

Conceptualisation of Grassroots Public Diplomacy in Australia and China

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To my family,
Without whom I could not have gone all the way through.

To all my colleagues,
Without whom I could not have completed this thesis.

To all my interviewees,
Without whom my thesis would never have been this rich.

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Abstract

The term Public Diplomacy (PD) has many definitions, most of which associate it with the state. Recently civil society has been drawn into definitions of PD but is often viewed as audience rather than actor. Whether related to citizens or civil society, PD has not been adequately theorised and therefore this project develops it conceptually under the rubric of “grassroots public diplomacy” (GPD), it does so by comparing its conceptualisation and practice in Australia and China where approaches are dissimilar. The thesis establishes similarities and differences in GPD conceptualisation in the two countries by comparing the data collected by means of semi-structured interviews of experts and practitioners in this field in Australia and China respectively, as well as documentary data related to the concept. A salient characteristic of what has been called GPD here is that it will have a recognisable dialogic approach. Therefore a key question that is answered is whether a dialogic approach was adopted in the processes employed in the case that was studied – and how the dialogic approach manifested itself. The case study employed semi-structured interviews of organisers, speakers, sponsors and randomly selected participants, as well as participant observation and relevant online data. Drawing on Habermas’ communicative action theory, the sets of data were analysed using the method of qualitative content analysis. Broad findings suggest that GPD in Australia and China both consist of actors, aims, plans of action, communication acts, coordination, agreement, processes and results. There are both similarities and differences that the study has identified between the conceptualisation of CPD in the two states. The inclusion of a dialogic approach is also confirmed in the case study, in process segments identified as three interconnected phases of ‘first’, ‘following’ and ‘further’ interactions.

Statement

I hereby certify that the work included in this thesis has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other university or institution. The sources of information used and the extent to which the work of others has been utilised have been indicated in the thesis.

Ethics Committee approval has been obtained. Reference Number: 5201200665(D) and 5201200846

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

When the 9/11 event happened in 2001 it brought a dramatic change to many peoples' understanding of the world. It also changed the path of scholars doing research in the field of public diplomacy (PD). This trend continued until the academic focus shifted to “new public diplomacy” over a decade. The idea of “new public diplomacy” was raised by several scholars around 2010. It was mentioned by several scholars, for instance, in the opening part of the book *Trials of Engagement*, which was published in 2011 (A. Fisher & Lucas, 2011).

After reading so many books and articles on public diplomacy during and after the Cold War, this enlightened me, not only because it refers to something new, but also because the idea of “participants”, “network society” and so on raised my interest. It has always been my belief that consideration of the importance of people or citizens, as well as mutual understanding, is important in comprehending the international world.

As a cotutelle PhD student of universities in Australia and China, I fortunately had the chance to come to Australia in order to conduct part of my research here. This offered me the opportunity to obtain first-hand, materials, documents and other materials in both Australia and China. Due to both practical as well as contextual concerns, the idea of looking into something related to new public diplomacy in Australia and China came to mind.

Scholarship in public diplomacy in both states does not have a long history; even the expression “public diplomacy” with its modern meaning, itself was coined only in 1965. This means that the contemporary PD (public diplomacy) research of scholars worldwide in this area could be traced back to almost half a century ago. However, if related to the theme of new public diplomacy, referring to PD sometime after September 11th, 2001, the studies are few and far between. Meanwhile, for years, the majority of the works and articles are on

different perspectives of US new public diplomacy, which set research models for the future study of PD. Studies on new public diplomacy from other perspectives have come out gradually after 2010.

Some research focuses on the distinctive characteristics of new public diplomacy. Different from the traditional one, this area is discussed in the context of a new information technology era. Fisher and Lucas argue that PD is moving into “cooperation with active, autonomous participants capable of involvement in a complex global network society” (A. Fisher & Lucas, 2011, p. 1). It is largely based on the new media, including the internet social networks of Facebook, Myspace, microblogging etc., and various connection software based on mobile phone platforms, those of iPhone being the most prominent. This new public diplomacy aims to find “effective ways of working collaboratively for collective benefit within the ecosphere of the network society” (A. Fisher & Lucas, 2011, p. 2). However, the point is, as many existing collaborating organisations are performing their roles at present, for instance, NATO, EU and so on, what could be done for new public diplomacy, traditionally based on the government-to-public organism? This leads to looking at the important role it plays at the grassroots in the practical experience of new public diplomacy, which could again challenge the traditional definition of PD.

The study of grassroots public diplomacy (Payne, 2009a) caught my eye when I saw the title *Reflections on Public Diplomacy: People-to-People Communication* (Payne, 2009a). I first started thinking about what people can do in PD a few years ago, after reading *Public Diplomacy and Transcultural Communication*, in which Zhao mentioned that PD should emphasise the role of ordinary people (Q. Zhao, 2011). It shocked me at that time when the academic world around me emphasised the governments’ role in PD and was clear that people themselves could not be involved in the academic definition of PD. Nevertheless, I had strong interest in what Zhao mentioned and personally agreed with that, which was like a seed sown in my mind. The opportunity that prompted me to rethink it was that day when I read the “people-to-people” idea that Payne raises in his work. It encouraged me to do some research related to it. I then started my journey of involving people in PD in research for this thesis.

As Ali Fisher and Scott Lucas argue, it is the fact that “the public diplomacy of the 21st century will rest on these communities as ‘participants’ and potential collaborators with whom to cooperate and co-create”(A. Fisher & Lucas, 2011), the new trend of grassroots PD for the states is manifested.

Objective and research questions

This thesis is written to discover new changes in the field of PD. As mentioned above, many new changes occurred within the study field of PD, fiercely attacking the traditional definition and research of PD. The focus of this thesis will be on the grassroots actors on the international stage in PD, who have newly come into people's vision, and who were once strictly excluded by the scholars studying PD (K. Zhao, 2007, p. 16).

I started reading relevant literature, and was happy to find that several scholars have already had some ideas in this field, like Snow and Lee, although not in an in-depth way, still enlightening. They assert that organisations like NGOs, corporations, as well as other ordinary individuals have gradually come to play a certain role in PD practice (Lee, 2007; N. Snow, 2009). However, despite some articles, as well as Payne's work, very few researchers could give me a clear picture of the PD involving grassroots as actors. This situation compels me to start from the very beginning of conceptualisation in this thesis.

In this thesis, I would like to make it clear that what is to be discussed in this research is something belonging to the study field of PD. Also, involvement of grassroots as actors will be the focus. The term "grassroots public diplomacy" used by Payne (Payne, 2009a) will be adopted in this thesis, reflecting the emphasis on both the study area and the actors that participate in the research.. However, as scholars also use other expressions to refer to this kind of PD, like citizen diplomacy, people's diplomacy, etc., there will be more discussions in Chapter II to clarify the reason for choosing the term "grassroots public diplomacy" for the concept to be researched on in this thesis.

To conceptualise grassroots public diplomacy (GPD) seems to be a huge project, which is impossible to do in just one thesis. As mentioned above, the resources I have are first-hand materials in Australia and China. Therefore, I would like to narrow the research project down to the "Conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China" - being also the title of this thesis. The topic is chosen not only due to the feasibility of implementing relevant research, but also because it could facilitate comparison, in order to help gain a more in-depth understanding of GPD.

The propositions here to help look into the conceptualisation of GPD in the two states are as the following:

Proposition I: There are similar as well as different aspects between the conceptualisation of

GPD in Australia and in China, and the similar points could reflect the innate characteristics of GPD.

Proposition II: A dialogic approach exists in GPD activities, and functions in a way that helps with the process of GPD.

In order to test if Proposition I above is true or not, the following research questions are asked: what is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia? What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in China? And what are the differences and similarities between conceptualisations of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China? The first two questions would look into conceptualisation of GPD separately, while the third question was asked for a further exploration of GPD itself, as well as better understanding GPD in two different cultural contexts in a comparative way.

Australia and China are two important countries in the Asia-Pacific, and are representatives of the western and eastern worlds respectively in this region. Politically, Australia is a constitutional monarchy; it has a federal government and six state¹ governments, and a division of powers between the two; the federal government is separated into the legislature, the executive and the judiciary, which are the bicameral parliament, the federal executive council, and the high court of Australia and other federal courts (DFAT, 2008). Economically, “Australia is the fourth largest economy in the Asian region and is the 12th largest economy in the world ... Australia's economy is consistently ranked among the strongest of advanced economies in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (DFAT, 2014)”.

China is very different to Australia in relation to practically all dimensions. Politically “[t]he People’s Republic of China is a socialist state ... The National People’s Congress and the local people’s congresses at various levels are constituted through democratic elections. They are responsible to the people and subject to their supervision. All administrative, judicial and procuratorial organs of the State are created by the people’s congresses to which they are responsible and by which they are supervised. The division of functions and powers between the central and local State organs is guided by the principle of giving full scope to the initiative and enthusiasm of the local authorities under the unified leadership of the central authorities. (The State Council of PRC, 2014)” China’s economy is shaped by its large population. “With a population of 1.3 billion, China recently became the second largest economy and is increasingly playing

¹ State here refers to a sub-entity within a country.

an important and influential role in the global economy. Yet China remains a developing country (its per capita income is still a fraction of that in advanced countries) and its market reforms are incomplete. (The World Bank, 2014)”

Culturally, Australia describes itself as a multicultural society, rich in indigenous cultures and migrants’ cultures, mainly Anglo-Celtic since 1788, and later contributed by those from Asian-Pacific region, Middle East and Africa (DFAT, 2012). With one of the oldest cultures in the world, China is also a multicultural society in the sense that it has 56 different ethnic groups, and Han Chinese being the largest group so far (Colson, 2013, pp4-8); literature, music, arts, martial arts, cuisine and so on are very important components of Chinese culture.

That this study on the conceptualisation of GPD takes in two countries with such different political, economic and cultural backgrounds helps to enhance the significance of this research. What we will gain are not merely descriptions, the composition, and characteristics of GPD in two states, but furthermore, the possibility of small-scale generalisation of certain components of GPD. Similarities of conceptualisation of GPD in the two states could raise the chance of figuring out the elements of GPD, which could also be applied on a larger scale. It is then one step closer to finding out the nature of GPD. Also, the categories for classification during studying the conceptualisation of GPD, if applied in both the two different states, could possibly be applied on a larger scale. This research could also develop an approach to studying the conceptualisation of GPD, which is a meaningful attempt for later studies to test or develop.

In order to set up categories for looking into GPD and exploring the components of GPD, Habermas’ communicative action theory will be introduced (Habermas, 1984). It will help set up the categories, and research methods design, as well as discovering the core logic of GPD in both data collection and data analysis processes of the research. The methods used to help in the whole process of exploration are documentary and interview for data collection, and qualitative content analysis as well as a comparative method for data analysis.

In order to test whether Proposition II is true or not, the later research questions are asked: are dialogic approaches used in the process of the case of self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy projects? If dialogic approaches are applied, how do they function? If not, what logic is applied in this case? While the research questions above can help establish a general idea of GPD, exploration of the core logic of GPD goes one step further to understanding GPD in more depth. If the former part is an approach to study GPD with a focus on the scope, then the latter part would be an approach placing emphasis on the depth of the study. Based on the same theory, the dialogic approach will be looked into in a

case as a one further step. As mentioned above, the same theoretical base will be applied in the data collection and data analysis process. However, the content is not the same part of communicative action theory applied in research questions earlier, but dialogic approach, the very important logic involved in communicative action. The application of this theoretical base for the research questions raised in this paragraph will be helped and realised by methods of case study for data collection, and qualitative content analysis for data analysis. The complicated case study would also involve methods like interview, documentary and participant observation.

With the help of these methods, as well as the theoretical base mentioned above, the research into the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China in this thesis can be an exploratory step to understanding GPD and PD.

Thesis outline

In exploring the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China, this thesis will be constructed from eight chapters. The first chapters deal with theoretical (Chapter II) and methodological (Chapter III) issues. These are followed by chapters that focus on answering the five research questions mentioned earlier. Chapter IV displays findings for answering RQ 1 and 2 of conceptualisation of GPD in two states, and RQ 3 of finding out differences and similarities between conceptualisations of GPD in two states. RQ 3 also helps further explain RQ 1 and 2. Chapter V discusses data presented in Chapter IV for RQ 1, 2 and 3. Chapter VI addresses RQ 4 and uncovers the existence of dialogic approaches in one GPD case study, while Chapter VII further explains how dialogic approaches function in this case. Chapter VIII gives a summary of how the research questions helped achieve the original research goals, as well as of the limitations of the research and outlines prospects for future studies. Chapters other than this Introduction will be introduced below.

Chapter II provides discussions of several theories. It first explains the definition and development of inquiry into PD, as well as the recent trend of focusing on new public diplomacy. It then narrows down to simple descriptions and discussions of historical events and studies of GPD, as well as a brief introduction to dialogic approaches. Research questions 1, 2 and 3 on the conceptualisation of GPD are drawn from the GPD discussion. The theoretical framework that will be applied to the whole research includes the part of the communicative action theory used for the research, and dialogic approach derived from the same theory. RQ 4 and 5, about the existence and function of dialogic approaches, are drawn from the theoretical framework discussions.

Chapter III introduces the methodological approach and methods applied to the whole research. The traditional methodological approaches, of quantitative and qualitative, are first discussed by comparisons and contrasts for differences and similarities between the two, which help with better understanding the two approaches. The combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches is also described with characteristics, advantages and combining process. Following is an explanation of the application of a qualitative approach for RQ 1, 2 and 3, and a combined approach for case study for RQ 4 and 5. After the methodological approaches are made clear, the specific methods used are discussed. They include: a detailed explanation of methods of interview and documentary for data collection and qualitative content analysis for RQ 1 and 2; a comparative method for data analysis for RQ 3; and case study including methods of interview, documentary and participant observation for data collection, as well as qualitative content analysis for analysing data from RQ 4 and 5.

Chapter IV deals with the findings of interview and documentary data collected for RQ 1, 2 and 3. The coding rules for data and graphs are introduced here, for convenience in later quotations. The findings for RQ 1 on the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia are displayed following categories derived from both the theoretical base and the data itself. The same categories are tried to be applied for RQ 2 on the conceptualisation of GPD in China findings following, which are listed. The findings of each category are summarised by a graph. Moreover, as findings for RQ 3 on the differences and similarities of conceptualisation in Australia and China are discussions for RQ 1 and 2, the details are presented in the next chapter.²

Chapter V includes discussions and final answers for RQ 1, 2 and 3. The elements existing in every factor constituting the conceptualisation of GPD are actors of GPD, including agents and objects. It is a clue connecting all components of GPD. Therefore, discussions for RQ 1 and 2 are basically on the relationships between actors in one factor after another, following the order of findings displayed in Chapter IV. The discovery of relationships between actors in each factor, and furthermore the relationships between factors composing the conceptualisation of GPD, help explore GPD in a segmented way, and then as a whole. Discussions of each factor are summarised by a graph as in Chapter IV. Discussions for RQ 3 are mainly comparisons and contrasts following the same order, one factor after another. The detailed comparisons following subcategories occurred from the data naturally under each factor are to help understand the factors in a more in-depth way. Answers for RQ 1, 2 and 3

² Chapters IV, V, VI and VII are the longest chapters in the thesis. It was felt that the introduction of section summaries would be useful. In these chapters section summaries are differentiated from the chapter summary by the latter being identified as 'Chapter Summary'.

are based on relevant findings in Chapter IV and discussions in this chapter.

Chapter VI focuses on the first part of the case study, to find out whether dialogic approaches exist or not in a GPD case project for RQ 4. Four necessary conditions for determining the existence of dialogic approach are derived from theoretical base of “dialogic approach” in Habermas sense, which was discussed in Chapter II. Findings of interview data related to these conditions, supportive or unsupportive, are displayed in the first place, followed by participant observation data and documentary data. The findings are then discussed, one condition after another, to figure out whether there are situations meeting the conditions. After respective discussions, all the supportive situations that meet the conditions are put together. Situations that meet all the four conditions in the GPD case project will be picked out and regarded as dialogic approach situations.

