

**The Use of Social Media in Public Diplomacy:
A Case Study of the (FDRE) Ethiopia Diplomatic Missions’
Facebook Use**

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Abrehet Mehari, entitled a study on the use of social media in public diplomacy: a case study of the (FDRE) Ethiopia diplomatic missions' facebook use and submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for Degree of Masters of Arts in Journalism and Communication complies with the regulation of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Abstract

A study on the use of social media in public diplomacy: a case study of the (FDRE) Ethiopia diplomatic missions' facebook use. The general objective of this study is to investigate the use of social media tools in Ethiopia's public diplomacy. The study investigated what communication strategy is primarily used by Ethiopian missions, the roles of social media presence of the missions play in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and what opportunities and challenges the missions face by using social media in public diplomacy. Public diplomacy, social media and dialogue theory have been used to comprehend and analysed this study. The study has employed qualitative methods at data gathering and analysis levels. The results of this study suggest that there is a need for improvement in the dialogic communication strategy on the missions' social media. At the moment, it seems that the Ethiopian missions use social media rather as traditional media, than utilizing the potential for creating dialogue. Thus, the strategies of the Communication Grid were applicable in the social media communication of the missions but not fully taken advantage of. Social media is used by the missions mainly for information and persuasion strategies. The opportunities the missions get are to disseminate and gather information, the reachability of various target audiences, the effectiveness of the social media in terms of cost and time, there is a room to start two way communications with followers, to promote their country and to attract youth who are active users of social media. In addition to that the study identifies the challenges the missions are facing, abusive comments and messages from some unethical audiences, the lack of sufficient time and resources, lack of legal environment and lack of social media strategy.

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Chapter one: Introduction

Since the introduction of social media sites years ago communicating with friends and family has been easy once you have access to internet. The internet has given us the ability to connect with people from around the globe with a few clicks of a button. And you can easily send information to friends/followers or get information. Social media such as Facebook, YouTube, Skype, MySpace, etc, have attracted millions of users, many of whom have integrated these Media into their daily practices.

These websites are becoming popular among students and professionals and help them in connecting local and global community at large.

People consume a lot of time on these Media uploading or downloading, getting information concerning their career or academic work. People are always online every second, chatting with friends, watching online movies, doing research, creating business and political connection, image building etc. Social media have become a habit for some people. It presents a real-time stream of information in which one source can instantaneously broadcast to many sources and stimulate debate on a personal level.

These developing communication methods have dramatically changed politics: democratizing the flow of information, exponentially increasing awareness and quickly globalizing ideas and concepts.

Social media are one such advancement that has played an important role as an informative organizational tool and also externally, as an unedited information resource circumventing government censors and directly informing foreign actors. Social media technologies represent a significant development for countries public diplomacy: both in practice and in conceptualization.

A tremendous increase in the use of these websites in Ethiopia and other developing countries have also been observed but yet no many studies have been conducted for assessing the use of these social media in public diplomacy and in diplomatic missions abroad. Keeping the assumption of increasing use of social media in public diplomacy, in view this study aims at finding out the use of social media in public diplomacy in a case study of the (FDRE) diplomatic missions' Facebook use.

1.1. Background of the study

During the researcher's MA first year courses, she had learned about public diplomacy which gave her an interest to have a look more in detail on it. The other thing which motivated her to study this research is joining the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as a trainee diplomat which exposed her to follow up all the social media accounts of the Ethiopian missions abroad.

The social media, popularly known as web 2.0 is becoming a central topic in our information world. The concept was first coined in past seven years there has been an increasing interest in the new generation of web-based technologies officially by (Tim O'Reilly, 2005). Social media are a place where everyone can add or edit information.

It is a web where digital tools allow users to create, change and publish dynamic content (Aharony, 2008). According (O'Reilly, 2005), it can be defined as “the network as platform, spanning all connected devices; social media applications are those that make the most of the built-in advantages of that platform: delivering software as a continually-updated service that get better the more people use it, consuming and remixing data from multiple sources, including individual users, while providing their own data and services in a form that allows remixing by others, creating network effects through an ‘architecture of participation,’ and going beyond the page metaphor of web 1.0 to deliver rich user experiences”.

(Ellison D. M., 2007) has used the term social network sites and defined it as web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi public profile within a bounded system (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system.

The nature and nomenclature of these connections may vary from site to site. There are many social media applications available for use, such as blogs, list serves, multimedia files sharing networks etc. The blogs are new and easy process of publishing the ideas on the web and to get the comments from other web surfers. YouTube, which offers a platform for sharing video clips made by users, provides an Application Programming Interface (API) so that users can access video clips from other websites. In general these APIS allow users to mash up one or more web 2.0 services in order to create their own composite value-added services (Emma Angus, 2008).

In recent years, social media such as Face book, MySpace, Flicker and YouTube have become popular particularly with young generation. These tools have become part of the youth's lives and help to build their connections with others. These connections are based on related interests, work, interactions and personal relationships. Consequently, academic institutions have realized the importance of social media and a growing number of academic communities and different professionals are creating accounts and joining groups through these sites (Nicole B.Ellision, 2007).

This has created avenues to look for information as well as socialize, for instance, through the use of chat platforms on both Facebook and Twitter popularly known as being online. The upsurge of social media networks as Facebook has grown significantly in the recent years. This growth has brought about some significant impact in diplomatic practice because social media is now commonly used as a Public Diplomacy tool. Media professionals perceive social media positively with respect to strategic communication. This possibly explains the reason why most embassies and consulates use social media as a public diplomacy tool to make their national interests and foreign policy visible by the outside world (Wanjiru, 2012, p. 3).

Public diplomacy is a “term to describe the efforts by nations to win support and a favourable image among the general public of other countries, usually by way of news management and carefully planned initiatives designed to foster positive impressions (Ronit Kampf, 2015).

Using social media has enabled political entities to engage in branding and promoting a specific persona to their audiences. As a result, social media are effective for conveying any message to a given public, whether it is from a corporation, a public figure, or a government. The use of social media in politics has been an effective tool in garnering public support and thus provides strategic utility in the practice of public diplomacy. While social media can be used to clarify misconceptions, it is merely a medium to supply the message and cannot avert any negative backlash due to poor foreign policy decisions (Ronit Kampf, 2015).

The most recent approach uses private-public partnerships, puts an emphasis on dialogue-based communication, and focuses on the use of social media tools (Auswärtiges Amt, 2011, p. 5; p. 18 as cited in Renken, 2014). The stated aim of the Foreign Service Institutions in terms of public diplomacy today is to “increase the attraction of a country by

using attractive cultural and educational programs as well as credible dialogue and information offers.”

A tremendous increase in the use of these websites in Ethiopia and other developing countries have also been observed but yet no many studies have been conducted for assessing the use of these social media in public diplomacy and in diplomatic missions abroad. Keeping the assumption of increasing use of social media in public diplomacy, in view this study aims at finding out the use of social media in public diplomacy in a case study of the Ethiopia (FDRE) diplomatic missions’ Facebook use.

1.2. Statement of the problem

There are a lot of social media websites, with various technological tools, supporting a wide range of interests and practices. These websites are becoming popular among young generation and professionals and help them in connecting with each other their local and the global community at large. Numerous efforts have been made particularly to understand the use of social media in public diplomacy, how it can play a big role in public diplomacy for diplomatic missions.

So far focus has been placed in developed countries such as the USA, UK and other European countries. However, little has been done in developing countries like Ethiopia. On the other hand a tremendous increase in the use of these websites in Ethiopia has also been observed but not that many studies have been conducted so far for assessing the use of social media in public diplomacy. In the wake of emerging new and sophisticated technology in the world, embassies and consulates have increasingly adopted the use of social media as a diplomacy tool. The audience all over the world change quickly forcing embassies and consulates to adapt to their needs and interests promptly.

Engagement is an important part of diplomacy and using social media is one way to promote a positive image of a country. Enhancing public diplomacy initiatives abroad requires a deeper look at the international arena and the current discourse around international communications. With the addition of new media, such as social media, public diplomacy strategies must evolve to the new tools dominating communication worldwide. Therefore, there is a need for a more two way approach to global communications by public diplomacy practitioners.

This research study examined the use of social media in public diplomacy which didn't give much attention on conducting research on use of social media in public diplomacy in the case of Ethiopian (FDRE) diplomatic mission's Facebook use in order to discover what kind of communication strategies, the opportunities they get and what challenges they are facing while trying to use social media in public diplomacy.

1. 3. Objective of the study

1.3.1. General Objective of the study

The general objective of this study is to investigate the use of social media in Ethiopia's public diplomacy.

1.3.2. Specific objectives of the study

1. To find out what communication strategy is primarily used by Ethiopia diplomatic missions.
2. To identify the role the social media presence of the missions play in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA).
3. Trace the opportunities and challenges of the use of social media (facebook in particular) in public diplomacy in the Ethiopian context.

1.4. Research Questions

Based on the above objectives, the following research questions are formulated.

1. What communication strategy is primarily used by the Ethiopia's diplomatic missions?
2. What roles do the social media presence of the missions play in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA)?
3. What are the opportunities and challenges of the use of social media (facebook) in public diplomacy?

1.5. Significant of the study

This paper, may contribute to enriching and expanding the diplomats' awareness of social media use in public diplomacy. It may also help public diplomacy practitioners to make use of suggestions from the result of findings in the use of social media in public diplomacy. The study is very important since it focused on the use of social media as a public diplomacy tool by the Ethiopian diplomatic missions. The study upon its recommendations will provide a better understanding of the use of social media in public diplomacy as a tool. It's hoped that the finding will help build the foundation for future investigations in related to social media use in public diplomacy.

1.6. Scope of the study

This study focuses specifically on use of social media in public diplomacy a case study of the (FDRE) Ethiopia Diplomatic Missions' Facebook use. Hence it does not focus on other types of social media platforms. This study confines itself to Ethiopian diplomatic missions (only embassies) abroad which can make the researcher to give focus on this scope.

1.7. Limitations of the study

This research is not without any limitations. First, it was difficult to interview the Ethiopian missions' public diplomacy practitioners based on the researcher schedule and she had to wait near to two months to arrange time for interview which made the researcher to have less time to edit this paper in detail. Second, since this study pays particular attention to facebook, it does not allow examining other social media platforms like Twitter and others by Ethiopian missions abroad. It is more likely, studying a single state may not reflect clearly on the actual use of social media in public diplomacy in the entire states. These limitations will be perceived to be having some influence on the quality of information in this study.

Chapter Two: Review of related literature

2.1. Public diplomacy

Public diplomacy is an interdisciplinary field and closely related to public relations, international communication and international relations (Gregory, 2008, p. 286). Copeland (2009) defines public diplomacy to consist of “outwardly directed activities by national representatives aimed at identifying shared objectives and potential areas of collaboration with publics abroad”. As publics he distinguishes, for example, the general population, special interest groups, the media, and the civil society, and business and opinion leaders. Branding, advocacy, lobbying, and partnership building are related concepts that fall under the umbrella of public diplomacy (Copeland, 2009, p. 163).

2.1.1. Traditional Diplomacy and Public Diplomacy

Traditional diplomacy foreign affairs minister in others government to government relations (G2G) and if one were to picture it, it would be a photo of Secretary of state sitting across the table from the foreign affairs ministries in another nation state. Traditional public diplomacy has been about governments talking to global publics (G2P), and includes those efforts to inform, influence, and engage those publics in support of national objectives and foreign policies (Nancy Snow and Philip M. Taylor, 2009, p. 6).

More recently, public diplomacy involves the way in which both government and individuals and groups influence directly and indirectly those public attitudes and opinions that bear directly on another government’s foreign policy decisions (P2P). Why the shift from G2P to P2P? One development is the rise in user-friendly communications technologies that have increased public participation in talking about foreign affairs and the subsequent involvement of public opinion in foreign policy making. Another development is the increase in people to people exchanges, both virtual and personal, across national borders. (Nancy Snow and Philip M. Taylor, 2009, p. 6).

The emergency of new technology like social media has changed the way public diplomacy could be contacted and the role of participants and organization.

This shift from the diplomatic emphasis to the public emphasis has resulted in the rise of two different philosophies about public diplomacy’s utility: 1. Those who view public diplomacy as a necessary evil, a mere ancillary tactic that supports conventional public

diplomacy and traditional diplomacy efforts; and 2. Those who view public diplomacy as a context or milieu for how nations interact with each other, from public affairs officers in the field to the citizen, diplomat and student exchange at the grassroots (Nancy Snow and Philip M. Taylor, 2009, p. 6).

The emergency of new technology like social media has changed the way public diplomacy could be contacted and the role of participants and organizations.

Traditionally, diplomacy could be defined as the discipline that studies the foreign relations between peoples and states from earliest times to the present day, taking into account for that substance the actions of diplomatic agents shielding the interests of their respective political organizations, whom they represent by virtue of the treaties signed to that end. However, if we are to understand diplomacy, we should describe it as the discipline that studies the foreign relations between states from the 15th century to the present day, taking into account for that matter the actions of diplomatic agents defending the interests of their own political organizations, whom they represent by asset of the treaties signed to that end (Permu, 2015).

Traditional diplomacy is the management of international relations by negotiation where as Public diplomacy comprises the efforts of the state to influence, inform and engage with foreign publics (Jagla, 2013, p. 8).

Based on Hocking, there are two ways of consideration of public diplomacy: as a Hierarchical model and a network one. The hierarchical model focuses on the relevance of relations at the intergovernmental level and, on the other hand, the network model highlights the significance of communicating with publics (Hocking, 2005). To implement public diplomacy in social media, the network model is important rather than the traditional model which is hierarchical because of the opportunity technology gave us.

Public diplomacy traditionally means government communication aimed at foreign audiences to achieve changes in the hearts or minds' of the people. Public diplomacy however can also refer to domestic publics in to two ways: either as the domestic input from citizens for foreign policy formulation (engaging approach), or explaining foreign policy goals and diplomacy to domestic public (explaining approach). (Melissen J. , 2005, p. 13) refers to the domestic socialization of diplomacy as public affairs, similarity to the US

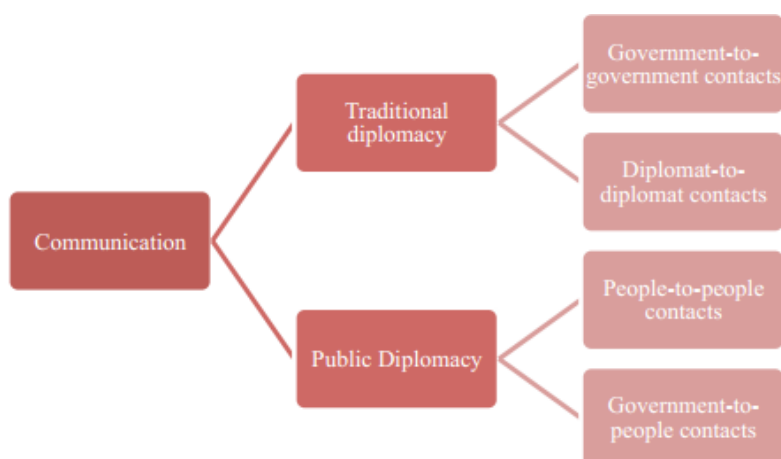
approach where public affairs involve the function of the American officials who explain and defend American foreign policy to the American public, via the American press.

Therefore, both engaging and explaining approaches could be used in implementing public diplomacy using social media which give us huge opportunity to do so.

Public affairs' function is therefore to justify or a 'sell' foreign policy decisions domestically, after policies have been formulated and accepted. Canada provides several examples of engaging citizens in foreign policy (e.g. Lortie and Bedard, 2002 as cited in Szondi, 2008), which can lead to greater transparency as well as accountability in foreign policy. The engaging and explaining approaches are also relevant to the 'foreign public diplomacy' context not only in the domestic one (Szondi, 2008, pp. 6-7).

Traditional diplomacy and public diplomacy regard communication as a central factor without communication we cannot talk about diplomacy, neither traditional diplomacy nor public diplomacy. However, the actors communicating in traditional diplomacy are completely different than those contacting by means of public diplomacy, as it is shown by the following figure.

Figure 1: Communication contacts in traditional diplomacy and public diplomacy



Source: (Permu, 2015, p. 15)

2.1.2. History of public diplomacy

Every academic discipline has its certainties, and in the small field of public diplomacy studies it is a truth universally acknowledged that the term “public diplomacy”

was coined in 1965 by Edmund Gullion, when he established an Edward R. Murrow Centre of Public Diplomacy (Nancy Snow and Philip M. Taylor, p. 6).

Public diplomacy is an opposite concept of secret diplomacy. It is a tool of promoting foreign policy objectives abroad and is performed with full awareness of the public. In the past, Public Diplomacy was often carried out as propaganda to gain ideological support from the public of other countries. However, the thriving of democracy, the creative use of modern information technology, and the implication of globalization all has changed Public Diplomacy (Heewon Cha, 2015, p. 298).

Public diplomacy should of course not be developed regardless of a country's foreign policy, and it should be in tune with medium-term objectives and long-term aims. Public diplomacy builds on trust and credibility, and it often works best with a long horizon. It is however, realistic to aspire to influencing the milieu factors that constitute the psychological and political environment in which attitudes and policies towards other countries are debated. The milieu aims of public diplomacy should not, however, be confused with those international lobbying. The latter aims at directly influencing specifying policies and the individual's targets and in lobbying are without exception those who are in the loop of the policy process (Melissen J. , 2005, p. 15).

In contrast, there is only so much that public diplomacy can achieve, and the case for modest objectives is even stronger where public diplomacy aims at spanning bridges between different cultures. When bilateral relationships are complicated by a cultural divide between the civil societies involved, it will be harder for diplomats to find the right interlocutors and to strike the right tone. It is, for instant, one thing to confuse the necessity of speaking with the dialogue with foreign ardencies as a condition of success in foreign policy. To be sure, public diplomacy is no altruistic affair and it is not 'soft' instrument. It can pursue a wide verity of objectives, such as in the field of political dialogue, trade and foreign investment, the establishment of links with civil society groups beyond the opinion gatekeepers that also has hard power goals such as alliance management, conflict prevention or military intervention (Melissen J. , 2005, pp. 15-16).

