance of adjusting the *actions* through relationship building rather than adjusting the *messages* through persuasion to reach positive public diplomacy outcomes.

In spite of the criticisms of the one-way public diplomacy efforts, its advantages should not be discredited. Show (2009) argues that these asymmetrical methods were important for informing and building a case for a nation's position. After the terrorist attack on September 11th, 2001, President George W. Bush commented that there was some misunderstanding about the United States that the United States had to do a better job in building its case. Also, for countries which do not possess as much cultural capital, such as China, it is necessary to first implement one-way communication efforts to arouse interest in the nation before being engaged in a dialogue to build mutual understanding with foreign publics (Servaes, 2012). Although it had successfully held the Olympics Games in Beijing in 2008 and the Shanghai World Expo in 2010 and had established many chapters of the Confucius Institutes around the world to promote the Chinese language and culture, the significance of its educational and cultural exchanges remains relatively limited compared to other world powers like the United States. Thus, the one-way approach is beneficial for arousing curiosity in the country for two-way communication to be successfully executed afterwards. Likewise, in public relations, the mixed motive model suggests a combination of the two-way asymmetrical and two-way symmetrical models (Grunig, 2001).

2.3 Two-way Public Diplomacy Efforts

The two-way approach to public diplomacy emphasizes enhancing mutual understanding and reducing misunderstanding between a country and its foreign publics. The objective of two-way communication activities is “to promote mutual understanding to facilitate an execution of foreign policy” (Zhang & Swartz, 2009, p. 382). In the United States, educational and cultural exchange programs are preferred (Servaes, 2012). Examples of such programs or activities include academic exchange programs, such as the Fullbright progam, and the export and import of cultural products, such as music and movies. The web site of the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (ECA) states that the Fullbright Program strives to build friendly and peaceful relations between the United States and foreigners through academic, cultural, athletic and professional exchanges, as well as public-private partnerships (“Our Mission,” n.d.). Culture and mass communication play a significant role in shaping the dialogue for the purpose of public diplomacy (Servaes, 2012).

Even though the phrase *mutual understanding* is emphasized in the two-way approach to conducting public diplomacy, there has not been specific guidelines on how to go about doing it. For example, cultural programs can be seen as both a one-way and a two-way effort of public diplomacy. In addition to media programming by agencies like the Broadcasting Board of Governors, Fisher (2009) saw cultural diplomacy, which refers to the consumption of a cultural good such as music and firms by foreign publics, as a one-way communication effort because of its serving a direct messaging function by placing an emphasis on *telling* rather than *reciprocating*. Thussu (2000) also discussed that there is a dominant flow of cultural goods from the West to the East and that the contra-flow of cultural goods from the East to the West remains limited. As a result, Dutta-Bergman (2006) criticized the United States for hiding its agenda of propaganda in utilizing entertainment as its public diplomacy efforts. Thus, further research should be conducted to look into how mutual understanding is enhanced when conducting public diplomacy efforts.

2.4 Actors & Activities in Public Diplomacy

State actors, namely governmental institutions, play an integral role in the planning and execution of public diplomacy programs, but unlike traditional diplomacy, non-state actors are also involved. Public diplomacy consists of activities performed by governments, private individuals, and groups with the goal of influencing public attitudes for the purpose of promoting national interests (Servaes, 2012). It is different to traditional diplomacy because it is “about positioning a nation in wider context and strategically using relationships to accomplish foreign policy goals" (Servaes, 2012, p. 645). Thus, the state is a major actor, but not the only actor.

An example of the state's involvement in public diplomacy is official visits by the head of states. Wang and Chang (2004) studied media content as a way to measure the impact of the Chinese president's visit to the United States in 1997. This way of measuring public diplomacy *outputs* could address part of Banks' (2011) criticism of not being able to measure all external factors affecting public diplomacy effectiveness because only media content about the visit itself was studied. The study was built on the assumption that media content would ultimately influence public perceptions. But the assumption could be a limitation because the objective of public diplomacy is not to change media content. Measuring media as public diplomacy *outputs* is not the ultimate objective of public diplomacy. At best, the media is a source of information for foreign publics, but it does not necessarily reflect the perceptions of foreign publics, which are the public diplomacy *outcomes* that public diplomacy aspires to reach. As Banks (2011) defined *outputs* as activities which are designed to generate desired outcomes and *outcomes* as the results following the successful implementation of outputs, outcomes are the ultimate objective beyond the control of execution agencies and should be measured as the effectiveness of public diplomacy efforts.

There are several dimensions of soft power. When Nye (1990) introduced the concept of *soft power* in 1990, he identified culture, political values and foreign policies as the three new dimensions of international relations which work concurrently to create an international climate for shaping public opinion which could lead to changes in the political decision-making process. Kim and Ni (2011) also broke down the conceptual dimensions of *soft power* into several dimensions. First, public diplomacy seeks to *attract foreign publics' favorability* for the purpose of influencing public opinion. Second, cultural attractiveness refers to "the amount of foreign export of cultural products, such as movies, TV contents, music, exhibitions, publications, number of visiting artisans" (p. 134). Third, *political attractiveness* refer to people's satisfaction with the political systems of foreign countries, such as their political freedom and their number of political prisoners. Forth, *educational attractiveness* is measured by the number of international students studying in a country and the amount of expenditure these international students bring to the country annually. Lastly, *communality* refers to the level of responsiveness to a foreign country's social problems like poverty and violence through providing foreign aids without conditions and volunteering for these countries for humanitarian purposes. In short, these dimensions can be used as a starting point based on which measurement methods for soft power should be developed.

In addition to the above five conceptual dimensions of soft power, Kim and Ni (2011) has also created a positive model for the antecedents of soft power. The model comprises of two types of antecedents: the institutional/governmental antecedents and the non-institutional/nongovernmental antecedents. The institutional/governmental antecedents consist of the *political interactions* and the *economic interactions* between two countries; these interactions are conducted by governments. The noninstitutional/nongovernmental antecedents consist of *people-to-people interactions* and *cultural interactions*. Kim and Ni have classified some important dimensions of antecedents to public diplomacy. In addition to these, Tam and Kim (2014) suggested that transnational corporations should also be considered a non-state actor of public diplomacy because their operations overseas do make an impact on the reputation of their countries of origin. Hence, they added a fifth dimension named *corporate diplomacy*, which are operationalized as *corporate interactions* in this study, to relate as an antecedent to their countries' of origin public diplomacy efforts.

2.5 Public Diplomacy Evaluation

It is arguable whether public diplomacy outcomes can be measured because not everything is quantifiable, especially when conceptual definitions have not been fully developed for all the related concepts to be operationalized and to be measured quantitatively. Thus, evaluating public diplomacy outcomes can be difficult, but it can lead to a better allocation of resources to ensure the success of public diplomacy programs. Banks (2011) outlines some of the advantages of being able to measure public diplomacy outcomes, including a better allocation of resources, a justification for the investment of financial resources into public diplomacy efforts, a better development of best practices, building up motivation for improvements, being able to moderate some inflated expectations, being able to justify the use of soft power as an alternative to hard power, building a domestic support constituency, attracting support from policymakers and confronting the assumptions made about public diplomacy. Having a tool for evaluating public diplomacy outcomes will also help to advance public diplomacy practice and research.

Banks (2011) proposed a systematic integration of public diplomacy as a long-term strategy into the organizational framework without which practitioners will be prevented from developing effective public diplomacy programs to reach their audience and to meet their organizational objectives. Alhurra is an example of a failed public diplomacy effort. As an Arabic language television station run as part of the United States' public diplomacy efforts, it was criticized for its failure in attracting its audience (Lynch, 2007). It was considered a tool for American propaganda because it did not cover the issues that its intended audience actually cared about. Similarly, the Voice of America, also part of the United States' international broadcasting efforts overseas, was criticized for not covering issues which are of interest to its international audience (Lipien, 2013). During the Bush administration, a lot of resources were invested into these programs, but these programs were considered to have caused a "credibility crisis" as a result of its being a mouthpiece for the U.S. government ("U.S.-funded Arab TV's Credibility Crisis," 2008). Thus, it may be assumed that producing favorable content about a country contributes to soft power, but its effects may be the reverse.

The amount of investments made for public diplomacy efforts may not translate into the results intended, but empirical research has been conducted to try to measure public diplomacy efforts so as to develop better plans for public diplomacy. Lee and Jun (2013) conducted an empirical study to evaluate public diplomacy outcomes by borrowing the organization-public relationship assessment (OPRA) scale in public relations. It was assumed in their study that South Korean college students' reported relationship quality with the U.S. embassy would predict their attitudes towards the embassy and the United States which would in turn predict their behavioral intentions towards the United States and American citizens in terms of making friends with Americans, wishing to visit the United States and wanting to study in the United States. Only two dimensions from the OPRA scale were found to be significant predictors, namely *satisfaction* and *exchange relationships*.

Lee and Jun's (2013) attempt to use the OPRA scale to evaluate public diplomacy outcome has demonstrated the utility of the OPRA scale in evaluating public diplomacy outcomes. They conducted the study because they found current research on public diplomacy to be too abstract and normative. In fact, many publications on public diplomacy are conceptual and not empirical; even without real data, they would proceed to give normative advice. Lee and Jun's advice is that empirical and theory-driven research is necessary. They had to choose the U.S. embassy in South Korea as a public diplomacy organization in their study because the OPRA scale could only be used to measure the relationship quality between an organization and its publics. It was a limitation because there were many other factors contributing to foreign publics' attitudes and behavioral intentions towards the United States other than their reported relationships with the U.S. embassy. Hence, they also recommended that more sophisticated measures be developed to measure public diplomacy outcomes.

There are several reasons why public relations research could be borrowed for the development of a scale for evaluating public diplomacy outcomes. First, the majority of research on public relations were grounded on empirical studies; the measurement scales in public relations were developed based on empirical data. Second, public diplomacy is a specialty area within communication, similar to public relations. The difficulties that researchers face in developing a scale for evaluating public diplomacy more or less resemble that public relations researchers encounter in developing a scale for evaluating public relations. When Grunig, Grunig and Dozier (2002) discussed the value of public relations, they pointed out similar challenges, such as the challenge of measuring long-term effects and having to turn the nonmonetary value of relationship outcomes into a monetary value. Because public relations research has a longer history, its measurement scales have been developed and refined over the years. It could provide helpful insights into developing a measurement tool for public diplomacy.

Public relations can be broken down into two parts: publics and relations. Publics are defined as a group of individuals who are confronted with a problem, which is a consequence caused by an organization, decide to organize themselves and do something to resolve the problem (Grunig & Hunt, 1984). Relations refer to relationship building, cultivation and maintenance strategies with publics. It is believed that good relationships with publics provide long-term benefits to organizations because it helps to prevent crises and thus, reduce possible litigation costs (Grunig, Grunig, & Dozier, 2002). To measure relationships, Huang (1997, 2001) developed the organization-publics relationship assessment (OPRA) scale which has been used and refined over the years. For example, to measure public diplomacy outcomes, Lee and Jun (2013) tested the practical and functional utility of the dimensions in the OPRA scale. They validated the reliability and validity of the scale based on Hon and Grunig's (1999) OPRA dimensions.

To develop a scale to measure public diplomacy, Lee and Jun (2013) used the dimensions in the OPRA scale as the predictor variables for predicting publics' attitudes which in turn predict behavioral intentions towards a country. The OPRA scale includes the following dimensions: *control mutuality*, *trust*, *commitment*, *satisfaction*, *exchange relationship* and *communal relationships* (Hon & Grunig, 1999). When Huang (2001) first developed the OPRA scale, she adopted the definition of organization-public relationships as "the state which exists between an organization and its key publics in which the actions of either entity impact the economic, social, political, and/or cultural well-being of the other entity" (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999, p. 160, as cited in Huang, 2001, p. 64). She later refined it as "the degree that the organization and its publics, trust each other, agree on one has rightful power to influence, experience satisfaction with each other, and commit oneself to one another" (Huang, 1998, p. 12, as cited in Huang, 2001, p. 650). Thus, the dimensions were developed based on these definitions.

The measures in OPRA scale became further developed over the years. Originally, four measures were developed in the OPRA scale after which Huang (2001) added one which only applied to the Asian culture and Hon and Grunig (1999) added two additional measures. *Control mutuality* refers to "the degree to which parties agree on who has the rightful power to influence one another" (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). This measure is useful for symmetrical communication and conflict resolution (Huang, 2001). *Trust* refers to "one party's level of confidence in and willingness to open oneself to the other party" (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). There are three dimensions under trust. First, *integrity* refers to "the belief that an organization is fair and just" (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). Second, *dependability* refers to "the belief that an organization will do what it says it will do" (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). Third, *competence* refers to "the belief that an organization has the ability to do what it says it will do" (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). Symmetrical communication generates trust, which is also crucial for conflict resolution.

In addition to *control mutuality* and *trust*, there are two other measures in the original OPRA scale. *Relational satisfaction* refers to "the extent to which one party feels favorably toward the other because positive expectations about the relationship are reinforced" (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). In an organization-public relationship with high relational satisfaction, the rewards outweigh the costs. *Relational commitment* refers to “the extent to which one party believes and feels that the relationship is worth spending energy to maintain and promote” (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). There are two dimensions under relational commitment. First, *continuance commitment* refers to “a certain line of action.” Second, *affective commitment* refers to “an emotional orientation” (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3). If a party is committed to a relationship, it has a desire to maintain the relationship.

After the original OPRA scale was developed, Huang (2001) and Hon and Grunig (1999) added more measures to measure organization-public relationships. Huang (2001) added a fifth measure named *interpersonal relationships* which are specifically applied to the Eastern culture. It was developed based on her empirical study conducted in Taiwan during which she developed the measures of *renqing*, which is broadly defined as staying in touch and offering help when needed, and *mianzi*, which is defined as maintaining face in front of others during social interactions. Hon and Grunig (1999) added two additional measures. First, *exchange relationship* is defined as a party’s willingness to provide benefits to another party because it receives benefits in return. These benefits are given only because the giving party has received benefits from the other party in the past and expects such giving of benefits to continue in the future. Second, *communal relationship* is defined as both parties’ willingness to give benefits to each other without expecting anything in return. They are genuinely concerned about other parties’ welfare and wellbeing.

The following table summarizes how the measures of the OPRA scale have been defined (Hon & Grunig, 1999; Huang, 2001):

Table 2.1 Definitions of Dimensions in the OPRA Scale

	Hon & Grunig (1999)	**Huang (2001)**
Control Mutuality	"The degree to which parties agree on who has the rightful power to influence one another. Although some balance is natural, stable relationships require that organizations and publics each have some control over the other." (p. 3)	"The degree to which parties agree on who has the rightful power to influence one another" (Hon & Grunig, 1999, p. 3, as cited in Huang, 2001, p 65)
Trust	"One party's level of confidence in and willingness to open oneself to the other party. There are three dimensions to trust: *integrity* (the belief that an organization is fair and just), *dependability* (the belief that an organization will do what it says it will do), and *competence* (the belief that an organization has the ability	"One's confidence in and willingness to open oneself up to fair and aboveboard dealings with the other party." (p. 66)

	to do what it says it will do)." (p. 3)	
Relational Satisfaction	"The extent to which each party feels favorably toward the other because positive expectations about the relationship are reinforced. A satisfying relationship is one in which the benefits outweigh the costs." (p. 3)	"Perceptions of partners' constructive maintenance behaviors increase one's satisfaction with the relationship." (p. 67)
Relational Commitment	"The extent to which each party believes and feels that the relationship is worth spending energy to maintain and promote. Two dimensions of commitment are *continuance* commitment, which refers to a certain line of action, and *affective* commitment, which is an emotional orientation." (p. 3)	"An exchange partner believing that an ongoing relationship with another is so important as to warrant maximum efforts at maintaining it; that is, the committed party believes the relationship is worth promoting and savoring to ensure that it endures indefinitely." (Morgan & Hunt, 1984, p. 23, as cited in Huang, 2001, p. 68)

Exchange Relationship	"In an exchange relationship, one party gives benefits to the other only because the other has provided benefits in the past or is expected to do so in the future." (p. 3)	-
Communal Relationship	"In a communal relationship, both parties provide benefits to the other because they are concerned for the welfare of the other – even when they get nothing in return. For most public relations activities, developing communal relationships with key constituencies is much more important to achieve than would be developing exchange relationships." (p. 3)	-
Face (Mianzi)	-	"One should keep in contact with the acquaintances in one's social network, exchanging gifts,

		greetings or visitations with them from time to time, and when a member of one's reticulum gets into trouble or faces a difficult situation, one should sympathize, offer help, and do a *renqing* for that person." (Hwang, 1987, p. 954, as cited in Huang, 2001, p. 69)
Favor (Renqing)	-	"Maintaining face or doing a face-work in front of others is important in social interactions, especially for expanding or enhancing human networks." (p. 69)

While the measures of the OPRA scale have been used extensively, it is possible that these measures do not apply to all *types* of relationships. In this respect, Grunig and Hung (2002) classified relationships into two types based on their conceptual definition of *reputation*. Reputation can be seen as an aggregate of an organization's relationships with its publics. They define reputation as "the distribution of cognitive representations that members of a collectivity hold about an organization representations that may, but do not always, include evaluative components" (Grunig & Hung, 2002, p. 20). First-order relationships are called *experiential relationships*, which are held between an organization and its publics which have direct experiences with the organization. Second-order relationships are called *reputational relationships*, which are developed based on what others say about an organization. There are also relationships developed based on a combination of both experiential and reputational relationships. However, this classification of relationships may be considered overly simplistic; some may argue that other factors should be taken into consideration when classifying relationships, such as one's exposure to an organization. In the context of public diplomacy, if a person is repeatedly exposed to a foreign culture because of interpersonal interactions, even without travelling to the country, he or she may actually have more first-hand experiences with the country than someone who has traveled to the country. Thus, further research on the classification of relationships will be necessary.

2.6 Building a Conceptual and Operational Definition

Prior to data collection, researchers are to first choose a definition which is the most appropriate and with which other researchers will agree (Schultz, Whitney, & Zickar, 2014). Without specifying such a conceptual definition, it will be difficult to differentiate the concept from other similar concepts. Based on such a conceptual definition, the concept will be operationalized by breaking it down into different dimensions for the purpose of measurements.

Because this dissertation suggests an integration of public relations' measurement scale into public diplomacy, it adopts a conceptual definition of public diplomacy based on the above literature review on public relations and public diplomacy. The definition that the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) suggested stresses being strategic about building relationships which benefit both an organization and its publics (Corbett, 2012). The word *strategic* implies the prioritization of resources for relationship building with *certain* publics when organizations are constrained by limited resources. These publics are also called *strategic constituencies* whose support or opposition to an organization can prevent it from attaining its goals (Grunig & Hunt, 1984). PRSA's definition is in line with the belief that "public relations is all about building and maintaining an organization's relationships with its publics" (Broom, Casey, & Ritchey, 1997).

The objective of public diplomacy in achieving the goal of changing public opinion for the ultimate purpose of changing foreign policy is highlighted in existing definitions of public diplomacy, but Leonard has adopted a definition of public diplomacy which is the most similar to the definition of public relations: "public diplomacy is about building relationships: understanding the needs of other countries, cultures and peoples; communicating our points of view; correcting misconceptions; looking for areas where can find common sense…" (Leonard, 2002, as cited in Kelly, 2009, p. 74). Similarly, the United States Information Agency has also used a similar definition of public diplomacy that it is "to promote the national interests of the United States through *understanding*, *informing*, and *influencing* foreign audiences" (United States Information Agency, 1997, as cited in Zaharna, 2009, p. 88).

To bring together existing research in public relations and public diplomacy, this dissertation approaches public diplomacy in public relations perspectives by emphasizing it as a relationship-building function between a country and its foreign publics. In the process, strategic communication is utilized to understand publics for the purpose of relationship building. Hence, this dissertation brings together the numerous existing definitions and adopts the following as the conceptual definition of public diplomacy: *Public diplomacy is a strategic communication process of understanding, informing, and influencing for the purpose of building mutually beneficial relationships between a country and its foreign publics. It is conducted by both state and non-state actors and includes but is not limited to one-way and two-way political, economic, cultural, interpersonal and corporate interactions, which are antecedents to perceived relationship quality.*

2.7 Reputation and Effective Public Diplomacy

While public relations concepts have been frequency used in public diplomacy research, Macnamara (2012) argued that there are some unique aspects about public diplomacy that public relations should embrace, such as its being "more effective, more societally-accepted, more ethical, and ultimately more publicly accepted" (p. 322). But such arguments are generally built on the assumption that public relations is only conducted asymmetrically. It is often a problem that the image that corporations present are not congruent with what the public expects. The problem with an emphasis on image creation is that "image is not solely controlled by the organization, but it is also an audience-determined product" (Wan & Schell, 2007, p. 26). If the public sees the image as being partially constructed by an organization's communication efforts, then the relationship becomes symbiotic (Grunig, 1993). Public relations would be serving the purpose of managing the impressions publics form of them (Heath, 1994). But a symbiotic relationship should not be the ultimate goal of public relations; the creation of a behavioral relationship should be the ultimate goal of effective communication. That is, the organization should endeavor to facilitate mutual understanding with publics after which image, or relationship, becomes a joint product which reflects the needs and desires of both parties (Grunig, 1993). The goal is "to facilitate the development of shared meanings, values, and beliefs" (Eisenberg, 1986, p. 90).

Public relations should serve a valuable function to public diplomacy because it makes a positive impact on the reputation and the bottom lines of an organization (Kim, 2001). It helps organizations achieve organizational effectiveness by helping to build stable relationships over time and reducing the costs of possible conflicts (Huang, 2001). Huang also found that during conflicts, the organization-public relationships that public relations helps to build serve a mediating function. Similarly, relationship quality produces mediating effects on generating supportive behaviors, in terms of the intention of being engaged in relationship-building behaviors such as giving donations (Kang & Yang, 2010). Because the outcomes of relationships in their study were based on what individuals had in mind about an organization based on their past and ongoing relational experiences, Kang and Yang also suggested a shift of focus from studying organization-public relationships based on reputational relationships to experiential relationships. In the case of public diplomacy, supportive behaviors can also be studied as the outcomes of successful relationship building. As existing research shows that two-way symmetrical approach to public relations management can lead to quality relationships which will in turn lead to the rise of supportive behaviors and the reduction of unsupportive behaviors, public diplomacy research should also study supportive behaviors as the outcomes of relationship building.

The goal of public relations should be to contribute to organizational effectiveness whereas public diplomacy should serve the purpose of contributing to the effectiveness of a country's international relations. In terms of measuring the effectiveness of public relations, Huang (2012) conducted a study with 524 public relations professionals in the United States, Europe and Hong Kong to come up with three dimensions for measuring the value of public relations to organizational effectiveness: media publicity, organization-public relations, and organizational reputation, which is defined as the aggregation perceptions about an organization. It has always been believed that the value of public relations is to build long-term relationships with strategic publics. Grunig (1993) further explains that the *reputation* to which it contributes in fact represents the sum of the *behavioral* relationships, which is another term for *experiential* relationships, an organization has with its publics. Ni (2008) also found a perceived connection between relationship building and the implementation of global strategies by multinational corporations. Thus, the value of relationships should be seen as an organizational resource contributing to the execution of strategies. Similarly, in public diplomacy, relationships should be seen as a country's valuable resource.

To achieve effectiveness, as previously mentioned, the two-way symmetrical model has been viewed as the most effective and the most ethical. First of all, public diplomacy needs to recognize the central role of relationship building and should conceptualize public diplomacy as a management function rather than a messaging function (Grunig, 2006; Ledingham, 2003). Not only should the coorientation model be used as a symmetrical strategy of sharing tasks; nation states ought to practice strategic management of public diplomacy by incorporating the voices of foreign publics into the country's decision-making process. For them to behave in an internationally acceptable way, they must conduct environmental scanning to identify the foreign publics on whom their decisions make an impact (Grunig, 2006). Broom, Casey and Ritchey (2000) also pointed how to conduct measurements for each stages of relationship building. First, for the *antecedent* phase, environmental scanning should be conducted to understand the publics. Second, in the *relationship* state, ongoing observations should be done by both organizations and publics. Third, in the *consequence* stage, there should be coorientational measurement. As a result of such relationships, meanings, interpretations and goals should be shared because both a country and its foreign publics are engaged in a process of communication as co-creators of meanings (Botan & Taylor, 2004). While there is often a gap between what a country sees and what publics view as two-way communication, the co-creational perspective can bring a country closer to achieving what foreign publics would consider *authentic stakeholder involvement* as Johnston (2014) suggested that organizations should prioritize the importance of such involvement.

All in all, public diplomacy helps to improve a country's economic, political, cultural and social relations amongst different countries (Ozkan, 2014). Through such diplomatic processes, nation states and their citizens can convey their opinion to the decision makers in other countries. It helps to promote a country's values to the world and helps a country understand other countries' values. In this dissertation, the effectiveness of public diplomacy should be measured in terms of how it contributes to a country's reputation. Grunig and Hung (2002) makes a differentiation amongst image, brand and reputation. Image refers to the impressions and perceptions of the organization held by external stakeholders; brand can be both a verb and a noun that "describes the label that a company uses to distinguish itself from rivals with its customers" (p, 16). Different to the concept of image and brand, reputation is the outcome of relationships. It has various different definitions, one of which is Fombrun and van Riel's (1997) "collective representation of a firm's past actions and results that describes the firm's ability to deliver valued outcomes to multiple stakeholders." Discontent with the reputation index of the Fortune magazine and Forbrun and van Riel's definition, Grunig and Hung (2002) re-defined reputation as "cognitive representations that members of a collectivity hold about an organization, representations that may, but do not always, include evaluative components" (p. 20). They classified reputations into two orders: the first order is *the experiential reputation* based on experience and the second level is *the reputational reputation* which is based on what others say about the organization. A combination of the two reputations is possible as well. In other words, they used cognitive representations as the measurements of study. They also discussed the idea of compensating variations, i.e. a method of transforming nonmonetary values into monetary values. Hence, open-ended questions were asked in their development of the taxonomy of cognitive representations, resulting in four types of cognitive representations: object-attribute representation, object-object representation, behavioral representation and evaluative representation. Such an approach defined reputation as *a distribution of cognitive representations* that could more effectively measure reputations. Thus, this dissertation proposes that the effectiveness of public diplomacy can be measured in terms of an aggregate of relationships (both experiential and reputational) which ultimately affects a country's reputation.