Chapter VII is the second part of the case study and aims to find out how do dialogic approaches – found in Chapter VI – function, which is for RQ 5. This chapter mainly discusses the whole process of dialogic approaches occurring from data naturally, phase by phase, process by process. These phases would contain the results derived from the theoretical base of “dialogic approach”. The relations between processes in different phases are also discussed, followed by analysis of relationships between phases at the end, to generate a general map of a dialogic approach.

Chapter VIII draws the thesis to a close by revisiting the research questions. There are discussions on relationships between the answers to research questions and the original aim of the research, so as to present an overall picture. The theoretical and practical implications of this research in GPD study follows. Limitations of the study are also discussed, followed by suggestions for future research in a similar study area.

Summary

In this chapter, the objective and research questions of the thesis were introduced. The whole research project would attempt to conceptualise GPD in Australia and China. Five research questions were briefly introduced. Three questions were related to conceptualisation of GPD in the two states, while the other two were about dialogic approach that may apply in a GPD case study. The outline of the thesis consisting of altogether eight chapters was then introduced. The next chapter, Chapter Two, will include reviews of relevant literatures of PD, GPD and communicative action theory, providing the basis for refinements of research questions and development of field research questions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this thesis, the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy will be explored, within the study area of public diplomacy. Therefore, literature related to public diplomacy will be reviewed first to give background information on the specific area of GPD. And then literature on GPD will be reviewed, narrowing down the research range to that which will be studied in the thesis. As research will be done to find out the core logic in the process of GPD practice, literature on the possible key logic will be reviewed as well.

Although belonging to the field of public diplomacy, GPD is different from government-to-government, diplomat-to-diplomat, or government-to-people diplomacy. Hence, the one aspect left, according to Manheim's description (Manheim, 1994a), is people-to-people diplomacy, which is exactly the concern of this thesis.

The literature to be reviewed includes books, articles and other documents from available databases in Australia and China. Books and some documents are found mainly from the Library of Macquarie University, Library of Congress online and the National Library of China. Meanwhile, articles available include peer-reviewed journal articles and some conference papers in the database of Academic Search Premier, Communication and Mass Media Complete, Factiva, APA-FT – Australian Public Affairs–Full Text, and CNKI – Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure.

Literature review

The literature review will be in three parts: public diplomacy, grassroots public diplomacy and theoretical framework. The last part will be the base for the whole thesis.

Public diplomacy

Definition of public diplomacy

The definition of PD by scholars usually consists of five parts: agents of public diplomacy, target objects³, objectives, what public diplomacy is, and the communication acts used (Cull, 2006; Gilboa, 2002; Tuch, 1990).

Different scholars have different definitions of the agents of PD, following various theories. For those who define the agents by government relevance, the agents can include government (Tuch, 1990), and non-government agents (especially NGOs) (Brown, 2003; Cheney, 1987; Henrikson, 2006), who are becoming increasingly important. Some scholars divide agents of PD into state and non-state agents (Gilboa, 1998). Here, non-state actors (Christopher Ross, 2003) not only refer to those within a state, but also those cross-state entities. Many scholars see the private sector (Cheney, 1987; Henrikson, 2006; Sigismondi, 2009) as gaining increasing importance as well. Moreover, some of the newly emerged agents scholars mention in PD are foreign citizens (Epstein, 2007; Christopher Ross, 2003), or the public (Castells, 2010; Manheim, 1994a). As civil society is playing a role that cannot be underestimated in the PD field, the representatives of which are named non-government agents, would be included in the definition. They refer to intergovernmental entities, those from the private sector, NGOs as mentioned, and other organisations and individuals (Raboy, 2010, pp. 60-61). In short, in this thesis, the agents of PD include government and non-government agents.

The “object” in the definition of PD seems obvious, as the term “public diplomacy” indicates the object being the “public”, whereas scholars choose various expressions to describe similar or different objects. Many scholars use foreign public (Gilboa, 2002; James Pamment, 2009; Seo, 2009; Tuch, 1990; Wang, 2007) to describe objects. Meanwhile, some scholars use people related descriptions, for instance, people (Manheim, 1994a), foreign peoples (quoted in Gilboa, 1998), people of another nation or country (Dutta-Bergman, 2006; Fortner, 1994), people of other countries (chairmen, 1964), people around the world (Djerejian, 2007). These expressions differ in referring to people of one state, or of various states, or in the world as a

³ In this thesis the terms object and target are used interchangeably to refer to the person or persons to whom public diplomacy communications are directed.

whole. Other descriptions of the objects are citizens of other states than one's own (Malone, 1988), foreign subjects (Sun, 2008), individuals and organizations overseas (Lord Carter of Coles, 2005, p72), etc. When the modern meaning of public diplomacy was coined, the objects of PD were those who can "influence public attitudes on the formation and execution of foreign policies", including those of the influential and the public. The focal point here is the influential (Public Diplomacy Alumni Association; Cull, 2006). Later, many scholars emphasise the important role the elite plays (Gilboa, 2002), until recent times when the era of new information technology brings civil society onto the stage, the public becomes increasingly important as well. As the elite is still influential, and the "power shift" (Mathews, 1997) to the public does exist, hence, the objects of public diplomacy here include foreign elites and public.

According to the literature, the objectives of public diplomacy can be divided into direct and indirect ones. Direct objectives refer mainly to the impact on the target objects, described by the expressions of influencing, informing, or affecting the public or elite's attitudes and opinions (Cull, 2006; Mannheim, 1994a; R.F.Delaney, 1968), or "to understand, inform, engage and influence global audiences (American Academy of Diplomacy & Henry L. Stimson Center, 2008)", or "engaging in two-way interactions with foreign publics and thus understanding, informing, and influencing them (Seo, 2009)". The latter two descriptions add "understanding" of the PD agents, which suggests a new direction in PD research, with emphasis on "two-way interaction". The indirect one mainly relates to letting the public of target state understand and favour the foreign policy and image of the practising state (Frederick, 1993; Malone, 1985; R.F.Delaney, 1968; Signitzer & Coombs, 1992). For instance, the direct objectives of PD include "longer term cultivation of favorability toward the practising country among foreign publics (Gilboa, 2002)", to "create support for foreign policies and to generate better cultural understanding (Jian Wang, 2004)", or to "promote national interests and national image (Seo, 2009)". Nonetheless, while favourability is possible, there is a question of understanding. If the target objects are not experts on the practising states' culture, politics, etc., then it is more difficult for those objects that live in a different cultural context to understand the practicing state. Therefore, a better objective here is to reach certain a common understanding (Wang, 2006). To sum up, combining direct and indirect objectives, the objectives for PD in this thesis are: to understand, inform, and influence the foreign public's attitudes and opinions so as to help them have common understanding with and appreciation towards the practising state.

When describing what public diplomacy is, three approaches are followed in descriptions:

process related, communication related and a kind of action. In some literature, it is regarded not only as an informing and involving process, but also an influential process (The United States Advisory Commission on Public Diplomacy, 2005).. Meanwhile, other scholars regard it as daily communication (Sun, 2008), expressing what beliefs and traditions a state values (Wang, 2006). There are statements combining these two aspects of process and communication, like a process of communicating (Tuch, 1990), or a cross-border communicating process with two phases (Payne, 2009b). Other descriptions include an effort (Dutta-Bergman, 2006; Manheim, 1994a), or an activity (L'Etang, 2009). While activities and efforts could be more suitable for describing a concrete action of PD, process, which could refer to the whole course of PD, is more proper for the concept. At the same time, communication is also necessarily needed in PD. Thus, the process of communicating is used here to describe what PD is.

When it comes to the communication acts used in PD, similar expressions are found. The communication acts include a plethora of activities, ranging from media programs to cultural, educational and informational programs (Dutta-Bergman, 2006; Epstein, 2007; Frederick, 1993; Gilboa, 2002). With NGOs' participation, as well as the increasing prominence of interactions of and new technologies for communication, the ways used have shifted from the traditional ones like TV and radio. Considering these new developments, the communication acts of PD in this thesis are a plethora of high-tech based interactive activities, using media, cultural, educational, and informational and other programs.

To sum up, the definition of public diplomacy based in this thesis is the process of communication led by government and non-government actors to understand, inform, and influence the foreign public's attitudes and opinions to help the latter increase their appreciation of the practising state, and help both sides reach common understanding, through a plethora of interactive activities based on media and cultural, educational informational and other programs.

Public diplomacy study

The time when PD appeared on the centre stage was during the Cold War period. The modern term "public diplomacy" was first coined in 1965 by Edmund Gullion (Cull, 2006). After that, a series of lectures were given at Tufts University on PD, including public opinion research, group dynamics, etc. (Manheim, 1994b, p. 134). During this period, despite a good beginning, there were three main approaches to PD study, which were government practices, public relations, and strategic public diplomacy.

Government practices refer to the focus of many scholars on governmental programs and policy-making in PD studies. In the late 1970s, the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO) published several reports, discussing the importance of PD in the U.S. and other countries, and suggesting improvements to PD in the U.S. (United States Congress, House Committee on International Relations, Subcommittee on International Operations, 1977; United States General Accounting Office., 1979). While the GAO was dealing with the general importance of PD in the U.S., Merritt pointed out the need for governments to use the power of information, to serve foreign policies (Merritt, 1980, p. 9). And this point was later developed and extended by Manheim and Albritton, with discussion on the effectiveness and limitations of several campaigns, while moving the focus onto that of image change of a country (Manheim, 1994b, p. 135). Later on, Fisher suggested that the USIA should actively participate in foreign-policy making process in a systematic way (G. Fisher, 1987, pp. 131-144), which may have put too much emphasis on the contribution of PD to policy-making. But it is still constructive in the way that the practical and systematic involvement in the foreign-policy making process would bring PD study to a higher level.

Public relations is another approach to PD study. Davis emphasises the significance of public relations utilised by Nigeria to help its PD strategy in the U.S., Britain and other countries, in the way of not only framing image among foreign audiences, but also policy influence in the foreign country (Davis, 1977, pp. 1-2). Although this is the view obtained from a case study, which may not be generalised to all, the point of the importance of public relations in building image is valuable when considering the effective practice of PD.

There is another approach to study, which started at the end of this period and further developed later on, which is strategic PD. In 1988, Manheim began to focus on the strategic aspect of PD when discussing the decision-making of foreign policies, participated in by many officials in the U.S., both from the U.S. and other countries, who were working on behalf of foreign interests (as cited in Manheim, 1994b). Choate's study on Japanese government and corporations' influence on U.S. economy and politics provides a further exploration into this approach (Choate, 1990). It was later again developed by Manheim in his book of *Strategic Public Diplomacy and American Foreign Policy* (Manheim, 1994a), which gives an overview of strategic PD. This is a special approach, which devotes a contribution to the study of PD from a very different perspective, and is later further discussed when the study of PD again becomes the academic focus.

The time when PD comes back into the focus of the academic field is after September 11, 2001, when the “war on terrorism” began, and the “win people’s heart and minds” campaign, led by the U.S. and U.K, made PD strategically important. During this period, the impact of which lasts until the present, there are four main approaches to PD study: the propaganda and public diplomacy discussion, the continuous study of strategic public diplomacy, public relations, and new public diplomacy – which is a more recent trend.

The discussion of the relationship between propaganda and public diplomacy, which is mentioned here in this post-9/11 era, doesn’t necessarily mean that this discussion didn’t happen during the Cold War. Actually, when scholars mention that public diplomacy “is” propaganda, several of them refer to those that happened during and after the Cold War era. For instance, Smyth mentions it as “the cold war propaganda strategies...”(P. Smyth, 2001). Manheim gives a supportive description that those who used to do propaganda activities during wartime, like VOA participated in the Cold War PD, which means that PD is only a label change from propaganda (Manheim, 1994b, p. 133) . And among those who regard PD the same way as propaganda later in the post 9/11 period, some put propaganda directly into the title, such as “The Propaganda War in the Arab World”(Hachten & Scotton, 2007, p. 176), discussing the Al Hurra, Radio Sawa and Karen Hughes’ approach, which is also described as PD in many articles. There are other scholars put this in a more informative way, as Snow says, “ we didn’t call what we did then propaganda...our euphemism was public diplomacy” when mentioning her work in USIA during 1992 to 1994, which gives an information background for such description (Snow, 2004, p. 17). While there are scholars who believe that PD is actually propaganda, there are other scholars going the other way around. Thussu states in one article about the difference between the two when discussing China’s communication model as moving from “one-way propaganda” to “a mixed way of...two-way communication”, which shows his understanding of public diplomacy as being different from propaganda in terms at least of its communication mode (Thussu, 2002). Zaharna entitles her article *From Propaganda to Public Diplomacy in the Information Age*, which clearly shows her understanding of the difference between propaganda and public diplomacy. However, she still admits that there is not much difference between the two at present (when the article was written), and hopefully it will be different as it should be in the future (Zaharna, 2004, p. 219). Castells claims that “Public diplomacy is not propaganda”, and emphasises that it is better to replace government with the “public” being the actor in new public diplomacy (Castells, 2008). This emphasis, which is a good point, is actually mentioned by many scholars when discussing something called “new public diplomacy”, which will be discussed below. There is not really anything absolutely right or wrong when

discussing the differences between PD and propaganda. While some of the scholars view the two concepts as almost the same, others pay more attention to the elements of “two-way communication”, “the public”, etc. in PD, which are gradually becoming the mainstream and emphasis in both the academic field and practice.

PD is related to public relations in some ways, as discussed by several scholars after September 11, 2001. Zaharna’s argument of “strategic stakeholder engagement” provides a special view, based on the communication theory and that of public relations. Not only is the term “stakeholder” adopted directly from public relations, but there are also several other concepts involved in the discussion, which are corporate social responsibility (CSR), multi-stakeholder partnerships (MSP), etc. (Zaharna, 2011, pp. 206-207). Both the importance of, and challenges, to the engagement of stakeholders provide a good exploration across the two study disciplines. Although PD and public relations differ in many ways, from the aims to the results, the combination of the two fields in methods and some theories does give a different perspective to the study of PD. A good example is mentioned by Coombs and Holladay, that of “public diplomacy providing a global arena for issues management and reputation management”, which are two areas regarded as “specialties in public relations” (Coombs & Holladay, 2007, p. 105). These are valuable suggestions that could be adopted from the mature practising of public relations to public diplomacy.

Recent research and focus of the thesis

More recently, many scholars have moved onto the discussion of “new public diplomacy” (P. M. Seib, 2009). New public diplomacy is regarded as having several “new” characteristics, which will hopefully be applied to practice in the near future. Firstly, it focuses on collaborative working (A. L. Fisher, Scott., 2011, p. 2), which treats the audience as “participants” instead of merely “passive objects” (Chitty, 2011; A. L. Fisher, Scott., 2011, p. 1). This “new” characteristic is actually similar to some discussions in communication studies, when scholars mention the disadvantage of a “magic bullet” theory⁴ as exaggerating the influence of media on audiences, and the advantage of “Uses-and-Gratifications”⁵

⁴ “Magic bullet” theory is one of the early theories in mass communication studies. It is also sometimes expressed as “hypodermic needle theory”. The theory emphasis on the huge influence of the media, and describes the “average” people as being defenseless against the media influence. The mark event occurred on the eve of Halloween 1938, when the dramatized version of the H.G. Wells science fiction classic, *The War of the Worlds*, was broadcast on CBS radio network, leading to 1 million people’s panic correspondingly. However, the study on the same event more 50 years later shows a different result, as the researchers noticed that the other 5 million people who also heard the radio drama did not action in panic. More mass communication theories see Baran & Davis, *Mass Communication Theory: Foundations, Ferment, and Future* (4th edition).