The new public diplomacy will be an increasingly standard of overall diplomatic practice and is more than a form of propaganda conducted by diplomats. True, many foreign ministries are still struggling to put the concept into practice in a multi-actor international environment, and some diplomatic services do in fact construct their public diplomacy on

formidable tradition of propaganda-making. But public diplomacy's in perfections should not obscure the fact that it gradually becomes woven into the fabric of mainstream diplomatic activity. In a range of bilateral relationships it has already become the bread and butter of many diplomat's work, as for instance in the US-Canadian relationship, in relations between West European countries, or between some South-East Asian neighbours. In Europe, public diplomacy is viewed as the number one priority over the whole spectrum of issues'. Perhaps the most succinct definition of public diplomacy is given by Paul Sharp in his chapter, where he describes it as 'the process by which direct relations with people in a country are pursued to advance the interests and extend the values of those being represented'. Writing 15 years earlier, Hans Tuch defined public diplomacy as 'a government's process of communicating with foreign publics in an attempt to bring all the expected benefits of social stability, security and economic prosperity (Melissen J. , 2005, pp. 11-12).

Public diplomacy is one of most silent political communication issues in the 21st century. Its revival arises within the context of the post-September 11, 2001 declaration of war on terrorism largely aimed at radical, anti-American/ West Islamic militants and manifested via militants and manifested via military interventions in the in the Muslim majority countries of Afghanistan and Iraq. The United States and the United Kingdom are the two leading nations in the global efforts to "win the hearts and minds" of indigenous citizen populations in the Greater Middle East. Whereas public diplomacy in the 20th century emerged from two world wars and a balance of power Cold War framework between the communist East and capitalist West, the 21st century trend is a post 9/11 environment dominated by fractal globalization, pre-emptive military invasion, and information and communication technologies that shrink time and distance, and the rise of global non-state actors (terror networks, bloggers) that challenge state-driven policy and discourse on the subject. (Nancy Snow and Philip M.Taylor, 2009, p. ix)

In January 1963, the Kennedy Administration issued a new presidential statement regarding United States Information Agency (USIA), changing its mission significantly: "to help achieve United States foreign policy objectives by influencing public attitudes in other nations" (Kennedy 1963 as cited in Delo, 2008). His memo articulated the recognition that information alone was not enough and that the United States Information Agency (USIA) must employ persuasion to affect foreign public attitudes. The President also saw that policymaking needed to consider foreign attitudes and understanding these became part of the USIA's public diplomacy function (Delo, 2008, p. 31) .

The establishment of the term dates back to the height of the Cold War, which significantly influenced and shaped public diplomacy's evolution and practice. Historically, America public diplomacy can be divided into three different stages, which are linked to the changes in the international political climate, marked by the collapses of symbolical constructions. The first period stretches over four decades when American and Western values and norms were intensively spread throughout Eastern Europe and a whole range of methods were used to persuade people living behind the Iron Curtain (Szondi, 2008, pp. 2-3).

The collapse of the Berlin Wall marks the start of the second phase of public diplomacy when significantly less effort and resources were devoted to public diplomacy resulting in the decline of US public diplomacy worldwide. The tragic destruction and collapse of the World Trade Centre on 11 September 2001 marks the beginning of the third phase. In each phase, public diplomacy acquired new meanings and interpretations, often resulting in the redefinition and reinvigoration of the concept. In 1990 Hans Tuch, who practiced as well as taught public diplomacy, lamented that public diplomacy could not be an effective tool unless there is a general agreement on its meaning. After almost two decades public diplomacy still lacks a universally accepted definition, and in spite of this fact, the concept has become ubiquitous (Szondi, 2008, pp. 2-3).

2.1.3. Definitions of public diplomacy

An early Murrow Centre brochure provided a convenient summary of Gullion's concept: Public diplomacy... deals with influence of public attitudes on the formation and execution of foreign policies. It encompasses dimensions of international relations beyond traditional diplomacy; the cultivation by the governments of public opinion in other countries; the interaction of private groups and interests in one country with another; the reporting of foreign affairs and its impact on police; communication between those whose job is communication, as diplomats and foreign correspondents; and the process of intercultural communication (Nancy Snow and Philip M.Taylor, 2009, p. 6).

According to Harris, Public diplomacy is a "term to describe the efforts by nations to win support and a favourable image among the general public of other countries, usually by way of news management and carefully planned initiatives designed to foster positive impressions."The Internet has created an international space where communities around the world are more connected than ever. With this new level of interconnectivity, it is imperative that the U.S. government utilize the tools provided by new media to communicate with

foreign publics. While the Internet has played a crucial part in the development of societies around the world, new media, most notably social media, has become a tool that PD practitioners can use to enhance U.S. foreign policy. In recent years, the number of people with access to the Internet has grown, subsequently spurring an increase in social media usage across the globe (Harris, 2013, p. 18)

There are three distinct phases that have framed the definitions and conceptualizations of public diplomacy. With only a few exceptions, the definitions follow the three historical breaks on an axis from persuasion to mutual understanding.

Figure 2: Definitions influenced by distinct global paradigms (Srugies, 2013, p. 9).



Copeland applauds public diplomacy as an advance on the diplomatic spectrum, especially when it is grounded in local cultures and demonstrates shared political values abroad. While public diplomacy is admired, however, he believes this practice can be taken one step further to create the diplomat of the future (Adams, 2010, p. 84).

Hocking (2005) states that there are two models of public diplomacy: the hierarchical and the network model. On the one hand, the traditional, hierarchical model emphasizes the importance of intergovernmental relations in which the Foreign Service is controlling domestic and international policy environments. On the other hand, the updated, network model, emphasizes the importance of communicating with the public. In reality, these views on public diplomacy are often linked with each other, yet sometimes they contravene. (Hocking, 2005).

2.1.4. Objectives of Public Diplomacy

While one of the aims of conventional diplomacy is to exert direct influence on foreign governments, the aim of propaganda, or public diplomacy, is usually to do this indirectly; that is, by appealing over the heads of those governments to the people with influence upon them. In a tightly controlled authoritarian regime, these might be just the influential few, to borrow a phrase favoured by the Dragheda committee; in a broadly based liberal democracy. It is likely to be the great mass of voters (G.R.Berridge, 2010, p. 182).

Sir Michael Butler, former British permanent representative to the European Union, notes that the “purpose of public diplomacy is to influence opinion in target countries to make it easier for government/s, companies or other organizations to achieve their aims” (Mark Leonard, Catherine Stead and Conrad Smewing, 2002, p. 1).

In order to do that, to effectively achieve that influence on opinions, it is crucial to pay close attention to the audience practitioners of public diplomacy seek to influence (Mark Leonard, Catherine Stead and Conrad Smewing, 2002, p. 46). As Rasmussen notices, it is easier to have an influence on a specific group of people if “the message transmitted is consistent with the basic beliefs and values” of them (Rasmussen, 2014, p. 35).

In the light of this, the dialogic nature of public diplomacy as a tool for communicating with target audiences becomes evident. Dialogue, true one that seeks both talking and listening, must be open to “foreign influence” and to continuous adjustment if public diplomacy is to work; in case it would fail to establish such bidirectional dialogue, it would be at risk to become propaganda. The conception of communication in public diplomacy will be further expanded in the subsection immediately below as well as contrasted with that of traditional diplomacy.

The goals and objectives of public diplomacy can be very diverse. Leonard et al. classify on a hierarchical way the “impacts that public diplomacy can achieve” (9-10)

1. Increasing people’s familiarity with one’s country [...]
2. Increasing people’s appreciation of one’s country [...]
3. Engaging people with one’s country [...]
4. Influencing people.

Source – (Mark Leonard, Catherine Stead and Conrad Smewing, 2002, pp. 9-10).

The common denominator of these levels of impact is once again “people”, the audience that public diplomacy is seeking to reach, that is why practitioners should first, as noted above and rightly emphasized by Rasmussen, analyze the target group and then adjust the level of ambition of public diplomacy accordingly (Rasmussen, 2014, p. 35).

Also the resources employed and the time-lapse initiatives last have an influence on the achievements that public diplomacy can reach. Thus it is possible to classify different public diplomatic practices “depending on how broad an influence is sought” (Rasmussen,

2014, p. 32). By dividing public diplomacy activities into three time spans that could be directed towards specific areas, as portrayed by Table 1. The focus on specific areas political/military, economic, and societal/cultural– would vary depending on a series of factors, momentum, strategy sought by governments or national interest.

Table 1: public diplomacy according to purpose and time span

Purpose	Reactive (hours and days)	Proactive (weeks and months)	Relationship building (years)
Political/ Military	News management	Strategic communications	Relationship building
Economic			
Societal/Cultural			

Source: (Permu, 2015, p. 14)

According to the above table, news management will seek to influence the way in which current events are regarded, strategic communications will be targeted at transmitting and selling certain messages through a series of planned events and, finally, relationship building is linked with the idea of creating long term bonds, which differs greatly from just strategic communications since “it involves a genuine exchange and means that people are given a ‘warts and all’ picture of the country” and requires a great inversion both time and monetary-wise (Mark Leonard, Catherine Stead and Conrad Smewing, 2002, p. 18).

Both news management and strategic communications have an effect in relationship building, which is ultimately aimed to create “a common analysis of issues and giving people a clearer idea of motivations and factors effecting their actions so that by the time they come to discussion individual issues a lot of the background work has already been done”– (Mark Leonard, Catherine Stead and Conrad Smewing, 2002, p. 18).

2.1.5. The elements and principles of public diplomacy

Though the term public diplomacy is somewhat new-dating only from 1965- the practice is ancient. The term draws together five venerable elements of statecraft. The foundational element is listening. The first duty of a public diplomat must be...

- To listen: this function is traditionally conducted via a combination of desk and leg work at diplomatic posts and ideally introduces an awareness of international opinion in to the making of foreign policy.

- Advocacy: the creation of a public voice for foreign policy by which decisions and events are explained to foreign publics to mobilize their consent or blunt their criticism.
- Cultural diplomacy: foreign policy through the export of culture
- Exchange diplomacy: foreign policy through the exchange of people and ideas.
- International broadcasting, this by its nature requires a distinct set of resources and skills. While it is possible to see broadcasting as an extension of both advocacy and cultural diplomacy, the special ethical considerations associated with journalism have often set international broadcasters on their own path, and in any case provide formidable centrifugal force toward some form of independency autonomy (Seib, 2009 , p. 24).

To summarize the elements (practices) of public diplomacy, I find the following table informative about the issue in short the time frame, flow of information and typical infrastructure.

Table 2: Elements of Public Diplomacy (Kersaint, 2014, p. 28).

Type of Public Diplomacy	Time Frame	Flow of Information	Typical Infrastructure
1. Listening	Short and long-term	Inward to analysts and policy process	Monitoring technology and language trained staff
2. Advocacy	Short term	Outward	Embassy press office, foreign ministry strategy office
3. Cultural diplomacy	Long-term	Outward	Cultural center and/or library
4. Exchange diplomacy	Very long-term	Inward and outward	Exchange administrator, educational office
5. International broadcasting	Medium term	Outward but from a news bureaucracy	News bureaus, production studios, editorial offices, and transmitter facilities

Lastly, it is good to take a look at what Permu calls as the defining “**principles**” that would enable to differentiate it “from other related topics” (Permu, 2015, p. 14) that would be examined in a following subsection. These principles are:

1. Dialogue, not monologue. To awaken understanding and wanting to understand,
2. Integration in the other diplomacy from the beginning,

3. Cooperation with non-state partners,
4. Work after the network method, not the hierarchical method,
5. Coherence between public diplomacy work at home and abroad,
6. Tailored solutions for assignments: “there is no common definition or common behaviour which fits everyone,”
7. Honest and reliable information, not propaganda,
8. Observer role, i.e. registration of other countries’ behaviour in the area with later reporting back to home country”

2.1.6. Public diplomacy and related concepts

Three concepts that deserve brief attention in a discussion on public diplomacy are propaganda, national branding and foreign cultural relations. Besides to them there are also soft power and international public relation which have connection with public diplomacy. Similar to public diplomacy, propaganda and national branding are about communication of information and ideas to foreign publics with a view to changing their attitudes towards the originating country or reinforcing existing beliefs. Propaganda and national branding, however, neither point to concept of diplomacy, nor do they generally view communication with foreign publics in the context of changes in contemporary diplomacy. The practice of cultural relations has traditionally been close to diplomacy, although it is clearly distinct from it, but recent developments in both fields now reveal considerable overlap between the two concepts (Melissen, 2005, p.16).

Currently, there has been much confusion about the concept of public diplomacy, which has been interchangeably used with “culture diplomacy”, “foreign propaganda”, “public relations” and “media diplomacy”, for example. Probably due to the revolution of communications technology and the role played by international media channels such as the CNN and BBC2, some commentators has tended to still understand public diplomacy as mere “propaganda” or “international marketing”. This notion is not per se incorrect, however it only accounts for a specific aspect of what public diplomacy largely entails. Additionally, it tends to adopt a rather ethnocentric view in the sense that it considers foreign audience as passive, in a way that it would promptly buy in the information that is being conveyed (Jr., 2015).

2.1.6.1. Public diplomacy and propaganda

The first element that is not quite public diplomacy is propaganda. As some scholars point out, the early origins of public diplomacy can be traced back to what was known and studied in the twentieth century as “propaganda” (Manheim, 1994, p. 4). In Germany, Joseph Goebbels’ Reichministerium für Volksaufklärung und Propaganda or the Committee on Public Information under the George Creel at the United States perfectly exemplify how propaganda was used as tool and it was regarded as an “accepted instrument of government” (Manheim, 1994, p. 4).

However, apart from the negative connotations the term ‘propaganda’ has, there is a great difference between these two concepts. Both seek influence, but they do it on significantly different ways: while propaganda attempts to narrow down people minds to influence them in any way necessary, public diplomacy uses dialogue and engagement to open people’s perspectives and enlarge their horizons (Rasmussen, 2014, p. 32). In other words, propaganda works one-way and public diplomacy does it two-ways by using dialogue and engagement.

At the time when the concept ‘public diplomacy’ was first coined by Gullion, the term was used to refer to previous propaganda activities conducted by the United State government during the Cold War in order to influence public opinion abroad. Propaganda activities were fundamentally international broadcasting, such as Radio Free Europe and Radio Liberty, which intended to spread the capitalist ideology and ‘the American way of life’ throughout Communist-led Eastern Europe (STONE, 2003).

(Melissen, 2005, p.18) states that propaganda is in a way similar to and yet very different from public diplomacy: it attempts to persuade people’s thinking but also listens to what people respond. There are two schools in public diplomacy thinking: (a) the tough-minded and the tender-minded. According to the tough-minded school the purpose of public diplomacy is to try to influence the attitudes of foreign audiences by using persuasion and propaganda. In this fairly short-term approach hard political information is important, and objectivity and the truth are used as tools of persuasion. Fast media such as television and newspapers is preferred. (b) The tender-minded school finds information and cultural programs more important than foreign policy goals. The aim of public diplomacy as a cultural function is to create mutual understanding, therefore the truth is considered essential.

In this long-term approach slow media such as exhibitions and academic exchanges is preferred. Further emphasis is these schools function best when they are combined.

‘Public diplomacy’ is what we call our propaganda; propaganda is what the other side does. It remains true that this activity, the aim of which is to influence foreign governments by trying to win over their own people, varies enormously in both its character and its targets. Renewed emphasis has been given to it in the west in recent years, chiefly because of fear of the consequences of mounting popular hostility in the Muslim world. The lead role in public diplomacy is frequently given to foreign ministries. For ambassadors, it is probably now their most important duty- although, for the rest of the embassy staff, only one among many (G.R.Berridge, 2010, p. 190).

2.1.6.2. Public diplomacy and Nation branding

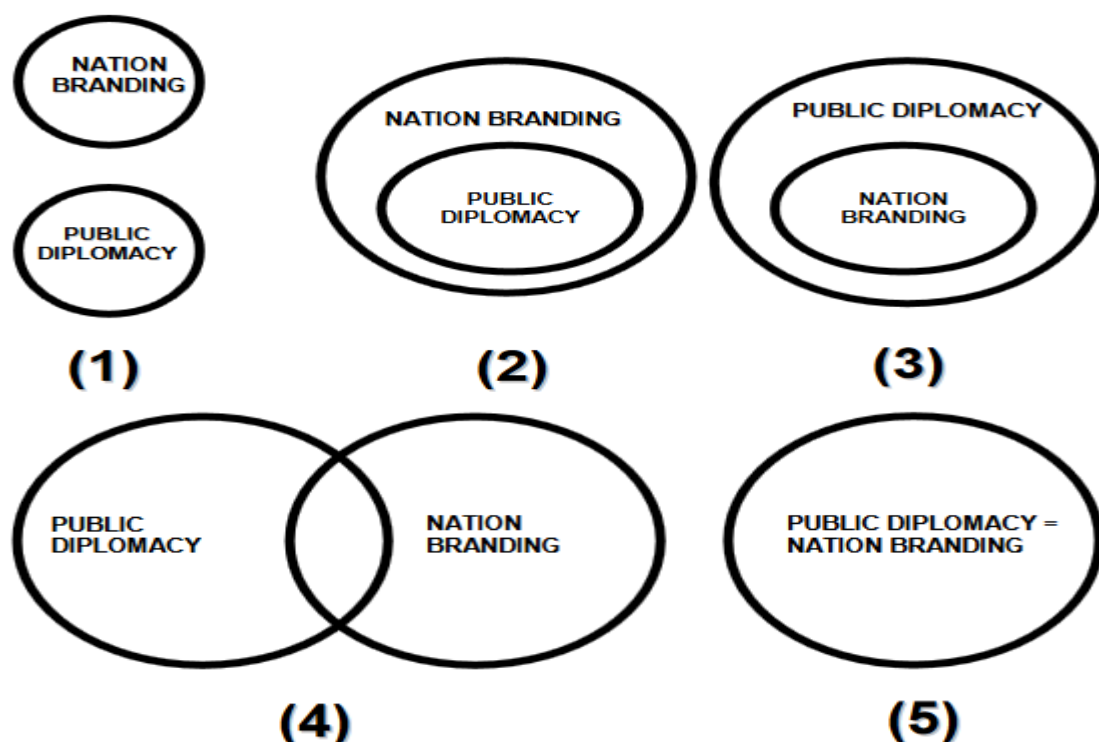
Two conceptual differences between national-branding and public diplomacy immediately meet the eye. First, branding’s level of ambition easily outflanks that of the limited aims and modesty of most public diplomacy campaigns. Put simply, for public diplomats the world is no market and practitioners are constantly reminded of the fact that diplomatic communication is only a flimsy part of the dense and multilayered transnational communication processes. In other words, the strength of public diplomacy lays on the recognition and acceptance of its limitations. Many public diplomacy campaigns are based on the common-sense assumption that they are by no means the decisive factor in determining foreign perceptions. In contrast, the main feature of branding project is their holistic approach. The language of national branders resembles the ‘can-do’ approach from the practice of marketing and the clarity of strategic vision from the corporate world (Melissen J. , 2005, p. 20).