CHAPTER 3. ANTECEDENTS TO RELATIONSHIPS IN PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

3.1 Introduction

There are conceptual and practical differences and similarities between public relations and public diplomacy (Fitzpatrick. Fullerton, & Kendrick, 2013). In terms of similarity, they are both "strategic communication functions of either organizations or nation-states, and typically deal with the reciprocal consequences a sponsor and its publics have upon each other" (Signitzer & Wamser, 2006, p. 41). Moreover, in the new public diplomacy, there is a stronger focus on building mutual understanding through relationship building (Fitzpatrick, 2011). The traditional emphasis on public diplomacy being merely about communicating with foreign publics to influence their perceptions, attitudes and their countries' policies is now replaced by an emphasis on attempting to understand a nation's ideas and ideals, institutions and cultures, and national goals and policies (Fitzpatrick, Fullerton, & Kendrick, 2013). It is about building direct relations with foreign people to promote and to advance the interests of those who are represented (Sharp, 2005). As such, a public relations approach to public diplomacy should help to facilitate dialogue and mutual respect and to promote understanding (Dutta-Bergman, 2006). Thus, the communication activities facilitated to promote public diplomacy should also focus on building mutual understanding. Based on Kim and Ni's (2011) normative model of public diplomacy and soft power, this chapter discusses *political interactions* and *economic interactions* as the *institutional/government antecedents* to relationship building, *interpersonal interactions* and *cultural interactions* as the *non-institutional/non-governmental antecedents*, and introduces *corporate interactions* as a new antecedent.

3.2 Institutional/Governmental Antecedents: Political and Economic Interactions

Yun and Kim (2008) suggested that there are two dimensions within the concept of national attraction: an affective dimension and an evaluative dimension. The affective dimension is characterized by ethnic relations, which is "deeply rooted in the life experiences and social learning of each individual member of an ethic group and of each ethnic group as a whole" (p. 568). On the other hand, the evaluative dimension looks at "relationship quality between two countries and normative performance (i.e., reputation) of a foreign country on its domestic governance" (p. 568). In the institutional/governmental level, this relationship is characterized by political and economic interactions. Political and economic events might cause fluctuations in foreign publics' favorability towards a foreign country as a result of the foreign country's decisions or behaviors. Despite this, if the bilateral relationships are good in the long term, crises might only cause a temporary political strain because good relationships are able to withstand crises. Also, if a foreign country has considerably favorable domestic governance in terms of political and economic interactions, it is likely to be considered to be responsibly participating in global governance. Therefore, this study measures political and economic interactions using items which ask for evaluations of a country's emphasis on achieving mutual benefits through its political and economic activities with foreign countries.

3.3 Non-institutional/Non-governmental Antecedents: Interpersonal and Cultural Interactions

Golan (2015) suggested that governments must recognize that mass communication channels alone are not the only source of international public engagement process. Even though educational and cultural exchanges are crucial for building soft power, most citizens do not have the opportunity to be engaged in them. Because international programs which emphasize achieving mutually beneficial outcomes are considered soft power programs promoting long-term relationships through citizen-to-citizen interactions, the United States government has invested resources into educational exchanges, cultural exchanges, foreign aids, English classes, etc.. Hosting international students on its university campuses also helps to build both experiential and reputational relationships (Vibber & Kim, 2015). Golan (2015) also cited the Under Secretary of Public Diplomacy, Judith McHale, who said in 2009 that “the goal of this kind of person-to-person engagement has always been to form lasting relationships” (p. 424). Because lasting long-term relationships should be the goal of public diplomacy, both interpersonal and cultural interactions play an indispensable role in facilitating such relationships.

Because of information globalism characterized by the exchange of information, citizens around the world have access to foreign cultural products, including movies, music, fashion and food, as a result of which they become active in seeking, using and sharing cultural products from other countries (Kim & Ni, 2011). For instance, Thussu (2000) differentiated between *dominant flow* and *contra-flow* with the former being the movement of cultures from the West to the East or from the North to the South and the latter being the reverse. Thussu (2007) defines *contra-flow* as “the semantic and imaginative referents for the institutional, cultural and political matrix of a world framed by processes of global cultural power and local negotiation: a world experienced through the identity politics of nations, individuals and cultures and negotiated through contestations of locality, nationality and global citizenship" (p. 49). There is also a development of hybridity, which refers a combination of dominant flow and contra-flow. For example, the American soap opera, *Ugly Betty*, was originally inspired by a soap opera in Columbia. At the same time, the Korean wave, which has greatly influenced the culture in other parts of Asia in terms of the consumption of movies, music, food and even skincare products, is also an example of such cultural globalism. Kim and Ni (2011) suggested that Korea was able to enhance her "national invisible asset" of soft power through the Korean wave and that such a wave should embrace mutuality and reciprocity though cultural interactions (p. 151).

In addition to cultural interactions, interpersonal interactions, which are also called person-to-person interactions, are also an important antecedent to building relationships with foreign publics. It is also called sociological public diplomacy facilitated through direct interpersonal contact amongst people from different countries (Vibber & Kim, 2015). In particular, being open and willing to interact with foreign publics within a nation is of crucial importance because their direct experiences could influence the secondary experiences of those outside a nation. For those without direct experiences, the mass media shape their perceptions about a foreign country to a great extent. "Most people depend on second hand experiences or information for what they know about foreign countries and [peoples]. And for most of them, this information is not important to shaping their lives, so there is usually no need to try to obtain first hand information."

(Kunczik, 1997, p. 12). As such, those with first-hand experiences might be less influenced by the mass media than their counterparts with only second-hand experiences. Soft power programs or initiatives like the Fullbright Program, the Confucius Institute and the British Council have helped to facilitate such first-hand experiences in addition to other educational exchange programs, health tourism, etc.. In this study, interpersonal and cultural interactions are measured in terms of people's experiences and perceptions about their positive or negative influence on and their level of openness about building mutual understanding, in terms of cultures and public opinion, with foreign countries and their people.

3.4 New Measure: Corporate Interactions

According to Golan (2013), it is a strategic communication effort to involve third-party actors to be involved in government-to-citizen engagement in public diplomacy. Kochhar and Molleda (2015) suggested that multinational corporations (MNCs) are influential and active actors in global affairs that they shape international relations and the reputations of their home countries. Thus, they argued that "Corporate diplomacy is, therefore, crucial to the credibility of an organization in developing a unique position, voice, and influence in shaping public opinion and policies in the host country" (Kochhar & Molleda, 2015, p. 56). They made prepositions that to practice corporate diplomacy, MNCs should be proactive in building partnerships to bring long-term social and community change and to adapt to the economic, social, cultural, and legal conditions in the foreign markets in which they operate.

Corporations are a powerful force in solving problems on a global scale and in their engagement in other activities of international relations through which they also influence public opinion and foreign policies (Goodman, 2006). According to Servaes (2012), public diplomacy consists of activities performed by multiple actors, including governments, private individuals and groups. In this respect, corporations are considered to be playing a secondary role in helping their governments achieve acceptance of their foreign policies overseas (Ordeix-Rigo & Duarte, 2009). Goodman (2006) also argues that "Business has a considerable role to play in public diplomacy" (p. 5). Snow (2006) suggests that MNCs are one of the non-state actors "filling the vacuum left by the government" (p. 19).

Corporate diplomacy has been conceptualized but not operationalized in existing literature. Steger (2003) defines corporate diplomacy as being the management of environment through processes of co-adaptation between corporations and society to ensure that business is conducted smoothly. Ordeix-Rigo and Duarte (2009) define it as corporations' representation of other entities and their adaptation of corporate values in line with those of society in order to gain acceptance. While corporations also have their own private interests, conducting corporate diplomacy helps corporations extend their social influence and legitimacy. White, Vanc, and Coman (2011) define it as efforts of international public relations which are carried out to create favorable conditions for businesses and to build relationships with foreign publics who are able to change the publics of their governments. They cited Christian Herter, who was the General Manager of Government Relations for Socony Mobil Oil Co., in 1996, that corporate and public diplomacy work together to achieve that.

Based on the above definitions, if a corporation is only interested in pursuing its own objectives, but not its state's, it is not conducting corporate diplomacy. The efforts carried out should be aligned with the objective of extending a corporation's private interests with those of their state's. Although it might seem idealistic that corporations are unlikely to be interested in making contributions to another entity, Grunig, Grunig, and Ehling's (1992) conceptualization of an effective organization from the perspectives of the *systems theory* highlights how organizations are a subsystem within an entire system that "achieving maximum effectiveness" means "matching the organization's structure and function to its environment" (p. 74). Therefore, corporations could play an active and direct role in building the agenda on public diplomacy rather than just an indirect role in seeking to influence public opinion by influencing media coverage. They should be engaged in dialogues with multiple stakeholders so that they can take a more proactive stance to manage risk and grasp opportunities (Goodman, 2006). They should extend the reach of their relationships to groups, cultures and government institutions which affect the sustainability of the business and its impact on society (Macnamara, 2012).

Ordeix-Rigo and Duarte (2009) highlights corporate diplomacy as a process whereby corporations become acknowledged as "representatives of the society, therefore their capacity to mobilize issues into the institutional agenda of topics that are chosen as subject of serious consideration by decision makers is improved" (p. 562). They play an important role in "filling the vacuum left by the government" (Snow, 2006, p 19), an example of which includes corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities. When discussing corporate diplomacy, Steger (2003) also stressed the importance of taking care of the common good and gaining the license to operate. Thus, the CSR activities conducted by MNCs should be considered a diplomatic effort made by a non-state actor (White, Vanc, & Coman, 2011). They also play a distinctive role in solving problems on a global stage by offering more immediate assistance during disasters such as Hurricane Katrina than their governments (Goodman, 2006). As such, Goodman commented that "Global companies and their brands touch the lives of more people than government representatives could" (p. 7).

Corporations are considered to be serving a better diplomatic function than their governments because of their global presence and the cultural sensitivity that they gained through co-adaptation with the environment in which they operate (Goodman, 2006). Snow (2006) stated that "enlightened heads of multinational companies recognize that they impact not only the tastes and more of their global customers but also on occasion their societal attitudes as well" (p. 20). In public relations perspectives, the process of co-adaptation is best achieved when corporations carry out two-way symmetrical communication. The symmetrical model is the most ethical because "organizations get more of what they want when they give up some of what they want" (Grunig & White, 1992, p. 39). The behavioral, strategic management paradigm of public relations emphasizes the importance of identifying an organization's strategic constituencies for whom an organization will prioritize their resources to build relationships, implement cultivation strategies to build and maintain relationships with them, and incorporate their voices into corporate decision-making to facilitate mutual understanding through dialogues (Kim, Hung-Baesecke, Yang, & Grunig, 2013). Because MNCs are representatives of their home countries, how MNCs play their roles as boundary spanners between themselves and their publics by practicing symmetrical communication also shape how their home countries are perceived by foreign publics.

In this study, corporate diplomacy is conceptualized and operationalized as *corporate interactions* using which MNCs build relationships with foreign publics as representatives of their home countries. This study has developed new items to measure corporate interactions, specifically asking foreign publics about their experiences with MNCs, their experiences with the products and services sold by the MNCs, and their perceptions about the MNCs' positive or negative impact on foreign countries.

CHAPTER 4. PERCEIVED RELATIONSHIP QUALITY

4.1 Introduction

According to Center and Jackson (1995), the most desirable outcome of public relations is positive public relationships. Thus, the proper term of *public relations* should be *public relationships*. When it comes to building relationships, the relationship management perspective suggests that “public relations balances the interests of organizations and publics through the management of organization-public relationships” (Ledingham, 2003, p. 181). Relationships exist between an organization and its publics when their actions can make an impact on the economic, social, cultural and political well-being of the other party (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998). Thus, it is advised that public relations study the relationships between organizations and their publics (Ferguson, 1984). The Excellence Study considers relational outcomes as an indicator of effective public relations practice (Grunig, Grunig, & Dozier, 1992). These relational outcomes have a positive association with organizational reputation (Yang, 2007).

Public relations are crucial to the overall effectiveness of an organization because organizations and their publics have behavioral consequences with each other, making it crucial to segment publics for the purpose of strategically prioritizing resources to understand and to build relationships with them (Grunig & Hunt, 1984). In this respect, Grunig and Hung (2002) segmented relationships into two types. *Reputational* relationships refer to secondary relationships held between an organization and its publics when its publics have only had indirect experiences with the organization, such as through word-of-mouth communication. On the other hand, *experiential* relationships refer to relationships held between an organization and its publics when its publics have direct experiences with the organization and are highly familiar with it. For the present study, foreign publics' perceived relationships with foreign countries are also classified into *experiential* and *reputational*, with the former being characterized by one's previous visit(s) to a country and the latter characterized by the lack of such direct experiences.

In addition to the differentiation between experiential and reputational relationships, Hung (2005) also conducted 40 qualitative interviews with representatives from 36 multinational companies in China and Taiwan to explore the different types of organization-public relationships. She suggests that organization-public relationships are formed when there is interdependency between an organization and its strategic publics. Because of such an interdependency, relationships are created as a result of their being linked in some way. Such interdependency results in both parties' consequences on each other that the organization is supposed to constantly manage such consequences. A continuum with *one-side communal relationship* on one end and *exploitative relationship* on the other end was created. While participants in the study were found to be having multiple types of relationships simultaneously, most of them wish to achieve *win-win relationships*. Relationships with customers are mostly *exchange relationships*, whereas most relationships with employees and suppliers were found to be *contractual relationships*. Relationships with local people were found to be *exploitative relationships*. For organizations to serve their own interests, they also form *manipulative relationships* with the mass media. They also form *symbiotic relationships* for goal attainments or survival by working with the public. Yet, the goal is sometimes not win-win that there is no direct concern between them, but they know that they need each other for survival. For the present study on public diplomacy, even though it is not its goal to classify relationships into different types, these types of relationships may also shed light on the characteristics of the multiple simultaneous relationships held between a country and its foreign publics.

While one may hold more than one type of relationship with an organization simultaneously, relationships may also transform. For instance, *exchange relationshi*ps can be transformed into communal relationships as an organization uses corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities to pursue long-term interests (Hung, 2005). It was also found that mutual communal, covenantal and exchange relationships can also lead to win-win relationships. Even though communal relationships sound more ideal than exchange relationships, the strength of communal relationships may vary. Communal relationships may be stronger between families and friends. But these relationships do not necessarily last long. In both exchange and communal relationships, both parties involved are still expected to fulfill their responsibilities for each other. As relationships involve linkages through which organizations and their publics pursue their independent needs, they have no choice but to interact with those who control the resources for fulfilling their needs, as suggested in the systems theory (Broom, Casey, & Ritchey, 2007; Hung, 2005). Likewise, in terms of public diplomacy, multiple relationships can be held simultaneously between a country and its foreign publics as a result of their linkage of needing each other to meet their needs.

In addition to the different types of relationships, how one defines and characterizes relationships in general may also determine how they are conceptualized and operationalized. Chaffee (1991) describes *explication* as the process which links theoretical prepositions to observable phenomena. To a large extent, public relations requires an analysis of public opinions. Thus, some would define relationships as subjective realities while others would describe them as objective realities. In studying *relationships*, Broom, Casey and Ritchey (1997) suggested that there are two other things to be studied, including the *antecedents* to and the *consequences* of relationships. They define antecedents as including "the perceptions, motives, needs, behaviors, and so forth that are posited as contingencies or causes in the formation of relationships" (p. 94). They further elaborated that they are "the sources of change pressure or tension on the system derived from the environment" (p. 94). Furthermore, they can be the "social and cultural norms, collective perceptions and expectations, needs for resources, perceptions of uncertain environment and legal/voluntary necessity" (p. 94). On the other hand, the *consequences* of relationships are "the outputs that have the effects of changing the environment and of achieving, maintaining or changing goal states both inside and outside the organization" (p. 94). In the present study, the consequences of relationships, which are also known as relationship outcomes, are studied as publics' subsequent communicative behaviors of *megaphoning*, which is further explained in the next chapter.

In the present study on public diplomacy, *relationships* are studied as *perceived relationships* between a country and its foreign publics. According to Broom, Casey and Ritchey (1997), there are several properties which characterize the concept of relationships, including exchanges, transactions, communications and other types of interconnected activities. Relationships have certain properties which are unique and measurable in the sense that they are not commonly shared by publics in their relationships with organizations. When these relationships are formed and maintained, both parties enter a process of mutual adaption as a result of the linkages both parties need to meet their interdependent needs. Broom, Casey and Ritchey (1997) also argue that without explicating a conceptual definition for organization-public relationships, theory building will be constrained. Similarly, this study has given public diplomacy a conceptual definition in the previous chapter based on which a definition for relationships between a country and its foreign publics is also developed. Broom, Casey and Ritchey (1997) suggested that relationships are formed when parties involved require resources from each other, face mutual threats from the environment, have a necessity to be associated with each other or have expectations from each other. As a result, they develop relationships which are manifested through exchanges and reciprocity, causing both parties to be increasingly interdependent on each other in their behaviors for mutual goal achievements. Likewise, relationships between countries and their foreign publics are characterized by the perception of *a mutual power-sharing relational process* during which both parties are engaged in behaviors which potentially affect the other party. The perception of *mutuality* in the process of relationships differentiates *relationships* from constructs such as attitudes or behaviors and behavioral intentions, which could be studied as *antecedents* and *consequences* of relationships (e.g. Kang & Yang, 2010).

Based on the premise that relationships involve a perception of mutuality, that is, both parties have influence on each other, the Relationship Assessment of Diplomatic Interaction Outcome (RADIO) scale is developed with eight measures, four of which are applicable to both *experiential* and *reputational relationships*, two of which only applicable to *experiential relationships* and two only applicable to *reputational relationships*. Because the antecedents to relationships in the context of public diplomacy are affected by both institutional/governmental interactions and non-institutional/non-governmental interactions (e.g. Kim & Ni, 2011), the measures are also classified into two types, macro-dimensional factors and micro-dimensional factors, to highlight how perceptions about the relationships between an individual's home country and a foreign country also influence the relationships between an individual and a foreign country.

4.2 Macro-dimensional Factor: Interactional Bilateralism

The word *diplomacy* implies the *interactions* between nation states. In terms of interactions in diplomatic relations, Schultz (2001) suggested that how such relations could be affected by the frequency of interactions. Nation states with close relationships might have a high frequency of interactions, but some of them may have a lower frequency of interactions on certain issues. The geographical distance between the nation states is one of the possible reasons determining the frequency of interactions (Batten, 2003). But generally, the frequency and intensity of international interactions are seen as beneficial to nation states; in the case of South Africa, it would prevent the country from being marginalized and would make a contribution to the development of the country's diplomatic development (Muller, 1998). When analyzing protracted social conflicts, Azar (2003) pointed out the significance of the fluctuations in the intensity and frequency of interactions and the significance of the role of the government in regulating social, economic and political interactions to fulfill human needs. Yet, when a government seeks to maximize its own benefits at the expense of others and blocks others from gaining access to its governance, it may lose its legitimacy. Therefore, how a government goes about facilitating these interactions could be influential to its overall diplomatic outcomes.

The frequency of interactions can be a crucial indicator of how close two nation states are (Bau, 1990). A close relationship would be characterized by a high frequency of interactions, whereas low frequency of interactions would indicate a not-so-close relationships. Thus, this scale includes a measure of *interactional bilateralism* as a measure of the frequency of interactions. Even though it is a macro-dimensional factor capturing individuals' perceptions of the frequency of interactions between their home governments and a foreign government, it includes political interactions, economic interactions and cultural interactions in its items. It is defined as *an individual's perceived degree of frequency in terms of the amount of political, economic, and cultural interactions between his or her home country and a foreign country*.

4.3 Macro-dimensional Factor: Power Mutuality

The *mutuality* aspect of a relationship consists of a level of control and reciprocity. The OPRA scale calls such a measure within a relationship between an organization and its publics *control mutuality*. Stafford and Canary (1991) defines it as "the degree to which partners about which of them should decide relational goals and behavioral routines" (p. 224). Hon and Grunig (1999) define *control mutuality* as whether an organization listens to its publics' concerns. Because relationships involve transactions between both parties and should lead to mutual benefits, communication programs which achieve mutual understanding are more likely to succeed in terms of building quality relationships (Ledingham, 2003). Thus, the relationship theories suggest that the symmetrical approach to public relations will be the most beneficial in managing relationships which focus on common interests and shared goals. Because the control mutuality implies *the rightful power* to influence in terms of decision making, this study renames it into *power mutuality* and applies it as a macro-dimensional factor for measuring the perceived relationship between an individual's home country and a foreign country. It is defined as *an individual's perceived degree of shared power or commensurate power exercised in influencing each other in the relationship between his or her home country and a foreign country*. The items developed for measuring this focus on the extent to which they share power in terms of genuinely listening to each other and responding to each other accordingly.

4.4 Micro-dimensional Factor: Trust

The Edelman Trust Barometer (2012) found that businesses do a poor job in listening to their stakeholders. When there is a lack of transparency, an organization may be perceived to be incompetent, unreliable and lacking integrity to be trusted (Auger, 2014). Without transparency, public relations, which is supposed to act the voice of the organization, may not be able to contribute to the trust, commitment and satisfaction aspects of relationships. According to Auger (2014), *trust* consists of three aspects: competence, integrity and goodwill. Kasperson (1986) discusses that trust is a multidimensional process which should be characterized by competence, a lack of bias, the absence of a hidden agenda and a sense of urgency. In a trusting relationship, the entity should demonstrate care for the other entities it is supposed to serve and to provide adequate opportunities for those entities to voice their concerns. As a result of such a trusting relationship, the feeling of uncertainty should be reduced while a sense of openness, support and knowledge should be enhanced (Heath, Seshadri, & Lee, 1998). Hon and Grunig (1999) define trust as the extent to which publics feel that an organization has treated them fairly, can be relied on to do what it says it will do, and has the competence to provide quality services.

Trust is a crucial part of relationships in the sense that it is a component of credibility; when trust exists, then the messages from the entities will also be more persuasive (Heath, Seshadri, & Lee, 1998). Thus, communication is a prerequisite of trust; it is through the exchange of meaningful information that trust is formed (Huang, 2008). Moreover, Huang (2001) found that during a corporate crisis, the existence of trust between an organization and its publics can mediate the effects of public relations strategies for the purpose of conflict resolution. Because trust which has already existed in a relationship is formed based on expectations on an organization's ability to conduct business and provide a service, trust in an organization during a crisis helps to protect the organization because of publics' belief on its ability to handle a crisis. For public diplomacy, such a definition on trust can be translated into the belief on a foreign country's ability and the credibility of its messages.

While one of the limitations of measuring public diplomacy effectiveness is its emphasis on *outputs* rather than *outcomes*, public relations also focus more on tangible outcomes, such as the comments received, rather than relational outcomes, such as *relational trust* (Banks, 2011; Yang & Lim, 2009). Thus, Yang and Lim (2009) developed a theoretical model to argue that relational trust should be considered the central outcome of effective blog-mediated public relations because blogs initiate and nurture relationships by enabling dialogue. The *dialogue* aspect of communication enhances a reciprocity of trust as both parties help each other to achieve their goals. It is crucial to enable such a dialogue because organizations are only effective when they achieve their goals and that goal attainment must be considered part of the value of public relations (Huang, 2012).

In the 2010 Edelman Trust Barometer, transparency was ranked first as the most important business attribute, whereas trust was ranked the second. In operationalizing the conceptual definition of relational trust, three dimensions are found: integrity, dependability and competence (Ki & Hon, 2007; Yang, 2007). *Competence* refers to the extent to which an individual perceives that an organization is able to perform its duties and obligations in terms of technical skills, expertise and timeliness in completing its work (Huang, 2001). *Dependability* refers to the extent to which an individual perceives a relational partner to be reliable in terms of being able to predict its predictability and consistency in its words and acts (Yang & Lim, 2009). If an organization is not able to back up its words with actions, it will not be trusted. *Integrity* refers to the extent to which an individual perceives a relational partner to be willing to sacrifice its ethical standards to achieve its objectives in terms of honesty, discreetness, confidentiality and concern for its relational partners (Yang & Lim, 2009). Therefore, trust involves the judgment of whether a source is competent, honest, lacks a hidden agenda, and is genuinely concerned about the welfare of the people who are affected by whether the relationship is trusting (Heath, Seshadri, & Lee, 1998). A relationship characterized by distrust can increase a feeling of uncertainty, causing a lack of confidence in the organization.

Like other indicators of relationship quality, trust is best viewed as a cognition rather than a perception because it should involve the low cognitive process of the extent to which an individual recognizes an organization rather than the high cognitive process of the extent to which he or she remembers about an organization (Grunig & Hung, 2002). In public diplomacy, Ki (2015) suggests that trust is crucial for a country to maintain its credibility which is consistent with its image. It also affects whether an individual recognizes the competence and the trustworthiness of public diplomacy actors and their messages and their goodwill in being engaged in the international relationships. It is a perception of whether the parties involved can rely on each other and engage in open and symmetrical communication. Hence, this study defines trust as *the extent to which an individual feels confident about a foreign country, its citizens, social institutions, procedures, cultures and economic product*. It is measured in terms of its competence, dependability and integrity.

4.5 Micro-dimensional Factor: Empathy

Brian Turner, who used to serve in the United States Army overseas, wrote a war memoir about his life as a foreign country (Percy, 2015). In particular, he talked about the lives of the strangers he had met and showed an extent of empathy, which Percy (2015) defines as “the ability to take us into the minds of enemy combatants or ordinary civilians we find it too easy to forget” (para. 6). To exercise empathic imagination, “We must think ourselves into the lives of others” (para. 1). When applying international marketing strategies in foreign markets, businesses are advised to be aware of their self-reference criterion, which refers to “our unconscious reference to our own cultural values when examining other cultures” (Doole & Lowe, 2008, p. 84). They must enter a process of enculturation by practicing *cultural empathy*. That is, they should be able to put themselves in the position of the buyers from another culture in foreign markets. They must understand what they think, how they make decisions and how a variety of factors, such as cultures, play a role in influencing their buying behaviors. Similarly, in training intercultural teachers, nurturing empathy is seen as an important goal, which can also be fulfilled by students' going abroad to experience a foreign culture (Colon-Muniz, SooHoo, & Brignoni, 2012).

The Miriam-Webster Dictionary defines *empathy* as "the feeling that you understand and share another person's experiences and emotions, the ability to share someone else's feelings." In interpersonal relationships, empathy is associated with forgiveness (Fincham, Paleari, & Regalia, 2002). It is also associated with similar concepts like sympathy, compassion, tenderness and caring. In the context of public diplomacy, when mutual empathy is present, both parties become engaged as a result of the feeling of connections with each other. Thus, this study defines empathy as *the extent to which an individual feels empathic towards a foreign nation in terms of its position, interests, perspectives, conditions, stance on international issues*, etc.. It is measured using items worded with associated concepts, such as feelings of sympathy, care and support.