⁵ Uses-and-Gratifications theory studies the media users’ needs as well as their possible gratifications obtained from using media (Fourie, 2001). Different from the previous research, this theory provided a new audience

focussing more on active use of media instead of passive uses, that is, focusing more on the audience's choice or participation (Baran & Davis, 2006). No matter "new" or not, focusing on collaborative work in PD is a positive change, which gives more emphasis to equal opportunity for agents and audiences in PD to participate in the whole process. And this is an essential characteristic in a successful communication process and PD. Secondly, the tide of new media brings the study of PD into a new era. Several scholars mention the latest changes that Web 2.0 brings to the field. Among them, interactive dialogue is one of the most important changes it brings to the PD process (see Seo, 2009; Nancy Snow, 2009; Zhong & Lu, 2013). Thirdly, another "new" characteristic is the involvement of ordinary people in the PD process, either as a "diplomats" (Mueller, 2009, p. 101) or audience, as discussed by many scholars these days. Although this was already mentioned, decades ago, by scholars like Ronfeldt and Arquilla that NGOs, groups, individuals, etc. could be included in PD practices (Ronfeldt & Arquilla, 1999), this is really an important factor worth re-emphasising in the present study of PD. The new characteristics mentioned above usually follow the literal expression of 'the new public diplomacy should be ... instead of ...', which represents the expectations of the scholars. Although these characteristics are still not well-applied in present PD practices, the discussions are very important as they provide guidance for PD practices, both at present and in the near future. Meanwhile, there are many more case studies needed for both testing and improvement of theoretical studies through practice, although there have been some case studies done on new public diplomacy. In this thesis, such a case study will be included as a contribution to this research area.

Among the researchers into the new public diplomacy approach, there are scholars focusing on new media, or governmental public diplomacy, citizen diplomacy, etc. It is the focus on the participation of ordinary people that aroused my interest. Actually, it is not the first time I have thought carefully about ordinary people's efforts in PD. As mentioned in Chapter I, I first started thinking about the idea of what ordinary people can do in PD some years ago, when I was reading Zhao's book of *Public Diplomacy and Transcultural Communication* (Q. Zhao, 2011). In his book, Zhao mentioned that public diplomacy should emphasise the ability of people. As that was the time when scholars around me were still regarding governments' role in PD as the focus of PD study, "people" were not perceived as actors in the academic definition of PD. Nevertheless, I had strong interest in what Zhao mentioned and personally agreed with that, but having no chance to talk about it until I start doing research for this thesis.

perspective to study the effect of mass media instead of only focusing on media itself. To know more about the revivals of interest in the uses-and-gratifications approach, and the later development of this theory, see Baran & Davis, *Mass Communication Theory: Foundations, Ferment, and Future* (4th edition), p268-275.

After reading many books and articles on public diplomacy, as mentioned in the paragraphs above, I decided to delve into the field of people's participation in public diplomacy. Before starting, there is one thing that should be discussed first, which is: what should I call the research? While Payne mentions the term grassroots diplomacy (Payne, 2009b), there are other descriptions like citizen diplomacy (Mueller, 2009), people-to-people diplomacy (Turpeau, 1960), or people's diplomacy (Sobocinska, 2010). While the different meanings of the key words of these expressions could lead directly to different directions in the study, I'll first discuss the definitions of "grassroots", "citizen" and "people". Middlemiss and Parrish regard "grassroots" as "people with limited power, limited resources and limited ability to influence others" when discussing grassroots initiatives (Middlemiss & Parrish, 2010). Meanwhile, some Chinese scholars explain "grassroots" as "ordinary members of the public" (Zhang & Zhang, 2011). According to the description above, "grassroots" could refer to the fundamental level of a society, that is, the ordinary people of a society. The other meaning of "citizen" refers to "ties with a political community" (Ballin, 2014, p. 6), or "people of the country" (Chung, 2010, p. 165). A citizen is either a native of a country or someone who has migrated to a country and formally been accepted as a permanent member of the country with all the rights associated with that membership. Citizens may be categorized as ordinary members of the public and those with some kind of state role or affiliation. The ordinary members are ordinary citizens. In Mueller's description, it is the "ordinary citizens" who participate in "citizen diplomacy", which is defined in her article as "unofficial ambassadors participating in exchange programs" (Mueller, 2009). This description actually narrows the meaning of "citizen diplomacy" down to a similar, but still somewhat different, meaning of that which will be discussed in this thesis. "People" could refer to "a community of citizens united by the social contract" in a political sense (Canivez, 2004, p. 3); it could refer to nation in a historical and cultural sense (Canivez, 2004, p. 6); it could also refer to "the lower classes, the large majority of peasants and artisans" in a social sense (Canivez, 2004, p. 10). As it is these ordinary people who are majority groups of lower classes in a country that will be the focused subjects of the study, "grassroots" seems more suitable to use in this thesis. On one hand, "citizen" refers to a wider group of people other than the lower classes, while on the other hand, "people" contains even broader meaning including "citizen", "grassroots" and "nation". As a result, "grassroots" will be used in this thesis to avoid ambiguity of the expression.

Moreover, some scholars simply use the term “diplomacy” instead of “public diplomacy”, like “citizen diplomacy”; however, “public diplomacy” is relevant to, but not the same as, “diplomacy” (Christopher Ross, 2002). When studying communication and diplomacy, Gilboa defines “diplomacy” as:

“a communication system through which representatives of states and international or global actors, including elected and appointed officials, express and defend their interests, state their grievances, and issue threats and ultimatums. It is a channel of contact for clarifying positions, probing for information, and convincing states and other actors to support one’s position. (Gilboa, 2000, p276)”

Also, Yang regards “diplomacy” as the process followed when “any sovereign state is the subject in dealing with inter-state⁶ relations and international affairs through peaceful means” (Yang, 2005, p4). For those studying public diplomacy, some scholars take “public diplomacy” as “a diplomatic form from a state government to the foreign public ...” (Tang & Wang, 2003), while some regard it as “the public, interactive dimension of diplomacy which is not only global in nature, but also involves a multitude of actors and networks (USC Center on Public Diplomacy, 2014)”. Concerning the definitions mentioned above, “public diplomacy” seems to be a specific type of diplomacy with different subjects, objects, and unique characteristics. To specify the field of research of this study, “public diplomacy” will be chosen, indicating that this will be a sub- study of PD, not a broad sense of diplomacy.

Consequently, “grassroots public diplomacy” (GPD) will be used in the thesis, based on the studies of PD, providing a further exploration of PD at the grassroots level. The following section will start with the definition of “grassroots public diplomacy”. However, the beginning of the journey is not as smooth as I supposed it would be; the following discussions will show this part of the journey.

Grassroots public diplomacy

Definition of grassroots public diplomacy

Although not many scholars mention the definition of GPD, there are some relative descriptions given by scholars who study similar or related fields. The definition covers factors including the subjects, objects, channels, activities and so on. However, as not all the factors are clearly studied in this newly emerged research area, a well-informed definition is

⁶ “State” here and throughout the thesis refers to a country like Australia or China, not a sub-entity like a territory within a country, unless specified.

hard to provide. Therefore, the discussions here are trying to give a general idea of what has been studied by scholars so far.

Recently, some PD scholars began to highlight the study of GPD, and give some description of what that is. Payne regards GPD as a process of people-to-people communication (Payne, 2009a, 2009b), which provides a basic description of the process.

What does the “people” refer to? Different scholars have various descriptions. Lee calls it “the emergence of previously invisible publics, such as multinational corporations, transnational NGOs, and even individual citizens, in the world diplomatic scene” (Lee, 2007, p. 3). Meanwhile, Snow takes it to mean “business and corporation” (N. Snow, 2009, p. 228), instead of multinational corporations being players in the private sector in the process of GPD mentioned by Lee. A report on PD mentions the participants of “private corporations, universities, non-profits, foundations and private citizens” (The United States Advisory Commission on Public Diplomacy, 2005), who play an important role in the practice of GPD. There are many different kinds of people playing significant roles in this way or that in the process of GPD, all of whom are not easy to include. Based on the descriptions above, “people” here refers to people in private corporations, NGOs, universities, foundations and private citizens, etc., who play a role in GPD.

Although there are some definitions mentioned by the scholars, they are far less than enough to provide a clear view of what GPD really is. As the concept itself is the basis of further study in this area, there is a question ought to be answered in the first place. The question is: what is the conceptualisation of GPD? Due to the wide range this question covers, it is not easy to answer it in a thesis. Practically, the question to be answered in this thesis will be “what is the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China”. As mentioned in Chapter I, a proposition is raised accordingly:

Proposition I: There are similar as well as different aspects between the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and in China, and the similar points could reflect the innate characteristics of GPD.

I will try to answer the following three questions as part of my exploration in this area, to test whether Proposition I is true or not. And these also become my first three research questions of the thesis.

RQ1: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia?

RQ2: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in China?

RQ3: What are the differences and similarities between conceptualisations of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China?

According to the research questions, what is needed to be found out is the conceptualisation of GPD. So as to answer the questions, in-depth interviews will be adopted for data collection, together with document-gathering. Based on the questions, the informants needed should be those who are either experts or practitioners in this or a related field. As the relative field of GPD is a little broad, the idea of four sectors of society will be introduced here for a clearer classification for the study. Chitty mentions in an article that, within the ambit of the expanded public diplomacy, there are four sectors, which are the government sector, referring to foreign policy governance; the private sector, including private business; the public sector, of civil society and non-government organisations – all of which could contribute to foreign policy discourse, depending on the nature of governance in a society; and the media sector (Chitty, 2011, p. 262). Hence, in this research, the informants for the interview will be selected from each of the four sectors. Detailed methodology and methods will be discussed later, in Chapter III.

Historical events and studies

Although discussion on GPD has been part of the new public diplomacy trend recently, its core content of people-to-people communication between countries could date back to 1945, even earlier than when the term “public diplomacy” was coined.

Events

In September 1945, a bill calling for the use of proceeds from the sales of surplus war property was introduced by J. William Fulbright, Arkansas senator, to fund the “promotion of international goodwill through the exchange of students in the fields of education, culture and science.” Later in 1946, the Fulbright Act was signed into law. In the same year, the Fulbright Program was established under the Fulbright Act, as an international educational exchange program sponsored by the U.S. government, for increasing mutual understanding between the people of U.S. and other countries (ECA, 2014). This PD program is still in practice and is having major influence.

In 1956, the President’s people-to-people program was launched as part of U.S. Information Agency by U.S. President Dwight D. Eisenhower, who believed in “mutual respect between

individuals”, emphasising “personal diplomacy and nongovernmental contacts between people” (People to People International, 2012).

Later on, many contacts between groups of people like travelling artists, cultural exchanges, etc. were mentioned by Stohl as a result of the Helsinki agreements in 1975 during the cold war (Stohl, Stohl, & Stohl, 2010).

From the very early stage of PD practice, people were engaged, not only those in foreign countries, but also those from practising countries. However, not until the recent studies of PD, have scholars gradually moved their focus from the dominant actor being government to people’s increasing involvement in its practice.

Studies

In his book of *Strategic Public Diplomacy* published in 1994, Manheim includes people-to-people and government-to-people contacts in the dimension of PD, which involves people in the practice of PD in his studies (Manheim, 1994a, p. 3).

At the end of the first decade of the 21st century, several articles were published, shining a light on GPD. Payne draws the academic focus onto the grassroots level of public diplomacy (Payne, 2009b), placing an emphasis on people-to-people communication (see Payne, 2009a; Nancy Snow, 2009). Ordeix-Rigo and Duarte call for a true “support from the publics”, which is associated with GPD (Ordeix-Rigo & Duarte, 2009).

New media, including the internet, social networks and mobile phones, etc., which gradually become part of people’s lives, is a very important factor that leads to people’s increased direct participation in PD. Alhabash argues in his article that the online social networking gives the public the chance to be involved in the interactive communication of PD (Alhabash, 2009). Snow also mentions the power of Web 2.0, which engages the global public in PD (Nancy Snow, 2009).

Dialogic approach

There is a unique approach in GPD, mentioned by several scholars, in this way or that, as an important feature for relevant studies dialogic approach. In the case study of the online public diplomacy forum, Cafe USA, which was created by U.S. Embassy in Seoul, involving people’s participation from two countries, Seo mentions that new technology like the internet engages government or nongovernmental actors of PD in two-way dialogue with foreign

members of public (Seo, 2009). On this point, Sevin, Kimball and Khalil also conclude that the type of interaction the individuals have on social media are a “dialogue instead of a monologue”, which is part of the grassroots movement (Sevin, Kimball, & Khalil, 2011, p. 807). Both scholars use “dialogue” to refer to the feature of GPD, especially when new media, like social media, are involved. Some scholars use an academic term to describe this feature, which is “dialogic” (Chitty, 2011, p. 251; Izadi, 2009, p. 42). This feature actually not only belongs to new media, but could also be applied to the whole GPD process. A further discussion will follow in the later theoretical discussion in this chapter.

Theoretical frameworks

Communicative action theory

It is Habermas who built up a base for the theory of Communicative Action with four types. The concept of communicative action itself is one type, and a very important part of the theory (Habermas, 1972)⁷. This part of the theory is a description of the kind of interaction that leads to consensus, which fits the trend in PD quite well, and may lead to a clearer view of what GPD is out to achieve. At the same time, there are scholars using communicative action theory as their main or single theoretical base in their PD study (Dutta-Bergman, 2006; Sevin et al., 2011; Youmans, 2009). In this thesis, communicative action will be the theoretical base for the later research and discussion. Following are discussions on the historical development of this part of the theory and how to apply it in the thesis.

Communicative action

In his book on knowledge and human interest, when describing autonomy and responsibility, Habermas argues that “the human interest in autonomy and responsibility is not mere fancy, for it can be apprehended *a priori*” due to language, as “our first sentence expresses the intention of universal and unconstrained consensus” (Habermas, 1972, p. 314). Bubner criticises this *a priori* statement by arguing that autonomous responsibility and knowledge are directly connected, while knowledge is regarded by Bubner as a very important factor of reason (Bubner, 1982, pp. 47-49). That is, Bubner regards autonomy and responsibility not as *a priori*, but being connected with reason.

Habermas responds to the critics, saying that “Bubner would like to see the relation to

⁷ Habermas distinguishes four forms of action, namely: 1. teleological action; 2. norm-regulated Action; 3. dramaturgical action; and 4. communicative action (Mitrović, 1999, p. 219). See <http://facta.junis.ni.ac.rs/pas/pas99spec/pas99s-08.pdf> for more details.

reason...I do not think it makes sense to speak at all of the rationality of knowledge; we should rather reserve the predicate 'rational' for the use of knowledge in linguistic utterances and in actions ..."(Habermas, 1982, p. 234). He continues to explain how to use knowledge rationally in speech and actions, which is what he calls communicative action:

"I use the term communicative action for that form of social interaction in which the plans of action of different actors are coordinated through an exchange of communicative acts, that is, through a use of language (or of corresponding extra-verbal expressions) orientated towards reaching understanding. To the extent that communication serves mutual understanding (and not merely mutual influencing), it can take on the role in interaction of a mechanism for co-coordinating action, and thus make possible communicative action" (Habermas, 1982, p. 234).

Habermas also points out that there is an interaction, which differs from communicative action. He argues that:

"Communication and purposive activity are two equally fundamental elements of social interactions. The interactions fall into two classes, depending on the mechanism for co-ordinating action: communicative action and strategic action. In the one case co-ordination takes place by way of building consensus, in the other case by way of complementing interest situations. In the former case communication in language has to serve as the medium for co-ordinating action; in the latter it can do so. To the extent that strategic interactions are linguistically mediated, language serves as a means of influencing" (Habermas, 1982, p. 237).

Here, the important point is that communicative action is not purposive, but the "model of action oriented toward reaching understanding"(Habermas, Lenhardt, NicholSEN, & MacCarthy, 1990, p. 134).

In his book of *The Theory of Communicative Action*, Habermas developed the concept of communicative action:

"It refers to the interaction of at least two subjects capable of speech and action who establish interpersonal relations (whether by verbal or by extra-verbal means). The actors seek to reach an understanding about the action

situation and their plans of action in order to coordinate their actions by way of agreement.” (Habermas, 1984, p. 86).

Compare with the former statement on communicative action, there are three obvious changes in the description here. Firstly, from “different actors” to “at least two subjects ...” This change to the expression of subject gives more importance to the intersubjective relationships between the actors; meanwhile the confine of “subjects” gives a clear definition of the subject differing from the object. Secondly, from “reaching understanding” to “reach an understanding about ...” Here Habermas adjusts the simple expression to the detailed description of “understanding” in order to make the meaning clearer. Thirdly, “by way of agreement” is added. This is a prominent change as it further explains how to coordinate the subjects’ actions, which is a necessary step before communicative action is taken.