Nation branding is most prominently connected with the work of Simon Anholt who indexes the world’s nations’ reputations and perception. He defines a brand as “a product or service or organization, considered in combination with its name, its identity and its reputation". This concept is transferred onto nation states in the process of nation branding. Anholt maintains, however, that nations cannot be branded in the same way as products, but instead must build upon and develop further what their country is already perceived to be. Crucial to creating a strong nation brand is to convince the people of the branded nation of

the brand. The nation brand, just like any other commercial brand, has to be able to provide what it represents (Hoffmann, 2013, p. 10).

There are five different views as far as the relationship between nation branding and public diplomacy is concerned (Szondi, 2007b as cited in Szondi, 2008, p. 14-15). According to the first one, these concepts are unrelated and do not share any common grounds. In other views, however, these concepts are related and it is possible to identify different degrees of integration between public diplomacy and nation branding. In the final version, the concepts are exactly the same, public diplomacy and nation branding are synonyms for the same concept. The possible relationships are visualised in Figure 3.

Figure 3: The possible relationships between nation branding and public diplomacy



This view advocates that nation branding and public diplomacy has different goals, strategies tools and actors. Branding is very much image-driven, with the aim of creating positive country images. It is largely one-way communication where the communicator has control over the message, which tends to be simple and concise and leaves little space for dialogue and interactions. Image production is the ultimate goal of branding, which presumes rather homogenous foreign publics who should perceive the image as it was intended by the senders. Many countries' public diplomacy, however, relies on two-way communication, where country A's public diplomacy efforts in country B are as important as country B's

public diplomacy in country A. This symmetrical approach enables dialogue to take place and can result in co-operation and mutual understanding rather than competition. Mutual understanding is not the ultimate goal of nation branding but raising awareness of a country (Szondi, 2008, p. 15-16).

2.1.6.3. Public diplomacy and cultural diplomacy

Neither can cultural diplomacy be regarded as the same as public diplomacy. The objective of cultural diplomacy is centred precisely on culture, on “increasing the knowledge of foreign audiences about the specific culture of a given society”

(Rasmussen, 2014, p. 34) But it is limited to that. It sure can play a role in building relations, as increased intercultural understanding will foster relations and cooperation and reduce risk of conflict, but it does not seek to target other foreign policy goals, as public diplomacy does.

Finally, while a critical factor and tool of public diplomacy, communication is different from it. As explained above, public diplomacy is highly based on communications and it often relies on communication campaigns to affect to achieve a specific objective but the nature of communications with regard to public diplomacy is merely instrumental (Rasmussen, 2014, p. 34).

2.1.6.4. Public diplomacy and soft power

Public diplomacy can be considered a part of what Joseph Nye called “soft power”. Soft power, as opposed to hard, military power, relies on images, symbols, simulations and consciously managed information to persuade others to act in the desired way. Public diplomacy is one element of this soft-power strategy and a special part of foreign policy because of its claim to non-political areas of state representation such as culture, trade and society (Hoffmann, 2013, p. 8).

The importance of public diplomacy has emerged since soft power had grown out of foreign policy. In the 21st century, the ability to affect others to obtain the outcomes through attractiveness (Soft Power) became more important than the ability to obtain the outcomes through coercion and payment (Hard Power). And, to promote the soft power of a country, it is unavoidable to discuss public relations strategy. As such, it is hard to regard Public Relations and Public Diplomacy as separate concepts (Heewon Cha, 2015, p. 298).

According to Heewon Cha, the reason why it is hard to regard public relations and public diplomacy is as follow. Specialized literature often uses the definition of Public Relations provided by James E. Grunig and T. Hunt: “the management of communication between the organization and its publics”. Due to the main effects of this science, i.e., establishing mutual understanding and communication in relations between the organization and various public segments, proceeding research and employing strategic communication processes, and using consultation to decide whether to adopt a protection strategy or not. – this definition shows many similarities with Public Diplomacy. Even though there is an undeniable intersection between the two concepts, Public Diplomacy has been rarely compared with Public Relations. And, if they were compared, both were lumped together either as crude propaganda or sophisticated persuasion (Heewon Cha, 2015, p. 298).

Even if public diplomacy is not exactly any of these, it is draws some elements from them and the interaction of all those factors poses a coherence and coordination challenge before the practitioners of public diplomacy so that they can better work to achieve their objectives and optimize the use of available resources.

2.1.6.5. Public diplomacy and international public relations

In recent years, the relationship between public diplomacy and public relations has increasingly been studied (Gilboa, 2008, p. 65). The technological advances have resulted in organizations including foreign publics as part of their public relations targets (Coombs, 1992, p. 137).

In fact, the Internet has speeded up the expansion of global public relations as a form of public diplomacy (Holladay, 2007, p. 3).

(Holladay, 2007, p. 104) have expressed that instead of the assumption that public relations became global due to growth of international business, actually global public relations is rooted in diplomacy and its ascent is related to transnational activism as well as to business world. Thus, it can be said that “Public diplomacy is the sub-field of diplomacy with the strongest linkage to public relations” (Coombs, 1992)

Furthermore, Melissen (Melissen J. , 2005, p. 21) encourages the field of public diplomacy to learn from relationship-management in public relations. (Gilboa, 2008) draws

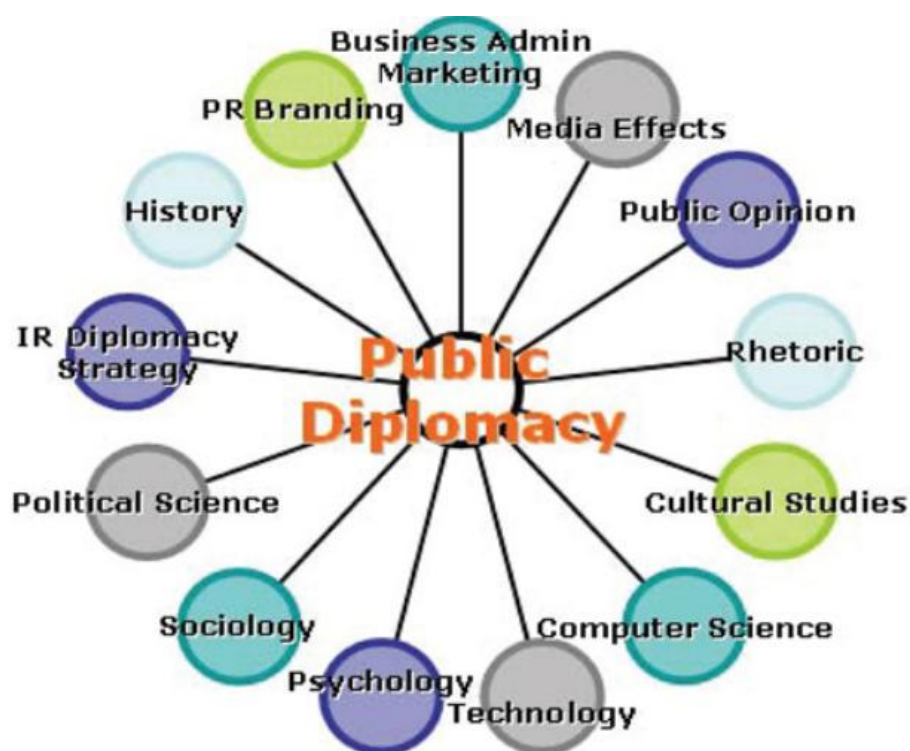
attention to the integration of force, diplomacy and communication in order to have a successful strategy in foreign relations.

(Coombs, 1992, p. 137) Public relations and public diplomacy see similar objectives and use similar tools. However, the authors suggest, the exact ideas and concepts which can be transferred from one area to the other have yet to be fully delineated and tested.

Further, Gilboa encourages understanding the richness of multidisciplinary contributions to public diplomacy (see figure 4). The challenge remains in developing a unified line. (Gilboa, 2008, pp. 56,60,75).

Figure 4: Multidisciplinary approaches to public diplomacy (Gilboa 2008 as cited in Nurmi, 2012, p.13).

NB: PR = public relations, IR = international relations



2.2. Public Diplomacy 2.0 – Digital Diplomacy

The modern “new” public diplomacy, or public diplomacy 2.0, is moving away from the old hierarchical structures towards practices that engage with foreign audiences and

focus directly on the audiences instead of being centred on the state and the foreign media (Melissen J. , 2005, p. 13).

According to Kent and Taylor “technology itself can neither create nor destroy relationships; rather, it is how the technology is used that influences organization-public relationships” (Taylor, 1998, p. 324). Technological innovations like the internet have given practitioners new ways of reaching out to foreign publics and have had wide reaching effects on international communication and thereby on public diplomacy.

According to Seib, just less than forty years later, a “new diplomacy” based on one-way radio and television communications appears both outmoded and naive. From the printing press, to the telegraph, to the radio, to television, to the internet, new communication technologies have influenced the form and content of public diplomacy-challenging existing institutional practices and presenting new opportunities for engaging and/or alienating foreign constituencies. Today, the internet, mobile phones, and other participatory platforms often referred to as “Web2.0” or “social media” have emerged as the locus for discussion about American public diplomacy inviting an imagination of how international messaging strategies are produced, distributed, and consumed (Seib, 2009 , p. 135)

2.2.1. Public diplomacy and the new media

Melissen describes public diplomacy as the following. Public diplomacy is the area most often singled out for attention in the digital debate. Social networking sites have created new dynamics and opened up a plethora of previously unimaginable opportunities for public diplomacy. It is necessary, however, to always bear the wider picture in mind: the use of websites and social networking sites like Facebook, Twitter and other online platforms for public diplomacy is just the tip of the larger digital iceberg. Marcus Holmes rightly argues that the danger of treating the digital agenda as one synonymous with public diplomacy is that it narrows the discussion in such a way as to downplay the scope of diplomatic activity. It is easy to agree with this point but, looking at it in reverse, public diplomacy principles and strategies are woven into most aspects of diplomatic activity (Melissen B. H., 2015, pp. 30-31).

The evolution of the new public diplomacy is intrinsically connected to the establishment of what scholars call digital diplomacy or public diplomacy 2.0 and what in its essence simply means to execute diplomacy online with foreign citizens. This new tool is

regarded a “new stage in diplomatic representation” and seen as a particularly useful part of public diplomacy due to its two-way communication that enables the diplomat to monitor opinions and needs. Despite this potential, diplomats, however, reacted relatively late to the new communication styles and only in the recent past has the internet's role in public diplomacy become a topic of interest (Hoffmann, 2013, pp. 13-14).

Digital technologies have reinforced an established theme in public diplomacy discourses over the last decade or so: namely, the ‘talking’ versus ‘listening’ debate frequently presented as ‘public diplomacy 1.0’ versus ‘public diplomacy 2.0’. The distinction is between models of top-down ‘broadcast’ public diplomacy models and dialogue-based models in which there is exchange of information and two-way communication between publics and government representatives (Melissen B. H., 2015, p. 31).

In “Credibility Talk in Public Diplomacy,” Mor states, “practices (of PD) will continue to be affected by the technological advances that lead the information revolution.” The innovation occurring in media has produced numerous social media tools worldwide. Rising numbers of additional users also contribute to social media’s usefulness as a tool of public diplomacy. Mor states that winning credibility is an important issue in the competition to promote a country’s brand abroad. “To stand above the competition, to draw attention, and to hold it – and ultimately, to persuade - one needs to have a reputation for providing trustworthy, accurate information.” Therefore, Mor raises the issue of how credibility can be earned and its importance in effectively reaching and grasping public opinion abroad (Harris, 2013, p. 18).

2.2.2. Characteristics of Public diplomacy 2.0 strategy

New technologies have not replaced traditional modes of outreach. They are, however, making them more germane and at the same time more unpredictable as mechanisms for shaping foreign public opinion and cross-national relationships. In short, the rise of a transnational, trans media, and trans modal public sphere has further devolved state influence over its national image while simultaneously offering new tools for the practice of public diplomacy (Seib, 2009 , p. 136).

A 2.0 world necessitates a public diplomacy 2.0 strategy characterized by more nuanced reactive and proactive outreach strategies that consider three broad and interrelated developments in the contemporary media and communications environment:

1. The technological convergence of communication networks,
2. Related problems of information delivery and visibility, and
3. An incorporation of participatory and collaborative models of interaction (Seib, 2009 , p. 136).

2.2.3. The Challenges of Digital Diplomacy/public diplomacy 2.0

Like any new technology and concept, digital diplomacy comes with challenges and opportunities. One of the most important decisions those executing digital diplomacy have to make is that for a “formal feed” or a humanized foreign policy (Hoffmann, 2013, p. 33).

One of the biggest fears of public diplomats with social media are the emergence of unwanted dialogue and the felt need to control communication as much as possible which leads to a hesitating attitude towards Social media. While it is possible to target new audiences and easily interact with them, media such as facebook also mean that the recipient can easily talk back, ask uncomfortable questions or simply be rude. Here one finds a stark contrast between what scholars demand, interactive dialogue, and what practitioners that fear this interaction and feel ill-equipped to meet the dialogue, want (Hoffmann, 2013, p. 35).

According to (Wallin, 2013, pp. 2-8), the author states some challenges of social media in public diplomacy which could really affect the goals we intended to achieve.

2.2.3.1. Designing Effect

Before employing social media tools, it is imperative that a public diplomacy practitioner must understand the strategic policy objective, and establish a communications goal. This will inform that strategist how these tools can best be used to augment results, or whether they are the appropriate tools for the campaign at hand. Many may mistake the use of social media as a universally effective tool because it appears comparatively cheap, relatively fast, and it is currently experiencing a certain aura of mysticism around its use and potential.

2.2.3. 2. Measuring Effect

Audience: How does a government employing social media strategy understand if it is reaching its target audience? Facebook “likes” and Twitter followers do not necessarily equate a strong connection with an audience. Having a million followers says nothing about

whether those tweets are read, nor does that top-line number indicate where a user's followers reside. Neither does it necessarily indicate whether those followers are undertaking action to support a user's communications goals.

Information Longevity: Supposing that information posted via social media is passed on, the attention that information gains generally has little staying power.

2.2.3. 3. Methods of Effect

Real-Time Communication: A primary challenge of online communication involves the real time nature in which it occurs. When governments communicate online, there is no guarantee that the target audience is paying attention. Getting the Signal Through: when employing a social media strategy, one cannot assume that because information has been put on the web, that the intended audience can actually access it. Aside from questions of internet penetration, some target audiences cannot be reached due to blocking or censorship technologies put in place by their governments.

2.2.4. Social media and Facebook

2.2.4.1. Social media definition

(Joseph, 2012) defined social media as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of user Generated Content.” “Web 2.0”, according to Sara, refers to internet platforms that allow for interactive participation by users while “User generated content” is the name for all of the ways in which people may use social media.

Social media is a difficult concept to define with a couple of words alone as diverse views are forwarded by different scholars. Simply put, social media is the media we use to be social. That's it“ (Lon Safko, 2010, p. 3). However, it is not merely this. It involves other related connotations as well. Social media is individuals' activity and practice on media that enables sharing. This includes the cultural product and the relationship among the users. In defence of this, Howard and Parks (2012) define that social media consists of tools, contents and those that produce and consume the digital content.

As a result, social media is not merely application or social networks, but the interconnected entities that are to produce and consume and the related characteristics (Mandiberg, 2012, p. 2). Therefore, social media is not about one way it is two ways the users produce something and they consume something as well.

Social media has a central role in the external communication for companies (Naslund:Adam, 2010, p. 36) However; there is no clear definition for social media (Haenlein, Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media, 2010, p. 36). Probably, there are as many definitions as there are those who define it. In defining social media it can be useful to explore the words separately.

(Lon Safko, 2010, p. 4) says that ‘social’ “refers to the instinctual needs we humans have to connect with other humans” whereas ‘media’ refers to “the media we use with which we make those connections with other humans”.

(Lon Safko, 2010) adds that social networks have existed as long as there have been humans to create them but the change is related to how these networks interact: “The basic need to connect hasn’t changed in thousands of years, only the technology we use to make that connection.” Thus, it can be said that social media is about connections, relationships. In fact, (Gilbert and Karahalios, 2009, 211 as cited in Nurmi, 2012) have claimed that “Relationships make social media social.”