4.6 Micro-dimensional Factor: Relational Satisfaction

The *mutuality* aspect relationship building implies the importance of the feeling of satisfaction with the other party and the necessity of providing a feeling of satisfaction for the other party. In this regard, based on the OPRA scale, Hon and Grunig (1999) defined the measure of *satisfaction* as whether an individual perceives his or her relationship with an organization is satisfactory and beneficial to both parties. According to Stafford and Canary (1991), "From a social exchange perspective, a satisfying relationship is one in which the distribution of rewards is equitable and the relational rewards outweigh the cost" (p. 225). It also implies that both parties have standard expectations of each other. Relational satisfaction goes up when the standard is met or exceeded (Wood, 1996). As *expectations* are highlighted in a satisfactory relationship, this study defines *relational satisfaction* for public diplomacy as *the extent to which an individual feels favorable toward a foreign country because of positive expectations about the country, its citizens, its social institutions, its cultures and its economic products and services, and believes that such experiences should be reinforced*. Thus, the items developed for this measure based on the OPRA scale focus on individuals' perceived *happiness*, *satisfaction* and *sense of mutual benefits* with foreign countries. This measure is only used for measuring experiential relationship quality because the distribution of rewards and costs can only be experienced by those with direct experiences with a foreign country.

4.7 Micro-dimensional Factor: Relational Continuation

When parties in an experiential relationship are committed to maintaining the relationship, they need to invest resources into making such efforts. When Morgan and Hunt (1984) discussed the concept of *commitment*, they suggested that commitment implies that the committed party believes that it is worth maintaining an ongoing relationship with the other party that it is worth making the efforts to ensure that the relationship will endure indefinitely. When such a commitment to continuing the relationship exists for both parties, then the relationship will produce favorable outcomes which are beneficial for enhancing efficiency, productivity and effectiveness. For instance, relational commitment can be demonstrated through brand loyalty. There are two types of commitment: affective commitment and continuance commitment. *Affective commitment* refers to an affective or emotional orientation to an entity, whereas *continuance commitment* refers to the extent to which individuals feel committed to another entity by weighing the costs and the rewards associated with relationship maintenance (Huang, 2008). In the context of organization-employee relationships, Meyer and Allen (1984) define *continuance commitment* as the level of commitment employees feel towards their organizations by measuring the costs associated with leaving the organization.

Commitment implies making efforts to continue the relationships. Huang's (2008) study, which collected 160 valid surveys from communication managers, crisis managers and public relations managers from Taiwan's top 500 companies found that *trust* influences *relational commitment*. It is consistent with Morgan and Hunt's (1984) suggestion that parties involved in a trusting relationship value such a relationship and thus, are more likely to be committed to such a relationship. Based on the OPRA scale, Hon and Grunig (1999) defined commitment as whether an individual is committed to doing business with an organization. In this study, *relational commitment*, highlighting a commitment to continue the relationship, is renamed into *relational continuance*. It is defined as *the extent to which an individual believes and feels that the relationship between him or her and a foreign country (in terms of interacting with its citizens, its social institutions, its cultures and its economic products) is worth investing the energy to maintain and to promote, and whether such experiences should be repeated and continued*. When developing the items, the properties of commitment in terms of the extent to which they value the relationship and wish to advance the relationship through experiences. Like *relational satisfaction*, *relational continuance* is only applicable to experiential relationships because it implies the existence of a previously established relationship which is based on direct experiences.

4.8 Micro-dimensional Factor: Relational Curiosity

Because reputational relationship holders have only had indirect secondary experiences with a country, they are likely to have acquired their knowledge about the country from a variety of other sources. In Heath, Seshadri, and Lee's (1998) study about risk communication, they found that when publics had *knowledge* about the chemical companies in their surrounding areas, they reported a higher level of trust and a higher level of perceived openness and portrayed more company support. Also, *knowledge* had a negative correlation with cognitive involvement, uncertainty and dread. Thus, if a foreign individual portrays a desire to pursue knowledge and experiences about a foreign country, it is an indicator of his or her perceived relationship with a country with which he or she has no experiences.

If an individual desires to experience a country or things about that country, it portrays how a person seeks to derive pleasure through a reputational relationship characterized by a desire to experience. According to Litman (2005), curiosity is defined as "a desire to know, to see, or to experience that motivates exploratory behavior directed towards the acquisition of new information" (p. 793). Such a desire should be "intrinsically rewarding and highly pleasurable" for individuals (p. 793). The feeling of rewards comes from the reduction of the unpleasant feeling of uncertainty. When one's knowledge gap about something, that is, one's estimation of available knowledge, is reduced as one seeks and learns new information, then the individual can derive a feeling of pleasure and a greater sense of certainty.

An individual who has had no direct experiences with a country may form a desire to develop an experiential relationship with that country as a result of curiosity. Smith and Swinyard's (1988) research on advertising suggests that individuals respond to advertising by showing *awareness* and *interest*. When a consumer develops curiosity on products, he or she will be turned from a passive receiver into an active seeker of information. For low-cost and low-risk products, such curiosity can be resolved by making a trial purchase of the products. Thus, advertisers should try to generate a feeling of uncertainty in their advertisements so as to at least trigger trial purchase. Thus, advertising efforts which generate curiosity can also effectively trigger purchase decisions. In the context of public diplomacy, it may turn a reputational relationship holder into an experiential relationship holder.

To generate a feeling of curiosity in foreign publics about a country, attention and interest are necessary. When advertising about a country, the advertising efforts should not only attract attention, but also interest (Menon & Soman, 2002). When consumers are exposed to advertisements about new products, they may become interested in learning about the products as they feel like they learn something new or derive a new idea (Swasy & Rethans, 1986). To motivate consumers to learn about new products' attributes, they must first be aware of the need to fill a knowledge gap, that is, the difference between what a person knows and what he or she would like to know (Menon & Soman, 2002). By arousing curiosity, a person becomes aware of such a gap. Curiosity increases consumers' desire for new information and learning. Thus, the findings of

Menon and Soman's experiment resulted in four suggestions. First, advertisers should highlight the knowledge gap by such means as showing new features. Second, advertisers need to apply strategies for the unique positioning of brands and for guiding curiosity resolution. Third, even though receiving information may help consumers reach curiosity resolution, the information should not be provided immediately. Forth, advertisers should use consumer elaboration measures to test the effectiveness of advertising. All in all, communication efforts to arouse curiosity should be employed to enhance the curiosity to experience the new products.

In the context of relationship building in public diplomacy, generating curiosity may be done via the mass media or other communication channels. For instance, Maloney (1962) suggests that the mass media plays a role in persuasion by triggering people's curiosity for more information seeking about a product. They may acquire the information from friends, salesclerks or people who have experiences in using the products. This suggests the significance of *experiential* relationship holders in influencing *reputational* relationship holders. In the context of public diplomacy, Vibber and Kim's (2015) point about how focusing on relationships with experiential relationship holders for there could be contagion effects for them to influence reputational relationship holders can also be applied to generating curiosity.

When consumers are alerted to the existence of a knowledge gap, their desire to know and their motivation to consume new information should increase as a result of curiosity. Swasy and Rethans (1986) suggest that the nature of consumer curiosity and question generation is affected by their product knowledge. To apply it to the context of public diplomacy, consumers may accumulate knowledge by asking questions about other countries. Such a communicative behavior shows their attempt to construct or reconstruct knowledge. At the same time, it informs them of their needs for knowledge and the associated information about a country. For example, Sujan (1985) points out that consumers' prior knowledge about a category determines how consumers process new information. They may generate more attribute-originated thoughts as a result of such prior knowledge. Swasy and Rethans (1986) conducted an experiment with 450 undergraduate students and found that prior knowledge did make an impact, but when it came to innovation, both expert and novice users were similar in terms of defining innovation in abstract terms. Familiarity also matters when it came to examining whether consumers' knowledge structure affects their curiosity and question responses. In other words, existing knowledge structure in reputational relationship holders' affects how they seek new information about a foreign country.

In addition to seeking new information, curiosity should eventually result in the intention to experience. When searching for information to fill the knowledge gap and to determine what to do next, Menon and Soman (2002) suggested that curiosity does not necessarily increase the quantity of search, but mostly improves the quality of search in terms of the amount of time they spend and the attention they pay to specific information. As a result, consumers form a better and more focused system for remembering and comprehending the information. In this respect, this Internet becomes an ideal platform for seeking quality information. First, the Internet is unique because it is different in terms of interactivity, control and the provision of the depth of information. Second, to be exposed to Internet advertising, consumers must first initiate some forms of actions. Such a proactive behavior indicates that they have the *need* for the information prior to seeking it; it potentially increases the effectiveness of Internet advertising. Because consumers have control over what they see on the cyberspace and can enjoy the interactivity of choosing what they wish to see, their motivation to seek the specific information they want to consumer makes Internet advertising unique from traditional forms of advertising in triggering curiosity (Ariely, 2000; Ries & Ries, 2000).

To apply the concept of *curiosity* to the present study and to differentiate it from *attentiveness* in terms of information seeking, this study renames the concept into *relational curiosity* to highlight how reputational relationship holders have a desire to experience something new. Thus, the present study defines *relational curiosity* as *the extent to which an individual feels that he or she would like to pursue or experience a foreign country and its unique culture and social products, etc.*. It refers to a foreign person's interest and desire to experience or engage with a foreign country behaviorally in the near future in various aspects, including the desire to visit, to buy, to taste the food, to meet or make friends from the foreign country, etc..

4.9 Micro-dimensional Factor: Relational Attentiveness

According to Norton and Pettegrew (1979), when the communication process is working, there should be *attentiveness* signals. It is differentiated from attention in the sense that *attention* involves the human process of reception and cognition. Attention is different to attentiveness because it is a neurological process through which human beings give meanings to things. If there is no attention, then there is no communication. Attention is about alertness and awareness, whereas attentiveness deals with the amount of time spent with a subject and/or the physical proximity with that subject. It is built on the assumption that individuals are more than just passive receivers of someone's passage. Only when attentiveness is achieved can one enter the process of reception. When a communicator is attentive, he or she should acknowledge, encourage, react to and accommodate others in a friendly way. Norton and Pettegrew's study used an adult sample of 170 and a student sample of 158 to come up with the finding that "the tendency to show interest scale" could predict attentiveness in every instance. Also, they suggested that conceptually, attentiveness is related to empathy and listening. However, it is not the same as empathy and listening. Even though there is conceptual similarity, an empathetic person is also attentive, but an attentive person does not necessarily have to be empathic.

In the context of public diplomacy, reputational relationships are held by a country and foreign publics who have never had direct experiences with the country. The extent to which a foreigner pays attention to news or any other types of information and acknowledges their desire to learn more about the country shows their level of attentiveness. If they have a desire to learn about a foreign country and seek information to fulfill such a desire accordingly, their awareness about a certain country will increase. According to Kang and Yang (2010), through awareness, individuals will form certain beliefs which will in turn shape their attitudes. Such beliefs may lead an individual to form behavioral beliefs which lead to their evaluations about a country's likely behaviors. Such evaluations may lead to a favorable or unfavorable attitude towards the behavior. Therefore, this study defines *relational attentiveness* as a measure which characterizes the relationship between a country and its foreign publics who have no direct experiences with a country in terms of visiting the country. It is broadly defined as the extent to which a foreign individual pays attention to news and other types of information about a country and their acknowledgement to acquire more information about the country. In other words, it refers to *the extent of attention paid to the information or news from the media or those who have had direct experiences related to a foreign country*. While *relational curiosity* is about the intention of behavioral engagement or behavioral and experiential curiosity, *relational attentiveness* is about symbolic engagement or informational and intellectual curiosity. According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, *attentiveness* refers to “the state of being constantly attentive and responsive to signs of opportunity, activity, or danger.” In this study, the higher the relational attentiveness, the better the relationship quality.

CHAPTER 5. RELATIONSHIP OUTCOMES

5.1 Introduction

While public relations' emphasis on understanding *publics* for the purpose of building *relationships* with them emphasize relationships as an *outcome*, these relationships are not an end in itself. For instance, in the context of public diplomacy, Lee and Jun (2013) used relationship quality as a predictor variable to predict attitudes and behavioral intentions. In the Excellence Study, it was also found that positive relationships between an organization and its publics can encourage publics to be engaged in supportive communicative behaviors towards the organization (Grunig, Grunig, & Dozier, 2002). While the Excellence Study also suggests other benefits of building positive relationships with publics, such as lowering potential litigation costs, it might also be worthwhile to examine what outcomes positive or negative relationship quality can lead to, especially the communicative action of word-of-mouth. According to Ledingham (2003), the consequences of organization-public relations are "the outputs that have the effects of changing the environment and of achieving, maintaining or changing goal states both inside and outside the organization" (p. 94).

5.2 Communicative Behaviors as an Outcome of Relationships

As a result of relationships, publics are engaged in communicative behaviors about those relationships. The concepts of word-of-mouth communication and megaphoning have been studied in public relations research. In this dissertation, megaphoning is used. Many conceptual definitions have been developed for word-of-mouth communication, most of which are rather similar. Word-of-mouth communication is defined as “informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived noncommercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, a product an organization, or a service” (Harrison-Walker, 2001, p. 70, as cited in Hong & Yang, 2011, p. 192). Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan (2008) has developed a similar definition: it is “the communication between consumers about a product, service, a company in which the sources are considered independent of commercial influence” (p. 459). Hence, it is a communication phenomenon which takes place outside of an organization’s control.

Word-of-mouth communication is characterized by its being a type of interpersonal communication and can take place in different forms and medium. Electronic word-of-mouth communication is defined as “any positive or negative comment made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet” (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004, p. 39). On the other hand, it can also be defined as “all informal communications directed at consumers through Internet-based technology related to the usage or characteristics of particular goods and services, or their sellers” (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008, p. 461). Thus, electronic word-of-mouth communication remains independent of the control of an organization, but it takes place on Internet-based technology which can potentially reach more people. The major difference between word-of-mouth and electronic word-of-mouth is the medium used for the information to be communicated (Jeong & Jang, 2011). Because of electronic word-of-mouth, information can be diffused at an unprecedented speed in multiple directions (Cheng & Thadani, 2012).

The prevalence of social media has allowed easier and quicker content creation for facilitating word-of-mouth communication. In terms of tourism, social media allows tourists to produce user-generated content easily and to become "co-marketers, co-designers, co-producers and co-consumers of travel and tourism experiences" (Sotiriadis & Zyl, 2013, p. 104). They are engaged in *producing, sharing* and *consuming* information. Through electronic word-of-mouth, consumers are actively engaged in making product recommendations and are no longer passive recipients of information (Chu & Kim, 2011). Thus, senders of such information are considered opinion leaders who interpret meanings about their experiences and influence other opinion seekers. By being active in their communicative behaviors of seeking information and making recommendations, they also change other people's consumption behaviors.

While such content creators do not necessarily receive any substantial benefits in return, research has been done to look into their motives and other possible causes motivating them to be engaged in electronic word-of-mouth communication. Liang, Ekinci, Occhiocupo and Whyatt (2013) suggested that whether a person intends to post something online is not only determined by one's personal motives, but also his or her adoption of electronic communication technologies and his or her perceptions about what other people think. Thus, self-efficacy also plays a role. Because people would try to make the least efforts possible to complete a task, the more difficult a task, the fewer the people who are willing to be involved (Bandura, 1982; Venkatesh, 2000). Those who found technology to be useful are more likely to develop a more positive attitude towards it and to use it more frequently as well (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). Those who have the self-efficacy, if coupled with the right platforms on which they can consume and share information, are more motivated to be engaged in word-of-mouth.

In addition to their efficacy in sharing information in the least difficult way possible, there were also other factors motivating individuals to post online. For travel reviews, individuals were found to be motivated by factors such as hoping to help a travel service provider, having concerns for other travelers, having a desire for enjoyment and gaining self-enhancement (Yoo & Grezel, 2008). Yet, the social benefits, the economic benefits and the possible advice which can be gained are not found to be significant motivators. Similarly, Cheng and Lee's (2012) study on what motivated consumers to write positive reviews on Open Rice, an online platform for sharing reviews about restaurants in Hong Kong, found that people who wrote reviews demonstrated that they enjoyed helping others by assisting them in making purchase decisions.

There are a variety of individual factors motivating one to share information. At the same time, there are other significant predictors of electronic word-of-mouth communication. For example, Jeong and Jang (2011) studied how the antecedents of the quality of restaurant service, in terms of food quality, service quality, atmosphere and price fairness, predicted consumers' motives in engaging in positive electronic word-of-mouth. Their results found that positive word-of-mouth is predicted by consumers' overall positive experiences, but price fairness was not identified as a motivating factor for word-of-mouth. Therefore, the overall restaurant experience of whether a consumer is satisfied is more significant in predicting consumers' motivation in engaging in word-of-mouth rather than any one single factor.

Word-of-mouth communication plays a significant role in influencing purchase decisions. Sharing information can be considered a type of public good defined as “a shared resource from which every member of a group may benefit, regardless of whether or not they personally contribute to its provisions, and whose availability does not diminish with use” (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002, p. 693, as cited in Cheng & Lee, 2012, p. 219). Cheng and Thadani’s (2012) systematic review of 25 papers on electronic word-of-mouth communication proposed an integrative framework consisting of five components: communicators, stimuli, receivers, responses and contextual factors. Together, they facilitate the diffusion of information at an unprecedented pace in multiple directions, bringing about a process of social communication whereby “an individual (the communicator) transmits stimuli (usually verbal symbols) to modify the behaviors of other individuals (communicatees)” (Hovland, 1948, as cited in Cheng & Thadani, 2012, p. 463). In fact, the communicatees may also be involved in continuing the electronic word-of-mouth about an organization or a product even without the experience just based on what they hear.

Electronic word-of-mouth happens in multiple directions at the same time. It can take place amongst individuals who know one another and also amongst strangers. Luo and Zhong (2015) used social network analysis to study the use of social networking sites in seeking travel-related information. They found the significance of existing social relationships for facilitating electronic word-of-mouth on social networking sites. Through social interactions, electronic word-of-mouth was used to transmit information and to influence others’ decision-making process. Whereas strong social ties help to amplify information shared by people close to potential tourists, weak social ties also have the power to amplify the impact of the information shared in the process.

In terms of information sharing with others in both one's existing social relationships and outside of one's social relationships, such communicative behaviors also help to build and maintain such relationships. According to Lippert and Spagnolo (2011), "Relationships are the links through which soft information can flow and the value of network ties in its ability to enforce agreements that could not be sustained without the information and sanctioning power provided by other network members" (p. 202). Hogg and Terry (2000) suggested that the use of technology helps users develop a sense of belonging to the groups to which they belong. Also, users of social networks services were found to have used it more for the purpose of information transmission rather than information reception; they tended to use it to maintain their social status (Arenas-Gaitan, Rondan-Cataluna, & Ramirez-Correa, 2013). Whether individuals found themselves to be similar to others also affects whether they are willing to share messages with others (Chu & Kim, 2011). At the same time, their social trust towards others also influence their intention to share information with others in online communities (Hau & Kim, 2011).

Because purchase decisions can involve risk, individuals may obtain information from a variety of sources to make it the least risky possible. Beldona, Morrison and O'Leary (2005) suggested that because tourism-related decisions are considered more high-risk and require more involvement, travelers were found to rely on information from their friends, family and relatives for decision making. Because positive word-of-mouth reduces the risks involved in consumers' purchase, it increases their intention to buy

(Dichter, 1996). Indeed, reports have shown that Internet users tend to trust the reviews posted by strangers on the Internet more than by the traditional media (Cheng & Thadani, 2012). As for acquaintances, the personal connections in word-of-mouth make it more influential and trustworthy, which is an impact that advertising and other promotional efforts are not able to generate (Duhan, Johnson, Wilcox, & Harrell, 1997). A study found that friends' referrals on Facebook would influence people's purchase decisions in a positive way (Retail Customer Experience, 2010, as cited in Meuter, McCabe, & Curran, 2013, p. 241).

While there are a variety of sources from which individuals can obtain information through word-of-mouth, Meuter, McCabe and Curran (2013) found that the interpersonal word-of-mouth shared between friends was more influential than other forms of word-of-mouth in relation to intentions, trust and attitudes. Credibility is an important aspect of traditional interpersonal day-to-day interactions, electronic word-of-mouth allows interactions without face-to-face interactions (Sun, Youn, Wu, & Kuntaraporn, 2006). The Ketchum & USC Annenberg Strategic Communication & PR Center (2009, as cited in Kim & Rhee, 2011) report found that people found the information shared by their families and friends, who are the ones that they know and trust, to be the most influential when making purchase decisions. They prefer information from interpersonal channels rather than sophisticated communication messages they receive from other channels. This might explain why trust in traditional media, i.e. television, newspapers and radio, was decreasing (Edelman, 2009, as cited in Kim & Rhee, 2011). Chu and Kim (2011) also found that information shared by personal contacts on social network services is perceived to be more credible and influential than other types of electronic word-of-mouth. Thus, in terms of information selection, personal sources are considered more trustworthy than other sources (Murray, 1991).

5.3 Public Relations and Megaphoning

Because the Internet, especially social networking sites, is a platform for individuals to show concerns for others and to help them make better decisions, businesses are advised to take advantage of this valuable platform to collect information about what is being said about them and to put in place some strategies to reaffirm people's positive feedback about them (Arenas-Gaitan, Rondan-Cataluna, & Remirez-Correa, 2013). In terms of tourism, they are advised to take advantage of electronic word-of-mouth communication by using it as a means to understand travelers' experiences with them and to improve their performance accordingly (Liang, Ekinei, Occhiocupo, & Wyatt, 2013).

Word-of-mouth communication is the most common post-purchase behavior which plays a significant role in changing the attitudes and behaviors of friends and families, including their consumption behaviors (Harrison-Walker, 2001; Opermann, 2000). It was an effective means of expressing an opinion whereby face-to-face interactions amongst families and acquaintances who are familiar with one another share information and opinions about a particular product, brand or service which in turn influences other potential buyers' decision-making (Hawkins, Best, & Coney, 2004; Jeong & Jang, 2011). It was found that the more satisfied a customer is, the more likely he or she will be in engaging in positive word-of-mouth communication (Prebrensen, Skallerud, & Chen, 2010). When customers make a decision about whether to return for a repeated purchase, they also take into consideration their most recent satisfactory experience with the business (Ekinci, Dawes, & Massey, 2008).

In public relations research, studies have been conducted to find predictors for word-of-mouth communication. Hong and Yang (2009) examined the effects of organizational reputation and relational satisfaction on customers' positive word-of-mouth intention and found that customers who identify themselves strongly with a company are more likely to be engaged in positive word-of-mouth. In a paper survey they conducted with 515 customers of a food market in Syracuse, they also found that relational satisfaction with an organization increases the extent to which they engage in positive word-of-mouth communication not only directly but also indirectly via identification with the organization (Hong & Yang, 2011). Thus, identification with a business strongly predicts positive word-of-mouth communication behaviors. Customers with high identification with an organization are also more likely to act as ambassadors helping to promote the organization and its products or services to others (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Fombrun & van Riel, 2003).

Individuals' relationships with an organization influence the extent to which they are engaged in communicative actions about the organization. Similar to Hong and Yang's (2009; 2011) findings, Ki and Hon (2007) also found that relational satisfaction with an organization best predicts strong effects on supportive attitude and indirect effects on behavioral intentions towards the organization. Such behavioral intentions include the intention to recommend the organization and its products and services to others. Kim, Sung and Kang's (2014) study, which investigated how customers' relationships with brands influence their engagement in retweeting brand messages on

Twitter through 315 surveys collected from Korean consumers, found that those who have close relationships with the brands are more likely to retweet than their counterparts. Their retweeting behaviors is best predicted by the extent to which they identify themselves with the brand. However, when word-of-mouth takes place between acquaintances rather than friends, information from less loyal customers is found to be more effective at driving sales than highly loyal customers (Godes & Mayzlin, 2009).

Because word-of-mouth communication is found to be more effective than other types of communication, such as the traditional media, and also more effective in changing attitudes, companies have been advised to encourage positive word-of-mouth by cultivating good relationships with and obtaining good reputations from customers (Hong & Yang, 2009). For instance, they may consider offering more incentives to senders and receivers to increase the number of referrals being sent, new member sign-ups and new buyers (Ahrens, Coyle, & Strahilevitz, 2013). However, Meuter, McCabe and Curan (2013) found that even though electronic word-of-mouth is found to significant, the volume of it is not. That is, multiple positive recommendations are not necessarily stronger than one recommendation.

Organizations are advised to encourage word-of-mouth because of the potential advantages it can generate. It is generally believed that product success is related to the word-of-mouth communication an organization is able to generate (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004). Godes and Mayzlin's study on online newsgroup discussion about television shows found that online conversations is a cost-effective opportunity to measure word-of-mouth communication for two reasons. First, people make offline decisions based on online information. Second, online conversations also motivate offline conversations.

Moreover, in terms of supportive communication behaviors, the more people speak positively about an organization and the more attention they pay to an organization, the more likely they will be in interacting with the organization (Hong & Yang, 2011). Good relationships are one of the prerequisites for positive word-of-mouth; at the same time, positive word-of-mouth also helps to cultivate good relationships.

In word-of-mouth communication, opinion leaders are influential, especially when they have direct experiences with an organization. Godes and Mayzlin (2009) found that opinion leadership was effective among loyal customers, but not as effective among less loyal customers. In this regard, Kim, Sung and Kang (2014) made a differentiation among opinion leadership, opinion seeking and opinion passing. *Opinion leadership* refers to "the process by which individuals share information and influence others' attitudes and behaviors" whereas *opinion seeking* refers to the process by which "individuals search for information and advice from others when making a decision" (Kim, Sung, & Kang, 2014, p. 19). *Opinion passing* is the subsequent behavior of passing the information along, such as by emails. On Twitter, retweeting is considered a tool for one-to-one communication which can help to improve the interpersonal aspect which is often missing in electronic word-of-mouth communication. Its function can be similar to that of emails. Thus, if organizations use the Internet as an opportunity for building relationships rather than merely information dissemination, they may be able to practice public relations as a strategic management function to encourage such opinion leadership (Grunig, 2009).