Later in the book, *Moral Consciousness and Communicative Action*, Habermas develops this concept a little further to:

“I speak of communicative action when actors are prepared to harmonise their plans of action through internal means, committing themselves to pursuing their goal only on the condition of an agreement – one that already exists or one to be negotiated – about definitions of the situation and prospective outcomes” (Habermas et al., 1990, p. 134).

Although this depiction is essentially based on the former definition in *The Theory of Communicative Action*, there have still been some changes made. Firstly, “prepared to harmonise their plans of action” is used to mean reaching understanding, while delimiting the actors. Secondly, a detailed description of agreement is given after being raised in the former definition, placing emphasis on this essential condition before communicative action could be taken and what the agreement is about.

Based on the descriptions and discussions above, I want to draw attention to the essential factors conveyed in all the defining and adjustment made by Habermas on the concept of communicative action. Factor one: the subjects have their own characteristics. According to Habermas, communicative action happens between subjects who establish interpersonal relations verbally or extra-verbally, and who have the ability to speak and act. Factor two: the orientation is towards reaching understanding. There are two parts to this meaning. Firstly, the orientation is not to a purpose to which the strategic action orients, but to reaching understanding; secondly, the understanding is a mutual understanding of the action situation

and the subjects' plans of action being achieved through internal means. Factor three: the condition of agreement. Agreement is a necessary condition, either pre-existing or to be negotiated before communicative actions take place, which could describe the circumstance and future results. Factor four: coordination of actions. After having an initial agreement, the subjects then coordinate their action plans accordingly, as part of the interaction, gradually linking all the actors' actions. Finally communicative action is made possible.

These factors of communicative action will be the basic perspectives taken in this thesis to perceive the process of GPD. Thus, the concept of GPD will be discovered following this theoretical basis, which will be further developed in a later part of the thesis.

Dialogic approach

Although Habermas regards autonomy and responsibility as *a priori*, he still believes that there's condition for this priori to be developed, which is:

"Only in an emancipated society, whose members' autonomy and responsibility had been realised, would communication have developed into the non-authoritarian and universally practised dialogue from which both our models of reciprocally constituted ego identity and our idea of true consensus are always implicitly derived. To this extent the truth of statements is based on anticipating the realisation of the good life." (Habermas, 1972, pp. 314-315).

Here Habermas emphasises the advanced form of communication, which is "non-authoritarian and universally practiced dialogue", an important form of communicative action.

While criticising and trying to prove that knowledge and autonomous responsibility are closely connected, Bubner expresses his understanding of dialogue that dialogue is a primordial form of communication, as:

"... every linguistic utterance receives its actual meaning in the to and fro of dialogue, every sentence reaffirms the idea of autonomous responsibility from all participants, speakers and listeners ... Dialogue, as the true realisation of the linguistic ability of human beings, represents the concretion of the partners' mutual recognition of each other as subjects with equal rights." (Bubner, 1982, pp. 47-49)

Bubner also points out that not every dialogue is the "expression of an unforced consensus",

and emphasises that a free society should come first (Bubner, 1982, pp. 47-49). Nonetheless, in his description, Bubner proposes that dialogue could lead to “mutual recognition”, which is a re-emphasis of what the communicative action should achieve in the first place - mutual understanding – being regarded by Habermas.

Dialogue itself means “forms of communication marked by qualities such as authenticity, openness to different views, and engagement in collaborative process, the outcome of which cannot be known in advance” (Weigand, 2008, p. 56). However, Habermas views dialogue a little differently. Amir-Moazami regards Habermas’s ideal of dialogue as “a consensus-oriented rational discourse of equal citizens in non-hegemonic structures” (Amir-Moazami, 2011). This is the kind of dialogue included in the process of communicative action, while underlying the form of dialogue is an important approach – dialogic approach. Literarily, dialogic means “the inter-animation of real voices where there is no necessary ‘overcoming’ or ‘synthesis’”(Wegerif, 2007, p. 36), or “the interactive multiplicity immanent within the dialogue” (Beigl, Flachbart, & Weibel, 2005, p. 148). Based on the expressions and communicative action theory mentioned above, dialogic approach in this thesis refers to the approach that Habermas’ dialogue contains, which is an approach that happens in a non-purposive and non-authoritarian communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act, establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal means, and may finally reach mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction, or the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity or true consensus. This is a very important approach in communicative action, and will be the core idea when trying to explore communicative action-based GPD.

Based on previous discussions on the dialogic approach mentioned by several scholars when studying PD, and the discussions above, this approach will be an important factor to be studied in this thesis.

In order to answer the research questions of what the conceptualisation of GPD is, a deeper exploration is to be taken, so as to give a more precise explanation of this concept. As mentioned in Chapter I, another proposition is:

Proposition II: A dialogic approach exists in GPD activities, and functions in a way that helps with the process of GPD.

The question related as to whether dialogic approaches exist in the process of GPD is raised here. As it is more fitting to discover the application of this approach in the practice of GPD, a

case study will be adopted in the thesis. The following questions are raised as research questions for the thesis:

RQ4: Are dialogic approaches applied in the process of the case of self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy projects?

RQ5: If dialogic approaches are applied, how do they function? If not, what logic is applied in this case?

It will be discussed in Chapter III how these questions will be answered, and what methods will be adopted.

Summary

In this chapter, I reviewed literature on the study of PD, GPD, and theoretical frameworks of communicative action theory. In the current study trend of PD, several new characteristics of new public diplomacy have been identified. Among them, the grassroots level study attracted my attention. The review of GPD study was then followed, including definitions, research review and the dialogic approach. It is from the review of the definition of GPD that the first three research questions are derived. Other research questions occurred in the following review of theoretical framework for this thesis. The dialogic approach, developed from a communicative action theory, together with the same approach reviewed in the GPD section, led to research questions four and five. So far, all the research questions for the thesis have been raised, while the literature review has given me a map of what has already been studied by scholars in the PD field, and what is the emergent thinking. Based on these, I discovered my research interest and delved into the studies done by scholars in the GPD area. As the basic concept is under-theorised in the literature, I have decided to narrow my research down to the conceptualisation of GPD. Moreover, the questions raised later are what I will follow in the whole process of the research in the thesis. The following content of the thesis will all be based on these questions, and the next chapter will give details of how the questions will be answered; that is, the methodology and methods that will be used for answering the questions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Introduction

After the literature review of both related fields and theories that will be applied in this thesis, what will be discussed in this chapter are methodology and methods.

There are basically three broad methodological approaches in academic research: one being quantitative, another being qualitative and a third being a combination of the first and second. The characteristics of these approaches will be introduced first, followed by the differences and similarities, and finally, the approach that will be adopted in this thesis will be discussed.

After defining the methodology, the next part of this chapter will discuss the methods used for research. This part will be tri-segmented to correspond to the research questions. Methods for similar questions RQ 1 and 2 will form the first section, followed by the second section based on RQ 3, and the final section based on RQ 4 and 5. In each section, the content will include data collection and data analysis. In section one, the data collection methods include interview and documentary; and the data analysis method will be qualitative content analysis. In section two, as data for RQ 3 forms discussions for RQ 1 and 2, therefore, no specific method is used for data collection; while, a comparative method will be used for data analysis. In section three, case study will be the method for data collection, which includes interview, documentary and participant observation, while qualitative content analysis will again be the data analysis method. All methodology and methods used for answering research questions are summarised in the Table 3-1 below.

All the tables inserted in this chapter will be named after the rules of “Table”, followed by “3” for Chapter number, plus a dash “-”, and ordinal number. For instance, the first table in this chapter will be named “Table 3-1”.

Table 3-1 Relationship between research questions, methodology and methods			
Research questions	Methodology	Methods	
		Data collection method	Data analysis method
RQ 1 and RQ 2	Qualitative	1. Interview 2. Documentary	Qualitative content analysis
RQ 3	Qualitative	N/A	Comparative method
RQ 4 and RQ 5	Combination of qualitative and quantitative	Case study: 1. Interview 2. Documentary 3. Participant observation	Qualitative content analysis
<i>N/A = not applicable</i>			

All the details will be introduced one-by-one below.

Methodological approach

Quantitative and qualitative approaches

There are basically two dominant methodological approaches in social science and the humanities: Quantitative and qualitative. A third new approach is the combination of both quantitative and qualitative. Before elaborating on this approach, I will first introduce the two classic ones.

As quantitative and qualitative approaches are regarded as opposite in several ways by many scholars, an effective way to understand the two approaches is to compare and contrast them. Therefore, in the following paragraphs, differences and similarities between these two approaches will be discussed in order to gain a clearer view of them.

Differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches

As quantitative and qualitative approaches are two distinctive approaches to social research, there are several prominent differences between the two. The main differences lie in their epistemological positions, treatment of data, data collection and data analysis. The following discussions will cover these areas one by one.

Firstly, the differences lie in the epistemological positions.

The characteristics of quantitative and qualitative approaches are influenced by the epistemological positions to some extent.

Epistemologically, the quantitative approach is often regarded as being influenced by the natural science model of research, the concerns of which include causality, measurability and generalisability (Bryman, 1992, p. 59). Meanwhile, qualitative research has been influenced by an epistemological position, in such theoretical strands as phenomenology and symbolic interactionism, which prescribes uncovering of individual perspectives, elucidation of context and being sensitive to process. (Bryman, Bresnen, Beardsworth, & Keil, 1988). As these are two different ways of perceiving the world, each has its up and down sides, the adoption of either quantitative or qualitative approach in one's research should be based on the awareness each one's own epistemological limitations and strengths.

Secondly, differences relate to data treatment.

There are at least three differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches in treating data.

1. Variables and concepts

When it comes to data, the very important factor is the variable.

Quantitative researchers usually look at a specified set of variables. They first link variables together to frame hypotheses before the data is collected, isolating and defining variables and variable categories; finally they test the variables using the data collected in the research (Brannen, 1992, p. 4).

In contrast, qualitative researchers usually start from an unspecified set of general concepts (Brannen, 1992, p. 4). These concepts, between which the qualitative researchers would search for the pattern of inter-relationships, could have changed during the process (Brannen, 1992, p. 4). Those personality variables such as attitudes, feelings, and emotions variables, are usually included in qualitative procedures but are excluded in quantitative approach (G.R. Taylor, 2010, p. 159).

However, as qualitative approaches may be inductive (*a posteriori*) or deductive (*a priori*) - which will be discussed later in the methods part of this chapter – it really depends on the research aim and research questions whether a researcher chooses the quantitative or qualitative, inductive or deductive path in data treatment.

2. Parts and whole

Another issue involving the two approaches when treating data is that of context.

Quantitative researchers prefer studying phenomena by dividing the variables into parts, examining and analysing them, in order to find the interrelationships among the variables. Meanwhile Taylor points out that qualitative researchers prefer to take phenomena as a whole, incorporating context, rather than considering event and context separately (G.R. Taylor, 2010, p. 160). Although the order of inquiry differs between qualitative and quantitative, the two approaches in the end look at both the parts and the whole. In the quantitative approach, it first looks at parts and then examines their relationships; while in the qualitative approach, one first looks at the whole and then examines the parts. In this sense, the part-and-whole difference in the way of treating data is consequential in both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

3. Objectivity, reliability and generalisability

A third issue is objectivity, reliability and generalisability when treating data.

As a rule, the quantitative approach is regarded by quantitative scholars as objective and reliable, allowing for generalisation across a large population (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, & Watson, 2010, p. 159). This approach is supposed to give objective descriptions of phenomena, which is said to be controlled through specific treatments (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010, p. 160). Usually, the objective measurements are taken through instrumentations to avoid having contact with the subjects, etc., in order to prevent personal values and philosophies from influencing the process (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010, p. 159). Although this process cannot ensure total objectivity, compared with the qualitative approach described below, it does provide a more objective result. If this is what a researcher needs when doing the study, then this factor should be taken into consideration.

On the contrary, qualitative methods are subjective. Some scholars regard this kind of methods as to help generate rich, detailed and valid data. (Steckler, McLeroy, Goodman, Bird, & McCormick, 1992). It is supposed that understanding of individuals can be developed in their natural environment where objectivity cannot be applied (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010, p. 159). Different from the quantitative approach, human judgment is used in coding, rating interventions and

observations during the qualitative approach (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010). Direct contact with the subjects or direct participation is encouraged as they are regarded as value-laden in the qualitative approach (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010). However, it does not mean that the researchers adopting a qualitative approach do not have to pay attention to generalisation. Actually, it is better for one's qualitative research to possibly be generalised on a small scale (as will be mentioned in the methods section later), which may add more value to this research.

Thirdly, differences lie in data collection.

When it comes to data collection, the two approaches are considered to follow several very different methods, which lead to some of their unique characteristics.

As Bryman puts it, quantitative research is highly related to “social survey techniques, like structured interviewing and self-administered questionnaires, experiments, structured observation, content analysis, the analysis of official statistics and the like” (Bryman, 1992, pp. 58,59). The instruments in the quantitative approach are pre-determined and finely-tuned. Therefore, less flexibility and imaginative input are allowed therein (Brannen, 1992, pp. 4,5).

Qualitative research is typically associated with “participant observation, semi-structured and unstructured interviewing, focus groups, the qualitative examination of texts, and various language-based techniques like conversation and discourse analysis” (Bryman, 1992, pp. 58,59). When undertaking data collection, qualitative researchers use themselves as the instrument, applying their own values to both the assumptions and data (Brannen, 1992, pp. 4,5). This approach will usually be adopted when “the research issue is less clear-cut and the questions to respondents are likely to result in complex, discursive replies” (Brannen, 1992, pp. 4,5).

Nonetheless, these methods are not exclusive to one approach or the other. This means, in quantitative research, that the researcher may adopt some methods usually associated with the qualitative approach, and vice versa. It is really the research aims and questions rather than method that should drive the approach.

Fourth, differences related to data analysis.

As mentioned above, the ways that the data are treated or collected are somewhat different. Therefore, the data generated from research are different, and lead to a different type of data analysis process.

The quantitative approach depends on numerical data for different statistical procedures of data analysis, while the findings are usually based on existing laws and principles (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010, p. 159). The aim is to produce accurate results.

In contrast, the qualitative approach yields verbal descriptions largely derived from interviews and observational notes, which are analysed for themes and patterns (Borg, Gall, & Gall, 1993, p. 199). The researchers will form valuable judgments only after all data analysis is completed. Although the findings may be replicated, they may not be applicable in a large scale (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010, p. 159).

Still, the different analytical styles apply to most but not all cases. The quantitative approach can also be used for analysing content (texts), while the qualitative approach can also lead to findings that confirm existing laws – if a deductive path is followed.

On the whole, the quantitative approach conceptualises reality by describing the phenomena through the study of variables and relationships between them (Punch, 2005, pp. 237-238), in an objective and valid way, via statistical, mathematical or computational techniques (Given, 2008). The researchers isolate and examine the interrelationships between variables in a controlled setting (George R. Taylor, Williams, & James, 2010, p. 52), in order to understand the phenomena. During this process, the researchers try to ensure objectivity by avoiding personal contact with subjects, in order not to let their personal biases influence the analysis and interpretation of the data (George R. Taylor, Williams, et al., 2010, p. 52). The quantitative researchers try to generalise the findings in a larger scale.

The qualitative approach aims at achieving an in-depth and holistic understanding of the complexity of social life (Punch, 2005, p. 238) through an interpretive and naturalistic path – the latter being where natural (rather than laboratory) settings are applied and one seeks understanding of the meaning of the phenomena (Trumbull & Watson, 2010, p. 62). During this process, the researchers attempt to get closer to what is studied (Punch, 2005, p. 238), in the way of examining the full context and interacting with participants, also collecting a variety of empirical data from cases, personal experiences, interviews, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts (Trumbull & Watson, 2010, p. 62). This is a process of discovery of the phenomena, which is usually guided by broad research questions based on some theoretical framework (Trumbull & Watson, 2010, p. 62).

The differences mentioned above are for an easier and more suitable choice, considering the advantage or uniqueness of one approach, not to constrain the researcher when conducting a

study.