Actually, (Matikainen, 2009, 13 as cited in Nurmi, 2012) thinks that both the terms ‘social’ and ‘media’ cause difficulty as it can be interpreted that other media is not social and what is media. However, (Matikainen, 2009, 101,113 as cited in Nurmi, 2012) concludes in his study that even though sometimes content production can be done individually, social interaction is included in social media as there needs to be some coordination.

(Sirkkunen, 2008, pp. 19-20). (Matikainen, 2009, 5 as cited in Nurmi, 2012) sees that social media refers to “the diffusion of the production of media contents”, and users act as producers. (Bowley, 2010, p. 239) defines social media as “collaborative online applications and technologies that enable participation, connectivity, user-generated content, sharing of information, and collaboration amongst a community of users”.

Also (Haenlein, Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media, 2010, p. 61) include content created by the users and the technology in their definition: “Social Media is a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content.” To them, Web 2.0 is a platform where all users participate in the creation and modification of content (Haenlein, Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media, 2010, p. 61).

The concepts of web 2.0, user generated content (UGC), peer media, and social net are often mentioned in the same context with social media. Some researchers think that they are all parallel concepts (Matikainen, 2009, 5, 9 as cited in Nurmi, 2012) whereas some argue that they are not. For instance, (Sirkkunen, 2008, p. 18) do not consider web 2.0 as a synonym for social media as it refers to online services and technologies that from their point of view may not include neither the media nor the social aspect. (Haenlein, Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media, 2010) consider web 2.0 as “the platform for the evolution of Social Media” and user generated content as “the sum of all ways in which people make use of Social Media”. (Smith, 2010, p. 332) adds that involvement in social media seems dependent on technological facilitation (functional interactivity) and interdependent messaging (contingent interactivity).

2.2.4.2. Social media and related issues

Michael Mandiberg contends that the concept of social media has a lot it takes with several related concepts: the corporate media favourite 'user-generated content,' Henry Jenkins' media industries-focused 'convergence culture,' Jay Rosen's 'the people formerly known as the audience,' the politically infused 'participatory media,' Yochai Benkler's process oriented 'peer-production,' and Tim O'Reilly's computer programming oriented 'Web 2.0' (Mandiberg, 2012, p. 2).

There are different theories linked with social media. (Haenlein, Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media, 2010, p. 61) unites the theories of media research (social presence, media richness) and social processes (self-presentation, self-disclosure) and consider them as the two key elements of social media. (Naslund, 2010, p. 36) has explored social media in internal communication and combines it with changing roles and responsibilities, the evolution of skills, communication style, risk tolerance and trust. Further, (Naslund, 2010, p. 36) sees that social media use in internal communication is beneficial as it may bring out issues that need to be dealt with within the organization, and that could hinder the external social media efforts.

2.2.4.3. The role of social media

(Derek L. Hansen, 2011) has studied social networks as maps that provide information about social spaces, subgroups and positions of individuals within networks. Following the changes in a network over time enables measuring of social capital

development, community formation, and marketing campaigns. (Derek L. Hansen, 2011, p. 45). Further, (Derek L. Hansen, 2011, p. 48) suggests that content can be considered as a network as well.

(Sirkkunen, 2008) emphasize the active social roles in content production and using in addition to the social network as characteristic of social media (Breakenridge, 2008, p. 71) thinks that “Social media encompasses all the online technologies that people collaborate on, including their opinions and experiences as well as sharing different perspectives.”

Although social media networks are not just new phenomena, it is in the last decade they have penetrated much in people’s day to day life. This is due to the fact that the increasing number of social media has invited billions to join the new platform. Scholars contest on the exact history of the social media. (Bennett, 2013) argues that social media is as old as CompuServe in 1969. However, other scholars site the history of social networking with the advent of Six Degrees back in 1997 (Ellison D. M., 2008). Auspiciously, since then hundreds of social media networks have shown themselves and still popping up with new choices and applications.

2.2.4.4. The use of social media

Social media use can add to the policy-making process, as its tools can provide a platform for symmetrical communication. Symmetrical communication is “allowing individuals to intensify social contacts while sharing content, engaging in discussion, but also controlling content via networks they participate in.” Using social media has enabled political entities to engage in branding and promoting a specific persona to their audiences. As a result, social media are effective for conveying any message to a given public, whether it is from a corporation, a public figure, or a government. (Harris, 2013, p. 18) Social media help the society, government officials, non government officials and others to share what they have, to get information and to interact each other.

The use of social media in politics has been an effective tool in garnering public support and thus provides strategic utility in the practice of public diplomacy. While social media can be used to clarify misconceptions, it is merely a medium to supply the message and cannot avert any negative backlash due to poor foreign policy decisions (Harris, 2013, p. 18) .

Rybalko and Seltzer add that social media are offering various ways for the organizations to engage in dialogic communication with their publics. Also, organizations may use targeting as it seems that different online tools are used to reach different publics with different needs. (Rybalko, 2012). Therefore, social media is the best to create dialogue with friends and/or followers.

The nature of communication in social media is feedback-oriented (Vos, 2010). It is then understandable that (Vos, 2010) ponders on the challenge of communicating symmetrically considering the vast audience in social media. As (Michael L. Kenta, 2002) have explored dialogue in several studies, they also suggest ways to incorporate dialogue in everyday public relations: the interpersonal, the mediated, and the organizational. In brief, the organization needs to have the personnel communicating with the public's "comfortable engaging in dialogue", mass mediated channels to nourish the interaction, and finally preparedness in terms of organizational mechanisms for facilitating dialogue. However, incorporating dialogue requires organizational commitment and realizing the value of relationship-building. (Michael L. Kenta, 2002, pp. 30-32). Having social media accounts doesn't mean that dialogue takes place unless we make efforts.

2.2.4.5 The Characteristics of Social Media

The social media can be defined by the characteristics of participation, openness, conversation, community, and connectivity' (Hermida, 2010, p. 311). These features or characteristics of social media show the powerful nature of the media over traditional media. They are incongruent with the networked society (global modern society) that is why they are mutating strongly. On the other hand, (Kanwar, 2012) stated five distinctive characteristics of social media.

Accessibility: social media is easily accessible, takes no or low cost to use. It is easy to use and connect with others as well.

Speed: the content once published will be visible to all connected communities. Not only publishing responses are not delay– they are near instantaneous as well.

Interactivity: social media offers a two-way or more communication. Users interact with each other; ask questions, comments, share, offer the other version of viewpoints and others.

Longevity/Volatility: owing to the nature of the medium, social media content remain accessible for a long time. It can be updated any time as well.

Reach: should the tribute go to the internet; anything put on social media can reach anyone crossing social interaction of the yore limited by cut breaks.

2.2.5. Facebook

Facebook was created in 2004 (Facebook, 2017) by a group of students at Harvard University and it has grown to be one of the most successful social media networks, as it is the most used social network almost all around the globe (Rubio, 2011, p. 49). Facebook is a simple, free-of-charge platform that allows users to “stay connected with friends and family, to discover what’s going on in the world, and to share and express what matters to them” (Facebook, 2017). It allows users to upload pictures, videos, send messages or like the publications of other users –amongst many other things.

As of March 2017, Facebook has registered 1.23 billion daily active users, a number of 1.86 billion users that use the network actively at least once a month and a total of 1.74 billion monthly active users that access the platform via mobile phone (Facebook, 2017). These data evidence that the potential target audience amongst Facebook users can be massive. Facebook shares the function and the characteristics of social media because it is one of the social media tool.

2.3. Dialogue in public relations theory:

The concept of dialogue has its roots in a variety of disciplines: philosophy, rhetoric, psychology, and relational communication. Philosophers and rhetoricians have long considered dialogue as one of the most ethical forms of communication and as one of the central means of separating truth from falsehood. Theologian Martin Buber is considered by most to be the father of the modern concept of dialogue. Buber suggested that dialogue involves an effort to recognize the value of the other—to see him/her as an end and not merely as a means to achieving a desired goal. Buber suggested that individuals should view others not as objects — the “I You,” but as equals—the “I Thou.” Buber’s work is based on reciprocity, mutuality, involvement, and openness (Michael L. Kenta, 2002, p. 22).

Dialogue is at the root of public relations as some other disciplines. It is a form of communication most applicable to building and maintaining relationships. Without it,

there is a little chance of the relationship surviving, much like a relationship without trust. As such, scholars such as Pearson, Kent, Taylor, White, Ryan, Holtzhausen and Tindal have taken dialogue into serious consideration in investigating public relations and Conducted a variety of research related to organization –public dialogue (Heewon Cha, 2015, p. 299).

In its public relations context dialogue is defined by the attempt to reach “as many stakeholders as possible”, by treating the participants in the communication as persons, not merely members of a target or interest group, by not only speaking but also listening, and by creating situations in which the participants are encouraged to speak their mind (Petra Theunissen, 2012, p. 10). Therefore, dialogue is not only about speaking to your target people, it is also listening to them what they think about the subject of the issue other ways we couldn't say dialogue took place.

Dialogic communication is an important public relations theory, yet scholarship has found few organizations using it to its full potential. Meanwhile, multiple overlapping definitions exist for related terms like engagement, interactivity, and responsiveness, causing potential confusion for researchers and professionals (Betsy D. Anderson, 2016, p. 4095).

The broader concept of dialogue can be defined as, “an orientation that values sharing and mutual understanding between interact ants” (Kent, 2014, p. 388). Engagement, specifically, fits into dialogic communication as an aspect of “propinquity,” one of Kent and Taylor’s (2002) five underlying principles of dialogue which are mutuality, propinquity, empathy, risk, and commitment. Propinquity occurs when organizations consult publics who may be affected by their actions, and in turn, publics communicate their views or demands to an organization. Engagement is the willingness of both parties to commit entirely to encounters, and it requires “accessibility, presentences, and a willingness to interact” (Kent, 2014, p. 387)

2.3.1. Principles of a dialogic public relations theory (Michael L. Kenta, 2002, pp. 24-30)

Although a dialogic approach to public relations cannot be easily operational zed, or reduced to a series of steps, dialogue does consist of several coherent assumptions. An extensive literature review of the concept of dialogue in communication, public relations,

philosophy, and psychology reveals five overarching tenets of dialogism. These tenets are the first step toward articulating a public relations theory of dialogue.

A dialogic approach cannot force an organization to behave ethically, nor is it even appropriate in some circumstances. As will be clear from the discussion that follows, dialogue can be put to both moral and immoral ends. Gunson and Collins, for example, point out, that just because an organization and its publics create “dialogic” communication structures, does not mean that they are behaving dialogically.

If one partner subverts the dialogic process through manipulation, disconfirmation, or exclusion, then the end result will not be dialogic. Dialogue is not a process or a series of steps. Rather, it is a product of ongoing communication and relationships.

Since dialogue involves “trust,” “risk” and “vulnerability,” dialogic participants (and publics) can be manipulated by unscrupulous organizations or publics. In such cases, “strategic communication” might be more effective at achieving the interests of the organization or the public in question than would a dialogic approach to communication.

What dialogue does is change the nature of the organization–public relationship by placing emphasis on the relationship. What dialogue cannot do is make an organization behave morally or force organizations to respond to publics. Organizations must willingly make dialogic commitments to publics.

Dialogue as an orientation includes five features: mutuality, or the recognition of organization–public relationships; propinquity, or the temporality and spontaneity of interactions with publics; empathy, or the supportiveness and confirmation of public goals and interests; (Michael L. Kenta, 2002, pp. 21-37) risk, or the willingness to interact with individuals and publics on their own terms; and finally, commitment, or the extent to which an organization gives itself over to dialogue, interpretation, and understanding in its interactions with publics. 'Dialogue' is not a guarantee for commitment, mutuality and empathy rather it requires the willingness of the organization for commitment, mutuality and empathy.

Mutuality: refers to an acknowledgment that organizations and publics are inextricably tied together. Mutuality is characterized by an “inclusion or collaborative orientation” and a “spirit of mutual equality.”

Propinquity: propinquity advocates for a type of rhetorical exchange. It is an orientation to a relationship. For organizations, dialogic propinquity means that publics are consulted in matters that influence them, and for publics, it means that they are willing and able to articulate their demands to organizations. Propinquity is created by three features of dialogic relationships: “immediacy of presence,” “temporal flow,” and “engagement.” These features of dialogue clarify the process of dialogic exchanges.

Empathy: Empathy, also called “sympathy” is characterized by “supportiveness,” a “communal orientation,” and “confirmation or acknowledgment” of others. Empathetic communication is important because practitioners can improve their communication by “walking in the shoes” of their publics.

Risk: Leitch and Neilson noted that, “genuine dialogue is a problematic concept for system/s public relations because it has the potential to produce unpredictable and dangerous outcomes.” The assumption of risk is characterized by three features in dialogic exchanges: “vulnerability,” “emergent unanticipated consequences,” and “recognition of ‘strange otherness.’”

Commitment: is the final principle of dialogue to be discussed. Commitment describes three characteristics of dialogic encounters: “genuineness” and authenticity, “commitment to the conversation,” and a “commitment to interpretation.” (Lane, 2010, p. 13).

Dialogue has not only the potential to lead to more two-way communication; there is the potential for risk in dialogic communication as well. In their discussion of a dialogue project conducted in New Zealand, Zorn, Roper, and Motion (in Heath et al., 2006, pp. 366, 367 as cited in Michael L. Kenta, 2002), for example, refer to increased risk and vulnerability involved when engaging in dialogue. One major aspect of dialogue is the unpredictability that comes with it. Because of this unpredictability the outcome of the dialogue might not be in the favour of the participants.

Furthermore, dialogue does not only bring up similarities but also differences in the positions of the participants. Thus, it may lead to disagreement instead of agreement, thereby harming the organization or the stakeholder (Petra Theunissen, 2012, p. 11). (Neilson, 2001) agree and say that real dialogue has the potential to “produce unpredictable and dangerous outcomes” and that in order to “reduce both uncertainty and the potential for damage, organizations may attempt to determine in advance the terms of any public debate in

which they engage (Neilson, 2001, p. 135). Because of the dangers that genuine dialogue poses, organizations might be less likely to engage in it (Petra Theunissen, 2012, p. 11).

For individuals there are risks in dialogue: they have to open up and share intimate details about themselves. For organizations the risks are similar; real dialogue can reveal the true identity of an organization and destroy the image it has built towards the outside and towards stakeholders. Organizations that have carefully built their public image may not participate in dialogue because they fear “exposure and loss of control over their image and reputation” (Petra Theunissen, 2012, p. 11).

A further risk when engaging in dialogue with one group of stakeholders is that it might alienate another group. Taylor (in Heath et al., 2006, p. 357 as cited in Michael L. Kenta, 2002) gives an example of this process in citing a case in which the national police force upgraded their internal communications system. After first support the project failed five years later; while a group within the police force improved its internal communication, other groups and individuals became antagonistic and the relationships between the groups fell apart.

2.3.2. Skills and techniques for implementing dialogue

Corrine Mc Laughlin has identified the following skills and techniques that are of crucial importance to a stakeholder dialogue: (Laughlin)

- ✓ “Build trust by creating a positive and open atmosphere;
- ✓ Clarify what constitutes consensus – unanimity (total agreement), or ‘willingness to step aside’, and not block a decision if one disagrees;
- ✓ Surface what is hidden – allow time for each to share feelings and concerns;
- ✓ Focus on individual and shared needs and interests –not on entrenched positions and past history;
- ✓ Build on previous ideas –discourage tangents;
- ✓ State differences clearly –avoid pressures to conform;
- ✓ Ask problem solving questions, not judgmental ones;
- ✓ Clarify perceptions –repeat statements back to the speaker;
- ✓ Don’t presume motives –ask direct questions;
- ✓ Avoid placating, blaming, preaching, dominantly or passively resisting –be direct;
- ✓ Draw out quieter participants;

- ✓ Brainstorm mutually beneficial options before final decisions are made; and
- ✓ Acknowledge true human needs –economic security, recognition, and belonging.”

2.4. Theoretical Framework

This research theoretical framework focuses on the concepts and theories concerning social media, public diplomacy and dialogue which are discussed in detail in review of literature in chapter two and here the researcher would like to say only some.

This study explored the use of social media in public diplomacy in the case of Ethiopia diplomatic missions’ Facebook under the lens of the well-known Social media, public diplomacy and dialogue theories.

2.4.1. Social Media theory

Even if most of us use “Social Media” every day it is not so evident what the concept really means. Kaplan and Haenlein define it as a “group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and allow the creation and exchange of user generated content” (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 61).

Therefore, we can argue that Social Media networks are a defining feature of Web 2.0 that enables user interaction at their platforms.

There is no doubt that the advent and proliferation of social media has shaken up the world of communications and has allowed users to use them as means for social protest, create conflict or become ‘journalists’—through what is known as citizen journalism. The increasing relevance of social media poses a challenge for practitioners of public diplomacy (Borau Boira, García García, & Rodríguez Gómez, 2013, pp. 78-79) because they give power to individual citizens and act as a platform where they can directly interact with government officials or other state actors.

Another important characteristic of social media is that the applications are generally free, which increases the opportunities for regular citizens to access them. Arguably, the fact that creating a social media account is free can be potentially problematic for governments and state agencies: they could ‘fall into the trap’ of having an account for the sake of having it. As many authors argue, if there is not a clearly defined objective and strategy for social

media, then it might be better just not to have presence on the network (Borau Boira, García García, & Rodríguez Gómez, 2013; Rubio, 2011).

Likewise, when a strategic plan to develop the Diplomacy exists, it is fundamental to monitor its implementation to be able to make improvements (Borau Boira, García García, & Rodríguez Gómez, 2013, p. 85). As Rubio points out, when interacting on social media, states should focus on (1) listen in order to identify what people are talking about, (2) publish for actively participating on the dialogue, (3) involve people so that they participate, and 4) evaluate if objectives are being fulfilled and develop new strategies (Rubio, 2011, p. 45).