To use the digital platform as a relationship-building tool to facilitate word-of-mouth communication, recommendations have been made about how to go about doing it. On Twitter, customers who choose to interact with a brand is called the brand's brand followers (Kim, Sung, & Kang, 2014). They opt to get involved in electronic word-of-mouth on Twitter as a tool for self-expression. This is especially the case when they have brand identification with an organization. That is, they see their own self-images to be overlapping with the image of a brand (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006). Also, when the information provided in customers' reviews is sufficient with reviews from expert users rather than novice users, seller-created product information should interact with buyer-created review information (Chen & Xie, 2008). Despite this, if there are a lot of novice users but only a few expert users, companies are advised to delay the publishing of the customers' reviews all together.

In public relations, because organizations are constrained by limited resources and have to invest their resources strategically, they are advised to prioritize to build relationships with their strategic constituencies which are also known as their immediate publics (Grunig & Hunt, 1984). Because these immediate publics should also be those who have direct experiences and experiential relationships with an organization, they are also the opinion leaders whose voices are the most influential for word-of-mouth. The 2015 Edelman Trust Barometer, which was conducted with 27,000 respondents in 27 markets in 2014, found that 52% of the respondents found the content created by the employees of a company on the Internet to be trustworthy. At the same time, 72% of the respondents considered the content created by their family and friends to be the most trustworthy. It is worth noting that information from these two groups is more trustworthy than information from the CEO of a company (46%). In particular, employees, as a strategic public of an organization, are found to be influential as ambassadors of their company who can attest to things such as the quality of the products. Because information from immediate publics is more influential, strategically investing resources to building relationships with them is crucial.

To practice effective public relations, organizations are advised to conduct environmental scanning to understand their publics. Arenas-Gaitan, Rondan-Cataluna and Remirez-Correa (2013) advised organizations to take advantage of social networks to understand their publics. Because employees are a strategic public whose communicative behaviors are influential, Kim and Rhee (2011) studied employees' voluntary information acquisition, selection and transmission behaviors. Employees' communicative behaviors helped to spread positive information about an organization if they have favorable relationships with the organization. On the contrary, if they have an unfavorable relationship with an organization, they will be spreading negative information about the organization. They called such communicative behaviors *positive and negative megaphoning* respectively. The megaphoning effect is defined as "employees' positive or negative external communication behaviors about their organization"; it also embodies "the likelihood of employees' voluntary and selective information forwarding or sharing about organizational strengths and weaknesses" (Kim & Rhee, 2011, p. 246). In their study, they also found that symmetrical communication predicts relationship quality which in turn predicts positive and negative megaphoning behaviors.

In the context of public diplomacy, those with behavioral relationships, which are also called experiential relationships involving actual direct interactions between a country and its foreign publics, are also found to be more influential than those with reputational relationships, which refer to those with indirect relationships only (Vibber, 2014; Vibber & Kim, 2015). Between the two types of relationship holders, Vibber and Kim also argue that relationship quality can be "contagious" as a result of the communicative actions of positive or negative megaphoning from the direct relationship holders to the indirect relationship holders. Chain effects of megaphoning can result from these relationship holders' networks, resulting in the strengthening of weakening of a country's soft power. Therefore, megaphoning, which refers to the process of information forwarding or information sharing, is influential to public diplomacy. According to Kim and Grunig's (2011) situational theory of problem solving, information forwarding refers to the active behavior of information transmission even if no one requests the information whereas information sharing refers to the reactive behavior of information transmission only when someone requests the information. In this respect, a person's prior experiences with a country (either direct or indirect) may influence their perceived relationship quality with that country, resulting in either positive or negative megaphoning behaviors.

CHAPTER 6. METHODOLOGY

6.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the above literature review, the following research questions are proposed:

H1a: Political interactions are positively associated with perceived *experiential* relationship quality.

H1b: Political interactions are positively associated with perceived *reputational* relationship quality.

H1c: Economic interactions are positively associated with perceived *experiential* relationship quality.

H1d: Economic interactions are positively associated with perceived *reputational* relationship quality.

H1e: Cultural interactions are positively associated with perceived *experiential* relationship quality.

H1f: Cultural interactions are positively associated with perceived *reputational* relationship quality.

H1g: Interpersonal interactions are positively associated with perceived *experiential* relationship quality.

H1i: Interpersonal interactions are positively associated with perceived *reputational* relationship quality.

H1j: Corporate interactions are positively associated with perceived *experiential* relationship quality.

H1k: Corporate interactions are positively associated with perceived *reputational* relationship quality.

RQ2: What are the dimensions for the RADIO scale?

RQ2a: What are the dimensions for measuring *experiential* relationship quality?

RQ2b: What are the dimensions for measuring *reputational* relationship quality?

H3a: Perceived *experiential* relationship quality is positively associated with positive megaphoning behaviors.

H3b: Perceived *reputational* relationship quality is positively associated with positive megaphoning behaviors.

H3c: Perceived *experiential* relationship quality is negatively associated with negative megaphoning behaviors.

H3d: Perceived *reputational* relationship quality is negatively associated with negative megaphoning behaviors.

RQ4: How do the countries included in this study, namely China, Mexico, U.S.A. and Australia, perform in their public diplomacy outcomes in terms of the perceived relationship quality with foreign publics from the U.S. and India?

6.2 Pilot Study

To develop items to measure the latent variables for this study, some items for measuring the RADIO scale and megaphoning behaviors were borrowed from existing literature and were revised accordingly based on the conceptual definitions of the constructs (e.g. Hon & Grunig, 1999; Huang, 2001; Kim & Rhee, 2011). New items were also developed based on conceptual definitions derived from existing research (e.g. Kim & Ni, 2011). The conceptual definition has to be broad enough to capture the phenomena under study and narrow enough for the study to have their boundaries. Based on these definitions, the constructs were operationalized. The highlight of the study surrounds the RADIO scale which is perceived to be the most needed in public diplomacy research.

Schultz, Whitney and Zickar (2014) suggested that when developing a test, it is important to define the domain of the test in terms of its intended contexts and its dimensionality. Thus, each construct is given a conceptual definition based on which items are developed for the context of public diplomacy. Because some items were completely new and others were re-worded from existing scale, a pilot study was conducted on Amazon Mechanical Turk between August 21st and 23rd, 2014. 371 usable questionnaires were collected from 190 male respondents and 181 female respondents. They were given financial remuneration for their participation in the study. In terms of age, one respondent was under age 20. 115 respondents were between ages 20 and 29. 114 respondents were between ages 30 and 39. 63 respondents were between ages 40 and 49. 50 respondents were between ages 50 and 59. 25 respondents were between ages 60 and 69. And 3 respondents were 70 or above. In terms of country of residence, 285 respondents live in the United States. 78 of them reside in India and 8 of them reside in other countries, including the United Kingdom, Sweden, Ireland, Egypt, Bangladesh and United Arab Emirates.

Respondents were asked to give responses about three countries: the United States, China and Singapore. They were not required to give responses about their own country; thus, respondents from the United States were not supposed to respond to questions about the United States. Their relationships with foreign countries were classified into two types: *experiential* and *reputational*. If they had visited the country before, they would have been considered experiential relationship holders and would have evaluated their perceived relationships with the country for the measures of *interactional bilateralism*, *power mutuality*, *empathy*, *trust*, *relational satisfaction* and *relational continuation*. If they had never visited the country before, they would have been classified as reputational relationship holders and would have evaluated their perceived relationships with the country for the measures of *interactional bilateralism*, *power mutuality*, *empathy, trust*, *relational curiosity* and *relational attentiveness*. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used, ranging from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*. For the United States, results from 57 experiential relationship holders and 38 reputational relationship holders were used for analysis. For China, results from 44 experiential relationship holders and 269 reputational relationship holders were used. For Singapore, results from 57 experiential relationship holders and 257 reputational relationship holders were used. An overall reliability score of a Cronbach's alpha of .853 was calculated for the RADIO scale. Based on the results of this study, reliability analysis and multiple regression were run to develop a hypothesized model for the main study. The table below shows the sample size for each type of relationship which was statistically analyzed:

Table 6.1 Sample Size for Each Type of Relationship Analyzed for the Pilot Study

	U.S.A.	**China**	**Singapore**
Experiential	57	44	57
Reputational	38	269	257

6.3 Main Study

Based on the results of the pilot study, certain items were removed and new items were added for the main study. The pilot study was challenged by the limitation of having a small sample size for analysis, especially for experiential relationships. As a result, multiple regression was run. However, certain noteworthy findings were made to help develop the main study. Upon approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), a revised questionnaire was hosted on the Amazon Mechanical Turk system between March 3rd and March 8th, 2015. Respondents were given financial remuneration for participating in the study. To overcome the limitation of the pilot study, two surveys were hosted on the system: it was proposed that 500 questionnaires be completed by respondents from the United States based on their perceived relationships with China, India, Mexico, South Korea and Australia, and 500 questionnaires be completed by respondents from India based on their perceived relationships with China, the United States, Mexico, South Korea and Australia. Because Amazon compensates Mechanical Turk's participants with either U.S. dollars or Indian Rupees, the majority of them are from the United States and India (Mason & Suri, 2011). Thus, for this study to collect an adequate number of completed questionnaires for statistical analyses, only respondents from the United States and India were invited to participate in this study. Amazon Mechanical Turk was described to be useful for obtaining "high-quality data inexpensively and rapidly" (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011, p. 3).

Even though respondents from both the United States and India were asked to respond to questions about five different countries, only a few countries were included in the statistical analysis due to issues with small sample sizes. For example, India, South

Korea and Australia were dropped from the analysis for the U.S. sample because the sample sizes for experiential relationships were too small. Mexico and South Korea were dropped from the analysis for the Indian sample for the same reason. As a result, four statistical tests were run for the U.S. sample, including the *experiential* and *reputational* relationships between U.S. respondents and China and the *experiential* and *reputational* relationships between U.S. respondents and Mexico. Six statistical tests were run for the Indian sample, including the *experiential* and *reputational* relationships between Indian respondents and China, the *experiential* and *reputational* relationships between Indian respondents and the United States, and the *experiential* and *reputational* relationships between Indian respondents and Australia. In the U.S. sample, 33 of the respondents from the United States were *experiential* relationship holders with China and 533 were *reputational* relationship holders. 174 of them were *experiential* relationship holders with Mexico and 393 were *reputational* relationship holders. In the Indian sample, 47 of them were *experiential* relationship holders with China and 543 of them were *reputational* relationship holders. 177 of them were *experiential* relationship holders with the United States and 412 of them were *reputational* relationship holders. 72 of them were *experiential* relationship holders with Australia and 518 of them were *reputational* relationship holders. The table below shows the sample size for each type of relationship to be statistically analyzed:

Table 6.2 Sample Size for Each Type of Relationship Analyzed for the Main Study

	US-China	**US-Mexico**	**India-China**	**India-U.S.A.**	**India-Australia**
Experiential	33	174	47	177	72
Reputational	533	393	543	412	518

6.4 Statistical Analysis

Upon the collection of data on the Amazon Mechanical Turk system, statistical analyses were run on the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 22). First, the reliability score for each variable was run for each country for *experiential* and *reputational* relationship holders respectively. Second, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on the variables for the two types of relationships respectively using EQS. Third, nomological validity tests were conducted using path analysis with the antecedents and consequences of the perceived relationships also using EQS. Because an adequate number of responses is required for the statistical analysis, the CFA was conducted based on five tests of experiential relationships (USA-China, USA-Mexico, India-China, India-USA and India-Australia) and five tests of reputational relationships (USA-China, USA-Mexico, India-China, India-USA and India-Australia) as mentioned above. Forth, averages for each dimension of RADIO were calculated to compare how each country performed in terms of the perceived relationship quality reported by the respondents.

6.5 Reliability Statistics

The tables for the reliability statistics are listed below. These reliability statistics were calculated based on the full questionnaire with no items removed. Cronbach's alpha was used as a measurement of internal consistency amongst items. According to Schmitt (1996), whether an alpha value is satisfactory is dependent upon how the test is used and interpreted. Even if a reliability score is lower than the commonly accepted value of .70, the items used for measuring a construct can still be meaningful because the measure may have numerous other desirable properties, such as the content coverage of some domain.

As he suggested, "There is no sacred level of acceptable or unacceptable level of alpha. In some cases, measures with (by conventional standards) low levels of alpha may still be quite useful" (Schmitt, 1996, p. 353). As shown in Table 6.4 below, low reliability statistics for the variables for the perceived relationship between India respondents and U.S.A. were found. It could be caused by sample fluctuations that different values were found for different samples.

Table 6.3 Reliability Statistics for Perceived Relationships between U.S. Respondents and China

Constructs	***n***	***Cronbach's Alpha***
Antecedents		
Political Interactions	580	.902
Economic Interactions	580	.891
Cultural Interactions	580	.826
Interpersonal Interactions	580	.890
Corporate Interactions	580	.900
RADIO		
Interactional Bilateralism	580	.951
Power Mutuality	580	.912
Empathy	580	.860
Trust	580	.901
RADIO (Experiential)		

Relational Continuation	33	.917
Relational Satisfaction	33	.957
RADIO (Reputational)		
Relational Curiosity	529	.918
Relational Attentiveness	529	.936
Consequences		
Positive Megaphoning (on the Internet)	580	.957
Positive Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	580	.944
Negative Megaphoning (on the Internet)	580	.956
Negative Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	580	.925

Table 6.4 Reliability Statistics for Perceived Relationships between U.S. Respondents and Mexico

Constructs	***n***	***Cronbach's Alpha***
Antecedents		
Political Interactions	550	.804

Economic Interactions	540	.748
Cultural Interactions	532	.553
Interpersonal Interactions	530	.704
Corporate Interactions	523	.670
RADIO		
interactional Bilateralism	522	.813
Power Mutuality	521	.798
Empathy	520	.677
Trust	519	.817
RADIO (Experiential)		
Relational Continuation	165	.821
Relational Satisfaction	165	.894
RADIO (Reputational)		
Relational Curiosity	348	.832
Relational Attentiveness	349	.817
Consequences		
Positive Megaphoning (on the Internet)	517	.931

Positive Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	513	.900
Negative Megaphoning (on the Internet)	506	.943
Negative Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	506	.852

Table 6.5 Reliability Statistics for Perceived Relationships between Indian Respondents and China

Constructs	***n***	***Cronbach's Alpha***
Antecedents		
Political Interactions	630	.885
Economic Interactions	630	.873
Cultural Interactions	630	.800
Interpersonal Interactions	630	.877
Corporate Interactions	630	.887
RADIO		
interactional Bilateralism	630	.962
Power Mutuality	630	.903
Empathy	630	.865
Trust	630	.922

RADIO (Experiential)		
Relational Continuation	47	.918
Relational Satisfaction	47	.875
RADIO (Reputational)		
Relational Curiosity	544	.943
Relational Attentiveness	544	.927
Consequences		
Positive Megaphoning (on the Internet)	630	.975
Positive Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	630	.966
Negative Megaphoning (on the Internet)	630	.969
Negative Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	629	.950

Table 6.6 Reliability Statistics for Perceived Relationships between Indian Respondents and U.S.A.

Constructs	***n***	***Cronbach's Alpha***
Antecedents		
Political Interactions	569	.545

Economic Interactions	533	.393
Cultural Interactions	549	.634
Interpersonal Interactions	547	.448
Corporate Interactions	547	.477
RADIO		
interactional Bilateralism	538	.824
Power Mutuality	538	.430
Empathy	535	.466
Trust	532	.611
RADIO (Experiential)		
Relational Continuation	158	.825
Relational Satisfaction	155	.743
RADIO (Reputational)		
Relational Curiosity	412	.960
Relational Attentiveness	412	.929
Consequences		
Positive Megaphoning (on the Internet)	520	.906

Positive Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	518	.873
Negative Megaphoning (on the Internet)	511	.945
Negative Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	503	.775

Table 6.7 Reliability Statistics for Perceived Relationships between Indian Respondents and Australia

Constructs	***n***	***Cronbach's Alpha***
Antecedents		
Political Interactions	630	.901
Economic Interactions	630	.901
Cultural Interactions	630	.835
Interpersonal Interactions	630	.884
Corporate Interactions	630	.898
RADIO		
interactional Bilateralism	630	.966
Power Mutuality	630	.911
Empathy	630	.886
Trust	630	.932

RADIO (Experiential)		
Relational Continuation	72	.965
Relational Satisfaction	72	.953
RADIO (Reputational)		
Relational Curiosity	519	.957
Relational Attentiveness	519	.926
Consequences		
Positive Megaphoning (on the Internet)	630	.981
Positive Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	630	.978
Negative Megaphoning (on the Internet)	630	.972
Negative Megaphoning (Families and Friends)	629	.951

6.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for RADIO

EQS was used to run the confirmatory factor analysis for RADIO. The tables below show the analyses to be run for the two types of relationships.

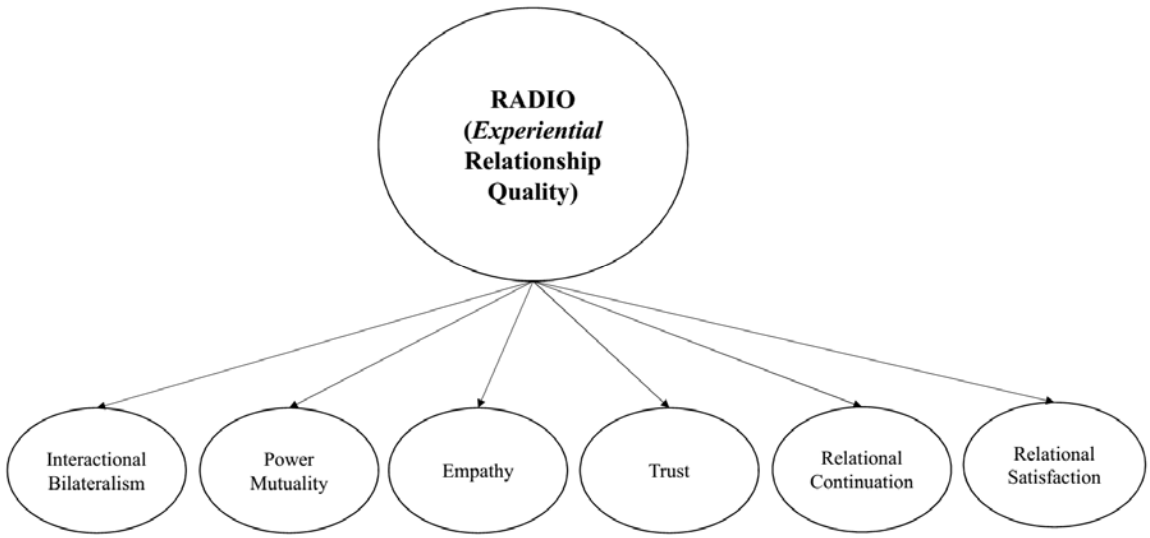

Figure 6.1 Hypothesized Model with RADIO Dimensions for Experiential Relationship Quality

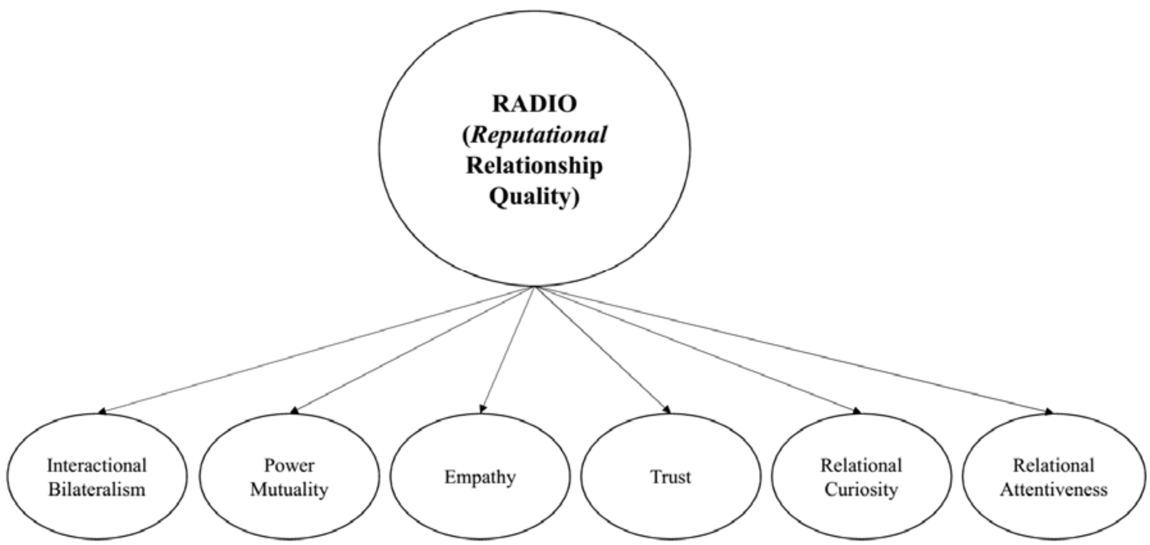

Figure 6.2 Hypothesized Model with RADIO Dimensions for Reputational Relationship Quality

6.7 Nomological Validity Tests Using Path Analysis

According to Streiner (2005), path analysis is an extension of multiple regression in which there are several dependent variables; for instance, it shows how A is affecting

B and is ultimately affecting C. It can be used to determine whether the data are consistent with the model, but it cannot be used to establish causality or to prove whether a model is correct. Because the current study is a cross-sectional study, no causality can be proven. However, the major purpose of the present study is to develop a scale for measuring *perceived relationship quality* as the outcome of public diplomacy. Whether the model is a perfect fit is not a major concern. Thus, path analysis would be useful for finding out what affects the endogenous variables, how exogenous variables work together and which paths are important. It is mostly for model testing rather than model building. Thus, it would be appropriate for testing the hypothesized models developed during the pilot study. Item pooling was done to combine the items used for measuring each variable into one composite variable for analysis. The two models to be tested using ten statistic tests are shown below.

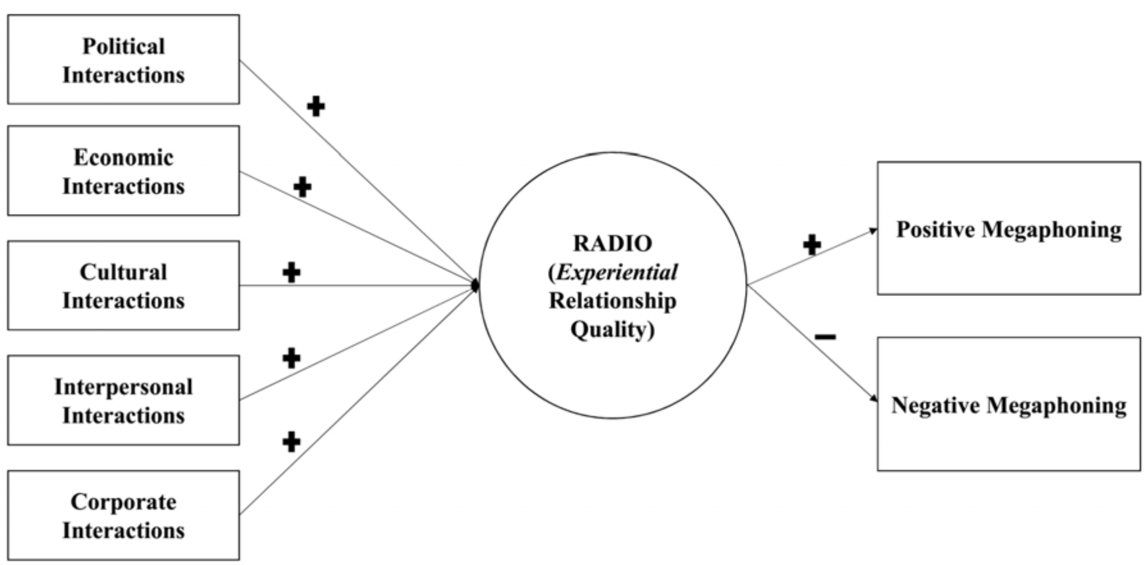

Figure 6.3 Hypothesized Model for Testing Experiential Relationships

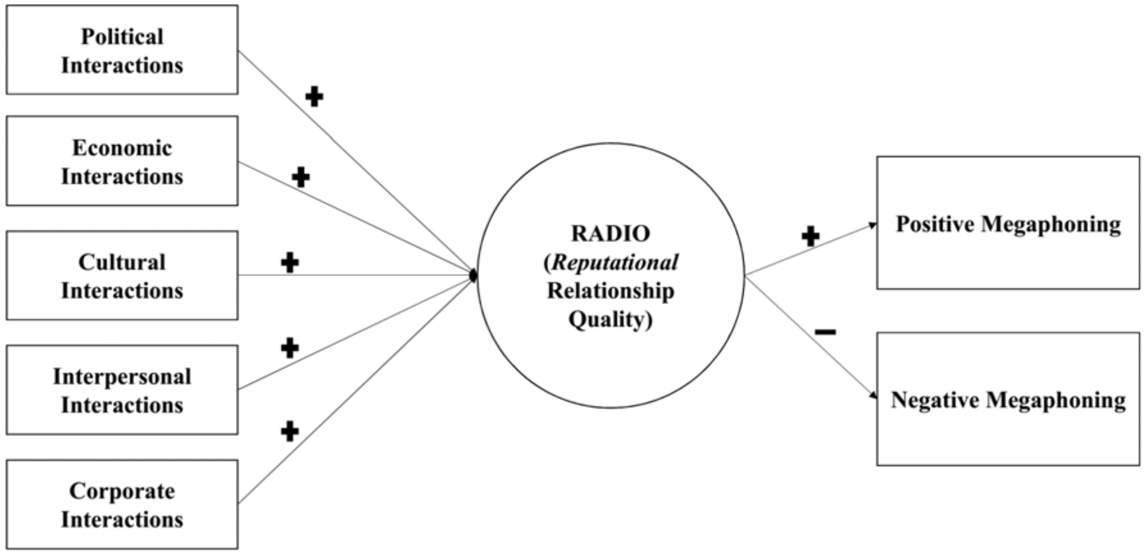

Figure 6.4 Hypothesized Model for Testing Reputational Relationships

6.8 Comparing Results for Each Country

Ten tests involving ten relationships will be tested, namely U.S.-China experiential relationships, U.S.-China reputational relationships, U.S.-Mexico experiential relationships, U.S.-Mexico reputational relationships, India-China experiential relationships, India-China reputational relationships, India-U.S.A. experiential relationships, India-U.S.A. reputational relationships, India-Australia experiential relationships and India-Australia reputational relationships. To compare the results from the RADIO scale for each type of relationship, all the items used for measuring each construct were averaged for each respondent. Then, an average score for each score for each type of relationship was calculated and was inputted into an Excel file. Afterwards, radar charts were created to compare the results.