Similarities of quantitative and qualitative research

In addition to the differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches mentioned above, there are similarities.

Firstly, similarities occur in all procedures on the whole.

There are similarities when the two approaches start to define problems. Quantitative approaches usually start with hypotheses, while qualitative approaches with questions and may include ‘soft hypotheses’ or propositions⁸. The two approaches are similar considering the elements of the process, including developing methods, procedures and analysis of data, as well as using theory (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010, p. 159). When considering the purpose, using a quantitative approach may be useful for generating hypotheses and theory, although it is often used for theory testing; while a qualitative approach could be in the same situation – allowing the testing of soft-hypotheses and theories (Punch, 2005, p. 235).

Secondly, the two approaches treat data similarly in some ways as well.

There is not such a stark choice between precise or imprecise data when researchers are trying to practise either approach. The reason is that the preciseness of the data depends more on “the nature of what we are trying to describe, on the accuracy of our descriptions, on our purposes, and on the resources available to us”(Hammersley, 1992, p. 41). Although there is a dominant difference between the two approaches of researchers’ attitude towards data as objective or subjective, what matters in the end is not the attitude, but the data itself which is valuable for the research practice (Hammersley, 1992, pp. 45-46). Besides the preciseness and attitude, both types of data can not only be productive for descriptive, reconnoitering, exploratory, inductive, and opening up purpose, but also for explanatory, confirmatory, and hypothesis-testing purposes (M. B. Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 42). Although the former are usually for qualitative, while the latter usually for quantitative approaches, there are situations when the two approaches could be used differently. It is finally the data itself that counts.

Thirdly, similarities exist in the phase of data collection.

Although the instruments and variables that researchers consider are different when adopting

⁸ Quantitative scholars associate hypotheses with statistically-oriented quantitative methods. The terms soft-hypothesis and propositions, applied to qualitative approaches, here recognise this distinction.

quantitative or qualitative approaches, in terms of instrument standardisation and variable numbers, what is similar is that in both approaches, data are classified and synthesised based on themes and categories (George R. Taylor, Trumbull, et al., 2010, p. 164). Although it is a fact that there are differences in settings, either created by the researcher or naturally occurring, in different approaches, the natural settings cannot automatically guarantee ecological validity any more than the research in created settings (Hammersley, 1992, pp. 43-45). In both approaches, it is the ecological validity not the different setting itself that is the key factor to be considered.

Fourthly, similarities appear in the procedure of data analysis.

In the past, it was the case that researchers used computers and various software to analyse data under a quantitative approach, but not in a qualitative one. However, as the technology is advancing day-by-day, this is not really the case anymore. For instance, software like Nvivo is well designed for the analysis of textual data collected under the qualitative approach.

Summary

To sum up, quantitative and qualitative approaches have several differences, while sharing some similarities. While they have their different epistemological positions, which affect their characteristics a lot, they still share similarities throughout the procedures of a research. Although they diverge in the way of treating data and in the process of data collection and data analysis, the two approaches continue to have common features. Importantly, it is the research itself, including research aims and questions that counts, rather than the methodology. Again, it is better to choose methodology to suit the research rather than research to suit the methodology.

As a result, besides those differences discussed, the similarities mentioned above provide the basis for generating hybrid forms of quantitative and qualitative methods.

Combination of quantitative and qualitative research

As both quantitative and qualitative approaches to social research have their own strengths and weaknesses, it is helpful to combine the two approaches, to capitalise on the strengths and compensate for the weaknesses (Punch, 2005, p. 240).

Characteristics of the combination approach

Even though this approach is called the “combination of quantitative and qualitative

approaches”, it still has its own unique synergistically produced characteristics. One characteristic is that the researchers do not always plan to integrate approaches. When one approach is not effective for what researchers want to find out, then another approach can be adopted, which may additionally help increase the scope, depth and power of the research (Punch, 2005, p. 238). Another characteristic is that research questions and the methods are better matched to each other (Punch, 2005, p. 236). It is still the case even when questions emerge later in the process of the research. This means, the match rule should always be taken into consideration; either the researchers ask what data is needed after the questions are clear, or researchers adopt one approach first, waiting for the questions to appear, and follow a more flexible choice of approaches.

Advantage of the combination approach

Besides paying attention to the characteristics mentioned above when adopting this approach, there are several possible merits that the researchers may take advantage of.

First, focus on the structure and process of social life. According to Bryman, the ‘structural’ feature of social life is usually the emphasis of a quantitative approach, while ‘processual’ respect is what a qualitative approach is good at (Bryman, 1992, p. 60). Therefore, when combining them, it is possible to cover the structure and process of social life. In this way, a comprehensive impression of the theme studied in one research study could be shown, avoiding one-sided discussion to some extent.

Second, bringing together the researcher and participants. While the quantitative approach is good at conveying researchers’ perspective, the qualitative approach pays more attention to participants’ perspectives (Bryman, 1992, p. 60). It is in some sense a contradiction, as the researchers are trying to be objective when using quantitative approach, and being subjective when adopting a qualitative approach. However, combining the two approaches when necessary could possibly help convey both researchers’ and participants’ points of view.

Third, facilitating generalisation. As discussed above, the qualitative approach may not allow much generalisation of findings, while its combination with the quantitative approach may facilitate this (Bryman, 1992, p. 61).

Fourth, broadening the depth of research. As the quantitative approach can allow the establishment of relationships among variables, it is preferable to integrate the qualitative approach into the stage of discovering the factors underlying those relationships (Bryman,

1992, p. 61). In this way, the combination overcomes the fundamental weakness of the quantitative approach, while widening the effective scope of the qualitative one.

Fifth, complementing each other. While the quantitative approach can provide a macro map of social life with “large-scale and structural features”, the qualitative approach reveals “small-scale and behavioural aspects” at a micro level (Bryman, 1992, p. 61). Therefore, the combination of these two will help give an overall map of social life.

As a result, all the advantages that a combination approach could provide help solve many problems which may occur when a single approach is used. However, as it is the case that every research has its strengths and limitations, it is good to have academic variety in any research field. It is not compulsory to use the combination approach when any limitation occurs. Nonetheless, it is only used when the researchers find it helpful or when one’s research requires it.

Combining approach

As discussed above, there are advantages to take, and points to pay attention to, in the process of applying the combination methodological approach. What is discussed next is how this process takes place. It is not simply using this approach first and that approach next. It is better to use the combination in a logical and effective way, in order to answer the research questions properly.

First, triangulation (Bryman, 1992, pp. 59-60) is a good logic to follow. When a certain part of a research, either data collection or results analysis, needs confirmation to better validate the study, both approaches may be used separately.

Second, the two approaches can also be conjoined in different degrees of combination. Creswell describes this technique as having three modes: two-phase design, in which the two approaches are quite separate; dominant/less-dominant design, in which either approach could be the main methodology; mixed-methodology design that mix both approaches in all the stages of a research (Creswell, 1994, p. 177). While these three modes provide a clear rule for the combination process, what determines the combination eventually is still the necessity determined by the research itself, either the questions, aims, or even the availability and other factors for the researcher.

Third, another way to combine the two approaches is by considering the data, methods or findings. Punch believes that different combinations of these factors will lead to different

results (Punch, 2005, p. 241). There are times when neither quantitative nor qualitative data alone is sufficiently persuasive in supporting a point. There are also situations when a method usually associated with a quantitative approach is very helpful in mainly qualitative research. Therefore, as long as it helps, the combination can be applied anywhere it is needed.

After discussion of the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches, together with these two approaches respectively, choice of the methodological approach for this thesis will be discussed.

Methodology in thesis

Methodology applied

When it comes to what methodology to apply in one's research, Punch provides a checklist of questions for the decision-making process. The questions are (Punch, 2005, pp. 239-240):

1. Back to the research questions and figure out what approach will match the questions?
2. Following the first question, what processes are involved?
3. Back to the literature review, what approach does it usually use on this topic?
4. What practical consideration needs attention?
5. Will we learn more about this topic using a qualitative or a quantitative approach?
6. What style is preferred?

These questions Punch raises are valuable in providing guidance to select the methodology, especially the several key factors that need attention. However, there is no need to follow the questions one by one as every researcher has his/her own logic and methods in dealing with the research subject, with which he/she is more familiar.

In this research, the key factors mentioned above will help form the methodological approach, which are research questions, the process of the approach, literature, practical considerations, knowledge payoff and style (Punch, 2005, pp. 239-240). I will follow these key factors, together with all the research questions and other information developed in the literature review of my thesis, to find out the most suitable methodology.

There are five research questions already developed for this whole thesis project. Based on the relationships between them, the questions can basically be grouped into three sections for discussion below. That is, the methodological approach will differ from section to section.

Methodology in Section I

Section I of this research contains the first two research questions (RQ), which are:

RQ1: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia?

RQ2: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in China?

Although the concept of “grassroots public diplomacy” (GPD) has been discussed briefly in the literature review, there is not yet a clear and complete conceptualisation, so these RQs are raised for a further development in the first and basic part of the research.

In this section, the methodological approach taken will be a qualitative one. The reasons for choosing this approach are as following. Firstly, what is asked in the two RQs is the conceptualisation of the term “grassroots public diplomacy”. Therefore, what is to be answered is proposed to be an “in-depth and holistic understanding” of the concept, which is where the qualitative approach is usually applied, as mentioned above. Secondly, moving to the process of the approach, the methods proposed to be used, which will be discussed in detail later, are interview, documentary and qualitative content analysis. As these are all typical qualitative methods, the methodological approach on which these are based will be qualitative as well. Thirdly, as this study will set out to investigate, describe and analyse the emerging concept of GPD, it would be advantageous to obtain several in-depth interviews and documents discussing the concept, rather than to get hundreds of “agree/do not agree” responses to my propositions through the administration of a questionnaire, to samples from the four identified social sectors. A qualitative approach is therefore more appropriate for this part of the research, and will be adopted to answer the first two research questions.

Use of a qualitative approach admits into the research the subjective judgment of the researcher and the in-depth participation of the interviewees, yielding rich and detailed data. All the qualitative methods described above could be used to yield rich data for two RQs and facilitate with an in-depth understanding. However, what may not be assured is the validity of the data and large scale generalisation of the findings. An audit trail, which will be adopted to address the validity problem, requires that an auditor be involved in category setting-up procedure, to review and examine definitions of each category to ensure better accuracy of predetermined categories (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1283). Although it is not the intent of qualitative researchers to generalise their findings to a large scale, limited generalisation is still applicable to the findings – in this case the categories derived from the process of data analysis (Creswell, 1994, p. 158).

As a qualitative approach has been selected, what comes next is how to apply this approach in detail. This section will be divided into data collection and data analysis. Interviews and documentaries will be used for data collection. In the first place, semi-structured interviews will follow prepared questions that are informed by communicative action theory (Habermas, 1984). These questions will be developed in the methods section. The semi-structured format will allow unpredicted but valuable data to emerge during the process. What follows next is the data collected from documents, which not only provide rich information for the research, but also serves in triangulation by being a second independent source of data. Later on, all the data collected will be analysed through a qualitative content analysis. During this process there will be deductive and inductive stages. In the deductive phase, the categories developed from communicative action theory will be applied. This will be followed by the inductive phase where the data that remains, after the deductive elements have been winnowed, will be examined for new categories.

Methodology in Section II

In Section II, there is one research question:

RQ3: What are the differences and similarities between the conceptualisations of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China?

The methodological approach taken for answering this question will be qualitative as well. The reasons for taking this approach are as the following.

Firstly, according to the research question, what are to be discovered are the differences and similarities in the conceptualisation of GPD in different countries. The question leads directly to one of the most apt methods for answering, which is comparative method. The data to be analysed will consist of discussions for RQ1 and RQ2. This means that all data used for this part is text only and later analysed using a comparative method in a deductive, and then inductive, way. Therefore, as both the data and the methods used in this part are qualitative, the methodological approach on the whole will be qualitative. Secondly, there are general categories derived from theory, but not subcategories that could be adopted for comparison, therefore, a qualitative approach could help find out the detailed subcategories used and how they differentiate the conceptualisation of GPD in two countries in this situation.

When it comes to how the methodological approach will be applied, relevant data collection and data analysis will be considered. As data for answering RQ3 is simply discussion for RQ1

and RQ2 above, a deductive approach will be followed for general categories, while an inductive one will be adopted for subcategories. They will be analysed using the comparative method including comparisons and contrast.

However, there is still the problem of validity existing in the process of qualitative content analysis, which will be resolved by adopting an audit trail as mentioned earlier.

Methodology in Section III

Section III will focus on the two remaining research questions, which are:

RQ4: Are dialogic approaches applied in the process of the case of self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy projects?

RQ5: If dialogic approaches are applied, how do they function? If not, what logic is applied in this case?

This is actually a deeper clarification of the concept of GPD in the way of studying a specific and important logic in this concept, following the former research questions.

As this section is basically a case study, although the main methods used and resultant data will be qualitative, there are occasions when the data lends itself to quantification. While it is possible to subject the quantitative data to statistical analysis, this is not envisaged in this research.

There are many reasons for the combined approach being the natural choice.

First, the research questions seek to find the dialogic factors existing in one typical case, if there is such a case. On one hand, the focus here is dialogic, which is an approach to communicative action (Habermas, 1984). It is more appropriate to find this out through observation, interviews or other in-depth ways, mainly of the qualitative ilk. On the other hand, as one case study is used to answer these questions, there is the possibility that more complicated methods and data will be involved. And that provides a possible environment for a combined methodological approach to be adopted.

Second, although it is not necessary for a case study to adopt a combined approach – a qualitative approach is more often adopted in most case studies – the combined approach does become the natural choice in this case study. Revisiting RQ4, in order to answer this question,

not only does the observation but also the interviews (with case study participants) play a part. How many participants agree with the idea and how many related situations occur do count in this process, which can generate quantifiable data for the final discussion.

Third, in the literature on public diplomacy, there are scholars using a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (Muratore, 2010-2011), which is very helpful for these case studies.

As the combined approach is used in this part of the research, the positive aspect is that it allows all manner of requisite data to be gathered in flexible ways, affording the opportunity for the research to be conducted as in-depth and holistically as possible. However, just as discussed in the literature on the combined approach, the adoption of this approach is not merely for the sake of the approach, but to better serve the research questions.

As the approach has been decided, what will be discussed next are the details of how the combining will be operationalised? The discussion will also follow a list of questions so that a clear clarification can be achieved.

1. Will the two approaches of quantitative and qualitative be given equal weight?
2. Will they be interactive or separate?
3. How will they be sequenced? (Punch, 2005, p. 241)
4. At what stage in the research will the data or findings be integrated (Creswell, 2003, p. 211)?

Considering the methods that will be used in this section, which will be discussed in detail later, the qualitative approach is still the dominant approach. Where the quantitative approach is used, it usually helps the qualitative approach to address the research questions with enhanced clarity. Therefore, to some extent, this process will be interactive. No sequence for the two approaches has been prescribed as being a necessity, thus either may be used first when necessary. When it comes to integration, it is mostly in the first stage of this section where the combination will apply; while in the later part, a more qualitative approach will be used for detailed description of dialogic or strategic narratives.

Section summary

Of the three methodological approaches in social research, whether quantitative or qualitative, each has its advantages and weak points; combinations of the two approaches may be used in order to draw on strengths and avoid weaknesses. This does not mean that the combination

approach is inherently superior at all times for all cases, but rather it should be used only when helpful and necessary to achieve research aims.

The present thesis project opts for a combined methodology. It groups some questions under a qualitative umbrella and others under a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches, which will be used in the case study. Although it is still the qualitative approach that dominates, the quantitative part will help answer some of the research questions. On the whole, considering all three parts of the research for the thesis, the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches will be the overall methodological approach for the whole research, with the qualitative approach being dominant. The detailed methods used, depending on the topic, specific RQs, literature, practical considerations, etc., will be discussed in the following part of this chapter.

Methods

After clarifying the methodological approach, I will then discuss the general research design of data collection and data analysis, the methods adopted for these processes, and the details of these procedures. Descriptions of the three groups of research questions will be discussed in sequence.

RQ1: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia?

RQ2: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in China?