2.4.2. Public diplomacy theory

Public diplomacy means the use of communication practices aimed at the inhabitants of a foreign country with the overall goal of building relationships with important stakeholders, informing and influencing the audience and establishing a form of dialogue (Melissen, 2005; Simonin, 2008, p. 24).

The term ‘public diplomacy’ was coined by Edmund Gullion in the 1960s and then used in the context of the United States Information Agency (Simonin, 2008, p. 24). According to Melissen (2005, p. 13) it is increasingly complicated to separate public diplomacy (aimed at foreign audiences) from public affairs (aimed at domestic audiences) because communication aimed at the one audience today easily reaches the other one, especially due to new communication technology.

According to Melissen (2005, p. 13) it is increasingly complicated to separate public diplomacy (aimed at foreign audiences) from public affairs (aimed at domestic audiences) because communication aimed at the one audience today easily reaches the other one, especially due to new communication technology.

2.4.3. Dialogue in public relations theory

As mentioned in this chapter, the rise of social media (facebook in particular) has stimulated high hopes that a tool to create real dialogue in the form of public diplomacy 2.0 has been found. These expectations and possibilities but also the downsides and risks of the dialogic 2.0 version of public diplomacy have already been addressed in public relations theory. More focus has been given to dialogue theory in review of related literature to have better understanding about it besides to the points mentioned in theoretical framework.

In its public relations context, dialogue is defined by the attempt to reach “as many stakeholders as possible”, by treating the participants in the communication as persons, not merely members of a target or interest group, by not only speaking but also listening, and by creating situations in which the participants are encouraged to speak their mind (Theunissen & Noordin, 2012, p. 10). The researchers have identified five principles of dialogic communication that can be used by organizations to facilitate open communication with their publics: ease of interface, conservation of visitors (meaning that users should be kept on the website and not be let astray by links to other pages), generation of return visits, providing useful information to a variety of publics, and maintaining a dialogical loop (Kent & Taylor, 1998, pp. 326-331).

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

3.1. Research Design

Qualitative research methods are used in this study to explore the trend of social media use in public diplomacy from different angles in order to achieve greater depth of analysis. The research methods used in this case study are qualitative methods like content analysis and interview.

The researcher conducted a qualitative research study designed to explore the use of social media in public diplomacy in the case of Ethiopia's diplomatic missions' Facebook. These qualitative research methods are chosen, because it enabled the researcher to understand the deeper structure of a phenomenon and to increase understanding of the phenomenon within contextual situations with a desire to uncover the story behind the statistics. Furthermore, qualitative methods allowed the researcher to record the actual messages presented and understand how the participants (the practitioners of public diplomacy using social media) felt as they were involved in the use of facebook in public diplomacy. Qualitative research is able to elicit more detailed information about a phenomenon. They are most the appropriate ones for the purpose of this study.

3.1.1 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is usually described as allowing a comprehensive exploration of a topic of interest in which information is composed by a researcher through case studies, ethnographic work, interviews, and so on. Innate in this approach is the explanation of the interactions among participants and researchers in naturalistic settings with few margins, resulting in a flexible and open research process. These unique interactions imply that different results could be obtained from the same participant depending on who the researcher is, because results are created by a participant and researcher in a given situation. Thus, reliability and generalization are not generally goals of qualitative research (Holloway, 2002).

For Creswell, qualitative research is an interpretive research in which the researcher has a direct contact with the participants. Constructivism or interpretive is a perspective always seen towards qualitative research approach. Qualitative is an approach for understanding the meaning and views individuals or groups attribute to human or social

problems, whereas quantitative research is an approach for testing theories by examining the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2014). In comparison to other research designs, he argues that the qualitative approach includes comments by the researcher about their roles, and the specific type of qualitative strategy/s being used. In this type of research the researcher is the key instrument. The qualitative method includes observation, interview, focus groups, ethnographic study and others.

As a result, the researcher employed case study and interview from qualitative research methods. An in-depth interview was conducted with the public diplomacy Practitioners (diplomats and ambassadors) including director general and directors of public diplomacy department to give a qualitative depth to the study. More importantly, it is used to draw out information in order to get holistic understanding of the interviewees' point of view. The interview questions were semi structured, in addition, content analysis used too in order to collect primary data and facebook pages used to be analyzed could be taken as secondary data.

According to Mason, qualitative research methods focus on discovering and understanding the experiences, perspectives, and thoughts of participants that is qualitative research explores meaning, purpose, or reality. In qualitative research, decisions about design and strategy are ongoing and are grounded in the practice, process and context of the research itself. However, although qualitative researchers should not aim to produce entire advance blueprints, in my understanding, they very definitely should nevertheless produce a research design at the start of the process. The main proviso is that thinking about strategy and design should not stop there (Mason, 2002, p. 24).

In the 'real world' of social research these are clearly good enough reasons to produce a research design. However, in my view, qualitative researchers should produce quite detailed research designs for their own use, whether or not they are required to write a research proposal for another audience. The point of such an 'internal' research design is to facilitate the coherent and rigorous development of the researcher's project by making explicit their current thinking about a number of key issues (Mason, 2002, p. 25).

(Lewis, 2003), in qualitative research the purpose is to describe an event or an occurrence, to understand certain activity or to provide an explanation of a phenomenon. The features distinctive to qualitative research: examining meanings in their naturalistic context while the researcher is having the role as an interpretive subject.

The reason why the emphasis in this research is on data received with qualitative methods is the fact that qualitative research explores how things work in particular contexts, rather than representing the full range of experience. Also, the object of study is often a form of social process in need of an explanation (Mason, 2002, pp. 134,136), as in this study.

3.2. Subject of the study

Subject of this study are the facebook pages of Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad and public diplomacy practitioners of the embassies' who make use of social media or facebook in particular as a public diplomacy tool.

These public diplomacy practitioners and people who are related to the implementation of public diplomacy in Ethiopian Ministry of Foreign Affairs are chosen taking in to account the experience they have on conducting public diplomacy using social media (facebook) in the overseas embassies.

Accordingly, all Ethiopian missions abroad which have facebook pages and those which are active by using the pages like posting, sharing, tagging etc... were incorporated in this study for content analysis because the number of embassies which use facebook accounts are not many in number to deal with.

Thereupon, the population that this study targets are facebook pages of different Ethiopian Diplomatic Missions abroad. As of today, according to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ethiopia webpage, there are a total of twenty-three embassies that do have facebook pages.

3.3. Research Instrument

This study used first and secondary data collection methods in order to find out the use of social media in public diplomacy in the case study of Ethiopia's diplomatic missions' Facebook. The facebook pages posts were used in the study to gather data. Each facebook page post was used towards assessing the usage of social media in public diplomacy in the case study of Ethiopia's diplomatic missions' Facebook use. Qualitative research is able to elicit more detailed information about a phenomenon. They are most the appropriate ones for the purpose of this study.

To sum up, the research instrument is a tool by which the researcher collects data. As methods employed in this study is qualitative, the tools utilized include, qualitative content analysis and in-depth interview.

3.3.1. Content Analysis

According to Krippendorff, in conducting content analysis there is much interpretive work to do, relying on a good knowledge of the text under examination however, over the years, various qualitative approaches have become popular in the study of social sciences (Krippendorff, *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*, 2004) in his seminal handbook on content analysis treats qualitative approaches side by side with quantitative (Bock, 2009) besides to this, Harwood & Garry, describe content analysis flexibility in terms of research design that is to say it can be used in qualitative and/or quantitative research designs (Harwood & Garry 2003 as cited in (Kyngas, 2007)). But this study took the qualitative approach only by leaving aside the quantitative approach to address its purpose. From the beginning the research questions

Content analysis was an important tool in this study to be able to understand the trends of social media use in public diplomacy in a case study of the (FDRE) Ethiopia diplomatic missions' Facebook use.

In order to explore the research questions, this study used qualitative content analysis of the Facebook profiles of the Ethiopian missions and for the qualitative data from the depth interview with the participants and the facebook profiles analysis. The nature of the content analysis yields a profound understanding of a unique case (social media use in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ethiopian missions abroad), as well as a profound understanding of the fundamental processes. This understanding allows for an inductive reasoning from the analyzed case to a broader theory, which can be used to research other related phenomena.

The data obtained from qualitative research is very “rich”, it provides insightful accounts and complex details, and can show the full extent of the subject's experiences because researchers see through other people's eyes and interpret events from their point of view (Bryman, 1988, pp. 72, 103).

Content analysis is a research method for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context, with the purpose of providing knowledge, new insights, a representation of facts and a practical guide to action (Krippendorff, *Validity in Content analysis*, 1980).

Content analysis has been an important tool in this study to be able to understand the trends of the use of social media in public diplomacy by Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad. In the process, what communication strategy is primarily used by Ethiopian diplomatic mission and the role of the social media presence of the missions play in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA).

This study focuses on the 23 missions that are using Facebook for their public diplomacy communication from the total embassies Ethiopian has all over the world (as of February, 2017 (Director General of Public Diplomacy Mr. Teferi Melese, 2017)). There are other types of Ethiopian representation besides the mission abroad (Ethiopian Embassies overseas) that are using facebook such as Ethiopian Consulates, but these are not included in the case study, as the study is focusing exclusively on the Ethiopian Embassies abroad.

3.3.1.1 Content analysis one

In order for the researcher to bring into the light herself with the Facebook communication of the missions and to establish, what communication strategies are prevalent on the mission's facebook profiles as first content analysis of selected profiles was done. The analysis made use of van Ruler's communication grid as a coding sheet and framework for analysis.

Betteke van Ruler designed a "model of basic communication strategies" (van Ruler, 2004, p. 123). On van Ruler's model the abscissa axis goes from 'denotation' to 'connotation', depending on whether the message is explicitly state or implicitly; and the ordinate one from 'one-way' control of the message to 'two-way', depending on whether the input comes from just one side or allows for feedback (van Ruler, 2004, pp. 139-140). This results on four quadrants that represent the possible communications strategies and are, in one way or another, related to public diplomacy concepts explained above:

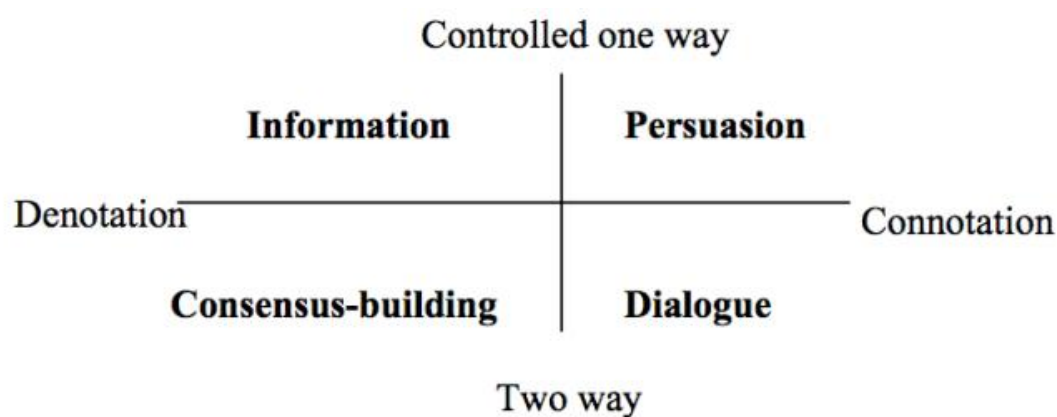
1. **Information** (one-way; denotation) involves simply that, providing information to people and it involves more traditional techniques like press releases or simple informative statements.

2. **Persuasion** (one-way; connotation), which is, as van Ruler points out, “the basis of propaganda and advertising” (van Ruler, 2004, p.140) and aims to affect the behaviour of audiences by narrowing down their minds.

3. **Dialogue** (two-way; connotation) implies interaction with publics and allows receiving feedback from them. Van Ruler regards it as the first step on “interactive policy-making” as well as on “socially responsible enterprising” (van Ruler, 2004, p. 140)

4. **Consensus building** (two-way; denotation) is about “building bridges between the organization and the environment” (van Ruler, 2004, p. 140) and it is the “second phase of interactive policy development and decision making” (van Ruler, 2004, p. 140). To look at it clearly, there is the following figure which illustrates the four communication strategies.

Figure 5: The communication grid (Source: van Ruler, 2004)



Van Ruler herself points out that all four strategies tend to be used in day-to-day communications (van Ruler, 2004, p. 140), as it is often difficult to clearly establish where one of them ends and the other begins. She, however, remarks that on public relations one-way strategies tend to prevail over two-way ones. However, if we are to truly practice public diplomacy, it should be the other way around. Leonard et al. pointed out that in the field of public diplomacy “one-way flow of messages is likely to be counterproductive” (Leonard, 2002, p. 48), which indicates that van Ruler’s strategies of ‘information’ and ‘persuasion’ are not the best possible choices.

Public diplomacy is based on interaction with foreign citizens and it is vital that the communication is communal, that is, working on a two-way manner.

Totally, there were 23 Ethiopian missions (Ethiopian Embassies abroad) that use Facebook and all the 23 missions were functioning at the time of this content analysis. All the missions were taken to be studied because the number of the embassies which use facebook accounts currently (February, 2017) is not that much huge to manage therefore, the researcher took all the embassies which have facebook accounts and using it currently.

The time frame for the first analysis was March 20 upto March 24, 2017 for 5 working days (from Monday up to Friday). The content of the sampled Facebook profiles was analyzed and categorized into van Ruler's four categories. Posts by the missions themselves but also re-posts and shares were included to be analyzed, as sharing is a major feature of communication in social networks.

3.3.1.2. Content analysis two

As the researcher stated one of the objectives of this research is to identify the roles the social media presence of the missions play in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affair (MFA).Therefore it was necessary to analyze the profiles in depth.

The second content analysis allows the researcher to reach an in-depth understanding of the communication on the Facebook profiles of the missions. Additionally, it was important to establish what the MFA expects to achieve through the social media communication by the missions. Therefore, information material on the MFA's public diplomacy strategies was analyzed with the aim to find out about the aims and strategies used to reach those aims.

From March 27 through March 31, 2017 (The working days/ from Monday up to Friday) was chosen. The two consecutive weeks were taken for content analysis one and content analysis two. Each content analysis was conducted after the whole week was over.

The coding schemes for the content analysis, as well as for the later discussed interview, were derived through analysis of the profiles and the interview results correspondingly, as well as induction from the results of the first content analysis and the interview and inference from the literature.

3.3.2. Interview

This data gathering tool instrument was used through personal interviews and in technology mediated fashion through facebook conversation, facebook video call and voice call with Ethiopian diplomatic missions' public diplomacy practitioners. This study utilized both techniques of interview because there is no other way the important data could be acquired.

The data collecting instrument is usually carried out in a structured way. As such we call the interviews as structured interviews. Such interviews involve the use of a set of predetermined questions and of highly standardized techniques of recording. Thus, the interviewer in a structured interview follows an inflexible procedure laid down, asking questions in a form and order prescribed (Kuthari, 1990).

The unstructured interviews are characterized by a flexibility of approach to questioning. (Kuthari, 1990) says unstructured interviews do not follow a system of predetermined questions and standardized techniques of recording information. In an unstructured interview, the interviewer is allowed much greater freedom to ask, in case of need, supplementary questions or at times he/she may omit certain questions if the situation so requires. She/he can even change the sequence of question. But this sort of flexibility results in lack of comparability of one interview with another and the analysis of unstructured responses becomes much more difficult and time-consuming than that of the structured responses obtained in case of structured interviews.

Though there is a golden mean between the two which is referred to as semi-structured interview. Semi-structured interviews share some qualities and features from the two.

The interviewer while conducting semi-structured interview, she/he has a clear list of issues to be addressed and questions to be answered. However, according to (Denscombe, 2014) with the semi-structured interview, the interviewer is prepared to be flexible in terms of the order in which the topics are considered and perhaps more significantly, to let the interviewee develop ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised by the researcher.

Now a days, online interviewing is rising as an alternative data gathering tool where face-on face- communication is unlikely or the respondent does it better from her/his

surrounding. According to (Holloway, 2002) it is a computer mediated communication which has two divisions, synchronous or asynchronous interviews. Synchronous interviewing occurs in real-time, and consists of 'chatting'. Usually, but not always, synchronous interviewing is conducted with a number of people at once. Asynchronous communication is conversation which happens in non-real-time.

In this type of communication messages are written and read at different times which may be minutes, hours or days apart. This as to (Holloway, 2002) is beneficial if the interviewer and the interviewee are across worldwide time-zones.

This study therefore used semi- structured interview which with relative flexibility will allow the researcher to obtain primary information. The online interviewing with diplomats and ambassadors who practise public diplomacy using social media in the mission abroad was conducted in the form of Facebook conversation and video/voice call.

The interview was chosen as a research method not only because it is the one of the most commonly used methods in qualitative research (Mason, 2002, p. 62) but also because the desired data was not available in any other form, thus it was the only way to generate the kind of data wanted (Mason, 2002, p. 66).

(Mason, 2002, p. 62) refers qualitative interviewing to mean in-depth, semi structured or loosely structured forms of interviewing. In this research the interview questions were designed beforehand so that the framework of the interview would strongly guide the conversation and it would be easier for the interviewer to stay on top of the interview situation. Mason supports the idea by defining a relatively informal style conversation and interactional exchange of dialogue as core features of interviewing.

3.4. Sampling procedure

The researcher analyzed all content published by Ethiopian diplomatic missions on their official Facebook pages. There was a daily visit to their Facebook pages (the whole 23 Ethiopian missions which had facebook accounts by the time of this study) and during such visits, all posts that were published during 24 hours were collected and recorded by capturing screenshots using snipping tool. This method was employed because of the concern that Ethiopian diplomatic missions might delete certain posts for various reasons. Finally, one randomly picked week of all accounts was assessed in a qualitative analysis for content

analysis one and the next consecutive week of the first randomly picked week for the second content analysis. The sample included all diplomatic missions Facebook pages. All Ethiopian diplomatic missions' Facebook pages in the sample were used because of their use of social media, which provided sufficient data for content analysis.