CHAPTER 7. RESULTS

7.1 Hypotheses 1a-1j: Antecedent Variables

The first research question and the hypotheses related to it are concerned about the antecedent variables of *political interactions*, *economic interactions*, *cultural interactions*, *interpersonal interactions* and *corporate interactions*. Specifically, their associations with the perceived experiential and reputational relationship quality measured using RADIO were tested. The table below showed the results from the path analysis between the antecedent variables and perceived relationship quality.

Table 7.1 Results from the Path Analysis for the Antecedent Variables

***p< .05, **p<.01, *** p<.001**

Perceived Relationships	***Political Interactions***	***Economic Interactions***	***Cultural Interactions***	***Interpersonal Interactions***	***Corporate Interactions***
U.S. Respondents					
Experiential Relationships with China	.248**	.131	-.057	-.085	.870***
Reputational Relationships with China	.267**	-.022	-.037	.066	.876***
Experiential Relationships with Mexico	.264***	.145**	.142**	.213***	.682***
Reputational Relationships with Mexico	.209***	.046	.190***	.279***	.687***
Indian Respondents					
Experiential Relationships with China	.349**	.501***	.050	.461***	.145
Reputational Relationships with China	.191***	.143***	.094**	.245***	.574***
Experiential Relationships with U.S.A.	.564***	.253***	-.012	.184**	.304***
Reputational Relationships with U.S.A.	.081*	.169***	.120**	.212***	.619***
Experiential Relationships with Australia	.611***	-.011	.169	.124	.213*
Reputational Relationships with Australia	.100**	.215***	.057	.266***	.615***

7.1.1 Hypotheses 1a and 1b: Political Interaction

As shown above, political interactions were found to be positively associated with RADIO for all the ten types of relationship quality tested. For the U.S. example, experiential relationship quality (.248, p<.001) and reputational relationship quality (.267, p<.01) with China are significantly associated with political interactions. Their experiential relationship quality (.264, p<.001) and their reputational relationship quality (.209, p<.001) with Mexico are also positively associated with political interactions as well. As for the Indian respondents, their experiential relationship quality (.349, p<.001) and their reputational relationship quality (.191, p<.001) with China are positively associated with political interactions. Their political interactions are also associated with their experiential relationship quality (.564, p<.001) and reputational relationship quality with the U.S. (.081, p<.05), and their experiential relationship quality (.611, p<.001) and reputational reality quality (.100, p<.01) with Australia. In sum, political interactions were found to be positively associated with all the ten types of relationship quality measured in the present study. Thus, Hypotheses 1a and 1b are supported.

7.1.2 Hypotheses 1c & 1d: Economic Interactions

Unlike political interactions, even though economic interactions are also a type of governmental/institutional level of public diplomacy antecedents, as a construct, it was not found to be associated with all the ten types of relationships tested. In the U.S. sample, it was only found to be associated with the experiential relationship quality with Mexico (.145, p<.01). It was associated with neither the experiential nor the reputational relationship quality with China. It was not associated with the reputational relationship quality with Mexico either. In the Indian sample, it was found to be associated with almost all types of relationships tested, except the experiential relationship quality with Australia. It is positively associated with the experiential relationship quality (.501, $p<.001$) and the reputational relationship quality (.143, $p<.001$) with China. It is also positively associated with the experiential relationship quality (.253, $p<.001$) and the reputational relationship quality (.169, $p<.001$) with the U.S.. For Australia, it was only associated with the reputational relationship quality (.215, $p<.001$). Thus, Hypotheses 1c and 1d were only held true for some of the cases in this study.

7.1.3 Hypotheses 1e & 1f: Cultural Interactions

The construct of cultural interactions is a nongovernmental/noninstitutional antecedent. No associations were found with the experiential or the reputational relationship quality with China in the U.S. sample. But in the same sample, positive associations were found for both the experiential relationship quality (.142, $p<.01$) and the reputational relationship quality (.190, $p<.001$) with Mexico. In the Indian sample, it was not found to be associated with the experiential relationship quality with China, but an association was found with the reputational relationship quality with China (.094, $p<.01$). It was not found to be associated with the experiential relationship quality with the U.S. either, but was again found to be associated with the reputational relationship with the U.S. (.120, $p<.01$). It was associated with neither the experiential relationship quality nor the reputational relationship quality with Australia. Thus, Hypotheses 1e and 1f are supported for certain cases only.

7.1.4 Hypotheses 1g & 1h: Interpersonal Interactions

Interpersonal interactions are another nongovernmental/noninstitutional construct which interestingly have similar results as the hypotheses for cultural interactions. In the

U.S. sample, it was not found to have any associations with the experiential and the reputational relationship quality with China. But it was found to be associated with both the experiential relationship quality (.213, p<.001) and the reputational relationship quality (.279, p<.001) with Mexico. In the Indian sample, it was found to be associated with both the experiential relationship quality (.461, p<.001) and the reputational relationship quality (.245, p<.001) with China. Its associations with the experiential relationship quality (.184, p<.01) and the reputational relationship quality (.212, p<.001) with the U.S. were also found to be significant. But for Australia, it was not found to be associated with the experiential relationship quality, but significance was found in its association with reputational relationship quality (.266, p<.001). Hypotheses 1g and 1h are only supported for some cases.

7.1.5 Hypotheses 1i & 1j: Corporate Interactions

Even though corporate interactions are a new variable added to this study and that its items were newly added, much has been published in corporate diplomacy for the construct to be defined and items to be developed. In the U.S. sample, it was found to be significantly associated with both the experiential relationship quality (.870, p<.001) and the reputational relationship quality (.876, p<.001) with China. Positive associations were also found between corporate interactions and the experiential relationship quality (.682, p<.001) and the reputational relationship quality (.687, p<.001) with Mexico. In the Indian sample, it was not found to be significantly associated with the experiential relationship quality with China, but was associated with the reputational relationship quality with China (.574, p<.001). A positive association was found between corporate interactions and both experiential relationship (.304, p<.001) and reputational relationship quality with the U.S. (.619, *p*<.001). For its perceived relationship quality with Australia, there were associations with both the experiential relationship quality (.213, *p*<.05) and the reputational relationship quality (.615, *p*<.001). Thus, Hypothesis 1i about the positive associations between corporate interactions and experiential relationship quality was also supported in some cases. But Hypotheis 1j about the positive associations between corporate interactions and reputational relationship quality are supported in all cases.

7.2 Research Questions 2, 2a and 2b

Originally, 52 items were developed for the RADIO scale. After the CFA, it is recommended that the 33 best items be used for a shortened version of the scale. However, it is still recommended that all the 52 items be used in future studies. The table below shows the questions to be used in the shortened version. Those which have been bolded are the best items. Those who have been italicized and bracketed are the good-enough items. Below the table is the list of items used for RADIO.

Table 7.2 Items Recommended for a Shortened Version of RADIO

Dimensions	***RADIO (Both Experiential and Reputational Relationships)***	***RADIO (Experiential Relationships Only)***	***RADIO (Reputational Relationships Only)***
Interactional Bilateralism	Q2, Q4, Q6, Q8		
Power Mutuality	Q1, Q2, *(Q3)*, *(Q4),* Q5		
Empathy	Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4		
Trust	Q1, Q2, Q3, Q5		
Relational Continuation (Experiential)		Q1, Q2, *(Q4)*, Q5	
Relational Satisfaction (Experiential)		Q1, Q3, Q4, Q6, Q7	
Relational Curiosity (Reputational)			Q1, Q3, Q4, Q5
Relational Attentiveness (Reputational)			Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5

Table 7.3 Items Used for RADIO

RADIO Dimensions	***Items***
Interactional Bilateralism	1. My home country does not have much interactions with this country. (Reverse) 2. **The interactions that my home country has with this country have been mutually beneficial.** 3. This country has frequent political interactions with my home country. 4. **This country maintains political interactions with my home country for mutually beneficial purposes.** 5. This country has frequent economic interactions with my home country.

	6. **This country maintains economic interactions with my home country for mutually beneficial purposes.** 7. My home country has frequent cultural interactions (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) with this country. 8. **This country maintains frequent cultural interactions with my home country for mutually beneficial purposes.**
Power Mutuality	1. **This country and my home country are attentive to what each other says.** 2. **This country thinks that the opinions of my country and its citizens are legitimate.** 3. ***This country does not listen to what my country and its citizens have to say. (Reverse)*** 4. ***This country tries to overpower my country when it makes decisions which affect my country. (Reverse)*** 5. **When the government of this country makes decisions which may affect my country, they take into consideration the opinions of my country and its citizens.**
Empathy	1. **When this country faces a problem, I have no feelings about it. (Reverse)** 2. **When this country is in trouble, I do not care much about it. (Reverse)** 3. **I generally support this country's stance on international issues.** 4. **When this country is condemned by another country, I tend to be on its side.** 5. I do not feel sympathy for this country because it is only concerned about its own interests. (Reverse)
Trust	1. **This country treats foreigners like me fairly and justly.** 2. **Whenever this country makes an important decision, I know it will be concerned about foreigners like me.** 3. **This country can be relied on to keep its promises**.

	4. I do not think that this country takes into consideration the opinions of foreigners like me when making decisions. (Reverse) 5. **I trust this country.** 6. This country has the competence to do what it says it will do.
Relational Continuation (Experiential)	1. **I feel that this country is trying to maintain long-term commitment to foreigners like me.** 2. **I can see that this country wants to maintain a relationship with foreigners like me.** 3. Compared to other countries, I value my relationship with this country more. 4. ***Most people in my home country think that it is important to stay close to this country.*** 5. **I would like to see my home country become a stronger ally of this country.** 6. I would like to have more interactions with people from this country. 7. I would like to buy more products or services sold by companies from this country. 8. I would like to consume more cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) from this country.
Relational Satisfaction (Experiential)	1. **I am happy with this country.** 2. I feel dissatisfied about this country. (Reverse) 3. **Foreigners like me benefit from our relationships with this country.** 4. **I am pleased with the relationship this country has established with foreigners like me.** 5. Most foreigners like me do not enjoy dealing with this country. (Reverse) 6. **I am happy with the relationship between this country and my home country.** 7. **Most citizens in my home country are happy with the relationship between this country and my home country.**

Relational Curiosity (Reputational)	1. **I would like to visit this country in the future.** 2. I would prefer to buy products or services sold by companies from this country than other countries. 3. **I would like to consume the different cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) from this country.** 4. **I would like to meet more people from this country.** 5. **I would like myself or my children to study in this country.** 6. If possible, I would like to move to this country in the future. 7. I am not interested in anything from this country. (Reverse)
Relational Attentiveness (Reputational)	1. When there is news about this country, it captures the attention of foreigners like me. 2. **Foreigners like me do not pay attention to news about this country. (Reverse)** 3. **I am curious about what people say about this country.** 4. **I enjoy learning about other people's experiences in this country.** 5. **I am curious about this country.** 6. I do not want to know anything about this country. (Reverse)

The factor loadings for each RADIO dimension for the types of relationship quality tested are shown in the tables below. The dimensions in the RADIO scale were found to be useful.

Table 7.4 Factor Loading for RADIO Dimensions

Perceived Relationships	***US-China***	***US-Mexico***	***India-China***	***India-USA***	***India-Australia***
Experiential Relationships					
Interactional Bilateralism	.839	.680	.967	.927	.887
Power Mutuality	.983	.818	.994	.896	.801
Empathy	.938	.887	.908	.808	.863
Trust	.974	.978	.955	.876	.802
Relational Continuation	.955	.971	.841	.952	.452
Relational Satisfaction	.986	.933	.832	.921	.496
Reputational Relationships					
Interactional Bilateralism	.897	.722	.918	.870	.930
Power Mutuality	.919	.872	.966	.947	.978
Empathy	.973	.984	.953	.769	.967
Trust	.975	.859	.963	.823	.966
Relational Curiosity	.870	.742	.928	.882	.917
Relational Attentiveness	.795	.569	.875	.832	.918

Table 7.5 Results from Confirmatory Factor Analysis for RADIO

Perceived Relationships	***Chi Square***	***Degree of Freedom***	***CFI***	***SRMR***	***RMSEA***
U.S. Respondents					
Experiential Relationships with China	1170.78	325	.74	.09	.16
Reputational Relationships with China	6897.97	300	.93	.06	.06
Experiential Relationships with Mexico	349.36	288	.96	.06	.04
Reputational Relationships with Mexico	4171.27	300	.94	.07	.05
Indian Respondents					
Experiential Relationships with China	649.775	231	.94	.09	.06
Reputational Relationships with China	8476.736	300	.95	.04	.06
Experiential Relationships with U.S.A.	1355.82	231	.96	.06	.04
Reputational Relationships with U.S.A.	2189.66	190	.96	.05	.04
Experiential Relationships with Australia	928.31	231	.94	.11	.06
Reputational Relationships with Australia	6701.36	300	.95	.04	.05

7.3 Hypotheses 3a-d: Megaphoning Behaviors

Hypotheses 3a-d asked about whether there were associations between experiential and reputational relationship quality and positive and negative megaphoning behaviors. The table below shows the results of the path analysis.

Table 7.6 Results from Path Analysis for Megaphoning Behaviors

***p< .05, **p<.01, *** p<.001**

Perceived Relationships	***Positive Megaphoning***	***Negative Megaphoning***
U.S. Respondents		
Experiential Relationships with China	.779***	.327
Reputational Relationships with China	.803***	.344*
Experiential Relationships with Mexico	.621***	.292***
Reputational Relationships with Mexico	.647***	.307***
Indian Respondents		
Experiential Relationships with China	.667***	.101
Reputational Relationships with China	.818***	.296***
Experiential Relationships with U.S.A.	.795***	.230**
Reputational Relationships with U.S.A.	.826***	.313***
Experiential Relationships with Australia	.920***	.369**
Reputational Relationships with Australia	.792***	.281***

Hypotheses 3a asked about whether experiential relationship quality was associated with positive megaphoning. As shown above, it is significant across all the five types of experiential relationships tested. In the U.S. sample, experiential relationship quality with China (.779, p<.001) and experiential relationship quality with Mexico (.621, p<.001) were both found to be associated with positive megaphoning. In the Indian sample, experiential relationship quality with China (.667, p<.001), experiential relationship quality with the U.S. (.795, p<.001) and experiential relationship quality with Australia (.920, $p<.001$) were all found to be associated with positive megaphoning. Thus, Hypothesis 3a is supported.

Hypothesis 3b asked about whether reputational relationship quality were associated with positive megaphoning. As shown above, it was significant across all the five types of reputational relationships tested as well. In the U.S. sample, it was associated with the reputational relationship quality with China (.803, $p<.001$) and the reputational relationship quality with Mexico (.647, $p<.001$). In the Indian sample, associations were found with the reputational relationships with China (.818, $p<.001$), the U.S. (.826, $p<.001$) and Australia (.792, $p<.001$). Thus, Hypothesis 3b is supported as well.

Hypothesis 3c asked about whether experiential relationship quality had negative associations with negative megaphoning. In the U.S. sample, negative megaphoning was not found to be associated with the experiential relationship quality with China. But significant positive associations were found with the experiential relationship quality with Mexico (.292, $p<.001$). In the Indian sample, associations were not found experiential relationship quality with China, but was found in the experiential relationship with the U.S. (.230, $p<.01$). Positive associations were also found between the experiential relationship quality with Australia and negative megaphoning (.369, $p<.01$). Thus, Hypothesis 3c was not supported because positive associations were found in three out of the five types of experiential relationships tested.

Hypothesis 3d questioned whether reputational relationship quality was negatively associated with negative megaphoning. Significant positive associations were found in all the five types of reputational relationships tested. In the U.S. sample, negative megaphoning was found to be associated with the reputational relationship quality with China (.344, *p*<.05) and Mexico (.307, *p*<.001). In the Indian sample, associations were found with the reputational relationship quality with China (.296, *p*<.001), the U.S. (.313, *p*<.001) and Australia (.281, *p*<.001). Hence, Hypothesis 3d was not supported, but positive associations were found in all the five types of reputational relationships tested.

7.4 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Models

The results of the path analysis for the hypothesized models are shown in the figures below. For better results, the results from the chi-square robust model were used rather than the maximum likelihood model.

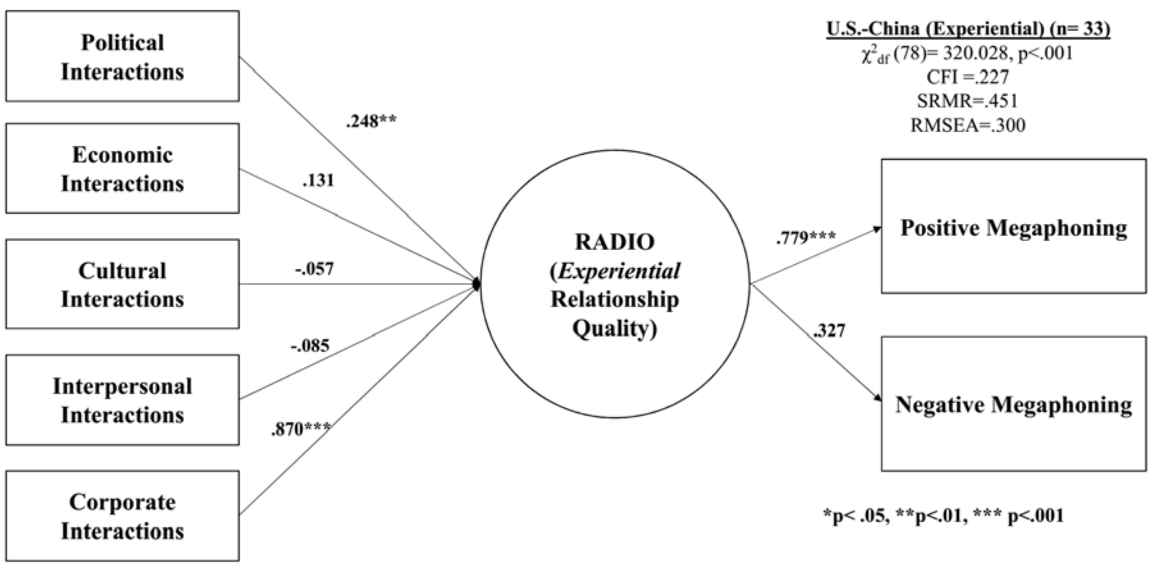

Figure 7.1 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Experiential Relationships between U.S. Respondents and China

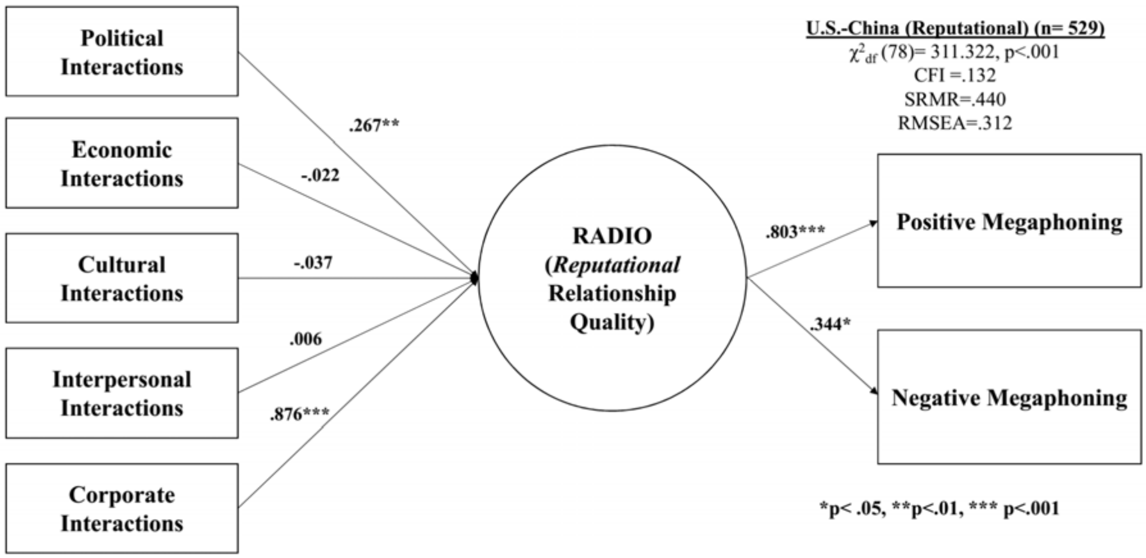

Figure 7.2 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Reputational Relationships between U.S. Respondents and China

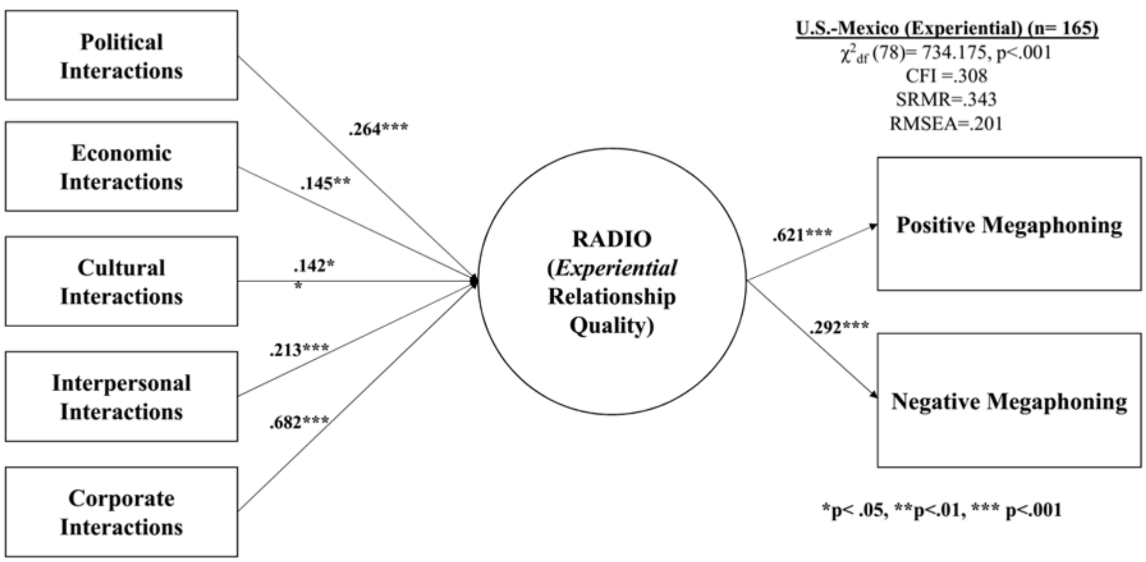

Figure 7.3 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Experiential Relationships between U.S. Respondents and Mexico

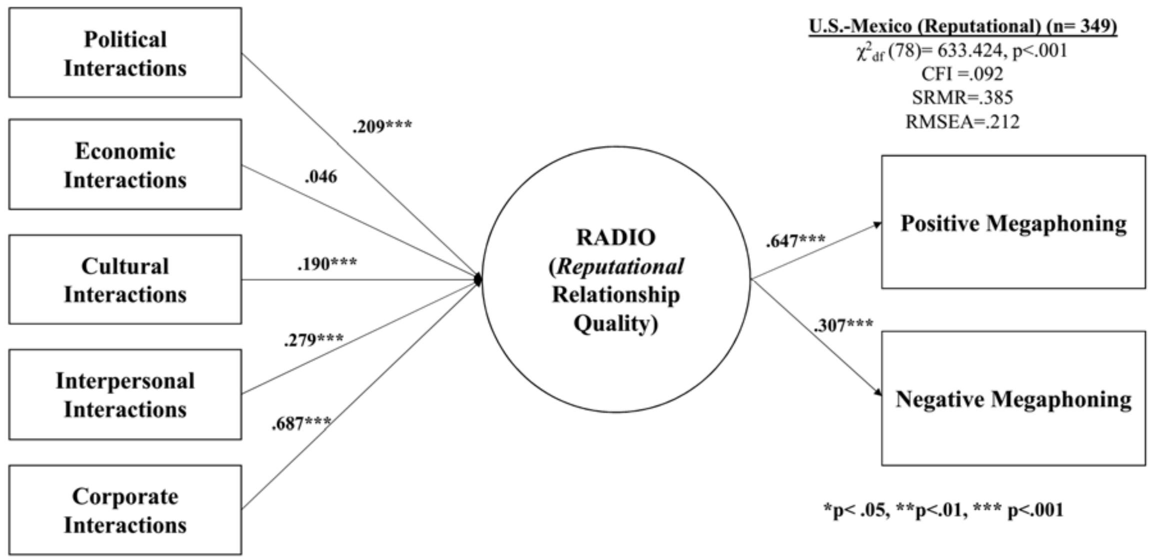

Figure 7.4 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Reputational Relationships between U.S. Respondents and Mexico

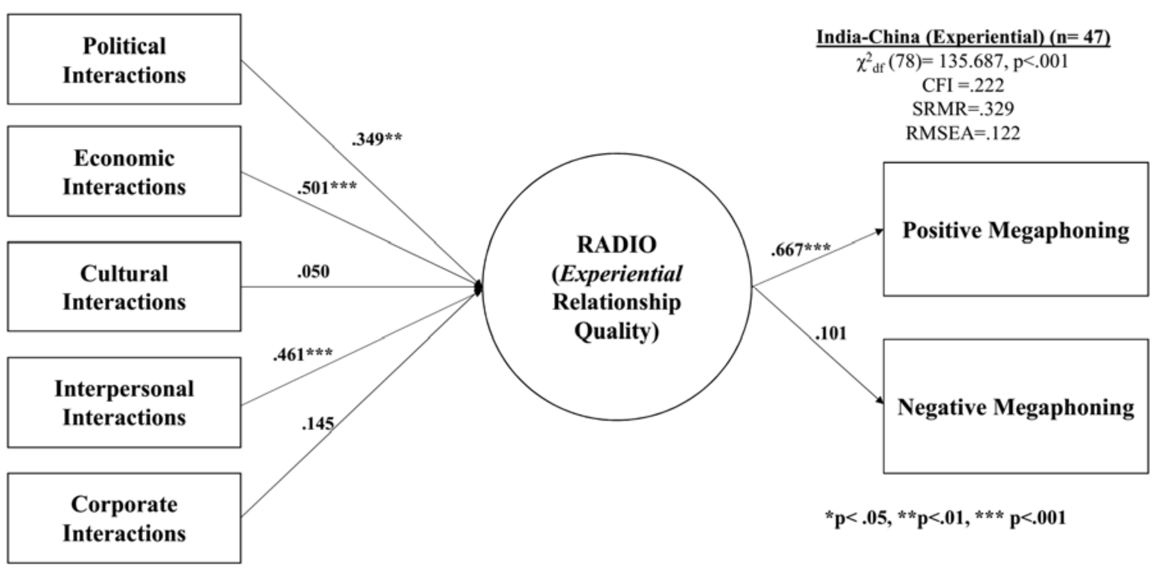

Figure 7.5 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Experiential Relationships between Indian Respondents and China