Data collection

In order to answer the research questions above, rich data materials are required. When it comes to the process of data collection, several questions arise naturally. What methods will be used to collect data and why? What are they like? How to put them into practice? Let's answer these questions for a clearer view of the whole process of data collection.

Many scholars use interviews when exploring the theme of public diplomacy (Al-Azdee, 2010; Frensley & Michaud, 2006; Semetko, 2009). They are also commonly used in qualitative research, which is good for getting more in-depth information on a topic, including informants' (Berger, 2010, p. 111) opinions and thoughts. Therefore, interviews were used in this research for data collection. However, as the data collected from interview with a small sample may not be enough to fully examine the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy, documentary data was also collected for the richness of the data material. In the following paragraphs, the whole data collection will be divided into two parts: interview and

documentary data.

Interview data

Let's begin with the term "interview". This is a term relating to the French term "entrevue", meaning "to see one another or meet" (Berger, 2010, p. 111). This shows a typical form of interview, which is face-to-face. However, it is not the only form, as there are also other ones like using mail, the telephone, and e-mail. The purpose of researchers' interviews is mainly to get information (Berger, 2010, p. 111) needed for their research. Among the typology scholars described, the one mentioned by Fontana and Frey is one of the most commonly used, which is structured, semi-structured and unstructured interview (Fontana & Frey, 1994), depending on the needs of the research question and the research itself. In this section, the discussion will be based on this typology of interview.

The three types of interview are differently used due to their unique characteristics. Structured interviewing is practised with a set of detailed instructions for answering the questions, for instance, the self-administered questionnaires. Semi-structured interviewing is usually based on a list of questions for the informants, with enough flexibility for a certain degree of casualness (Berger, 2010, p. 112). Moreover, unstructured interviewing is aimed more at getting information from the informants in a very casual manner, with just a little control by the researcher.

According to research questions 1 and 2, what was to be discovered here was the conceptualisation of GPD. In order to explore the concept, several specific questions needed to be answered by informants. However, it was highly possible that the informants may have their own opinions related to the theme not mentioned among the prepared questions, which is a very valuable factor and advantageous for allowing new aspects to come up from this less-structured form of interviewing. Hence, the semi-structured interview was adopted in this part of the research for answering the first two research questions.

However, this type of interview has its limitations as well. Although having the flexibility to generate new aspects, the interview questions will still need to be prepared. Thus, an inevitable result of certain degree of bias will be included in these questions, and thus possibly mislead informants to some extent. This is a factor that should be carefully taken into account when designing the questions. The solution will be discussed in the later part of this chapter.

Interview procedure

As semi-structured interviewing was used for data collection for RQ1 and 2, there were several steps to follow, including interview question design, sampling of the informants, exploratory interview, managing interview and recording.

1. Interview questions

This is a process usually called the interview guide (Bryman, 2001, p. 315) in unstructured and semi-structured interviews. An interview guide could be very brief guidelines for the interview, but what are needed in a semi-structured interview are usually several open-ended questions so that informants can answer more fully what they know. Therefore, we still use interview questions here to refer to this part of interview preparation.

To discover the conceptualisation of GPD for RQ 1 and 2, the design of interview questions would be based on the theoretical base of communicative action theory mentioned in Chapter II.

Firstly, there is the characteristic of being intersubjective (Habermas, 1984, p. 86). According to Habermas, communicative action happens between subjects, who have the ability to speak and act, while being prepared to build intersubjective relations in verbal or extra-verbal ways.

Secondly, the orientation is towards reaching understanding (Habermas, 1984, p. 86). There are two parts of meaning: first, the orientation is towards not success, which the strategic action orients, but reaching understanding; second, the understanding is a mutual understanding about the action situation and the subjects' plans of action, achieved through internal means.

Thirdly, there is a condition of agreement. Agreement needs to either pre-exist or be achieved through negotiation before communicative actions take place, on circumstances and future results.

Fourthly, coordination of actions is followed. The subjects would coordinate their action plans accordingly as part of the interaction.

In short, the main elements of the whole process of communicative action are different

actors of social interaction, plans of action of different actors, goals of understanding, communication acts of language and other non-verbal expression, agreements, coordination process.

Based on the communicative action process above, interview questions for answering RQ1 are listed in Table 3-2 below. It offers a similar model for RQ2. The only difference between interview questions for RQ 1 and 2 was the state.

Table 3-2 Interview questions for RQ 1: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia?
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is the concept of public diplomacy? 2. What is the concept of grassroots public diplomacy? 3. Who are the actors of GPD? 4. Who are the agents of GPD? 5. Who are the objects of GPD? 6. What are the characteristics of the agents and objects? 7. What are the objectives of the agents? 8. What are the objectives of the objects? 9. If the objective is to reach understanding, what kind of understanding are the actors supposed to reach? If the objective is success, what kind of success do they want to achieve? 10. What communication acts will the agents adopt? Verbal or extra-verbal language? What are they? 11. What communication acts will the objects adopt? Verbal or extra-verbal language? What are they? 12. What are the plans of action of the agents? 13. What are the plans of action of the objects? 14. Are there any pre-existing agreements? If there is, what are the agreements like? If there is not, do the actors plan to reach an agreement beforehand? If yes, what the agreement will be, and how will the actors reach that? 15. What is the coordination process like in GPD?

Here, two questions were added: what is public diplomacy? And what is grassroots public diplomacy? The former question was asked to give people some idea of the broader field that GPD belongs to. The latter question was important to give informants a general description of this concept before all the questions derived from the theory were asked. As mentioned earlier, the questions' design may involve certain

degrees of bias, which can be eliminated by this latter question. Because informants may mention aspects of GPD not considered in designed questions in their answer, and to some extent, it can be a triangulation of those aspects derived from the theory.

2. Informant sampling

After deciding the interview questions, the next step is considering the sampling. Here, sampling refers the people to be interviewed for answering RQ1 and 2. Some scholars mention typology of sampling strategy (M. B. Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 28). There are several sampling strategies, including convenience sampling, snowball sampling, probability sampling (Bryman, 2001, p. 324), purposive sampling, informant sampling (Punch, 2005, p. 187), etc. It depended on research question and availability what sampling strategy was to be adopted in this research.

According to the research question, in order to explore the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy, the informants should either be experts or practitioners in the relevant field. As the relevant field is quite broad, the idea of four sectors of society has been introduced for a clearer classification for the research⁹. Hence, in this research, the interviewees were GPD experts or practitioners selected from the four sectors of state, private, public and media. The sampling was based on convenience sampling and purposive sampling. Convenience sampling refers to the convenience of the availability of informants (Bryman, 2001, p. 324); while purposive sampling means sampling with some purpose in mind (Punch, 2005, p. 187), in this case, the purpose of getting information related to GPD.

Based on the principles mentioned above, the recruitment of informants was done following three procedures. Firstly, I searched for government reports, policies and academic works and articles related to public diplomacy, especially public diplomacy at the grassroots level. The authors of the reports, policy documents, academic works and articles, together with the participants who are not only members of the public diplomacy policy community but also experts drawn from the four sectors, were among my potential interviewees. Secondly, I looked at the official websites of Australian embassy in China and Chinese embassy in Australia to identify people from government departments, companies, media and NGOs that participate in major public diplomacy events listed on the websites, especially those held at the grassroots level. They were also among the potential interviewees. Thirdly, those who participated in

⁹ See “Grassroots public diplomacy” section in Chapter II for detailed information.

academic conferences on GPD and other relevant area were among the potential interviewees as well.

When it comes to the sample size of informants, different scholars have various suggestions. There's no definite number suggested by the academics, as the sample size is affected by many factors, like the type of research project, time constraints and so on (Baker & Edwards, 2012, p. 10). Some scholars suggest the broad range of “a dozen to 60, with 30 being the mean”(Baker & Edwards, 2012, p. 10). As this research is a qualitative study, the main aim is not a large sample, but the information itself. Therefore, the informant numbers were decided based on the information collected from them. When there is no new information coming from the interviews, no more informants will be needed. Basically, according to the research question and the practical factors, there should have been five informants for each sector as mentioned above, that's a total of 20 informants for each research question. However, the final number of the informants would be decided based on the situation as the interviews moved on. Having an equal number of informants for each sector, would be better for later comparisons for RQ 3.

3. Recording

There are usually three ways to record interviews: written notes, audio-recording and video-recording (Davies, 2007, p. 162). Hopefully, audio-recording would be adopted during the interview if the informants agreed with it, as this was a more practical and better way of recording the data. Compared with video-recording, audio-recording is more practical in this research as audio-recorders are more readily available and easier to use than a camera, and more acceptable for ordinary informants (many people are nervous when facing a camera lens). Unlike written notes, audio recording can provide a complete record of the interview content. However, some details need special attention: firstly, certain skill is still needed in practice with the audio- recorder; secondly, taking notes at the same time in case the audio-recorder is not working accidentally; thirdly, being prepared to reassure informants about the proper usage of that audio material afterwards.

4. Exploratory phase

The performance of the researcher – me in this case – who is both an interviewer and an interpreter plays an important role in interviews. The exploratory phase (Davies,

2007, p. 155) can help researchers become familiar with the whole interview process, and also help test the practicability of the interview questions. Adjustments can be made according to the results of the exploratory phase.

One informant chosen for this phase, with whom I was familiar, was a practitioner in the area of public diplomacy from the public sector. The interview process followed research questions in Table 3-2, and was audio-recorded and analysed to see whether it could be applied in a larger scale. Adjustments were needed for efficient and practical interviews later, which will be described in detail in due course. It also helped me become familiar with recording techniques.

5. Procedures of interview

When it comes to the practice of interviews, there are several things to be aware of. Punch gives a checklist for this process (Punch, 2005, pp. 174-175):

- a. Preparation for the interview: researcher has to make sure of the interview questions, the specific informants, fixed meeting time and proper site, ready-for-use audio recorder, etc.
- b. Beginning of interview: inform informants that what they say and who they are will not be known by people other than researchers, which is their guarantee of anonymity (Berger, 2010, pp. 114-115).
- c. Communication and listening skill: accuracy will be guaranteed by quality recording; avoiding leading questions to assure quality of the data; staying focused for the opportunity to ask follow-up questions necessary; asking for amplifications and examples for later possible use; being nonjudgmental and only saying “Uh-huh” to show that you are listening; taking notes when needed.
- d. Asking questions: the sequence of the interview will follow the designed research questions. However, it can be adjusted any time during the interview according to the specific situation.
- e. Closing the interview: Expressing thanks and making sure informants feel valued and respected, and not rushing on to the next interview.

6. Ethical concerns

As an interview is a process that deals with people, several questions related to ethical concerns arise, which are whether there is harm to participants, a lack of informed

consent, an invasion of privacy or deception (Bryman, 2001, p. 479). These questions are all quite essential, and should be paid special attention to. The human research ethics application was therefore applied, which included all the questions mentioned above. Approval of the application will be attached as an appendix at the end of the thesis.

Documentary data

Documentary data is a very important type of data for social science. However, it is sometimes neglected by researchers who have turned more to surveys, interviews, etc. When using documentary data together with interviews, it can be an important source of triangulation, which is the case in this research. Moreover, documentary data covers a wide range, from personal notes and essays to government pronouncements and proceedings (Jupp, 1996, pp. 274-277).

In this research, documentary data was collected for the RQ 1 and 2 to provide a rich source of data, besides that from interviews, and consequently a more persuasive result from the findings (see data analysis below for more details).

Data type

As mentioned earlier, the informants for interviews were experts and practitioners of GPD from four sectors. Considering the consistency of interview and documentary data for later analysis, it was better for the documentary data to have been written by a similar group of authors, as well as representing the characteristics of different sectors. According to RQ 1 and 2, data on the conceptualisation of GPD were collected following the classification rules applied in interviews, which were data from state, private, public and media sectors. The same rule was followed for possible triangulation and convenience for data analysis, as well as elaboration of the conceptualisation in a comprehensive way.

As sectors vary, so the documentary data vary accordingly. For the government sector, governmental pronouncements and proceedings related to public diplomacy at grassroots level were collected. For the private sector, papers and articles representing perspectives of companies and individuals from the private sector and related to public diplomacy at the grassroots level were the concern. For the media sector, those papers and articles on grassroots public diplomacy and representing the media's perspectives were collected. For the public sector, scholars' articles and papers relevant to grassroots public diplomacy, basically

those representing opinions from public sector were chosen as data for RQ 1 and 2.

To avoid validity issues during the document selection process, an audit trail was introduced. The representativeness of the documentary data was decided by discussions between the researcher and auditor, to reduce the level of subjectivity.

Data sample

Documentary data is a special type of data that can cover a long time span, from ancient times till today. In sample selection, this is one of the first factors to be concerned. Going back to the research questions, GPD in Australia and China was to be studied; therefore, when considering the time factor, the relevance of the theme should be taken into account. 1965 is when the term “public diplomacy” was coined. As the newly emerged phenomenon of GPD in this research is regarded as public diplomacy at the grassroots level, the research into its conceptualisation didn't have to trace back any earlier than the advent of public diplomacy. Therefore, all data collected for RQ 1 and 2, if any, were from after 1965. Also, due to the availability of a database, documentary data were chosen from the same database as for the literature review of this research. Documents for RQ 1 were chosen from books and other documents in the Library of Macquarie University and Library of Congress online, as well as peer-reviewed journal articles and conference articles in the database of Academic Search Premier, Communication and mass media complete, Factiva, APA-FT – Australian Public Affairs–Full Text. Meanwhile, documents for RQ 2 were collected from books in the National Library of China, and peer-reviewed articles, conference papers and newspapers from the CNKI-Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure. All databases mentioned are biggest in Australia and China, for communication study in this case.

Data analysis

The step following data collection is data analysis. Qualitative content analysis, a method also chosen by scholars doing public diplomacy research to analyse relevant data (Yarchi, 2014), was selected as an appropriate method for research questions 1 and 2.

In 1952, Berelson discussed intensively the qualitative factors in content analysis, which was unheard of in those early days when content analysis was regarded mainly as quantitative (Berelson, 1952, pp. 114-134). Later, Starosta tries to refine what was called by Burke as “cluster analysis” (Starosta, 1984) to qualitative content analysis. Basically, it is a textual data analysis method, practising a coding process with systematical classification, with a

subjective interpretation (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278).

Qualitative content analysis is divided by some scholars into three main types: conventional, directed and summative (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). According to the description, conventional content analysis is appropriate when existing theory or research literature on a phenomenon is limited (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1279); directed content analysis is suitable for further description of the existing theory or phenomenon; and summative content analysis usually for discovering underlying meanings of the words or content, as well as theory or phenomenon testing (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In this research, the topic to be explored was the conceptualisation of GPD based on communicative action theory, which was a newly emerged research field. Further exploration was needed for both helping to apply the theory in this research field, and for the development of the concept of grassroots public diplomacy. Therefore, the second type of directed approach of qualitative content analysis seemed to be the most suitable.

A theory-based approach was adopted in this research, which could help decide the initial coding scheme or the relationship between codes (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1281). This deductive category application (Mayring, 2000) process can not only support the existing theory, but also develop it (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1283). However, the limitations of the directed approach of qualitative content analysis are: firstly, the use of theory may lead to an informed but with strong bias of the researcher when dealing with data; secondly, the emphasis on theory could lead to the researcher's omission of the contextual aspects (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1283). An audit trail, which can help overcome these limitations (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1283), was again used.

Procedures

There are three main phases in the whole procedure of deductively directed qualitative content analysis: preparation, organisation and reporting (Eto & Kyngäs, 2008, p. 109).

Preparation

In the preparation phase, the first step is selecting the analysis unit, which can be a word or theme or sentences (Eto & Kyngäs, 2008), mainly decided by the research aim and research questions. As there are two types of data collected for the analysis, interviews and documentary, the detailed analysing process will be discussed separately.

For interviews, the conceptualisation of GPD on the whole was based on communicative

actions theory. As the data was collected with first, open-ended interview question, and then followed by other targeted questions on predetermined categories (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1281), the analysis began directly with the coding process using the predetermined codes. Those data, which could not be coded with the existing codes, were put into the next determination step of whether to set up a new category, or a subcategory, of the existing code.