3.5. Sampling Technique

(Mason, 2002, p. 135) gives two suggestions for the sample in qualitative research: it should give an understanding of the research topic rather than represent a population, and the selection of the sample should be a dynamic and ongoing practice.

(Mason, 2002, p. 121) defines two reasons for sampling in qualitative research: first, practicality and resources and second, the importance of focus. Further, according to (Mason, 2002, p. 134) the researcher should think whether the chosen sample provides access to enough data and with the right focus so that it is possible to answer the research questions.

The interviewees were chosen on account of their position as public diplomacy practitioners (diplomats, and Ambassadors) using social media in Ethiopian Ministry of Foreign Affairs diplomatic mission abroad.

A sample is a set of elements selected in some way from a the total population. The aim of sampling according to Jupp is to save time and effort, but also to obtain consistent and unbiased estimates of the population status in terms of whatever is being researched. There are two basic methods of sampling: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. The former includes simple random sampling, stratified random sampling and some forms of cluster sampling. The latter, sometimes called purposive, includes convenience sampling, theoretical sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling among others (Jupp, 2006).

From the two basic types, non-probability sampling is employed in this study. Non probability sampling, according to (Denscombe, 2014) is chosen when the researcher feels it is not possible to include a sufficiently large number of examples in the study. This reason works in the case of this study. Therefore, a purposive sampling was used.

3.5.1. Purposive sampling

According to (Denscombe, 2014) purposive sampling is used in a situation where the researcher already knows something about the specific people or events and deliberately selects particular ones because they are seen as instances that are likely to gather the most valuable data. Denscombe says, they are selected with a specific purpose in mind, and that purpose reflects the particular qualities of the people or events chosen and their relevance to the topic of the investigation. In this study, the subjects of the study that is to say the interviewees are chosen purposively after checking their highly active engagement in their facebook pages by looking at their online activeness and the people who engage in the posts they post, repost and share on their pages in order to get rich information from their experiences.

3.6. Method of Data Analysis

The data collected via both content analysis and interview were interpreted. Data analysis entails examining and evaluating the data that was collected so as to develop detailed explanations. The researcher applied qualitative data analysis process. The researcher used interpretative techniques to describe what the data is. It involved also attaching significance to what was found, offered explanations, drawing conclusions, extrapolating lessons, attaching meaning, imposing order, dealing with rival explanations, and confirming cases and data irregularities as part of testing the viability of an interpretation. In order for the researcher to familiarize herself with the Facebook pages of the missions and to establish, what communication strategies are common on the mission's Facebook profiles as first content analysis of selected profiles were done. The analysis was made use of van Ruler's communication grid as a coding sheet and framework for analysis.

As the objective of the study in this research is to investigate the role of social media tools in Ethiopia's public diplomacy it was necessary to analyze the facebook pages in depth. Content analysis allowed the researcher to reach an in-depth understanding of the use of social media in public diplomacy of Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad.

Chapter Four: Findings and Analysis

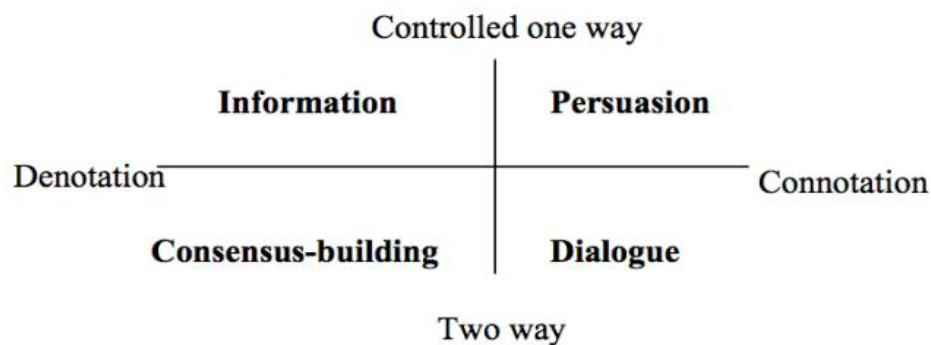
4.1. Findings and analysis: content analysis one

In total 200 Facebook posts were analysed in this study. These were not divided equally between the missions, in six missions (France, Kambala, Israel, Djibouti, Turkiye and Sudan) there had been no post in the chosen week (March 20 through March 24, 2017 (this week was taken for content analysis because it was the planned period for the researcher to start collecting data and the researcher decided to follow up every post by each mission on daily bases before the posts get deleted by the missions for various reason), while for instance the mission with the highest amount of posts, Washington D.C, alone published 37 posts in that the same time span. The next three missions with the highest posts next to Washington D.C were London (published 29 posts), Canberra (published 20 posts) and Sweden (20) during March 20 up to March 24.

The results of this analysis clearly show that just because a tool for dialogue is available does not necessarily mean that dialogue will take place (Kent and Taylor, 1998, p. 324). It was found that the missions hardly use the dialogue strategy according to van Ruler's communication grid. The most prevalent strategy is the information strategy, followed by the persuasion strategies. These findings support van Ruler's argument that practitioners tend to think they are doing two-way communication, while their actual work mostly follows one-way strategies.

According to the criteria of the communication grid, 172 posts were rated as information strategy, 19 as persuasion strategy, three as consensus building and six posts were rated as dialogue from the total of 200 posts.

Figure 6: Results of the first content analysis (own, based on van Ruler, 2004)



The results of the first content analysis are: Information: 172, Persuasion: 19, Consensus Building: 3 and Dialogue: 6

The Facebook profiles that were analysed belonged to the missions in Abudhabi, Abuja, Berlin, Brasilia, Brussels, Canada, Canberra, Doha, Kuwait, London, Morocco, Moscow, New Delhi, Pretoria, Riyadh, Seoul, Sweden, Tokyo and Washington D.C.

In general, a lot of the posts were like sharing press releases in social media from different facebook pages like Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ethiopia, Ministry of Communication of Ethiopia, Ministry of Tourism, and Ethiopian Broadcasting Corporation and so on, just spreading the information the respective mission wanted to disseminate without making an effort to start a conversation with their friends/ followers.

During the period analysed Two of the missions (London 4 posts, Washington D.C one post and Sweden one post) tried to start dialogue with their friends and/or followers but only two of them got a reply. On March 24 the Ethiopian Embassy in London posted a video of the freshest coffee of Ethiopia with a question of whether they knew that Ethiopia is the birth place of coffee or not. There was one reply that exactly addressed the question raised by the mission.

Figure 7: Screenshot from Facebook profile of the Ethiopian Embassy in London.



On March 22, the employees of the Embassy of Ethiopia, London posted the photo of Walia Ibex with some explanation how this Walia Ibex is different and by asking their followers that they know this Walia Ibex is the only got indigenous to sub-Saharan Africa in particular in Ethiopian Semen Mountain. There was no reply. No one says anything on the post as well as on the question provided by the mission except one share and seven likes on the post.

Figure 8: Screenshot from Facebook profile of the Ethiopian Embassy in London.



There were very few public citizen inquiries and the few, which were there, were mostly directly related to events that were advertised or information provided by the mission. Although in a way “dialogue” took place in terms of one person asking a question and the other answering it, these exchanges were so focused on the transmission of information that they were dealt with as information strategy.

The mission in Riyadh for instance published a post advertising on the statement of Saudi Arabia that all undocumented citizens who live in Saudi Arabia to leave this county within 90 days other ways those who are found without legal document will be in prison and punished with some amount of money and will be sentenced to jail. Some of the comments

were somehow related to what was posted on the pages while other comments were somehow different to the posted content on the pages.

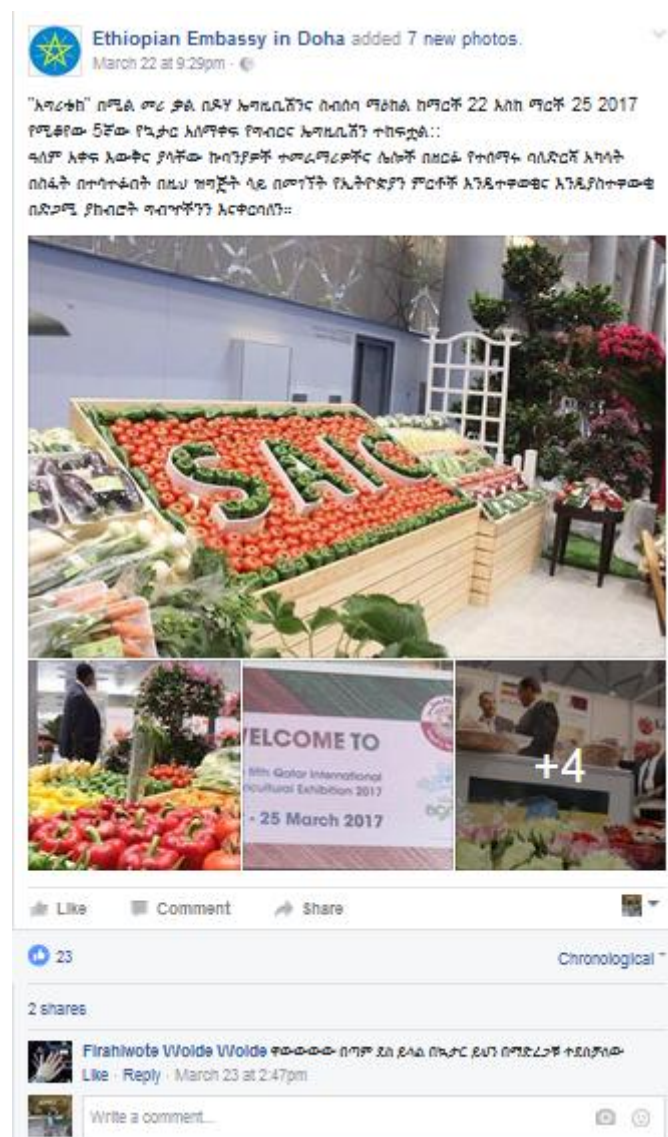
Figure 9: Screenshot from the Facebook profile of the mission in Riyadh.



There were 19 posts (published by the missions in London, Doha, Moscow, Sweden, Brussels, Canberra, New Delhi, Tokyo and Abuja) were categorized as persuasion. These dealt mostly with Ethiopian development, trade, tourism and economy like (about Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam, Tourism promotion in Ethiopia, promotion of Ethiopian Airlines, Trade Exhibition and maintaining trade etc. The persuasion strategy requires persuasive messages and a latent public (van Ruler, 2004, p. 140).

The Ethiopian mission in Doha was working hard towards the Qatar International Agriculture Exhibition in Doha which invites the well known international companies, Scientists and others and the mission invited also Ethiopians who can promote Ethiopian agriculture products in this particular event. This post was used to raise awareness about the event in Qatar and to be part of the event. This and related posts were rated as consensus building. Using the posts the mission is signalling that it is supporting economic activities in Qatar and thereby trying to build a bridge between the Ethiopian government and the Qataris and the Qatari people and Ethiopian people as well.

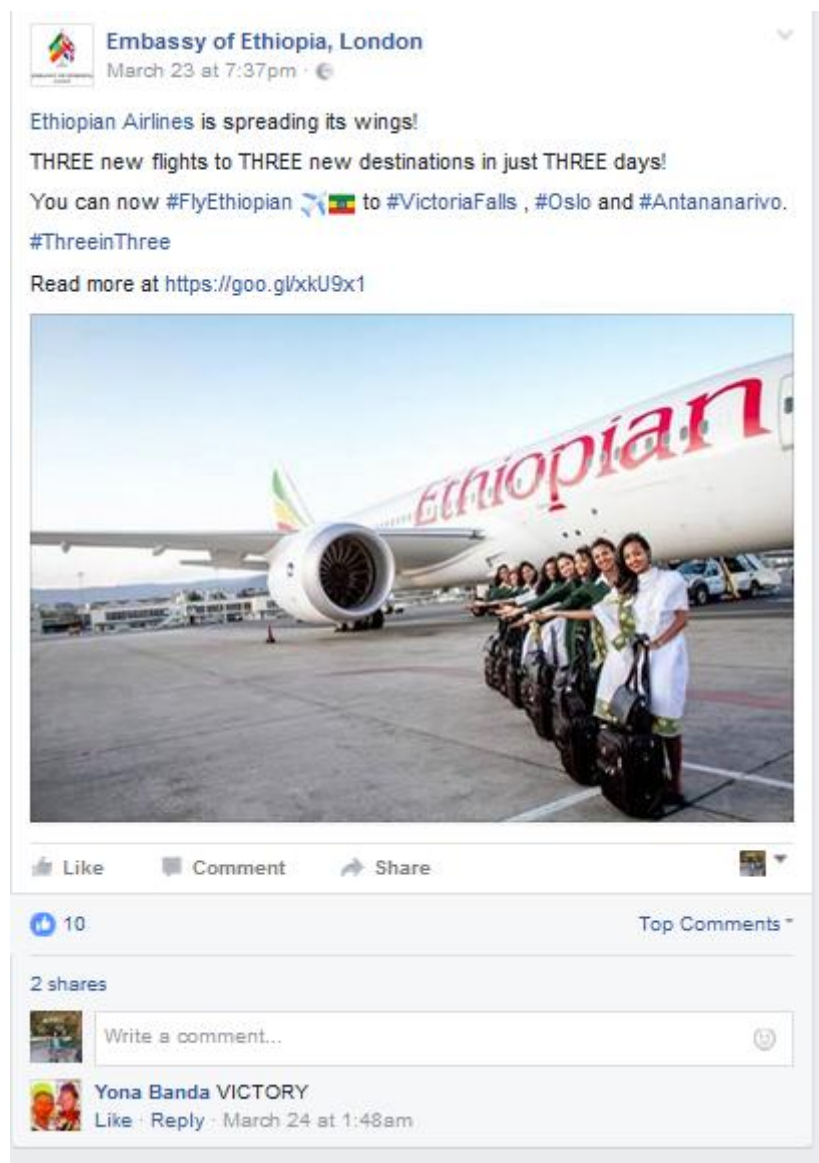
Figure 10: Screenshot from the facebook profile of the mission in Doha.



Amongst the missions selected for the first content analysis the mission in London is the one that adapted their communication best to the social media medium. The profile

seems very natural compared to most other profiles that had a more rigid and official attitude. London uses posts several times a day (as Washington D.C and Sweden do), a lot of hashtags (#), posts also about non political content like, World Poetry day, World Forest day, World water day, West minster Attack which expresses their sore sadness and uses URL(Uniform Resource Locator)-shortening services for the links that are inserted into the posts (something that is a normal thing to do nowadays but that most missions do not do even London used it once during the analysis time). The next figure shows how London of hashtags (#) and uses URL-shortening services for the links that are inserted into the posts.

Figure 11: Screenshot from the facebook profile of the mission in London.



The communication of the missions does not always in shape into the communication grid. Even the rare instances in which some form of persuasion, dialogue or consensus

building took place could have easily been placed in the information strategy, because it is so broad and all these posts did transmit some information at the same time. The communication grid cannot be taken as rigid, but needs to allow for some overlap between the different strategies.

The outcomes of the first content analysis show how that the social media communication of the missions is not dialogic or two-way. The findings are in line with van Ruler (2004, p. 136) who says that actors often believe that they are doing two-way communication when in reality they are engaging in one-way communication.

The reasons for this lack of dialogue or two way communication and relative rigidity or inflexibility of most Facebook profiles run by Ethiopian Embassy missions on the basis of the first analysis and previous literature it is possible to set up some preliminary assumptions.

The first reason might be fear of a loss of control over the information shared (G.Smith, 2010, p. 329). This might work as an unconscious censoring method that stops the workers from posting things that might be seen as serious when taken out of context or prevent them from using funny posts, irony and jokes as well, which would make the profiles more active, lively and authentic as well.

The second, the Facebook accounts created by the Ethiopian missions are part of the official communication of Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Therefore the employees of the missions might not be free to post whatever they would like to post as they do on their own private accounts, they must always be aware that they are representing their country online and there might be strict guidelines by the ministry (Yepsen, 2012). Besides to the above point, the reason could be that the people taking care of the social media accounts are mostly diplomats and not public relations practitioners, so they do not have professional knowledge about how to create good posts that create a motivation for dialogue in their social media accounts.

The third reason that might enlighten why close to no dialogue is taking place in the missions' facebook profiles is that the Facebook users might simply not be interested in participating in a dialogue with the missions. Befriending a profile or liking it takes one simple click, which is often done without real interest or consideration. Therefore, likes or the number of friends should not be taken as any kind of measure for successful online

public diplomacy (Paine, 2011, p. 80). Though the topics posted by the missions are worth discussing, the users might not want to discuss them on the public page of the mission where also users they are not friends with could see what they have to say. They might share the information posted by the mission and start a discussion with their own friends, but this could not be researched in this study, as it would go beyond the scope of this research.

4.2. Findings and analysis: content analysis two and interview

From the total of 23 missions which have facebook accounts, 16 missions published a total of 157 Facebook posts and 7 of them didn't publish anything within the period of the analysis because the social media account operators' job description is not only operating the social media and besides to the over loping of tasks, there is no regulation which force them to post, to share or re share things online (to keep their social media active) yet.

The posts were not distributed equally between the missions; seven missions did not publish any posts during the period /from March 27 up to March 31/ these missions are (Ankara, Berlin, Brasilia, Doha, Khartoum, Ottawa and Paris), while the highest number of posts was published by the mission in Washington D.C (39 posts in total). Moscow (25 posts) and Canada (16 posts) which follow Washington D.C as second and third.