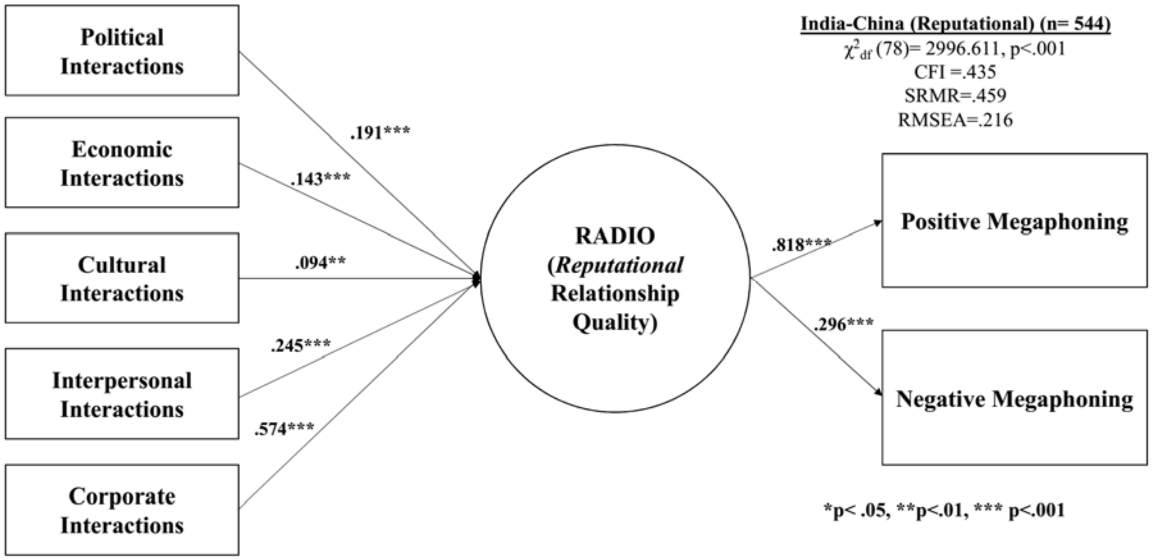

Figure 7.6 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Reputational Relationships between Indian Respondents and China

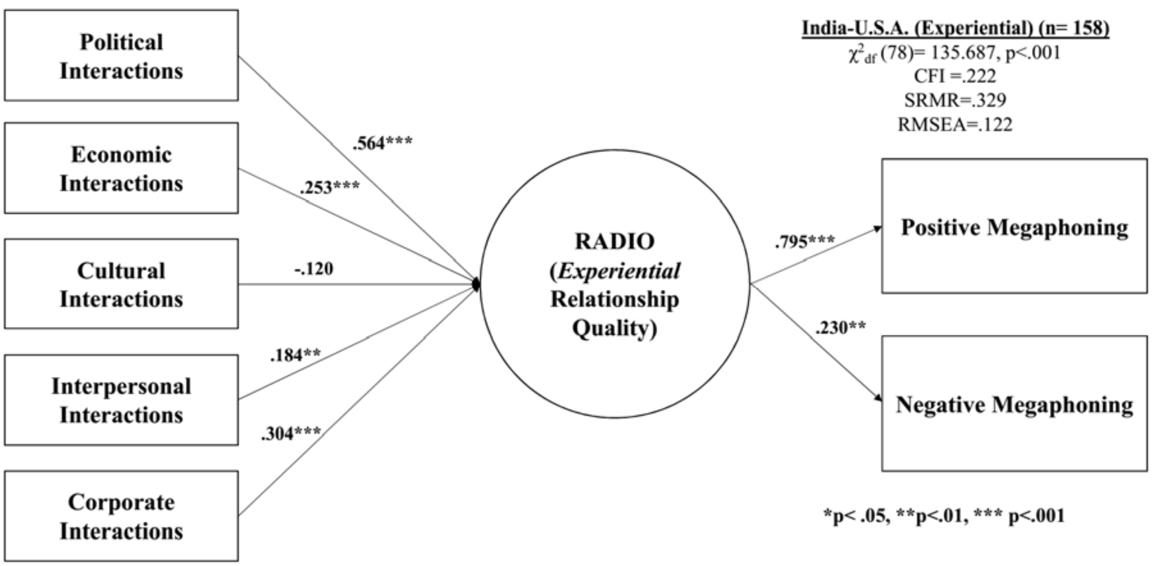

Figure 7.7 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Experiential Relationships between Indian Respondents and U.S.A.

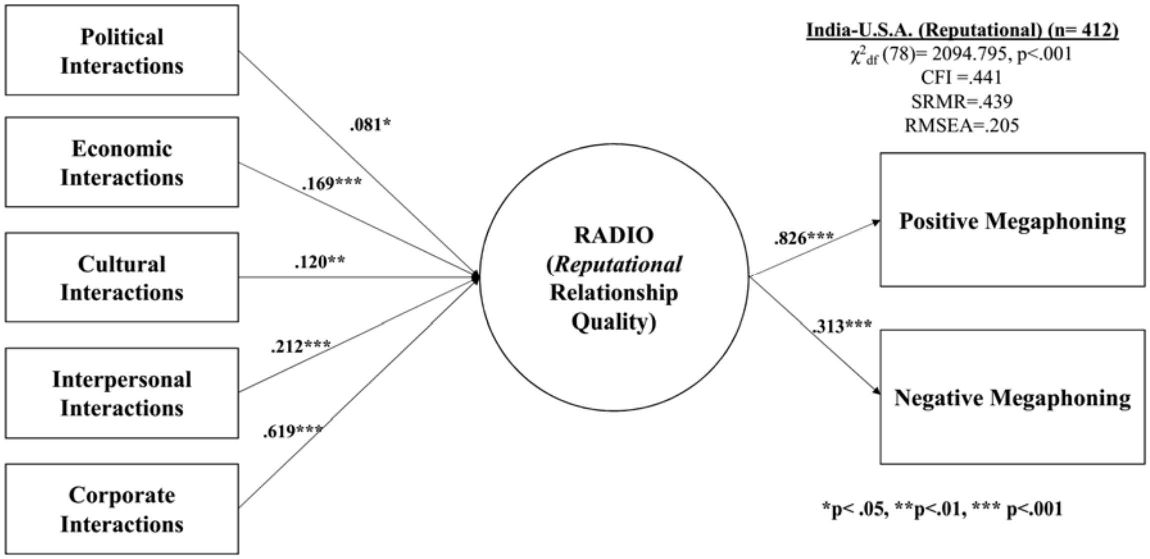

Figure 7.8 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of the Reputational Relationships between Indian Respondents and U.S.A.

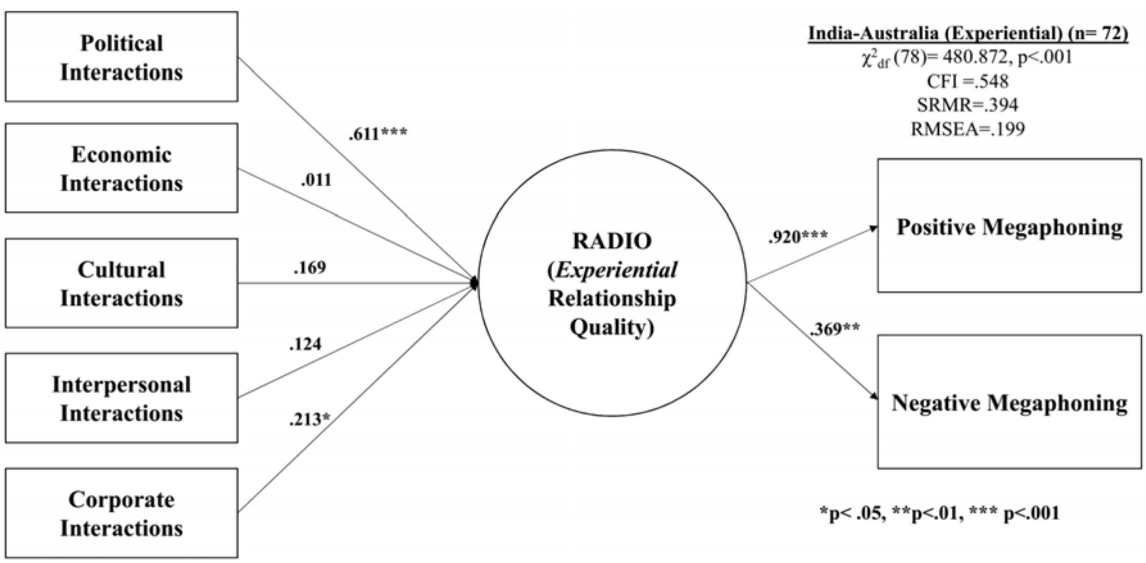

Figure 7.9 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of Experiential Relationships between Indian Respondents and Australia

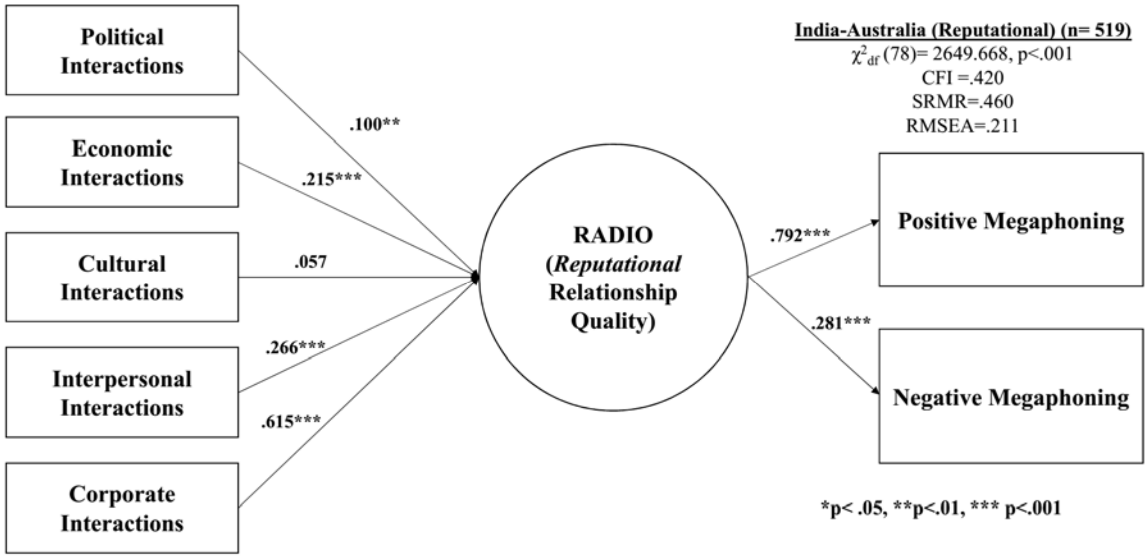

Figure 7.10 Path Analysis Results for the Hypothesized Model of Reputational Relationships between Indian Respondents and Australia

7.5 Research Question 4: Comparing Results from Each Country

Research Question 4 asked about how each country performed in terms of their public diplomacy outcomes if the RADIO scale was used to measure the outcomes. The tables below show the results from each test in terms of the average score (the composite score) for each dimension of RADIO.

Table 7.7 Averages of Each RADIO Dimension for the Relationships between U.S. Respondents and China

RADIO Dimensions	***US-China Experiential***	***US-China Reputational***
Experiential & Reputational Relationships		
Interactional Bilateralism	3.610	3.718
Power Mutuality	2.814	2.794
Empathy	3.026	2.742
Trust	2.724	2.709
Experiential Relationships		
Relational Continuation	2.948	
Relational Satisfaction	2.730	
Reputational Relationships		
Relational Curiosity		2.887
Relational Attentiveness		3.681

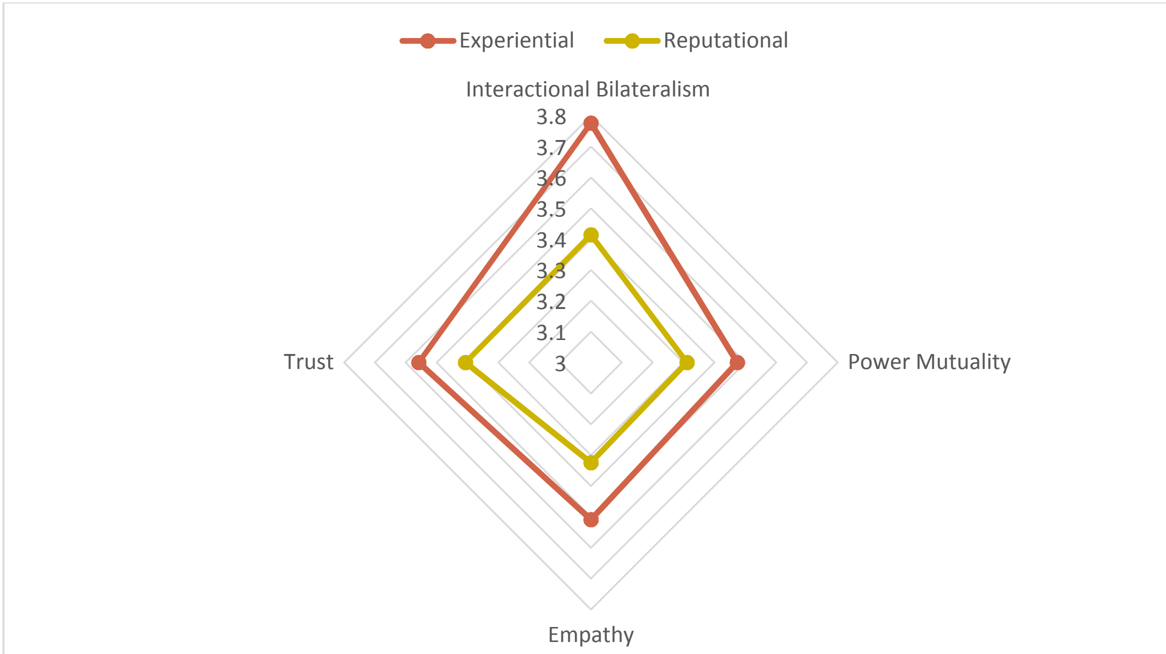

Figure 7.11 Radar Chart of the Four RADIO Base Dimensions for Relationships between U.S. Respondents and China

Table 7.8 Averages of Each RADIO Dimension for the Relationships between U.S. Respondents and Mexico

RADIO Dimensions	***US-Mexico Experiential***	***US-Mexico Reputational***
Experiential & Reputational Relationships		
Interactional Bilateralism	3.865	3.795
Power Mutuality	3.372	3.300
Empathy	3.374	2.209
Trust	2.914	2.884
Experiential Relationships		
Relational Continuation	3.234	
Relational Satisfaction	3.072	
Reputational Relationships		
Relational Curiosity		3.069
Relational Attentiveness		2.994

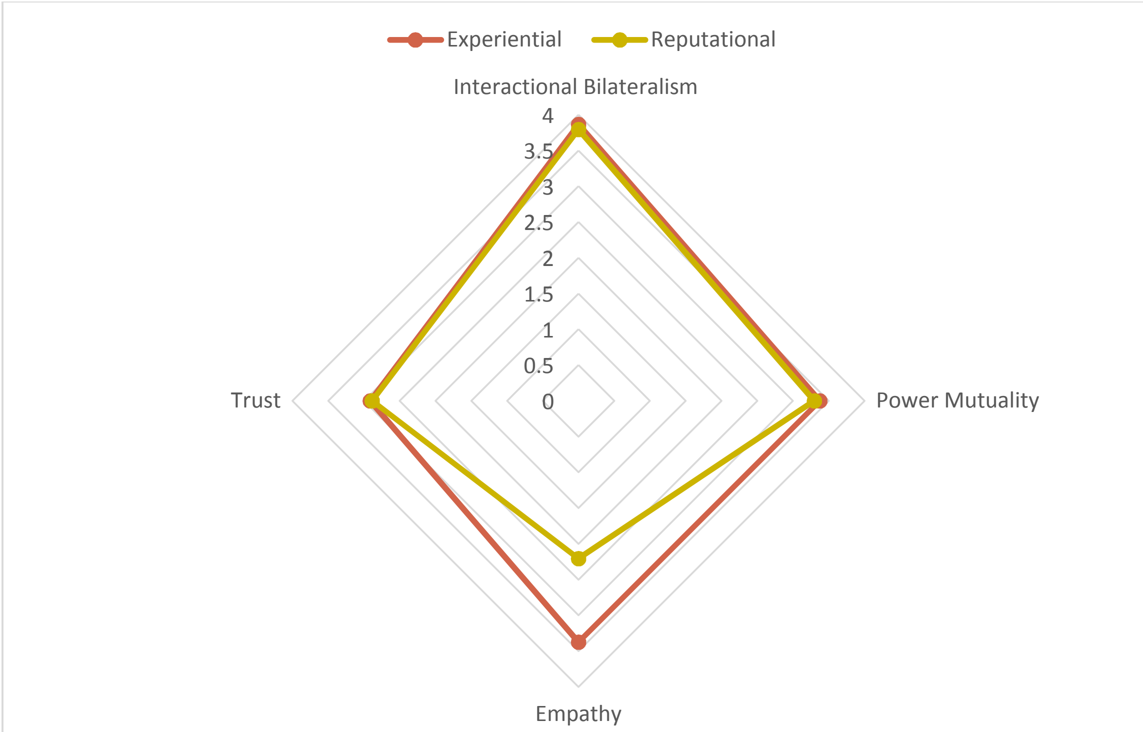

Figure 7.12 Radar Chart of the Four RADIO Base Dimensions for the Relationships between U.S. Respondents and Mexico

Table 7.9 Averages of Each RADIO Dimension for the Relationships between Indian Respondents and China

RADIO Dimensions	***India-China Experiential***	***India-China Reputational***
Experiential & Reputational Relationships		
Interactional Bilateralism	3.593	3.491
Power Mutuality	3.164	2.991
Empathy	3.063	3.056
Trust	3.373	3.355
Experiential Relationships		
Relational Continuation	3.651	
Relational Satisfaction	3.435	
Reputational Relationships		
Relational Curiosity		3.282
Relational Attentiveness		3.509

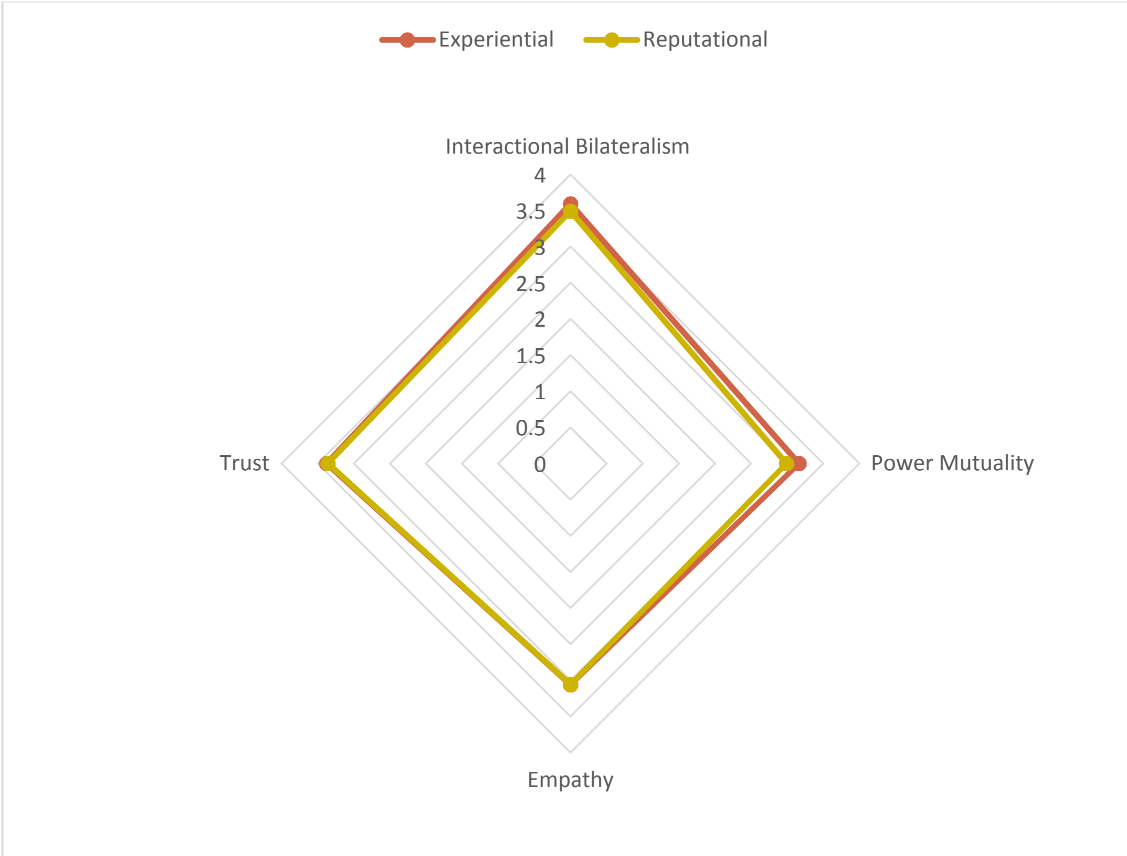

Figure 7.13 Radar Chart of the Four RADIO Dimensions for the Relationships between Indian Respondents and China

Table 7.10 Averages of Each RADIO Dimension for the Relationships between Indian Respondents and U.S.A.

RADIO Dimensions	***India-USA Experiential***	***India-USA Reputational***
Experiential & Reputational Relationships		
Interactional Bilateralism	4.006	3.889
Power Mutuality	3.484	3.393
Empathy	3.524	3.463
Trust	3.699	3.547
Experiential Relationships		
Relational Continuation	4.072	
Relational Satisfaction	3.868	
Reputational Relationships		
Relational Curiosity		3.888
Relational Attentiveness		3.777

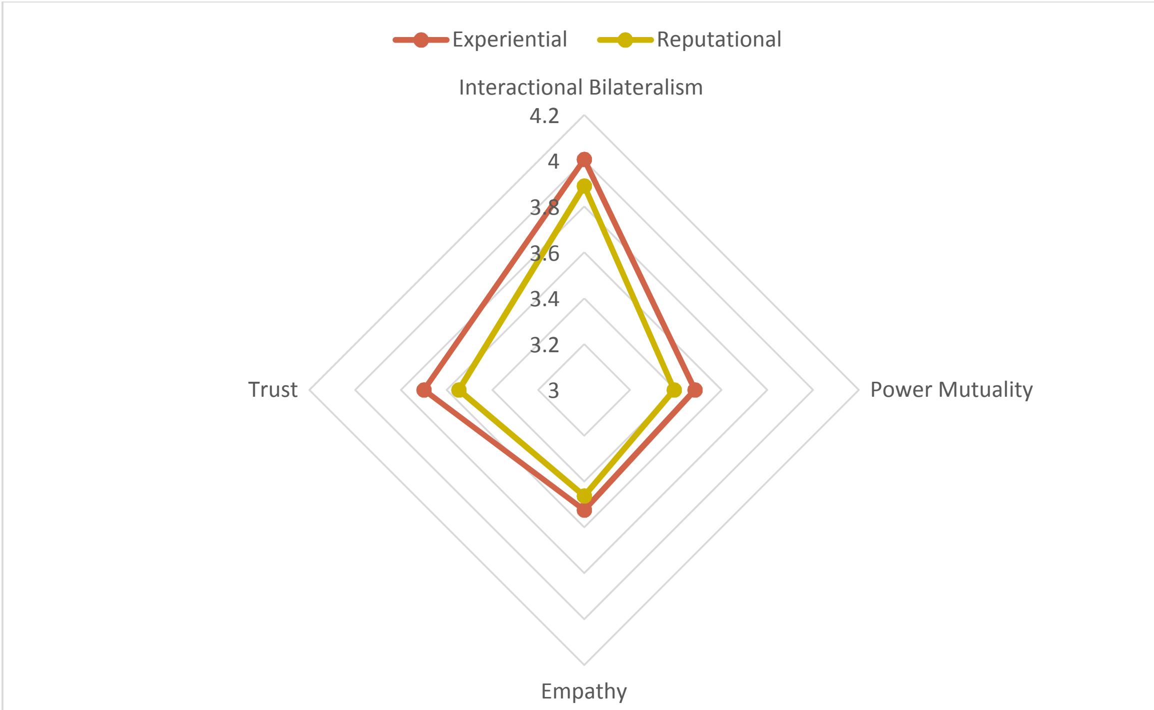

Figure 7.14 Radar Chart of the Four RADIO Base Dimensions for the Relationships between Indian Respondents and U.S.A.