For documentary data, as they were collected from different sources, the length and quality were not the same. The unit for analysing was one independent article, which could be one document or a conference paper. These data are very good sources not only for their richness, but also for triangulation. They will be analysed following the same categories for interview data, which are derived from the theory and interview. The data which could not be coded following the existing category will be used for newly set up categories or subcategories, if any. If no new categories occur, it is good for the reason that the existing categories both from theory and interview are enough for the research on grassroots public diplomacy; if new categories emerge, it also helps extend research in this field.

The second step in the preparation phase is to go through all the data for having a sense of the data as a whole (Eto & Kyngäs, 2008, p. 109).

Organisation

The next phase is the organisation of data. Here, the first step is to develop a category matrix (Eto & Kyngäs, 2008, p. 111) to build a structure for all the categories predetermined by the theoretical base. The data which fit the category frame will be chosen, and the rest will be put into the process of creating new categories or subcategories, following an inductive approach.

The latter can be divided into two steps as well. The first is reading word-by-word. When any significant headings, titles, words, phrases or sentences relating to the research question appear, they will be marked for later use (Eto & Kyngäs, 2008, pp. 109-111). In practice, in the open coding step, the headings and titles generated from the words and expressions in the texts of either interview or documents will be written down first to generate categories for data analysis.

In the second step, the subcategories derived from step one will be grouped into higher categories if needed. The purpose is to classify the data into particular groups, so that they can help describe the concept. This is a process of deciding what are to be put in the same category through interpretation (Eto & Kyngäs, 2008). Here, special attention was paid to the

data collected from the open question of “what is grassroots public diplomacy”. Same or different categories could be drawn from these data in an inductive way following procedures of category generating mentioned above. After that, there was a comparison between the categories deriving from the data and those from the theory, allowing new categories to come out from the comparison. This could be regarded as a triangulation process for internal validity.

Reporting

In the last phase of reporting, descriptions of detailed information of the whole process and findings should be provided, so that the process of the analysis, its advantage and limitations will be fully understood by the reader (GAO, 1996, pp. 22-23). Here, the issues of validity and reliability are to be addressed.

Two validity problems to be taken into account here are internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to whether the information obtained from the research matches reality (Merriam, 1988, p. 166), and external validity usually refers to the generalisation of the study.

Limitation of the directed approach of qualitative content analysis mentioned above, which is described as neutrality or conformability of trustworthiness, is actually part of the internal validity problem. The audit trail, which is discussed to be adopted for the solution, will follow the following ways. An auditor will be involved in setting up the categories, to review and examine the definitions of each one, so as to ensure the accuracy of the predetermined categories (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1283).

Although it is not qualitative research’s intent to generalise the findings to a large scale, limited generalisation is still applicable to the data collection or those categories derived from the process of data analysis (Creswell, 1994, p. 158).

Practice

During the data collection and analysis process, there are several adjustments to the original plans mentioned above.

Data collection

Interview data

1. Number of informants

In “informant sampling” above, the number of informants needed for RQ 1 and 2 was 20 for each, that is, five for each sector. In practice, five informants were found for all other sectors in Australia and China, except the state sector. Considering the informants from government sector could be quite busy, and may not easy to approach and agree to the interview, more than six informants were contacted. Coincidentally, six informants from the government sector eventually agreed to the interview in both states, which is still comparable and won’t affect the data analysis process much. Therefore, all the interview data from the six informants from two states each will be used for data analysis, together with interview data from five informants each from other sectors in both countries.

2. Exploratory phase

As mentioned above, the exploratory phase was needed as part of the preparation for later interviews. It was a very helpful procedure in the following ways. Firstly, as it was my first time using the recorder, it did take some time for me to become familiar with it, in terms of battery duration, recording and data-export process. Secondly, I adjusted some words used in the interview questions, as well as the order of the questions according to the responses of the interviewees. The changes were based on Table 3-2 above: “objectives” in question (Q) 7 and 8, was replaced by “aims or goals”; “characteristics of agents and objects” was merged into Q 4 and Q5, which means that Q 4 became “who are the agents of GPD and what their characteristics are”, while Q 5 being “who are the objects of GPD and what their characteristics are”. Thirdly, a clearer introduction of the topic that my interview questions would focus on was added before the interview process started, so as to give people a general idea of what they may be asked.

3. Interview questions

Besides the modifications to interview questions after the exploratory phase, more adjustments were made after first three interviews.

Firstly, the expression “object” in Table 3-2 was changed to “recipients” for better understanding by informants, as people asked “what do you mean by objects”. “Recipients” seems to be acceptable to most of the informants.

Secondly, “agents” in Table 3-2 was changed to “people who initiate or start the process” for the same reason as the change from “objects”.

Thirdly, Q 12 and 13 in Table 3-2 was modified to “what are the plans of action of the people who initiate or start the process/recipients, and can the plans be divided into phases?” The later part of the question was added to get more detailed information of plans in the informants’ minds.

As interviews were first done in Australia, the interview questions to be used in China were also adjusted accordingly in Chinese. No further major changes were made to interview questions for data collection for RQ 1 and 2 after these mentioned above.

Documentary data

The documentary data collected were actually different in both countries, in state and private sectors, due to different data sources being based on the same selection rules. Other data related to media and public sectors are from similar sources.

For the government sector in Australia, the government has specific documents on public diplomacy. Also, various different government departments and agencies participate in submissions of relevant reports and white papers. Therefore, the documentary data are mostly from these sources. For the same sector in China, the documents are basically reports or speeches by official leaders, as well as government documents.

For the private sector, the documents collected in Australia are mostly from companies and relevant associations representing the private sector, while those collected in China are mostly articles from well-known business people who talk about public diplomacy.

For the media sector, the documents collected in Australia and China are similarly articles and opinions from leaders of media organisations, organisational reports and media reports on public diplomacy.

For the public sector, most of documents from Australia and China are academic articles and books.

These differences and similarities of document types collected as data for answering RQ 1 and 2 can (but not necessarily) be the reason for differences and similarities in the conceptualisation of GPD – the focus of RQ 3.

Data analysis

Based on the data analysis procedures mentioned above, besides the categories inductively derived from theoretical base, there are new categories drawn from the data, including “process of GPD” and “result of GPD”. They are important contributions to the thesis.

RQ3: What are the differences and similarities between the conceptualisations of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China?

Data collection

This research question is based on RQ1 and 2 above. It is also a further step to elaborate on the relationship between answers for RQ 1 and 2. The data for answering RQ3 will be discussions for RQ 1 and 2 together, which describe the conceptualisations of GPD in Australia and China respectively.

Data analysis

As the research question asked here was concerning differences and similarities of the conceptualisation of GPD in two states, this was what the comparative method should be used for. The comparative method is a very basic tool to be used for data analysis (Collier, 1993, p. 105). Collier regards comparison as an important method adopted in the concept-forming process by way of focusing on those similarities and contrasts between different cases (Collier, 1993, p. 105). Moreover, as the answers to RQ1 and 2 were based on the same theoretical base, as well as following the same research design mentioned above, the relationship between the two RQs were explicit in terms of their comparative nature; therefore, the analytical results had a great chance to be positive (Pennings, Keman, & Kleinnijenhuis, 2006).

The choice of comparative method was proper for this research question. Also, several scholars have used the comparative method when studying the field of public diplomacy (J. Pamment, 2012; Wang & Sun, 2012).

Therefore the comparative method was applied in this research to analyse data from answering RQ 3.

Procedure

When discussing methods of experimental inquiry, Mill regards the “method of agreement” as “comparing together different instances in which the phenomenon occurs”, and sees “method of difference” as “comparing instances in which the phenomenon does occur, with instances in other respects similar in which it does not” (Mill, 1858, p. 222). Mill’s statement explains that the content comparative method is better to include, so as to explore the situations being researched in a more comprehensive way. In this thesis, comparisons and contrast were both used to find out similarities and differences, as in RQ3.

First is deciding on the unit of variation, which is mentioned by Pennings, Keman & Kleinnijenhuis when discussing comparative analysis of ‘political’ (Pennings et al., 2006). In this research, the unit of variation was those categories derived from the theoretical base of communicative action theory, as well as those which naturally occurred from the data – the same categories used in answers for RQ1 and 2.

Second is comparison for similarities. Based on what Mill mentions, this is a process to find out where the same phenomenon occurs in conceptualisation of GPD in two states.

Third is contrast for differences. Again, according to Mill, it is a process to find out different details that exist in similar phenomena of the conceptualisation of GPD in both states in this case.

The comparative method has its own limitations. The most distinct ones are “many variables, small number of cases” (Lijphart, 1971, p. 685). The former is quite common in social science research while the latter is very unique for comparative method. There are ways suggested by academics to solve these problems. Among them, some are more practical for this research. First, as mentioned above, comparisons would be made between two comparable cases of the conceptualisation of GPD in two states, developed on the same theoretical base and very similar research design. This could help solve the problem of “many variables” by reducing the number of operative variables (Lijphart, 1971, p. 687). Second, the same problem could be solved by focusing on key variables when using the comparative method (Lijphart, 1971, p. 690). This could help elaborate on each variable in more depth. Third, as it was not practical to increase the number of cases in this research, reducing the number of variables or combining two or more variables could help solve the problem of a “small number of cases”. In this research, only those necessary variables were used for comparing and contrast, all comparisons made would only help to elaborate on these main variables in greater depth. This

could help solve the problem, in that it “increases the possibilities of later cross-tabulation and control without increasing the sample itself” (Lijphart, 1971, p. 687).

Practice

In practice, comparisons focused on the same categories that the conceptualization of GPD consists of do help present unique conceptualisations of GPD in two different states with many similar aspects. However, besides giving detailed similarities and differences that help better understand GPD in two state contexts, no further discussions and explorations were made to find the deeper reasons that cause them, due to the limited length of this research, as well as the focus of the research. Deeper explorations are very important for better understanding GPD in different state contexts. However, as this will be a complicated process concerning the different cultural, social and political backgrounds of two states, it is not possible to explain it clearly within one chapter. Also, since this thesis is an exploratory work in the field of GPD, whose focus is on giving a general idea of the conceptualisations of GPD in Australia and China, RQ 3 was asked just to help better understand GPD in the two states respectively. Therefore, as long as comparisons later help realise this goal to a certain extent, it is already a quite meaningful step. This does not mean further explorations are not meaningful, on the contrary, I do hope that a further and independent research can be done on relevant comparisons, to help people better understand the relevant situation in greater depth.

RQ4: Are dialogic approaches applied in the process of the case of self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy projects?

RQ5: If dialogic approaches are applied, how do they function? If not, what logic is applied in this case?

In order to answer RQ 5, first we have to answer RQ4. Again, in order to answer RQ4, what is needed is a thorough study of a case of self-supported Australia-China GPD projects. Therefore, the method used here will be a case study. Actually, as a case study usually adopts methods that are suitable for answering research questions, most of the time, it will be a study that looks into a case as a whole, so some scholars regard it as not only a method, but a strategy (Punch, 2005, p. 144).

Case study

According to Taylor, the case study was first considered as a viable research technique in the early 20th century, and has been commonly accepted as a method for research since the 1950s

(M. E. Miles & Taylor, 2010, p. 129).

When it comes to what case study really is, several factors are commonly agreed by scholars. Firstly, case study is used for answering research questions, and differs from case to case, question to question. Secondly, case study is used to study a specific case, with or without similar cases in mind, in an in-depth way, for an overall understanding of the whole case (Punch, 2005, p. 144; Simons, 2009, p. 21). Thirdly, in a case study, different sources of evidence are collected, which lie in the natural case context, with different appropriate methods (Gillham, 2000, p. 2; Punch, 2005, p. 144). These descriptions give a general idea of what a case study is.

Case study typology

Many scholars classify case study following different logic. For instance, Jensen and Rogers follow the logic of study time: snapshot case studies, referring to studying at one point in a time; longitudinal case studies, referring to multiple time points study; and pre-post case studies, which is study at two points (M. E. Miles & Taylor, 2010, p. 130). Also, there is logic for the typology of case study being related to theory. A scholar points out that saying no *a priori* theoretical notions are started within a case study (Gillham, 2000, p. 2) is sometimes not true. A researcher may have time to be make studies based on a logic derived from a certain theory, which is actually the case in this research. Using the same logic, Simons classifies case study into theory-led and theory-generated, the former being theoretical perspective based, the latter being for generating certain theory from the data (Simons, 2009, pp. 21-22). There are also other systems of logic like the nature of final report—descriptive, interpretative, evaluative (Merriam, 1988, p. 27), etc.

However, in this research, the typology of case study followed both theory relevance and time points of study in a two-phase mode. That is, theory relevance was used in the first phase and time points in the second phase. This research belongs to the type of theory-led longitudinal case study, which was a case study based on a “dialogic approach”, and would be studied at several important points during the whole case, depending on the research questions.

Case study advantages and limitations

Case study has its advantages and limitations.

The advantages are:

Firstly, case study makes it possible for complicated programs or the like to be studied in an

in-depth way (Simons, 2009, p. 23).

Secondly, case study has flexibility of methods and time (Simons, 2009, p. 23), etc. Here, time refers to time-dependence of the case study, like those conducted in a day or over a year, depending finally on the research question and aims. Also a case study can be conducted in a range of methods, with no restrictions, as long as they serve the research questions. Such flexibility actually makes it possible for the researcher to make an in-depth study as mentioned in the first point.

Thirdly, case study can engage participants of the case in the research, which is referred to by Simons as a very important epistemological point (Simons, 2009, p. 23); because when participants are engaged in the research, the final result of the research will be constructed by both the participants and the researcher through a series of interactions based on joint understandings and so on.

Besides the advantages mentioned above, case study is criticised by scholars for having certain limitations.

Firstly, case study is sometimes criticised for not being generalisable (M. E. Miles & Taylor, 2010, p. 130). Although not on a large scale, a case study can be generalised on a small scale, like cases with similar settings.

Secondly, subjectivity of the researcher in a case study is usually of great concern (Simons, 2009, p. 24). In order to solve the validity problem, an audit trail will be applied throughout the process of the case study.

Thirdly, case study usually faces another validity problem as the reporting of the study may not be what reality is (Simons, 2009, p. 24), which can be improved by giving weight to a detailed description of the case. The other important point is using data collected from different sources and methods for triangulation.

Case study procedure

In a case study, there are three main stages: preparation, data collection and data analysis.

Preparation

This is the first and very important stage of a case study. The case should be selected carefully depending on the research question and theoretical base. According to RQ 4 and 5, the case

was a self-supported GPD project between Australia and China, based on findings and discussions for RQ 1, 2 and 3.

According to the conceptualisation of GPD, together with other factors like the availability of the case, the proper duration of the study, etc., the case chosen to be studied in this research was an event on the “art of guan xi” (Chinese pinyin for “relationship”), held by an NGO called ACYPI – Australia-China Young Professionals Initiatives – a platform for young professionals to engage in Australia-China relationships. According to their official website, ACYPI’s aim is: “[T]hrough events in Australia and China, we connect young professionals to significant commercial, political and academic leaders, and provide networking opportunities across sectors. Our events are focused on helping young professionals develop a deeper understanding of the issues facing business in Australia and China. (ACYPI, 2014a)” This organisation has at present eight chapters in Adelaide, Brisbane, Canberra, Melbourne, Perth and Sydney in Australia; and Beijing and Shanghai in China (ACYPI, 2014b). Their members are those who are on their mailing list, due to registration on their official website; joining their social media group, like Facebook group or LinkedIn group; as well as participating in events they organised and leaving an email address, according to one organizer of the ACYPI (the organiser coded as O1 in Chapter V). This is basically a grassroots NGO, everyone being a volunteer, whether Australian or Chinese, in running the organisation and organising events (O1). Some events are self-funded while some are supported by their partner organisations (O1). All their partner organisations have certain relationships with both Australia and China, and are based in either one or other or both states (ACYPI, 2014c).

This case project was funded by ACYPI itself, as well as a sponsor organisation it found. The event was held in Sydney, Australia; by Australian and Chinese organisers in ACYPI’s Sydney chapter; with speeches by Australians familiar with China; and attended by Australian and Chinese young professionals interested in Australia-China relationships who live mainly in Sydney. Just like many other similar events happening throughout the year, held by different organisations in the public diplomacy area, this event involved talks given by experts in relevant areas, Q&A session, as well as socialising at the beginning and end of the event.