The whole missions which posted during content analysis one and content analysis two were 17 in average, among the 17 missions the most active missions during this study by posting, sharing and re sharing (and some missions were also included in the interview by the suggestion of a stakeholder from the public diplomacy department of the Ministry was taken into consideration because of their activeness the whole year but which were not active during the content analysis) were selected for interview because the researcher would get more information which was relevant for this study from their rich experience using social media to implement public diplomacy.

4.2.1. The roles of the missions' social media presence in public diplomacy

(1).The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) as well as the missions abroad expect from their social media presence to create conducive environment to insure Ethiopian national interest which could be mentioned as peace, development, democracy and good governances. The major areas to insure this national interest includes economy activities at large, investment, development support and technical sport could be taken as the basics ones.

Ethiopia's digital public diplomacy efforts are centred on economic and political updates from Ethiopia as well as cultural aspects including tourism. This is reflected in nation branding theory by (Anholt, 2005, p. 187) who says that "money and effort expended in cultural relations is never wasted". According to him positive perceptions of cultural wealth can create positive associations with the nation, which can support inward investments, exports, and to a certain degree international relations (Anholt, 2005, p. 187).

According to the interview results, the main expectation towards social media use in public diplomacy perceived by the missions is:

(a). To inform the audience about major developments and others. In fact, when asked why they are using Facebook the answer from the missions included a reference to inform about major development in Ethiopia, attraction sites, and current issues. For instance the interviewee II says:

"To inform the audience about major developments, current issues and tourist attractions of Ethiopia and horn of Africa. To notify the status of their passport renewal application and call meetings and other related issues." (Interviewed, April 24, 2017).

Some missions (specially in middle east like Riyadh and Kuwait) have the comment function enabled, meaning users can comment on the posts the mission published about development, current issues, tourist attractions and other issues. The missions see this as a possibility to start a dialogue or a discussion with users and to receive feedback for their work. The interviewee I gives the textbook answer:

"Two-way communication is important in social media".
(Interviewed, April 28, 2017).

(b). Dialogue is not seen as only positive however, the missions are aware of dangers and difficulties connected to public dialogue online. As the interviewee IV reflects:

"Although we get a lot of likes and shares on our posts, we struggle when it comes to engaging or "conversing" with our audience, i.e., maintaining two-way interactions with our followers, for example, replying to comments etc. - Sometimes getting abusive

comments and replies from critics of the government's work. And deciding whether to respond or not respond to them. There are some posts where we ask people for their views and we get replies. We reply when we can and we should do this more". (Interviewed, April 20, 2017).

c). The other anticipation identified is an increased reach for the mission's messages to the main target groups of the missions who are Ethiopians living in the host country and public of the host country. Within that group the audiences are mostly young. One of the main functions of Facebook is advertising the events that the missions abroad or partners of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs organize.

The use of Facebook gives the missions access to young people who are interested to the missions as well as the ministry.

"Especially to address the majority of youth that can play political, economic and social role in the country". (Interviewee III, interviewed, April 18, 2017).

Connecting with the young people through their interest and thus developing networks is one of the major activities of public diplomacy practitioners using social media.

Supporting the finding of the first content analysis most posts were categorized as informing their facebook friends/followers. The missions are mainly informing about Ethiopia development, tourist attractions of Ethiopia and current issues. This is very much in line with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA)'s aim creating a positive image of Ethiopia.

One thing that should be noticed is, especially among the posts identified as informing, a lot of the missions had posts that were identical content wise during the period of this study. This indicated that they accessed the same sources of information. In the case of the following example the post that was shared was prepared by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ethiopia and Ethiopian Broadcasting Corporation.

Figure 12: Screenshots showing identical posts (profiles of the missions in Abuja, Brussels, Seoul, and Sweden).

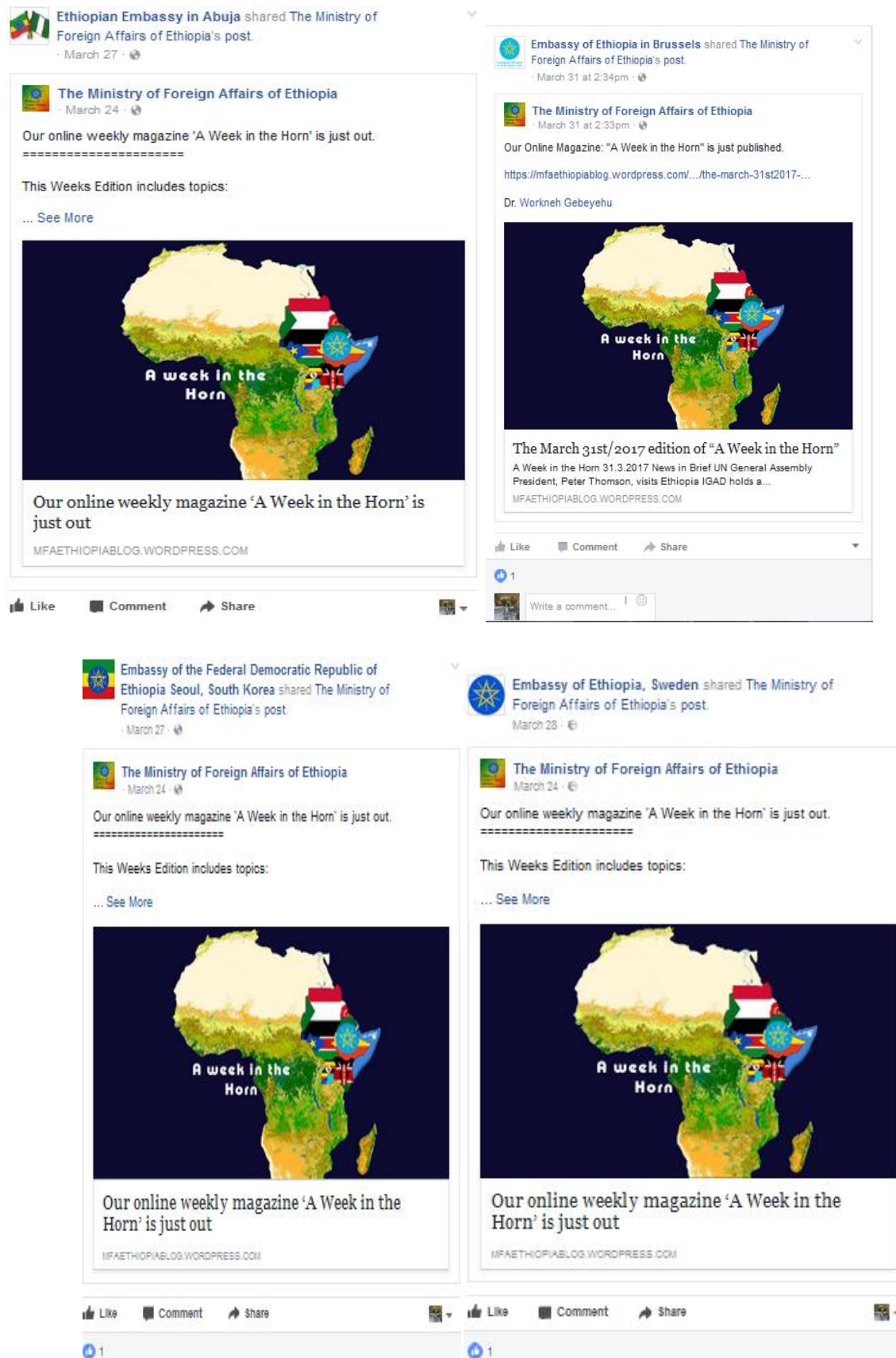
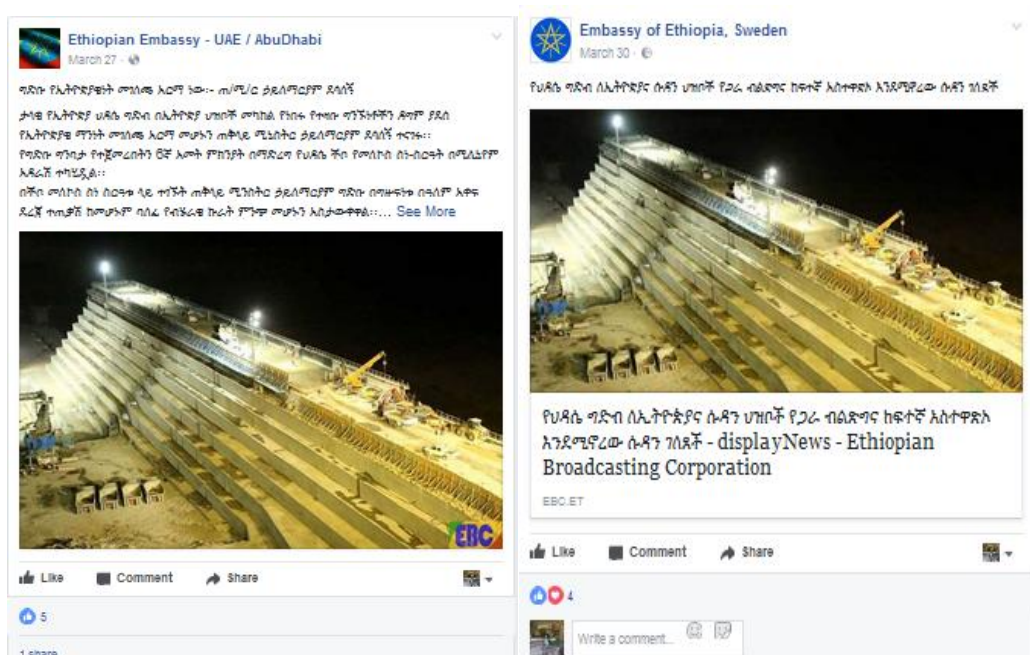


Figure 13: Screenshots showing identical posts (profiles of the missions in Abudhabi and Sweden).



(2). The second largest amount of posts was connected to the advertising of events organized by the missions or by their partners like Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ethiopian and Ethiopian Broadcasting Corporation. Here the missions are implementing two further aims of the Ministry, namely the promotion of Ethiopian development and culture. The interviewee IV reports:

“Promoting Ethiopia’s image to a new set of audience, often to people who are not aware of what is happening on the ground, as well as Ethiopians in the Diasporas who are out of touch with developments in the country. We are reaching audience we would not have reached using traditional channels other posts which are successful in terms of advertisement reach are usually ones of travel and tourism, culture and food, and sports.” (Interviewed, April 20, 2017).

An important role of the advertising function is to attract the minds of the public in the host country as well as the Diasporas in once country positive image and to participate on its activities in various ways.

Social media are seen as a cost-effective way to disseminate information. Furthermore, missions clearly understand dialogic potential of social media like the

possibility for two-way communication, receiving feedback, and the possibility to answer fast to questions but they are not able to implement this knowledge into dialogue. Some missions wish they were able to engage in more dialogue.

The main role the social media presence of the missions plays in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is a supporting one. Social media are mostly seen as a tool to increase the reach and to reach audiences that would not be reached through traditional media and channels.

“The mission use social media as a tool for e-diplomacy in public diplomacy to support our other work.” (Interviewee I, interviewed, April 28, 2017).

The missions are aware that the mere use of social media without the already established channels of communication would limit their audience considerably.

“Besides to informing, we use social media to notify the status of their passport renewal application and call meetings and other related issues”. (Interviewee VI, interviewed, April 21, 2017).

“Customers, for example visa applicants, have been able to contact us via new channels. They send enquiries via private messages / direct messages (DM), all of which get replies, thus creating a new way of dialogue”. (Interviewee V, interviewed, April 17, 2017).

In addition, they are aware that a lot of necessary information for instance about their passport renewal application processes and visa applicants as mentioned above, and when the missions close their offices for various reasons and/or they open their offices in the weekends to give special and urgent services etc cannot be made accessible through the posts on facebook. Still, the missions see the importance of social media as growing in the future.

This post was used to notify that the list of the citizens whose passports are renewed could take their passports from the mission. This would help the citizens to save their time and money to check the status of their passports, they can check on the facebook posts whether their passports are ready or not. Using the posts the mission is signalling that it is supporting the Ethiopian citizens in Kuwait.

Figure 14: Screenshot from the facebook profile of the mission in Kuwait.



The main functions of the Facebook profiles are to establish a positive image of Ethiopia and to advertise events organized by the missions or the partner organizations. The communication is aimed at the citizens of the host country but also at Ethiopians who are living or travelling in the respective country and people who are living in Ethiopia as well.

According to the mission statement of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, one of the main pillars of the public diplomacy strategy of Ethiopia is to make the young generation who is the major user of social media rather than the traditional media supportive power with authentic information about the country's overall development, in building positive image and to the overall work of the diplomacy (Unity, 2016).

Therefore, a lot of the activities and events are related to the above mentioned activities, such as posts various developments in Ethiopia, advertising tourism attraction, trade show exhibitions and information about the interesting things in Ethiopia.

It is good to know that the social media accounts of the missions are only one of the means of communication the missions use to communicate with their target publics of the mission. Most of the communication within the host country is based on events where the employees of the missions and the partner organizations meet the audience face-to-face and where direct dialogue can take place.

At the time of this study the number of missions using social media (Facebook as well as Twitter) has increased comparing to the earlier time, even if Twitter is not included in this study. This indicates that social media is playing a growing role in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

4.2.2 Opportunities and Challenges

4.2.2.1 Opportunities

One of the research questions to be addressed in this study is to find out what opportunities and challenges Ethiopian diplomatic missions face while using social media to implement public diplomacy. Here are the opportunities mentioned by Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad.

(1). The main opportunity in using social media for public diplomacy by Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad is the presence of social media as a platform to disseminate information for the target audience and the opportunity to gather information easily from different pages created by various stakeholders and organizations and in a fast way comparing to the other means. The missions have been explaining on the opportunities they get because of the availability of social media in their missions.

“It helps us to transmit information regarding the various activities in and by the embassy information on services so that the community became aware before coming for any service etc”. (Interviewee VII, Interviewed, April 26, 2017).

“Our Embassy’s presence on Face book is important; as it is a platform to exchange information with our Diasporas and with other section of the society”. (Interviewee II, interviewed, April 24, 2017).

“To inform our community members about the activities of the embassy, to give information on the service we provide, to share different news from varies sources that we think could help our community. Additionally we also convey message addressing the foreign nationals”. (Interviewee III, interviewed, April 18, 2017).

The above interviewees have explained the benefit they get from using social media in the missions to make their activities faster by disseminating information to their followers as well as to make their service easier for their customers to help them to get full information before coming to get service in their offices.

(2).The second opportunity they get while using social media to implement public diplomacy is about the reachable of various target audiences worldwide. The mission explained about this issue as follow.

“Our presence on social media and facebook in particular, has provided us a platform and an opportunity to reach out and share information to a wider audience - not only to Ethiopians living in Ethiopia, but also Ethiopians in the diasporas as well as people in other countries who have an interest in Ethiopia”. (Interviewee IV, interviewed, April 20, 2017).

It is unthinkable to reach everyone without the presence of new media which has brought this simple way to address different audiences of a certain organization or institution to achieve it desired goal/s. This is also true to the Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad having addressed its followers and/or friends all over the world to achieve their objectives by doing so. Without this technology it might be difficult to talk about the reachable of various audiences in different location at the same time.

(3). The Third opportunity which is said by the interviewees is the effectiveness of the social media in terms of cost and time to implement public diplomacy in the missions abroad.

“It is free of cost and can reach many of our targeted audience with relatively in short time when compared to other instruments that we are using. It also allows interaction with the audience and it can be distributable”. (Interviewee II, interviewed, April 24, 2017).

“It is important to disseminate information, rectify the falsified information and to get timely and up-to-date information on the issues that one concern”. (Interviewee VII, interviewed, April 26, 2017).

Social media is one of the fastest growing tools of modern public diplomacy. The number of embassies and government organisations maintaining social media accounts are on the rise. This could be the reason of its effectiveness in terms of cost and time besides some other reasons.

(4). Of course, one of the opportunities which social media can provide as a tool is to give a room to start two way communication or dialogue with the social media users/followers to maintain relationship and to engage them in missions’ activities.

“It also allows interaction with the audience and it can be distributable”. (Interviewee V, interviewed, April 17, 2017).

“It helps me to keep in touch with all the relevant stack holders who are also online. Its role in conveying whatever message is also paramount importance”. (Interviewee III, interviewed, April 18, 2017).

“We mainly use Facebook for information dissemination and maintaining ties and community building with our followers. We do this by informing our audience of our day-to-day activities and information about Ethiopia (news, trade and investment, travel and tourism, diaspora information, etc)”. (Interviewee IV, interviewed, April 20, 2017).

“Provides a space for interaction and increased engagement between the Embassy and the public and to build a strong community / loyal backers from the people we have connected with”. (VI, 2017)

As we can understand from the above explanations of the interviewees is that one of the advantages is maintaining relationship or interaction between the missions and the followers. To create this interaction or to maintain ties with their followers, dialogue is very vital to reach on the desired goals. However, the result of content analysis one and content analysis two show that the missions lack the use of two way communication using their facebook profiles, still the missions efforts are there to create dialogue with their followers.

(5). Finally, the interviewees admit that the missions' social media accounts give them the opportunity to promote their country and to attract the youth who are active user of the social media.

“Promoting Ethiopia’s image to a new set of audience, often to people who are not aware of what is happening on the ground, as well as Ethiopians in the diasporas who are out of touch with developments in the country. We are reaching audience we would not have reached using traditional channels”. (Interviewee IV, interviewed, April 20, 2017).

“Specially to address the majority of youth that can play political, economic and social role in the country .For the embassy it helps to address the diasporas community, encourage them to visit their country, informing the opportunity back home etc. (Interviewee III, interviewed, April 20, 2017).

Ethiopian diplomatic missions are using social media to promote their countries image by informing about the major developments in Ethiopia, tourism attractions which are found in Ethiopia , advertising Ethiopian’ s Airlines service etc to their target audience are observed during the content analysis two as well. In addition to this, the interviewees pronounced that addressing the youth who have major effect in one country’ the overall development is among the opportunities which they cannot deny.