Table 7.11 Averages of Each RADIO Dimension for the Relationships between Indian Respondents and Australia

RADIO Dimensions	*India-Australia Experiential*	*India-Australia Reputational*
Experiential & Reputational Relationships		
Interactional Bilateralism	3.776	3.414
Power Mutuality	3.474	3.311
Empathy	3.509	3.324
Trust	3.558	3.407
Experiential Relationships		
Relational Continuation	3.928	
Relational Satisfaction	3.795	
Reputational Relationships		
Relational Curiosity		3.688
Relational Attentiveness		3.585

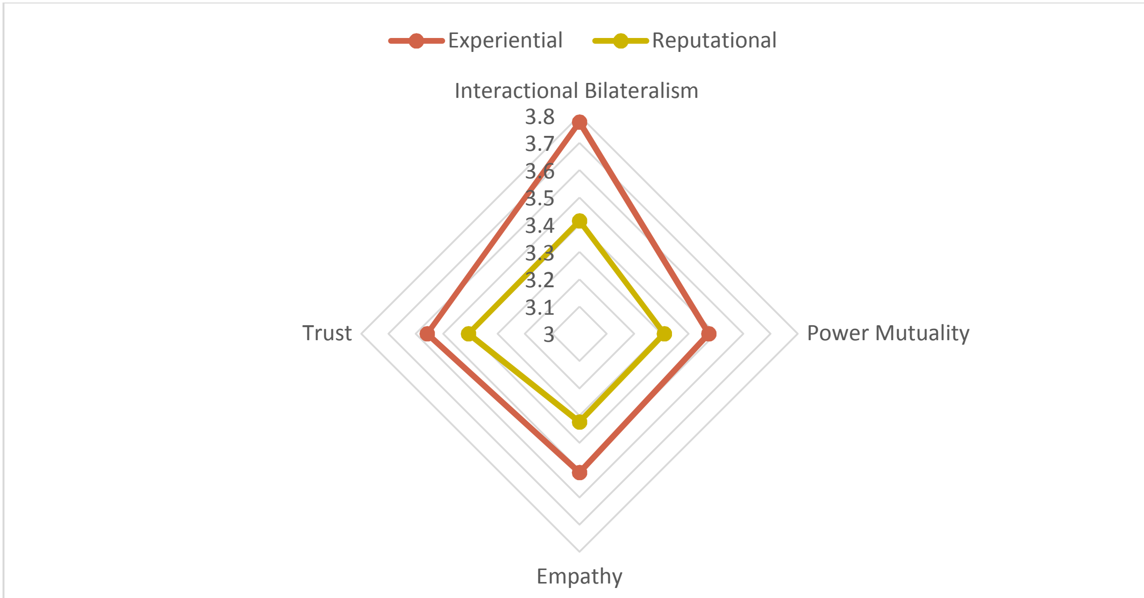

Figure 7.15 Radar Chart of the Four RADIO Base Dimensions for the Relationships between Indian Respondents and Australia

Table 7.12 Comparison of U.S. Respondents' Experiential Relationship Quality with China and Mexico

RADIO Dimensions	***USA-China Experiential***	***USA-Mexico Experiential***
Experiential & Reputational Relationships		
Interactional Bilateralism	3.610	3.865
Power Mutuality	2.814	3.372
Empathy	3.026	3.374
Trust	2.724	2.914
Experiential Relationships		
Relational Continuation	2.948	3.234
Relational Satisfaction	2.730	3.072

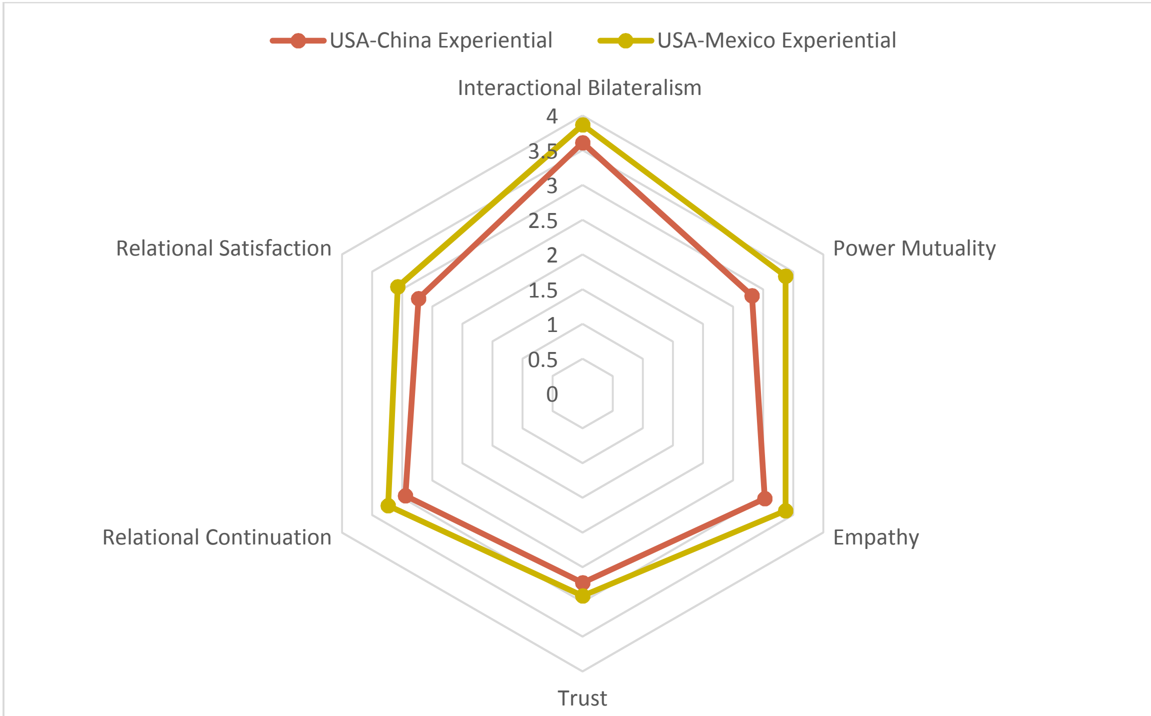

Figure 7.16 Radar Chart Comparing U.S. Experiential Relationship Holders' Perceived Relationship Quality with China and Mexico

Table 7.13 Comparison of U.S. Respondents' Reputational Relationship Quality with China and Mexico

RADIO Dimensions	***USA-China Reputational***	***USA-Mexico Reputational***
Experiential & Reputational Relationships		
Interactional Bilateralism	3.718	3.795
Power Mutuality	2.794	3.300
Empathy	2.742	2.209
Trust	2.709	2.884
Reputational Relationships		
Relational Curiosity	2.887	3.069
Relational Attentiveness	3.681	2.994

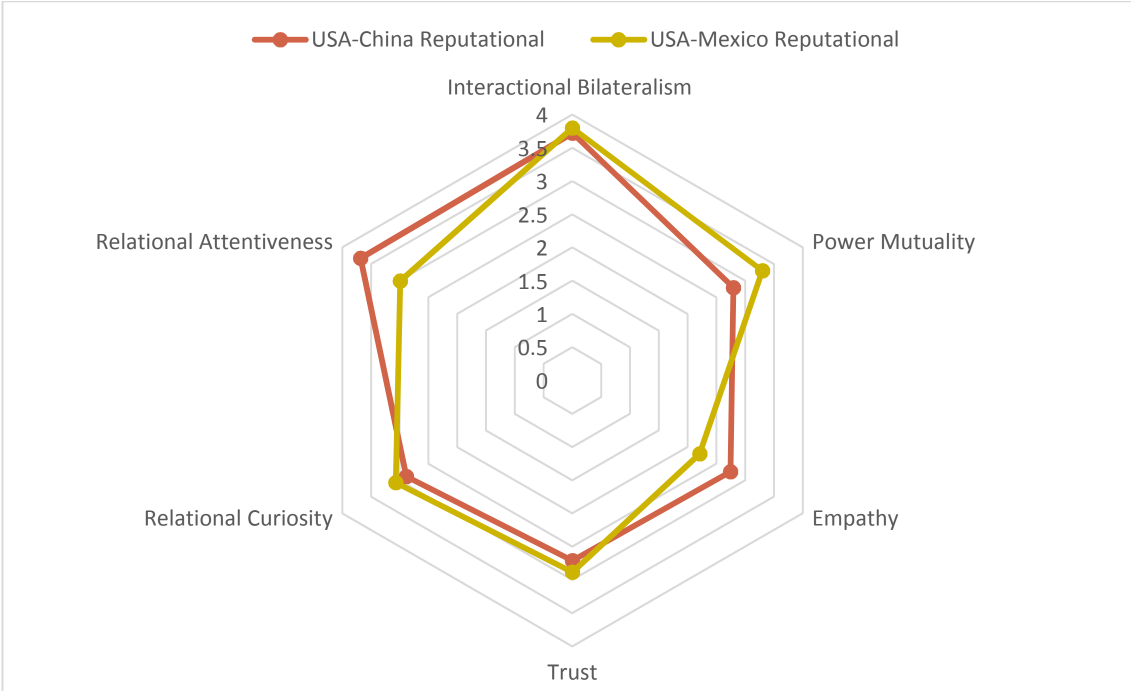

Figure 7.17 Radar Chart Comparing U.S. Reputational Relationship Holders' Perceived Relationship Quality with China and Mexico

Table 7.14 Comparison of Indian Respondents' Experiential Relationship Quality with China, U.S.A. and Australia

RADIO Dimensions	*India-China Experiential*	*India-USA Experiential*	*India-Australia Experiential*
Experiential & Reputational Relationships			
Interactional Bilateralism	3.593	4.006	3.776
Power Mutuality	3.164	3.484	3.474
Empathy	3.063	3.524	3.509
Trust	3.373	3.699	3.558
Experiential Relationships			
Relational Continuation	3.651	4.072	3.928
Relational Satisfaction	3.435	3.868	3.795

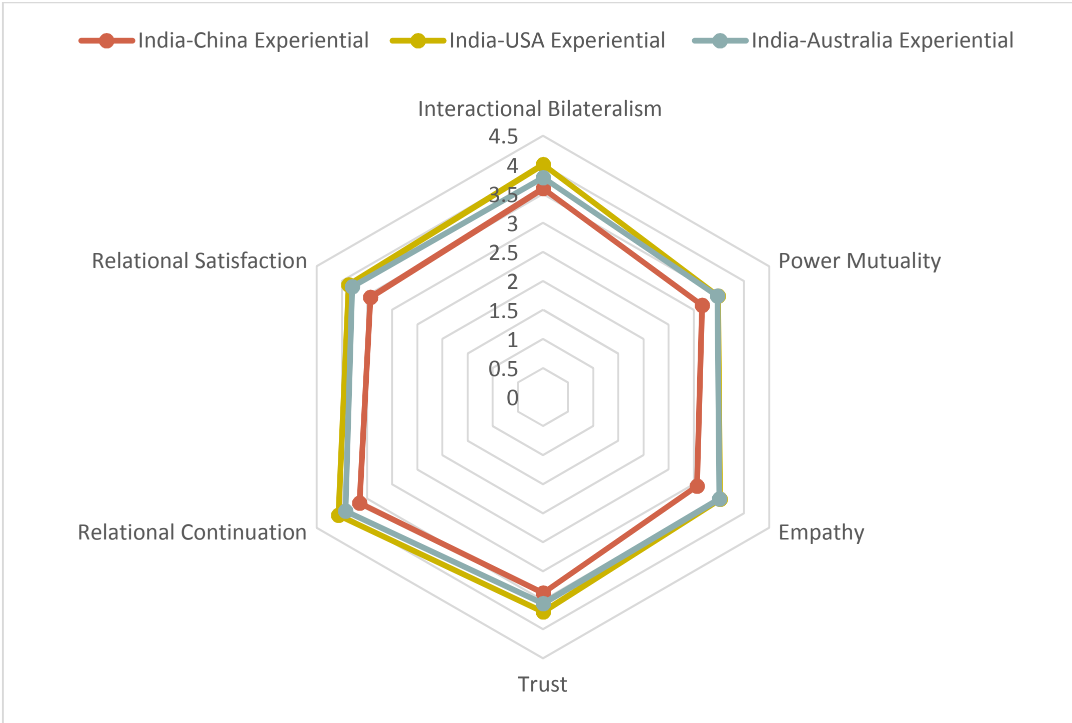

Figure 7.18 Radar Chart Comparing Indian Respondents' Experiential Relationship Quality with China, U.S.A and Australia

Table 7.15 Comparison of Indian Respondents' Reputational Relationship Quality with China, U.S.A. and Australia

RADIO Dimensions	*India-China Reputational*	*India-USA Reputational*	*India-Australia Reputational*
Experiential & Reputational Relationships			
Interactional Bilateralism	3.491	3.889	3.414
Power Mutuality	2.991	3.393	3.311
Empathy	3.056	3.463	3.324
Trust	3.355	3.547	3.407
Reputational Relationships			
Relational Curiosity	3.282	3.888	3.688
Relational Attentiveness	3.509	3.777	3.585

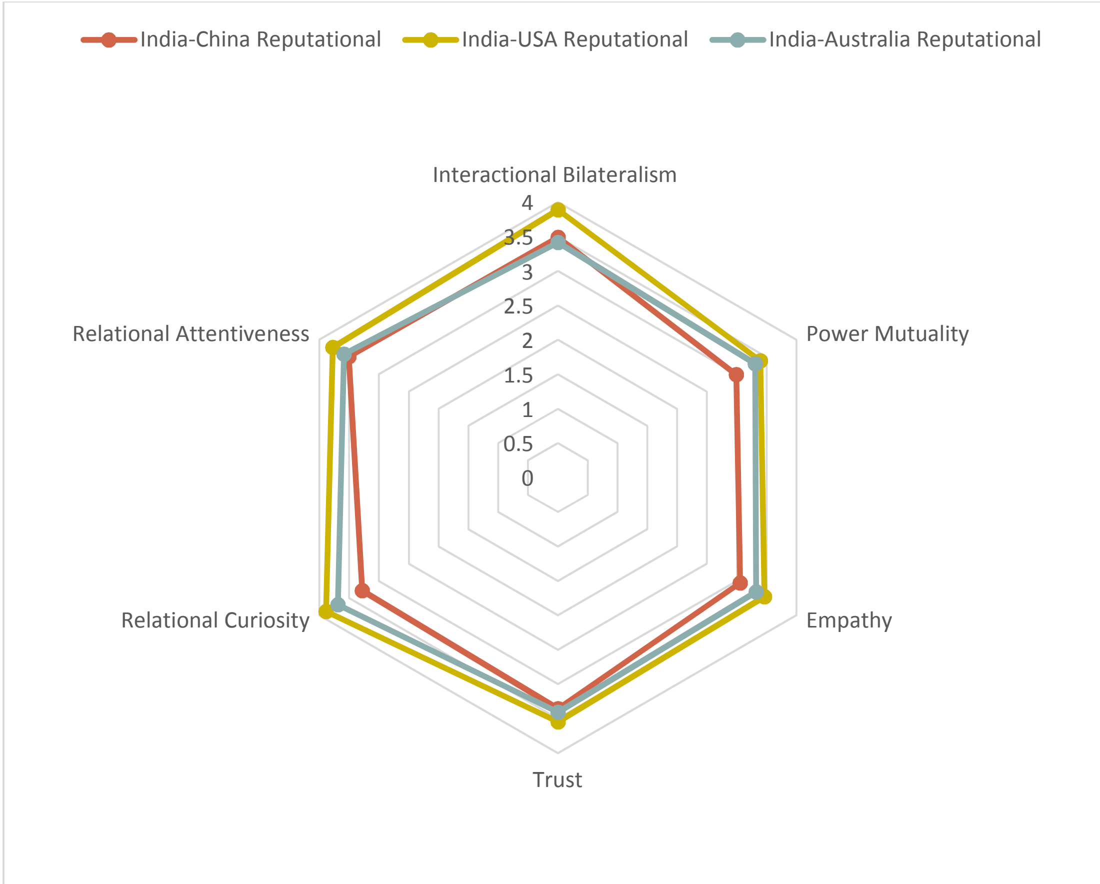

Figure 7.19 Radar Chart Comparing Indian Respondents' Reputational Relationship Quality with China, U.S.A. and Australia

CHAPTER 8. DISCUSSION

8.1 Discussion and Implications

In response to the call for the development of a scale for measuring public diplomacy outcomes, the Relationship Assessment of Diplomatic Interaction Outcome (RADIO) scale was developed and was tested using empirical data collected for this dissertation. By classifying relationships with foreign countries into two types, namely *experiential* and *reputational* relationships, this dissertation has not only developed a scale for measuring long-term relationship quality as the outcomes of public diplomacy, but has also found other associated variables using path analysis.

8.1.1 Public Diplomacy Activities

First of all, five types of *interactions* were studied as antecedent activities which affected the perceived relationship quality with foreign publics. In terms of these antecedent variables, the fact that *political interactions* are found to be significantly associated with all the ten relationships tested indicated the importance of political country-to-country interactions at the governmental level in affecting public diplomacy outcomes. Regardless of their direct or indirect experiences with a foreign country, individuals' perceptions towards political interactions in terms of how a country deals with another country are associated with the self-reported relationship quality. This finding also suggests that even though public diplomacy is differentiated from traditional government-to-government diplomatic activities and that it is known as people's diplomacy, traditional diplomatic efforts still affect public diplomacy outcomes to an extent. It is believed that public diplomacy efforts should be made to change the public opinion of foreign publics to change their home countries' political decision-making processes. But in fact, a country's own efforts in building political diplomatic relations with a foreign country can change public opinion as well. Even though economic interactions are found to be significant in seven out of ten relationships tested, it is not as influential as *political interactions* which are associated with the relationship quality for all the ten relationships tested.

Second, *cultural interactions* were only found to be associated with relationship quality in four out of the ten relationships tested. One interesting finding is its significant associations with both experiential and reputational relationship quality between U.S. respondents and Mexico. Because there is a reasonably large population of Mexican descent in the U.S. and that the U.S. is more culturally influenced by Mexico in terms of the food culture or even language, it will be worth examining whether the exposure to cultural interactions with Mexico is the influential factor causing it to be significant for U.S. respondents. Because the items used for measuring cultural interactions include such cultural products as food, arts, movies, music and fashion, it is possible that some are considered more significant in shaping the relationships. For example, in the Indian sample, cultural interactions with China and the U.S. were significant for reputational relationship holders. Given that the Australian culture is not as well-known and easily distinguishable as the Chinese and the American cultures, it also points to the need of examining how the influence of accessibility and exposure could have affected a foreign person's perceived relationship quality to a greater extent. Future research could use the RADIO scale to explore the influence of geo-linguistics in public diplomacy.

Similarly, for *interpersonal interactions*, U.S. experiential and reputational relationship holders were found to associate it with their perceived relationship quality with Mexico. Again, the influence of Mexico in the country in terms of the population could have made an impact. As for the Indian sample, it was again apparent that both experiential and reputational relationship holders were affected by both China and the U.S.. While only reputational relationship holders with Australia reported a positive association between interpersonal interactions and reputational relationship quality, we might raise the question of how reputational relationship holders would have acquired knowledge about the people in Australia or whether they had been exposed to such interactions when Australians were travelling overseas. Violence against Indians in Australia has received extensive coverage in the media, which could have affected reputational relationship holders' perceptions about interpersonal interactions. In this respect, more investigation should be done to look into how foreign publics develop their perceptions about people from foreign countries and how these perceptions could ultimately affect their perceived relationships with foreign countries.

The last antecedent variable measured was the new construct of corporate interactions which examined individuals' perceptions of the corporations from a certain country. Nine of out the ten relationships tested were found to be significant; the only exclusion is Indian respondents' perceived experiential relationships with China. Because no present scale has been developed for measuring corporate diplomacy, in spite of its reliability, more research needs to be done to look into this construct's impact on corporate diplomacy or corporate activities on the outcome of public diplomacy. Also, the fact that nine out of ten cases were found to be significant has shown the importance of corporate interactions in predicting public diplomacy outcomes. Because multinational corporations are increasingly involved in international engagement programs, such as promoting health and growth in their foreign markets, corporate activities are on the rise and could be increasingly impactful on public diplomacy outcomes. Therefore, in addition to the items used to examine corporate diplomacy in this study, future research should be conducted to develop a more comprehensive scale in measuring corporate interactions as the operationalized variable of corporate diplomacy. More importantly, multilevel analysis could be conducted to examine the potential relationship between the perceived relationships between foreign publics and multinational corporations and between foreign publics and the home countries of the multinational corporations. Future research could examine the roles of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and faith-based organizations in public diplomacy as well.

8.1.2 Utility of the RADIO Scale

While the antecedent variables have provided insights into how different types of public diplomacy activities could make an impact on public diplomacy outcomes, the RADIO scale developed has broken down the construct of *perceived relationship quality* into six dimensions for *experiential* and *reputational* relationships respectively. First of all, this study recognizes the importance of classifying foreign publics into those with direct experiences and those without direct experiences. It is assumed that they differ because those with direct experiences would rely more on their own experiences as a reference when reporting their perceived relationship with a foreign country whereas those without direct experiences would rely on a variety of different sources when considering their perceived relationships.

New dimensions were added to RADIO in addition to those revised from the OPRA scale. The results from the confirmatory analysis have several implications. First, while interactional bilateralism was defined as the frequency of interactions, the shortened version of the items suggested removing all the items about the frequency of interactions but focusing on whether the activities are *mutually beneficial*. It implies that the ultimate goals of the interactions are in fact more important than the frequency. It is different to *power mutuality* in the sense that *power mutuality* is about the methods using which such goals are met. For instance, a country may be attentive to what foreign countries and foreign citizens have to say in order to reach the goal of interactional bilateralism. As for the micro-dimensional factors of *trust*, *empathy*, *relational continuation* and *relational satisfaction*, most of the items used yielded a reasonable factor loading. However, for relational continuation, the items used to measure how an individual would seek to continue the relationship through the behaviors of consuming more products or meeting more people from the country are suggested to be removed for the shortened version of RADIO. Further investigations should be conducted to look into how consumption behaviors or interpersonal communication behaviors could portray an individual's perceived relationship with a foreign country. As for reputational relationship holders, the desires to consume products from, meet people from and study in a foreign country are recommended to be kept for measurement. As for attentiveness, two types of information sources were found to be the most useful: news about a country and people's information about the country. Relational curiosity and relational attentiveness are different in the sense that the former is about the desire to be engaged in some behaviors to satisfy the curiosity whereas the latter is about fulfilling an information need. Future research in public relations could consider adding these two variables in measuring the organization-public relationships (OPR) with reputational relationship holders as well.

It is believed that the better the relationship quality, the more the positive megaphoning behaviors and the less the negative megaphoning behaviors. Megaphoning differs from word-of-mouth communication because it consists of information acquisition, information selection and information transmission and can lead to the outcome of the compounding of information through more megaphoning behaviors performed by both experiential and reputational relationship holders. This study has found the significance of positive megaphoning in all the ten tests completed. And they are all found to be highly significant. But for negative megaphoning, it is worth noting that U.S. respondents' and Indian respondents' experiential relationships with China were the only two found to be insignificant. It suggests that even if one has a positive relationship with foreign country, it does not necessarily stop him or her from being engaged in negative megaphoning behaviors. But it is understandable with reputational relationship holders because their information comes from a variety of sources and could have been disseminating information from a variety of sources rather than just one.

The comparisons amongst how each country does in terms of its public diplomacy outcomes reported through the perceived relationship quality with experiential and reputational relationship holders indicate that there are differences in how experiential and reputational relationship holders perceive their relationship quality with the country.

For instance, in terms of the four RADIO base items, Indians respondents' perceived relationship quality with Australia differed a lot between experiential and reputational relationship holders. A slight difference was also shown in the India-U.S.A. case. However, the differences in the relationships between U.S. respondents and China and between Indian respondents and China are not too significant that only slight differences can be found in the radar charts. As for U.S. respondents' perceived relationship with Mexico, *empathy* was the one RADIO base dimension which clearly stood out that experiential relationship holders reported a far higher score for the dimension than reputational relationship holders. Thus, in the case of Australia, the results of this study would recommend Australia to attract reputational relationship holders in order to build better diplomatic relationships with foreign publics. The same recommendation would be given to the United States. However, for China, there would be minimal, if any, differences. As for the case of U.S.A.-Mexico relationship, it would be worth looking into why experiential relationship holders reported a higher score for empathy. It is possible that U.S. respondents who have visited Mexico before are likely to have Mexican descent or have had a strong interest in the country. It is also possible that U.S. respondents who have never visited Mexico have interacted with people of Mexican descent or have been exposed to information about Mexico to have similar perceived relationship quality as experiential relationship holders.

When comparing amongst how each country performs in terms of its public diplomacy outcomes, differences were also found. In the U.S. sample, Mexico performed better than China with its experiential relationship holders. But reputational relationship holders reported similar scores for *interactional bilateralism* and *relational curiosity*, a higher score for China for *relational attentiveness* and *empathy* and a higher score for Mexico for *power mutuality*. In the Indian sample, China was not as well-performing as U.S.A. and Australia for both experiential and reputational relationships. It is worth noting that for reputational relationship holders, the U.S. performed much better than Australia and China. Yet, for experiential relationship holders, U.S. and Australia had more similar averages. Because the U.S. and Australia are both English-speaking countries with similar Western cultures, it will be worth examining whether these factors would make an impact on how reputational relationship holders perceived another country.

Now that the RADIO scale has been developed for measuring public diplomacy outcomes, it is recommended that government institutions consider using it to measure the aspects in which they can work on to improve relationship quality with foreign publics. For instance, if a lack of relational curiosity and relational attentiveness is found in reputational relationship holders, a country might wish to understand their foreign publics more by investigating why this is the case. These two dimensions could be crucial to attracting a reputational relationship holder into the country and becoming an experiential relationship holder. Likewise, if the scores for interactional bilateralism and power mutuality are low, nation states may also wish to consider how to improve foreign publics' perceptions of their interactions with foreign publics' home countries. All in all, the RADIO dimensions would be useful indicators for nation states to measure the extent to which their public diplomacy efforts are helping to form *strategic relationships* with foreign publics.

This RADIO scale will be useful in various aspects. First of all, it can be used as a benchmarking tool for developing relationships with foreign citizens. Without a benchmarking tool, it is hard to evaluate how a country performs in its public diplomacy programs. When a country identifies itself to be scoring low in one of the dimensions, it should consider putting in place some communication efforts to make improvements. Countries should strive to perform well in all the dimensions in the scale. It can also be used as a tool to track the effectiveness of public diplomacy programs over time. Second, three new dimensions, which are developed in the RADIO scale, are not currently used in the OPRA scale, namely *empathy*, *relational attentiveness* and *relational curiosity*. It would be worthwhile to examine whether the classification of relationships into *experiential* and *reputational* and the addition of these three dimensions could be of use in the assessment of organization-public relationships.

8.1.3 Theoretical Significance of the RADIO Scale

According to Banks (2011) and Vibber (2014), there is a lack of conceptualization on how to go about developing a measurement or evaluation system for public diplomacy. In spite of the utility of the OPRA scale as a foundational framework for developing a more extensive theory and measurement tool for public diplomacy, the OPRA scale is intended for measuring the relationships between an organization and its publics. Because the relationships between a country and its foreign publics are conceptually different, this study is a response to Banks' and Vibber's call for new research on public diplomacy measurement. This study also extends Vibber's study which has identified the key antecedents to relationship building between a country and its foreign publics and megaphoning as the possible communicative outcomes of such relationships.

Even though it was hypothesized that RADIO should be positively associated with positive megaphoning and negatively associated with negative megaphoning, such relationships were not found in this study. Vibber (2014) found in her dissertation that within-border foreign publics, who are experiential relationship holders, are influential because of their engagement in communicative behaviors with reputational relationship holders who reside in their home countries. She proposed in her dissertation that within-border foreign publics' relationships with their host countries should be positively associated with positive megaphoning and negatively associated with negative megaphoning. Kim and Rhee's (2011) study on employee communicative behaviors also established a positive relationship between relationship quality and positive megaphoning and a negative relationship between relationship quality and negative megaphoning.

It is possible that the relationship between perceived relationship quality and negative megaphoning behaviors was found to be positive and statistically significant because of the use of *country* as a unit of analysis rather than an *organization*. Unlike an organization at which employees work or with which other types of publics have more consistent experiences, a country is a much bigger entity that foreign publics' experiences with it could be comprised of many different aspects, such as people, organizations, and other social, cultural, political or economic interactions and the experiences are mixed and often not unequivocally positive or negative. As a result, an individual foreign citizen is likely to be exposed to broader and relatively less consistent experiences with a country. For instance, an international student may appreciate the culture of the country in which they study, but they might be discontent with its government. Thus, the RADIO scale seeks to capture the different antecedents of public diplomacy that foreign publics may experience in a country. The fact that this study found that foreign publics are engaged in both positive and negative megaphoning about a country regardless of their perceived relationship quality with them suggests that future studies could further break down positive and negative megaphoning behaviors into specific things that foreign publics talk about, such as politics, economy, culture, people, corporations, etc.. Moreover, even though existing research suggested that a positive association between relationship quality and positive megaphoning is always found concurrently with a negative association between relationship quality and negative megaphoning (e.g. Kim & Rhee, 2011; Vibber, 2014), this study has found that when *country* is used as a unit of analysis, it is not the case. Thus, research on communicative behaviors should further examine how individuals could be involved in both positive and negative megaphoning concurrently.

8.2 Conclusion

In conclusion, this dissertation has sought to create a scale for measuring public diplomacy outcomes. By taking a *relational* approach to measuring public diplomacy efforts rather than the *image* approach of public diplomacy, this dissertation differentiates itself from existing public diplomacy research by looking at the ways in which countries' public diplomacy efforts are perceived to be serving *mutually beneficial* purposes rather than their self-benefiting purposes. Because the efforts should seek to build long-term rather than short-term relationships, the *relational* approach could investigate more enduring characteristics of individuals' perceived relationships, such as their desire to advance the relationships by buying more products from a country, visiting the country more often or meeting more people from the country. Relationships should also be cultivated after they are built so that such relationships could continue. Good relationships could protect an organization from the possible detrimental impact of a crisis; the same applies to countries. It is believed that if a country has good relationships with foreign publics, foreign publics would develop *empathy* towards the country when it is in crisis. A popular quote about communication states that "The biggest communication problem is we do not listen to understand. We listen to reply." Thus, a country seeking to build *mutually beneficial* relationships with foreign publics should listen to understand and to incorporate foreign publics' concerns into their decision-making processes.

8.3 Limitations and Future Directions

The small sizes for some of the relationships tested have posed challenges for the data analysis. For example, only 33 and 47 experiential relationships with China were found in the U.S. sample and the Indian sample respectively. Similarly, for other experiential relationships measured, the sample sizes were significantly lower than the sample sizes used for testing reputational relationships. Even though developing the RADIO scale is the main goal of the study, bigger sample sizes for experiential relationships could replace path analysis with structural equation modeling to test well-fitted structural models. Adding more items for some RADIO dimensions should be considered as well. Also, for the antecedent variables, the alphas for the reliability statistics are rather low. This could be caused by sample fluctuations. It is recommended that some items be thrown out and be added in future studies. Also, the countries represented in this study are rather large countries with which the respondents were familiar. As Kang and Yang (2010) suggested, awareness could lead to certain beliefs to shape attitudes. Future studies could test how the RADIO scale could be used to measure the perceived relationships between other countries not tested in this study and foreign publics. Finally, relationships were simply classified into two types in this study depending on whether a respondent has had direct experiences in terms of visiting a foreign country. It is possible that more relationship types can be found by measuring respondents' exposure to political interactions, economic interactions, cultural interactions, interpersonal interactions and corporate interactions in both their home countries and foreign countries. For instance, an individual who has never visited the United States but has had frequent interactions with U.S. companies could report a different relationship quality. Therefore, future research may consider also measuring the frequency of exposure and developing another classification system of relationships.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

Questionnaire Used

U.S. respondents were asked to evaluate the following countries:
- China
- India
- Mexico
- South Korea
- Australia

Indian respondents were asked to evaluate the following countries:
- China
- USA
- Mexico
- South Korea
- Australia

I. Experiences with Countries

(**Note:** According to Grunig & Hung (2002), a person's experience with an organization should be used to classify whether they have "reputational" or "behavioral" relationships with the organization. Thus, these questions will help to classify participants into "types of relationship holders" based on which analysis will be made.)

1. Which country do you come from?
2. In which country were you born?
3. In which country do you currently reside?
4. Please state below the countries in which you have resided and the length of your residence in each country.
5. Please indicate whether you have been to these countries.

Antecedents to an Individual's Perceived Relationships with Foreign Countries (Kim & Ni, 2011)

II. Political Interactions

(Note: Because this study is about an individual's perceived relationships with foreign countries, they will be asked to evaluate the following statements on a Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" on three foreign countries which will be randomly selected. For instance, a U.S. respondent may be asked to evaluate the following statements about China, the United Kingdom, and Mexico. The same applies to all the following questions)

6. This country has favorable political interactions with foreign countries.
7. This country does poorly in building political relationships with foreign countries. (Reverse)
8. This country genuinely tries to maintain politically beneficial relationships with foreign countries.
9. This country only cares about itself during its political interactions with other

countries. (Reverse)

10. In terms of political interactions with foreign countries, this country is fair and just.

III. Economic Interactions

11. This country has favorable economic interactions with foreign countries.

12. When it comes to economic interactions, this country tries to overpower other countries. (Reverse)

13. This country genuinely tries to maintain economic interactions which benefit both herself and other countries.

14. This country is only concerned about itself when it builds economic relationships with other countries. (Reverse)

15. In terms of economic interactions with foreign countries, this country is fair and just.

IV. Cultural Interactions

16. The cultural products (e.g. movies, music, arts, fashion, food, etc.) that this country exports are good for foreign countries.

17. This country exports cultural products in order to positively influence other countries.

18. This country exports cultural products in order to change the cultures of other countries. (Reverse)

19. This country tries to dominate other countries by making them accept its cultures. (Reverse)

20. This country tries to maintain mutually beneficial relationships with other countries through cultural interactions.

V. Interpersonal Interactions

21. People from this country are well-received by people in other countries.

22. It is beneficial to have people from this country working and studying in foreign countries.

23. People in other countries have had unfavorable experiences interacting with people from this country. (Reverse)

24. People from this country tend to be more willing to spread their own cultures rather than accepting other people's cultures. (Reverse)

25. People from this country tend to make foreigners accept their views rather than listening to foreigners' views. (Reverse)

26. People in other countries have had positive experiences interacting with people from this country.

VI. Corporate Interactions

27. The global presence of this country's multinational corporations is beneficial to foreign countries.

28. When operating overseas, multinational corporations from this country are good corporate citizens.

29. The global presence of this country's multinational corporations threatens local and national businesses in foreign countries. (Reverse)
30. Multinational corporations from this country exploit local workers in foreign countries. (Reverse)
31. Foreigners have had positive experiences with the multinational corporations from this country.
32. Foreigners have had positive experiences with the products or services sold by multinational corporations from this country.

<u>RADIO scale (a newly developed scale developed based on the existing organization-public relationship assessment (OPRA) scale (Huang, 1997)</u>

VII. Interactional Bilateralism

33. My home country does not have much interactions with this country. (Reverse)
34. The interactions that my home country has with this country have been mutually beneficial.
35. This country has frequent political interactions with my home country.
36. This country maintains political interactions with my home country for mutually beneficial purposes.
37. This country has frequent economic interactions with my home country.
38. This country maintains economic interactions with my home country for mutually beneficial purposes.
39. My home country has frequent cultural interactions (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) with this country.
40. This country maintains frequent cultural interactions with my home country for mutually beneficial purposes.

VIII. Power Mutuality

41. This country and my home country are attentive to what each other says.
42. This country thinks that the opinions of my country and its citizens are legitimate.
43. This country does not listen to what my country and its citizens have to say. (Reverse)
44. This country tries to overpower my country when it makes decisions which affect my country. (Reverse)
45. When the government of this country makes decisions which may affect my country, they take into consideration the opinions of my country and its citizens.

IX. Empathy

46. When this country faces a problem, I have no feelings about it. (Reverse)
47. When this country is in trouble, I do not care much about it. (Reverse)
48. I generally support this country's stance on international issues.
49. When this country is condemned by another country, I tend to be on its side.
50. I do not feel sympathy for this country because it is only concerned about its own interests. (Reverse)

X. Trust

51. This country treats foreigners like me fairly and justly.
52. Whenever this country makes an important decision, I know it will be concerned about foreigners like me.
53. This country can be relied on to keep its promises.
54. I do not think that this country takes into consideration the opinions of foreigners like me when making decisions. (Reverse)
55. I trust this country.
56. This country has the competence to do what it says it will do.

XI. Relational Continuation (Experiential Relationship)

57. I feel that this country is trying to maintain long-term commitment to foreigners like me.
58. I can see that this country wants to maintain a relationship with foreigners like me.
59. Compared to other countries, I value my relationship with this country more.
60. Most people in my home country think that it is important to stay close to this country.
61. I would like to see my home country become a stronger ally of this country.
62. I would like to have more interactions with people from this country.
63. I would like to buy more products or services sold by companies from this country.
64. I would like to consume more cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) from this country.

XII. Satisfaction (Experiential Relationship)

65. I am happy with this country.
66. I feel dissatisfied about this country. (Reverse)
67. Foreigners like me benefit from our relationships with this country.
68. I am pleased with the relationship this country has established with foreigners like me.
69. Most foreigners like me do not enjoy dealing with this country. (Reverse)
70. I am happy with the relationship between this country and my home country.
71. Most citizens in my home country are happy with the relationship between this country and my home country.

XIII. Relational Curiosity (Reputational Relationship)

72. I would like to visit this country in the future.
73. I would prefer to buy products or services sold by companies from this country than other countries.
74. I would like to consume the different cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) from this country.
75. I would like to meet more people from this country.
76. I would like myself or my children to study in this country.
77. If possible, I would like to move to this country in the future.
78. I am not interested in anything from this country. (Reverse)

XIV. Attentiveness (Reputational Relationship)
79. When there is news about this country, it captures the attention of foreigners like me.
80. Foreigners like me do not pay attention to news about this country. (Reverse)
81. I am curious about what people say about this country.
82. I enjoy learning about other people's experiences in this country.
83. I am curious about this country.
84. I do not want to know anything about this country. (Reverse)

<u>Outcome of Relationships: Communicative Behaviors (Kim & Rhee, 2011)</u>
XV. Positive Megaphoning
Internet
85. I write positive things about this country on the Internet.
86. I write positive things about the government of this country on the Internet.
87. I write positive things about the cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) from this country on the Internet.
88. I write positive things about the goods and services sold by companies from this country on the Internet.
89. I write positive things about the people from this country on the Internet.
90. I write positive things about how this country has responded to international problems on the Internet.
Friends and Families
91. I say good things about this country to my family and friends.
92. I say good things about the government of this country to my family and friends.
93. I say good things about the cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) from this country to my family and friends.
94. I say good things about the products and services sold by companies from this country to my family and friends.
95. I say good things about the people from this country to my family and friends.
96. I say good things about how this country has responded to international problems to my family and friends.

Reverse
97. I express disagreement with people who have negative opinions about this country.
98. I attempt to correct people who have negative opinions about the government of this country.
99. I attempt to correct people who have negative opinions about the cultural products from this country.
100. I attempt to correct people who have negative opinions about the people in this country.
101. I attempt to correct people who have negative opinions about the goods and services sold by companies from this country.
102. I attempt to correct people who have negative opinions about the way this country

deals with international problems.
(matching items in negative megaphoning)
103. I express agreement with people who praise this country.
104. I express agreement with people who praise the products and / services sold by companies from this country.
105. I express agreement with people who praise the people from this country.
106. I express agreement with people who praise the cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) from this country.
107. I express agreement with people who praise the way this country deals with international problems.
108. I share positive information with others about this country what I learned from those who have more experience with this country.

XVI. Negative Megaphoning
Internet
109. I post negative comments about this country on the Internet.
110. I post negative comments about the cultural products from this country on the Internet.
111. I post negative comments about the goods and services sold by companies from this country on the Internet.
112. I post negative comments about the people from this country on the Internet.
113. I post negative comments about the way this country deals with international problems on the Internet.

Family and Friends
114. I talk about the international problems this country has caused with my family and friends.
115. I talk about the problems caused by the import of cultural products (e.g. movies, music, food, fashion, etc.) with my family and friends
116. I talk about the problems of the products and services sold by companies from this country with my family and friends.
117. I talk negatively about the people from this country with my family and friends.
118. I talk about the mistakes this country makes in dealing with international issues with my family and friends.
119. I say to my family and friends that this country is worse than other countries.

XVII. Demographic Questions
120. What is your gender?
(“male” or “female” or “prefer not to answer”)
121. What is your occupation?
122. What is your age?
(“18-19”, “20-29”, “30-39”, “40-49”, “50-59”, “60-69”, “70 or above”, “prefer not to answer”)
123. What is your highest educational qualification?

(“some high school”, “high school graduate”, “some college”, “bachelor’s degree”, “graduate diploma/certificate”, “master’s degree”, “Ph.D. degree”)

124. How often do you use the Internet?

(“not at all”, “less than 2 hours a day”, “more than 2 hours a day”, “ more than 4 hours a day”, “more than 6 hours a day”)

125. How often do you read the newspaper?

(“not at all”, “less than once a month”, “less than once a week”, “a few times a week”, “everyday”)

126. How often do you watch TV?

(“not at all”, “less than once a month”, “less than once a week”, “a few times a week”, “everyday”)

127. How often do you use social networking sites (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, etc.)?

(“not at all”, “less than once a month”, “less than once a week”, “a few times a week”, “everyday”)

128. What is your race/ethnicity?

(American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian, Black/African American, Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander, White/Caucasian, Hispanic, Multiracial, Other)

VITA

VITA

1. Education

Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), August 2012 – May 2015.
Brian Lamb School of Communication, Purdue University, U.S.A.
Major: Public Relations
Minors: Organizational Communication, Consumer Behaviors, Research Methodology
Major Advisor: Dr. Jeong-Nam Kim
Committee Members: Dr. Patrice Buzzanell, Dr. Seungyoon Lee, Dr. Meghan Norris

Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) in Communication, Completed in July 2012.
School of Journalism and Communication, The Chinese University of Hong Kong
Major Advisor: Dr. Anthony Fung

Master of Strategic Public Relations (M.Strat.P.R.) with Merit, Completed in 2009.
The University of Sydney, Australia

Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) in Sociology and Social Policy, Completed in 2008.
The University of Sydney, Australia

2. Awards and Scholarships

Summer Research Grant, Purdue Graduate School, June-August 2014. (USD$2975.06).

Peter Debreceny Corporate Communication Award, International Public Relations Research Conference, Miami, FL, March 2014. (USD$500).

Outstanding Teaching Assistant (TA) Performance Award, School of Journalism and Communication, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Spring 2012.

Outstanding Teaching Assistant (TA) Performance Award, School of Journalism and Communication, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Fall 2011.

Top Student Paper, Communication and Social Cognition Division, National Communication Association, New Orleans, LA, November 2011. (USD$200).

Scholarship for Participating in the "Salzburg Global Seminar in Austria", School of Journalism and Communication, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, July 24th – Aug 13th, 2011. (HKD$25,000).

Outstanding Teaching Assistant (TA) Performance Award, School of Journalism and Communication, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Fall 2010.

Women's Committee Bursary, International House, The University of Sydney, 2009. (AUD$600 per semester).

Women's Committee Bursary, International House, The University of Sydney, 2008. (AUD$500 per semester).

3. Research Publications

Kim, S., Kim, J.-N., & **Tam, L**. (accepted with minor revisions). Think Socially but Act Publicly: Refocusing CSR as Corporate Public Responsibility. *Journal of Public Affairs*.

Kim, S., Kim, J.-N., **Tam, L.**, & Kim, G. T. (in press). Probing into Chronic Activist Publics in Environmental Issue: Mutual Gains Approach as Organization-Public Conflict Resolution Strategy. *Journal of Public Affairs*.

Kim, S., **Tam, L.**, & Kim. J.-N. (in press). Reconceptualizing Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) as Corporate Public Responsibility (CPR). In A. Stachowicz-Stanusch (Ed.),*Corporate Social Performance: Paradoxes, Pitfalls and Pathways to the Better World*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Kim, J.-N., **Tam, L.**, & Kim, S. (2014). Segmentation: Health Campaigns. In T. L. Thompson (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Health Communication* (pp. 1223-1226). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.

So, C. Y. K., Wang, H., Sung, N.-S., Lyu, J., Mao, Z., Au, A., Cheng, X., Huang, P., Cheng, K. K., Dong, Z., Zhao, M., Zheng, P., Tang, A., & **Tam, L.** (2013). Current Status of Chinese Communication Research: Who Do What and Cite Whom. [In Chinese]. *Communication & Society, 23,* 31-80. (**Note:** except the first author, the order of authorship is determined based on the number of strokes of the Chinese last name).

Tam, L. (2012). Content Analysis: A Method to Study Texts. In So, C. Y. K. (Ed.) *Chief Executive Elections, Media, Public Opinion* [In Chinese] (pp.85-91). Hong Kong: Hong Kong Journalism Education Foundation.

So, C. Y. K., **Tam, L.**, & Tang, H. M. (2012). Newspaper Coverage of the Chief Executive Election: Summary & Review. In So, C. Y. K. (Ed.) *Chief Executive*

Elections, Media, Public Opinion [In Chinese] (pp. 64-76). Hong Kong: Hong Kong Journalism Education Foundation.

4. Manuscripts for Further Consideration

Tam, L. (major revisions requested). Defining Newsworthiness in Corporate Social Responsibility: Intermedia Agenda Setting Effects between News Releases and Press Coverage. Submitted to *Asian Journal of Business Ethics*.

Tam, L. (under review). Global public relations & the fall of *the News of the World.* Submitted to *China Media Research*.

Tam, L., & Kim, J.-N. (proposal accepted). Mitigating Collateral Damage from Consumer Nationalism: Crisis Communication with Nationalistic Publics on Social Media. In L. Austin & Y. Jin (Eds.) *Social Media and Crisis Communication*.

Kim, S., Kim, J.-N., Rhee, Y., & **Tam, L**. (under review). Determinants of Employee Turnover Intention: The Dynamics of Organization-Employee Relationship, Organizational Justice, Supervisory Justice, Organizational Culture and Turnover Intention. Submitted to *PRISM*.

Huang, P, & **Tam, L.** (under review). Amid Media Accusations of Interfering with Press Freedom: Corporate Crisis Communication through the Lens of the Press. Submitted to *China Media Research*.

5. Manuscripts in Preparation

Tam, L. & Kim, J.-N. Defining Relational Public Diplomacy: A Classification of Relationships for Strategic Public Diplomacy.

Kim, S., Kim, J.-N., Bach, S., & **Tam, L.** Mapping anti-organization sentiments amongst six Asian countries.

Tam, L. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Communication: What are Public Relations Agencies Selling?

Kim, J.-N., Park, S., **Tam, L.,** & Greenwood, C. Government Employee Leaks as "Negative Megaphoning" of Employee Communicative Actions.

Tam, L., & Kim, S. Relationship Building with Foreign Publics: Defining Corporate Diplomacy as a Form of Public Diplomacy.

Tam, L. & Kim, J.-N. Does Media Coverage Trigger the Rise of Hot-Issue Publics? An Examination on Communicative Behaviors on Online Discussion Forum.

Tam, L., & Kim, S. Integrating Public Relations into Corporate Diplomacy and Public Diplomacy: the Identification of Strategic Constituencies and the Application of Relationship Principles.

Tam, L., Kim, J.-N., & Kim, S. Mitigating Collateral Corporate Damage from Consumer Nationalism: the Implications to Global Public Relations and Crisis Management with Nationalistic Publics.

Yakova, L., **Tam, L.**, Mouton, A., & Carlo, S. Building the Enterprise Self with Technical and Soft Skills: Measuring Engineering Education Program Effectiveness.

DiTirro, L., Eden, C., Kristensen, T., & **Tam, L.** Rumor Structures on Twitter During Times of Crises: Campus Shooting & Information Sharing on Twitter.

6. Other Publications

So, C. Y. K., **Tam, L.**, & Tang, H. M. (April, 2012). Newspaper Coverage of the Chief Executive Election: Summary & Review [In Chinese]. *Media Digest*. Retrieved from http://rthk.hk/mediadigest/20120413_76_122855.html

So, C. Y. K., **Tam, L.**, & Tang, H. M. (March 21, 2012). Newspaper Coverage of the Chief Executive Election: Trends & Development [In Chinese]. *Ming Pao*. Retrieved from http://news.sina.com.hk/news/1587/3/1/2612954/1.html

7. Conference Presentations

Tam, L., & Kim, S. (2014). *Integrating Public Relations into Corporate Diplomacy and Public Diplomacy: the Identification of Strategic Constituencies and the Application of Relationship Principles*. Paper presented at International Public Relations Research Conference, Coral Gables, Florida, March 5-9, 2014

Tam, L. (2014). *Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Communication: Intermedia Agenda Setting Effects between News Releases and Press Coverage*. Paper presented at International Public Relations Research Conference, Coral Gables, Florida, March 5-9, 2014. (Awarded the "**Peter Debreceny Corporate Communication Award**").

Tam, L. (2014). *Does Media Coverage Trigger the Rise of Hot-Issue Publics? An Examination on Communicative Behaviors on Online Discussion Forum*. Paper presented at Engaging Communities: Communicative Approaches and Applications Conference, Communication Graduate Students Association (CGSA), Purdue University, Feb 28, 2014.

Hsiang, C.-Y., **Tam, L.**, & Kim, D. (2014). *Credit Card Debt for College Students: Identifying Factors Contributing to Information Insufficiency, Information Processing and Information Seeking*. Paper presented at Engaging Communities: Communicative Approaches and Applications Conference, Communication Graduate Students Association (CGSA), Purdue University, Feb 28, 2014.

Kim, J.-N., Kim, S., & **Tam, L.** (2013). *Historical and theoretical approach to anti-corporate sentiment.* Paper presented at the Korean Academic Society for Public Relations, Seoul, Korea in November, 2013.

Tam, L. (2013). *Cyberactivism and Nationalistic Communicative Actions of Publics: Framing and Agenda-Building over Wikipedia in International Disputes*. Paper presented at OpenSym & WikiSym 2013 Conference, Hong Kong, Aug 5-7, 2013.

Tam, L. (2013). *Intermedia Agenda Setting in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Communication: Investigating the Influence of News Releases on Press Coverage*. Paper presented at Unifying through Change: Connecting Diverse Approaches to Communication Research Conference, Communication Graduate Students Association (CGSA), Purdue University, Feb 22, 2013.

Tam, L. (2013). *Nationalism and Consumer Nationalism: Implications for Global Public Relations Research.* Paper presented at Unifying through Change: Connecting Diverse Approaches to Communication Research Conference, Communication Graduate Students Association (CGSA), Purdue University, Feb 22, 2013.

Tam, L. (2012). *Mapping a Chinese Approach to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): the Construction of a Corporate Discourse in Hong Kong.* Paper presented at Culture and Identity in Times of Change Conference, the University of Macau, February 23-25, 2012.

So, C. Y. K., Wang, H., Sung, N.-S., Lyu, J., Mao, Z., Au, A., Cheng, X., Huang, P., Cheng, K. K., Dong, Z., Zhao, M., Zheng, P., Tang, A., & **Tam, L.** (2012). *The Present Situations of Chinese Communication Academic Journals: Who is Doing What and Citing Whom?* [In Chinese]. Paper presented at "Redefining News and Readers" Conference in Celebration of the 5th Anniversary of Communication & Society, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, January 6-7, 2012. (**Note:** except the first author, the order of authorship is determined based on the number of strokes of the Chinese last name).

Dong, Z., & **Tam, L.** (2011). *Financial Risk Information Processing in Hong Kong: An Application of the Risk Information Seeking and Processing (RISP) Model.* Paper presented at National Communication Association (NCA) Conference, New Orleans, Louisiana, U.S.A., November 17-20, 2011. (Awarded "**Top Student**

Paper", Communication and Social Cognition Division). Retrieved from http://www.com.cuhk.edu.hk/c-centre/pdf/Risp_Dong_Tam.pdf

Tam, L. (2011). *Discourse of Corporate Social Responsibility: What Are Public Relations Agencies Selling?* Paper presented at CSR Communication Conference, Amsterdam, the Netherlands, October 25-26, 2011 (PhD Workshop) & October 26-28, 2011 (Conference).

Huang, P., & **Tam L.** (2011). *Amid Media Accusations of Interfering with Press Freedom: Corporate Crisis Communication through the Lens of the Press*. Paper presented at Media, Politics, Society, Culture, Business: Hong Kong Postgraduate Students' Conference on Media, Lingnan University, Hong Kong, September 17, 2011.

Tam, L., & Dong, Z. (2011). *Consumption of Financial News: Individuals' Processing of Risk Information in Hong Kong*. Paper presented at International Association of Media and Communication Research (IAMCR) Conference, Crisis Communication Division, Istanbul, Turkey, July 13-17, 2011.

8. Employment History

Graduate Lecturer, June 2014 – May 2015.
Brian Lamb School of Communication, Purdue University
COM325 Interviewing Principles and Practices (Redesign Model)
COM325 Interviewing Principles and Practices (Traditional Model)
COM314 Advanced Presentational Speaking
COM114E Fundamentals of Speech Communication for Engineers

Course Instructor, August 2012 – May 2014.
Brian Lamb School of Communication, Purdue University
COM325 Interviewing Principles and Practices (Traditional Model)
COM114 Fundamentals of Speech Communication

Graduate Teaching Assistant, August 2010 – July 2012.
School of Journalism and Communication, The Chinese University of Hong Kong
With recitations:
COMM 4140 International Communication
COMM 2910 News Analysis
Without recitations:
COMM 4191 Popular Culture and Cultural Studies
COMM 3681B Special Topic in Journalism
COMM Summer Program: UT-Austin Maymester Program in Hong Kong

Graduate Research Assistant, August 2010 – July 2012.
School of Journalism and Communication, The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Graduate Intern (Corporate Relations), September 2009 – July 2010.
The MTR Corporation, Hong Kong