4.2.2.2. Challenges

Here are some challenges mentioned by public diplomacy practitioners in Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad while implementing public diplomacy using social media (facebook in particular).

(1). As the missions mentioned, the main challenge in using social media for public diplomacy is the presence of abusive and unrelated comments and posts by some followers of Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad.

The missions are aware of the positive sides of social media communication but also see the problems that come with it as this comment by the (Interviewee II, 2017):

“We haven’t faced a big challenge yet, however few uninformed audiences post their views (far from truth) as a comment or post link (website) of opposition Medias as a comment, but these are rare”. (Interviewed, April 24, 2017).

Furthermore, the missions feel that they should give a response to the followers’ comments or messages to maintain two way communication but most of the time they get confused what to say on those abusive comments. The Interview IV says

“Although we get a lot of likes and shares on our posts, we struggle when it comes to engaging or “conversing” with our audience, i.e., maintaining two-way interactions with our followers, for example, replying to comments etc. - Sometimes getting abusive comments and replies from critics of the government’s work and deciding whether to respond or not to respond to them. There are some posts where we ask people for their views and we get replies. We reply when we can and we should do this more”. (Interviewed, April 20, 2017).

The next explanation also shows that the missions’ followers are acting illegally on the posts by the mission

“Really, we found the unnecessary comment that worth nothing for anything on the posted information, we received insult etc in our inbox etc”. (Interviewee III, Interviewed, April 18, 2017).

To strengthen the above explanations by different diplomatic missions we can look at the next picture/figure during the second content analysis as an example how unrelated and unnecessary comment was given by one the followers. This thing is observed during content analysis one as well.

Figure 15: Screenshot from the Facebook profile of the mission in Brussels



Furthermore, the Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad want to display a positive image of Ethiopia, but to engage the audience in a real discussion; controversial topics would

have to be discussed in public. However, the information about Ethiopia presented on the profiles is completely positive. As assumed earlier, the results of the interview and content analysis show that the fear of loss of control over the content published on public profiles is present in all missions. It includes the difficulty of moderating discussions and the risk of giving critical or inappropriate commentators a stage, which is why giving responses on critical and inappropriate/unnecessary comments are avoided.

(2). The other challenge the missions face is lack of sufficient time to manage the social media accounts because social media needs to be there every time if one wants to control it and be effective to get the desired goals by the missions. Being online full time is important for constant monitoring of the own facebook profile to avoid giving users who will harm the work of the missions a public stage.

“Unless checking now and then what is there on facebook a lot in a minute can be said about the work one engaged or others in relation to the interest I the practitioners are promoting or protecting .Therefore one has to be online all the time in order to avoid failing to get information .However this can’t be realistic since the work of public diplomacy is not just the online issues .so this is one of the challenge .Timing”. (Interviewee III, interviewed, April 18, 2017).

“As said earlier, maintaining social media accounts can be a full-time job as it needs daily monitoring. The constant need to always update social media platforms sometimes makes it a time-consuming task – additional help may be required on certain occasions”. (Interviewee IV, interviewed, April 20, 2017).

Important information from the social media sites should be shared to the target audiences in order to inform them and these activities require the online presence of the public diplomacy practitioners using social media not bound in a certain place or time. However, the mission could not push the employees to work during their break time (out of office hours). Therefore, as the interviewees said time is a critical challenge for them.

(3). The third challenge in the use of social media is lack or shortage of resources. While the work and the time afforded for the protection of social media is recognized most missions’ work distribution plans, many also see a lack of and need for more resources

allocated to social media work in order to keep up the present performance or to expand the work to either more engagement on social media into the online communication. The missions remarked that lack of resources limit them from doing their best.

“Lack of resources and up to date information from government institutions.” (Interviewee VI, interviewed, April 21, 2017).

“Lack of getting up to date information and statements from government institutions regarding current issues is often slow”. (Interviewee V, interviewed, April 17, 2017).

There is a constant need for attention and updates, which makes social media very time intensive tool and this needs updated information and enough resources to do so other ways there is no room to achieve the goal that the missions and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs would like to meet.

(4). lastly, the challenge in using social media is the lack of legal environment and lack of social media strategy are said to be among the challenges by the diplomatic missions abroad.

“The legal environment is one of the factors that can limit public diplomacy through face book”. (Interviewee II, interviewed, April 24, 2017).

“There is no clear social media strategy from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs”. (Interviewee IV, interviewed, April 20, 2017).

As we can see in the above statements, some of the missions have been worried that participating in social media without clear guideline and strategies is really a challenge for practitioners. In order to the missions implement public diplomacy using social media the legal frame work should be addresses in the near future. During this study, the researcher has identified that the Ministry of foreign Affairs is waiting to ratify the final draft of social media guideline and social media strategies. The researcher hopes that after the ratification of this social media guideline and strategies will minimize the above mentioned problem.

Chapter Five

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

As the researcher has stated in the first chapter, this paper sets out to investigating the role of social media tools in Ethiopia's public diplomacy.

(1) Among various social networking sites, this study focused on facebook because it was the one with better penetration in to Ethiopia and specifically in Ethiopian embassies abroad. From prior studies, it has been comprehended that facebook is becoming the platform to implement public diplomacy at various missions abroad and other related organizations. When it comes to the Ethiopian diplomatic missions in particular, facebook has become a stage to inform their friends and/or followers about different issues around the world in general and in Ethiopian in particular. In rare cases the missions tried to start dialogue with their target audiences or friends/ followers.

(2) The findings of this study have shown that social media facebook in particular does not create dialogue, it provides a platform to have a dialogue, but someone who is responsive for administrating the account/s has to be engaged in the dialogue. This includes not only the organization wanting to send out a message but also the required audience.

(3) After the researcher have analysed the role of social media (facebook in particular) in the context of the Ethiopian diplomatic missions abroad that are using it in different part of the world, generally speaking, we can conclude that it is indeed being used as a communication tool in the field of digital diplomacy, framed in the general context of public diplomacy.

(4) This study found that the role of social media in the Ethiopia public diplomacy is mainly a supporting one to provide information. The practitioners see the role of social media as growing in the future.

(5) This research is in line with van Ruler's (2004, 140) suggestions that in the practice of public relations the one-way strategies of the communication grid are used more often than the two-way strategies. Facebook is used by the Ethiopian missions mainly to provide information, which clearly follows information strategy, and Ethiopian promotion,

which is considered a persuasion strategy. Somewhat used strategy is consensus-building in the form of building bridges between the mission and the host country and its target groups.

(6) Finally, the study concludes that the social media communication of the missions is not as dialogic as they think they are doing.

5.2. Recommendations

This study focused on answering what communication strategy is primarily used by Ethiopia diplomatic missions, what role the social media presence of the missions play in the public diplomacy efforts of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) and what opportunities and challenges of the use of social media (facebook in particular) in public diplomacy in the Ethiopian context. Using the methodology convenient to answer the questions, the above findings have been originated. Based on the findings, the researcher recommends the following:

Overall strategy/ policy level

- The result of this study shows that one of the challenges for the missions and one that they identified as the reason why they cannot engage more in their social media channels is a lack of time and sufficient resource to manage and control their social media accounts in order to avoid unnecessary/unrelated comments and insults from some unethical followers/friends. Therefore, full time social media practitioners (whose job description are following this social media accounts) to implement public diplomacy are needed with sufficient time and resource (human and materials) are needed to follow up their social media accounts in order to start dialogue with potential followers and to control the unnecessary and offensive comments to the missions as well as to the ethical followers by using different strategies. One strategy to cope with offensive posts or comments could be to delete them immediately, to do this; the practitioners should have sufficient time to be online. (In the **Middle term**).
- Ethiopian public diplomacy and strategic communication must take into account demographic characteristics of different societies, and focus especially on those groups most vulnerable to extremist ideologies: like the youth and Diasporas – A top public diplomacy priority should be reaching out to young people and Diasporas who have a vital role in the development of the country. The Ministry needs to employ Internet in general social media in particular and other forms of communication to reach this audience using various strategies. (In the **Long term**).
- To implement public diplomacy in social media and to apply dialogue, the network model is important rather than the traditional model which is hierarchical because of the opportunity that the social media give us. Based on Hocking, there are two ways of consideration of public diplomacy: as a Hierarchical model and a network one. The

hierarchical model focuses on the relevance of relations at the intergovernmental level and, on the other hand, the network model highlights the significance of communicating with publics (Hocking, 2005). (In the **Short term**).

Tactical level

- The researcher would like to recommend in this study that the followers who visit the missions' facebook profiles might simply not be interested in discussion and dialogue. However, most Ethiopian diplomatic missions are also not presenting a lot of opportunities to engage with their followers/friends. Therefore, the Ministry should prepare training/s to the missions' social media practitioners in order to give them the ability to manage their profiles in presentable way, to prepare or reshape different posts which could instigate the appetite of the followers to engage in the missions' activities and dialogue. (In the **Middle term**)
- In this research, it is identified that among the challenges the missions face are lack of Social media guideline and strategies which are vital for the work of social media practitioners, should be distributed to the missions as soon as possible after these documents get ratified by concerned body (here, the researcher is aware of that the above mentioned documents are drafted and waiting for ratification and she had the opportunity to have a look on the draft documents). Besides to hand over the documents the Ministry should prepare training on how to use these documents in effective way. (In the **Short term**).
- During the content analysis, the researcher has observed that the missions' facebook accounts have no standard on the format they use, the profile picture and cover photo they use for their social media profiles, the social media 'account name, the overall design of their pages etc should have standard because having this standard could help the missions to have their own brand which could be identified easily by and this standard helps people who are interested in Ethiopian diplomatic missions to find the missions online and follow and/or like their pages. My further recommendation besides to the above point is the Ministry should think of it and include the standard of the missions' social media accounts in the Ministry's social media regulations. (In the **Middle term**)

Operational level

- The audiences of most or I could say all are local citizens or people (diasporas) which is good to use these people to implement both approaches as stated in review of literature, “Public diplomacy can also refer to domestic publics in to two ways: either as the domestic input from citizens for foreign policy formulation (engaging approach), or explaining foreign policy goals and diplomacy to domestic public (explaining approach)” doing this good, the practitioners should also work hard regarding to foreign citizens (people) in the host country besides to the local people or diasporas. The reason why we need to work hard to maximize foreign audiences of the hosting country is to achieve the goal of public diplomacy. Here is why we need to do so, in the other definition of Public diplomacy is a “term to describe the efforts by nations to win support and a favourable image among the general public of other countries, usually by way of news management and carefully planned initiatives designed to foster positive impressions (Ronit Kampf, 2015). (In the **Middle term**)
- In order to create conducive environment for dialogue communication strategy, the missions should ask more questions to the audience and concentrate on the fundamental nature of social media: participating, interacting, and sharing. In order for content to be shared online it has to be attractive or interesting enough that the followers become active to be engaged in the missions’ posts. Besides to these the following dialog theory principles by (Lane, 2010, p. 13) could be important (In the **Middle term**).
 - ✓ **Mutuality:** refers to an acknowledgment that organizations and publics are inextricably tied together. Mutuality is characterized by an “inclusion or collaborative orientation” and a “spirit of mutual equality.”
 - ✓ **Propinquity:** propinquity advocates for a type of rhetorical exchange. It is an orientation to a relationship. For organizations, dialogic propinquity means that publics are consulted in matters that influence them, and for publics, it means that they are willing and able to articulate their demands to organizations. Propinquity is created by three features of dialogic relationships: “immediacy of presence,” “temporal flow,” and “engagement.” These features of dialogue clarify the process of dialogic exchanges.
 - ✓ **Empathy:** Empathy, also called “sympathy” is characterized by “supportiveness,” a “communal orientation,” and “confirmation or

acknowledgment” of others. Empathetic communication is important because practitioners can improve their communication by “walking in the shoes” of their publics.

- ✓ **Risk:** Leitch and Neilson noted that, “genuine dialogue is a problematic concept for system/s public relations because it has the potential to produce unpredictable and dangerous outcomes.” The assumption of risk is characterized by three features in dialogic exchanges: “vulnerability,” “emergent unanticipated consequences,” and “recognition of ‘strange otherness.’”
 - ✓ **Commitment:** is the final principle of dialogue to be discussed. Commitment describes three characteristics of dialogic encounters: “genuineness” and authenticity, “commitment to the conversation,” and a “commitment to interpretation”.
- Based on the content analysis results, it is understood that the Ethiopian diplomatic missions’ facebook profiles are more formal in terms of language usage this could be because of the missions simply share or copy paste other organizations’ posts which are their source of information without making any effort to shape/reshape it to fit it to the nature of social media. In social media, it is good to use less formal (informal) language and to let the followers feel that they are talking to their real friends in real situation through the missions’ posts. In communication what matters a lot is not what you say but how you say, therefore, the missions’ social media practitioners should equally care how they say things on their social media profiles as they care what they say. (In the **Middle term**)
- Nowadays many organizations, including the Ethiopian Ministry of Foreign Affairs the missions abroad use social media as some form of instant mini press release service by sharing from different information sources. The public diplomacy practitioners using social media still have to realize that in order to have a dialogue they have to send a message that is of actual interest to their audience and that they have to find the right audience for their messages. Just because it is easier today to reach a lot of people does not mean that these people will be listening to what one has to say. In order to get attention and start a dialogue with followers and/or friends the following points from Corrine Mc Laughlin could be helpful (In the **Middle term**).
- ✓ “Build trust by creating a positive and open atmosphere;

- ✓ Clarify what constitutes consensus – unanimity (total agreement), or ‘willingness to step aside’, and not block a decision if one disagrees;
 - ✓ Surface what is hidden – allow time for each to share feelings and concerns;
 - ✓ Focus on individual and shared needs and interests –not on entrenched positions and past history;
 - ✓ Build on previous ideas –discourage tangents;
 - ✓ State differences clearly –avoid pressures to conform;
 - ✓ Ask problem solving questions, not judgmental ones;
 - ✓ Clarify perceptions –repeat statements back to the speaker;
 - ✓ Don’t presume motives –ask direct questions;
 - ✓ Avoid placating, blaming, preaching, dominantly or passively resisting –be direct;
 - ✓ Draw out quieter participants;
 - ✓ Brainstorm mutually beneficial options before final decisions are made; and
 - ✓ Acknowledge true human needs –economic security, recognition, and belonging.”
- During this study, the researcher has observed that there were more than one facebook accounts for one mission by the same account name which one over more of them is/ are not functioning. Therefore, the missions have to remove/deactivate the facebook accounts which are not functioning because this create a confusion for the followers or friends to like the missions ‘pages and this could also minimize the number of the missions’ potential followers while struggling to identify which one is the right one. The missions have to have permanent social media accounts rather than changing their accounts now and then when the employees exchange because of different reasons. (In the **Short term**).

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Appendices one

Ethiopian diplomatic missions that have facebook pages

No	Country	city	Facebook Account
1	United Arab Emirates	Abu-Dhabi	Ethiopian Embassy - UAE/Abu Dhabi
2	Nigeria	Abuja	Ethiopian Embassy in Abuja
3	Turkey	Ankara	Ethiopia Embassy Ankara, Türkiye
4	Germany	Berlin	Ethio Berlin Embassy
5	Brazil	Brasilia	Ethiopian Embassy Brasília
6	Belgium	Brussels	Embassy of Ethiopia in Brussels
7	Australia	Canberra	Embassy of Ethiopia, Canberra
8	Djibouti	Djibouti	Embassy of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Djibouti
9	Qatar	Doha	Ethiopian Embassy in Doha
10	Sudan	Khartoum	Ethiopian Embassy in Sudan-Khartoum
11	Kuwait	Kuwait City	Ethiopian Embassy – Kuwait
12	United Kingdom	London	Embassy of Ethiopia, London
13	Russia	Moscow	https://www.facebook.com/people/Ethiopian-Embassy-Moscow/100009304183089
14	India	New Delhi	Embassy of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia- New Delhi
15	Canada	Ottawa	The Embassy of Canada to Ethiopia
16	France	Paris	Ambassade d’Ethiopie France, Paris
17	South Africa	Pretoria	Ethiopian Embassy; Pretoria
18	Saudi Arabia	Riyadh	Ethiopian Embassy Riyadh Passport Department
19	South Korea	Seoul	Embassy of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Seoul, South

			Korea
20	Sweden	Stockholm	Ethiopian Embassy Sweden
21	Israel	Tel-Aviv	Embassy of Ethiopia in Israel
22	Japan	Tokyo	Embassy of Ethiopia, Tokyo
23	United States	Washington, D.C.	Embassy of Ethiopia, Washington, D.C.

Appendices two

Interview questions

Interview for the public diplomacy practitioners' staff

I am Abrehet Mehari, a Masters student of Journalism and communication at Addis Ababa University doing a research on the use of social media in Public Diplomacy: a case study of the (FDRE) Ethiopia diplomatic missions' facebook use. I appreciate your time in responding to my questions and kindly allow me to record the interview for effectiveness and efficiency.

1. Do you feel your presence on social media (facebook in particular) has helped you in your work? How?
2. Why do you use Facebook account in Ethiopian embassy abroad?
3. How do you integrate social media into your day? Is it easy or challenging to find the time?
4. What are some of the benefits and challenges experienced by having the Ethiopia Embassy facebook account?
5. What is the greatest example of successful public diplomacy that you have seen implemented using facebook in the practical setting?
6. What are the main obstacles Public diplomacy professionals/practitioners faces in actually implementing public diplomacy using facebook accounts within daily practice?
7. How important is facebook in the overall work of a public diplomacy practitioner?
8. What is the role of the mission's social media presence in public diplomacy?
9. What is /are your expectations towards social media use in public diplomacy?
10. What kind of communication strategy do you think you use (while operating the mission's facebook account)? Is it one way or dialogue/two-ways communication strategy?

THANK YOU