According to organiser O1 and O2 (see coding rule in Chapter VI), as well as the relevant web page on their official website, this case project was initiated consciously by the grassroots organisation ACYPI, the organisers being Australians and Chinese, and there being no strict boundaries between agents and objects due to the adoption of two-way communication processes. These organisers were both initiators and practitioners of the activity. The event was a one-off activity with practical and brief plans on time, place, format and promotion, etc. There were pre-existing agreements on the detailed event organisational information, and the

relationship between organisers and members. As mentioned above, the events held by the organisation were for connecting young professionals from Australia and China, and providing a platform for them to discuss and understand relevant issues. The social session designs were aimed at facilitating communicative interaction between all participants. These are just brief facts about the event organisation used in selecting the event as a case project for study in this thesis. More details about the case project related to answering RQ 4 and 5 will be mentioned in Chapter VI and VII.

According to the similar points shared by GPD concept in Australia and China¹⁰, these characteristics of the project indicate that this case project fits these shared descriptions of GPD, and therefore is an illustrative case project of self-supported Australia-China GPD. It lasted for about three hours, a time span possible for following through. In this case study, what will be found out is whether the dialogic approaches were applied, and how.

Data collection

Several methods were used for collecting data in the case study. The event was discussed following three stages of preparation, event day, and post-event stages (division depends on interview data, see Chapter VI for details). Considering the practicality, possibilities and negotiation with the organiser of the event, the methods chosen for data collection are as follows. For the preparation stage, interviews and documentary data were used; for the event day stage, interview and participant observation data were collected; for the post-event stage, interviews and documentary data were obtained.

Basically, three methods were used in the case study: interviews, documentary and participant observation.

1. Participant observation

a. Choice of the method

What people say they believe is sometimes contradictory to their behaviour; people may omit some of their behaviour when talking. Therefore, observation becomes a very good check against what people say in words.

There are four types within the method of observation, which are: complete participant, observer as participant, participant as observer and complete observer (Creswell, 2003, p. 186). It depends on how much participation the researcher has

¹⁰ The similar points refer to those mentioned in answers for RQ3 in Chapter V.

during the observation. In this case study, I had planned to adopt non-participant observation, so as to avoid affecting other participants. However, after contacting the organiser of the case event to be studied, I was not allowed to be simply an observer, but I could observe while participating in the event. Therefore, for practical reasons, participant observation was chosen for this case study, specifically, observer as participant.

Dewalt & Dewalt define participant observation as the following:

“Participant observation is a method in which a researcher takes part in the daily activities, rituals, interactions, and events of a group of people as one of the means of learning the explicit and tacit aspects of their life routines and their culture.” (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011, p. 1)

In this case study, I took part in an event of a group of people to learn about dialogic approach in people’s communication through observation of their dialogues and other actions they may or may not be conscious of.

b. Process of observation

The first step is gaining permission for the case study (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011, p. 44), in this case, from the organiser of the event. This is also an ethical concern, as the organiser would want to make sure that you don’t harm their participants. They would also ensure that you don’t interfere in the normal procedures of the event.

Second is the plan for participant observation. Scholars mention several reasons why participant observation is not suited to having a systematical plan (Friedrichs & Lüdtke, 1975, p. 6). However, one has to make sure that the purpose of participant observation is related to the research question (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011, p. 47). Other details, like the population to be observed, venues and time should be cleared before observation (Bogdan, 1973, p. 305), even though the details you want to observe may change in the field (Bogdan, 1973, p. 306). In this case study, the corresponding plans for observation for RQ 4 and 5 were not well-scheduled. There were only general plans for observing situations related to possible dialogic approaches, as well as the possible observing of objects, time and venue, decided mainly by the event organisers. Among them, the objects being observed would be whoever was involved in a communication process taking place during the event at the event venue. Nevertheless, I was prepared for not being able to record everything happening during the event if too many things

were to happen simultaneously. Preparation for my own presence both as a participant and a researcher included appearance and explanation of the purpose.

Third, the recording methods were both note-taking and audio- recording, when necessary.

c. Advantages and limitations

Participant observation can help enhance the quality of data gained in the field and the interpretation of data collected in different ways (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011, p. 10).

However, this method has limitations, as others do.

Extreme subjectivity is a unique problem (Friedrichs & Lüdtke, 1975, p. 25), which would affect the researcher's choice of the things to be observed. In order to solve this validity problem, peer consultation will be involved during the participant observation period, especially on important time points and observation content etc. Clear descriptions of observing content before observation can help avoid irrelevant data being collected (Friedrichs & Lüdtke, 1975, p. 29).

Another debatable point is the observer's role. Interdependence may arise between observer and the observed, due to their interactions, which may affect the validity of data collected (Friedrichs & Lüdtke, 1975, p. 29). Therefore, it is better for the observer to be regarded by the observed as a neutral figure who doesn't affect any subjects, and try to be a natural part of the field for other subjects; passiveness of observers who don't change the situation is also important (Bogdan, 1973, p. 305). Basically, the observer should try to avoid affecting people and environment in any way in the field of observation.

2. Interview

Interviews were used to collect data for RQ 4 and 5, following several steps mentioned in "interview data" part for RQ 1 and 2 above. Semi-structured interviews were used, so as not only to let the informants express their views directly on the dialogic approach, but also to allow other responses to occur naturally in the interviews.

a. Interview question design

The data collection process in this case study for RQ 4 and 5 was divided into three sub-processes: preparation, event day and post-event stages, as mentioned above. Several categories were derived from the theoretical base, which was “dialogic approach” in Habermas’ sense in this case study. The categories included : non-purposive communication; non-authoritarian communication; communication between at least two subjects, with the ability to speak and act; establishing interpersonal relations in verbal or extra-verbal ways; results of reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction, or the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity or true consensus¹¹. These categories helped with interview question design and the coding process later when analysing data.

¹¹ The concept of “dialogic approach” in this thesis was developed based on the study of Habermas, Bubner and other scholars (Bubner, 1982; Habermas, 1972). See Dialogic approach in Chapter II above for more information and references.

Table 3-3 Interview questions for RQ 4 and 5

1. What do you think is meant by a 'dialogic approach'? What methods or actions can be associated with a dialogic approach?
2. Which part of the organising team do you belong to (Australian or Chinese)? Are you a member of ACYPI? (for funder, speaker, participant)
3. Do you think there were any speakers/organisers/other participants/members/funders that were quite authoritarian? How did you interact with them?
4. Why did your group initiate this Australia- China grassroots public diplomacy activity? (for organiser)
5. Was this event supported by any group or individual? How? (for organiser)
6. What were the detailed planning / recruitment / event / funding / planning / summarizing process? (for organiser)
7. Why did you decide to fund this event? Who contacted you? Did you have any expectations? How did you agree on holding the event? What has been the result of that? Were there any detailed documents or agreement related to how the event would happen? (for funder)
8. How did you get to know about the event? Did/will you interact with the organiser/anybody in the recruitment/event process or after the event? Did you have any expectations in interacting with him or her? How did you interact with him or her? What has been the result? (for funder, participant, speaker)
9. Did you join the planning/recruitment/event/summarizing process of the event?
10. If yes, what kind of people did you interact with? Did you have any expectation before interacting with other parts of the organisation or other organisers/funder/members/other participants/speaker? How did you interact with them? What has been the result?
11. If no, what did you do if you didn't interact with these people in the event? (If there was no dialogic approach in the activity, what logic applied?)
12. Do you think there was any dialogic approach during the planning/funding/recruitment/event day/summary process? What were they like? What has been the result of the approach? How do you think the dialogic approach helped make the activity successful?

There were different roles that people played in the case event. In Table 3-3 above, interview questions for all three stages are listed for people playing different roles, based on categories derived from the theory. The questions are designed to explore communications between people involved in the event, inside which a dialogic approach possibly exists. As a semi-structured interview method was chosen, the questions could be adjusted during the interview depending on the situation.

b. Sample of informants

When it comes to sample size, I originally planned to interview 10 people some months before the event took place, 5 Australians and 5 Chinese, based on around 30 people participating according to common expectations for a medium-sized public diplomacy event. However, as the event got closer, the documentary data collected indicated that many more people than I expected would participate. Also, the situation changed and affected the selection criteria of interviewees in terms of citizenship; this will be explained further in detail below. Therefore, the targeted number of informants was varied to include all attendees willing to be interviewed, regardless of citizenship.

c. Recording

Audio-recording and note-taking were the recording choices for interview data collection.

d. Exploratory interview

A trial interview was done following interview questions for participants of the event in Table 3-3, who would be the majority of the informants of interviews in the case study. This helped the researcher become familiar with the interview questions and recording process, and tested the reasonability of the question design.

e. Procedures of interview

The procedures of interviews follow those mentioned earlier in “interview data” for RQ 1 and 2 above.

3. Documentary

A documentary method was used for the case study. Different from data collection for RQ 1 and 2, the data types were mainly websites, content on social media and emails. But it was finally decided by the platforms for promoting and interacting chosen by the organiser and participants of the case event.

All the documentary data available and related to the case event were collected, from the beginning of event promotion, to some months after the event, depending on the situation. For an ordinary three-hour public diplomacy event, the influence can be short- or long-lasting, depending on complex factors including organisers, participants, theme of events, etc. However, as similar events happen often – once a month for ACYPI according to their website – the influence would not easily last for several months. Therefore, the time range of documentary data collection is reasonable for this case study.

4. Procedure of case study

During the preparation stage, documentary data are to be collected, including from relevant promotion websites, people's interactions on social media and email flyers.

In the event-day stage, participant observation was applied from the beginning to the end of the event activity, following the detailed procedures mentioned above. The notes taken were on situations related to the research question, or those providing new ideas for the research. Peer consultation was applied during observation process. Moreover, audio-recording was adopted.

At the post-event stage, documentary data were collected, mainly social media material due to availability. Interviews were arranged during this stage, the content of which covered all three stages (see Table 3-3 for interview questions, and see procedures above for detailed practice).

5. Ethical concerns

As the interview and participant observation deals with people, ethical issues may arise as mentioned earlier in the interview process for RQ 1 and 2. Therefore, the human research ethics application was applied, approval of which will be attached as an appendix at the end of the thesis.

Data analysis

After all forms of data were collected, data analysis followed. In this process, all the data collected for RQ 4 and 5 were analysed stage-by-stage in the first place, following by analysis on all the data in a comprehensive way.

Basically, qualitative content analysis was used for analysing data, which was described in detail in methods for RQ 1 and 2 in this chapter. No need to repeat it here. However, one obvious difference is the different data sources of participant observation and documentaries of various online media. They were treated in an inductive way when analysing. All the data were analysed respectively first, and then combined as a whole for analysing. One piece of interview and documentary data, as well as all the participant observation data, was a unit of the qualitative content analysis.

The categories were firstly derived from dialogic approach and developed from communicative action theory. However, the categories were not closed, and there could be categories or subcategories deriving from the data if no existing categories were suitable for the coding process.

The data analysis followed three stages as mentioned above. For the preparation stage, relevant interview and documentary data were to be analysed; for the event-day stage, related interview data, as well as participant observation data were to be analysed; for the post-event stage, relevant interview and documentary data were to be analysed.

Practice

A variety of ethnographic data was collected, which helped answer part of RQ4 and 5; a combination of each type of data also helped answer research questions 4 and 5 in a holistic manner.

1. Interview data

The data include interviews of different participants of the case project with interview questions covering five elements of firstly, whether subjects were authoritarian or not; secondly, whether subjects were purposive or not; thirdly, whether communication occurred between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act; fourthly, whether subjects established interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal means; fifthly, what were the results of subjects' communication. The interview data covered three

stages of preparation, event and post-event stages of the case study. This type of data also helped with exploration of the detailed process of the dialogic approach, including the situations and results of interactions during certain processes of particular phases of dialogic approaches (see Chapter VII for more details), and the relationship between these processes and phases.

2. Participant observation data

A second type of data gathered was from participant observation, including notes taking on participants' behaviours during the event stage, and a recording of the whole event. This type of data was used for triangulation of the interview data and was consonant with situations mentioned by the interviewees. They also indicated some differences between what interviewees remembered and the factual situation. They also helped provide some details not mentioned by interviewees as not everybody was interviewed due to participant numbers and time limitations. This type of data helped elaborate second, third and fourth elements of dialogic approach mentioned above. This type of data too helped with the study of dialogic approach processes as mentioned above, which is not only a triangulation but also is an independent data source.

3. Documentary data

The third type of data collected was a special kind of documentary data, which included those from social media and other online materials. Online data relevant to the case study again played their role in triangulation with interview data, reconfirmed some of the interviewees' online actions mentioned in their interviews, while providing evidence that some interview content related to online actions were not true, which may have been due to the time period between the case event and the interview data, which may affect people's memory of facts. The online materials also enriched the data related to the preparation and post-event stages, which helped with further exploration of second, third and fourth elements of dialogic approach mentioned above.

Some issues occurred in practice. Therefore adjustments were made accordingly.

1. Interview data collection

During the exploratory phase, one situation which occurred in the trial interview was

that not all interview questions needed to be asked, as the interviewee also included answers to some other questions when answering. Thus, I was prepared for this situation, which happened many times during the later interview process.

When interviewing informants involved in the case event, no more interview questions were added. However, different expressions were used. “Recruitment” was changed to “promotion” on the advice of the organiser; “authoritarian” was used with the explanation of “giving you a feeling that he is superior to you”.

As for number of interviewees, although I randomly approached more people, 19 eventually accepted and did the interview.

The interview forms included face-to-face as well as phone ones, depending on the requirements of interviewees.

2. Participant observation

As no detailed plan was drawn, the participant observation helped a lot with the discovery of unexpected dialogic approach forms, which is an advantage of this method.

Most of the participants were young professionals, who were members of the organisation that put on the event. They accepted my role as both a participant of the event and a researcher quite easily without questioning or having any observable mood change, which could be due to the fact that they were young and open-minded. The affection of an observer on people and the environment was not obvious.

3. Data analysis

In data analysis for RQ 4, all categories for coding were derived from a theoretical base of “dialogic approach”. No new categories were adopted. Meanwhile, in data analysis for RQ 5, all categories for coding process were generated from data naturally.

The plan was to categorise participants into Australians and Chinese, and analyse the relevant data respectively; however, this plan had to be abandoned due to the following reasons. Firstly, the citizenship of not all who were involved in specific communication could be identified through interviews and participation. While the

communications between different participants were to be analysed so as to find out whether a dialogic approach existed or not, not all people involved in certain communication situations were interviewed due to being missed by the random selection of interviewees. Also, for those whose citizenship was guessed at by their interlocutors when the latter were interviewed, some guesses were correct while others were not. Secondly, it is hard to make a comparison or contrast between Australian and Chinese participants of the event, as most people who participated in the event had both similar and different background. People are similar in the sense that all who went to the event had certain relationships with both Australia and China, either genetically, or due to their experience and interest (see Appendix 2: Anonymised table of participants of the case study). Also, people are different in the sense that they had different degrees of relationships to Australia and China. Moreover, no matter whether they were Australian or Chinese, participants communicated with each other on similar content and topics, using the same language - English, even though some Australians were fluent in Chinese while some Chinese were fluent in English. In sum, it is not practical to analyse data following category of different citizenship, and it is also not necessary to do so as the citizenship did not hinder the communication process or the application of the dialogic approach. Therefore, the categorisation was finally not adopted.

Summary

All the methodology and methods discussed above provided the roadmap for undertaking research to answer research questions in this thesis project.

The dominant methodology applied in this thesis was a qualitative approach. However, as the data may be quantified in case study, the research on the whole took a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodological approach. In the end, it helped answer the research questions correctly and appropriately.

RQ 1 and 2 will focus on the concept of GPD itself, while RQ 3 will provide further comparisons on the conceptualisation in two states discussed in RQ 1 and 2. One case study was chosen for RQ 4 and 5, so as to give an in-depth study of the core logic of dialogical approach in the conceptualisation of GPD. The three parts, in combination, will give a comparatively complete map of the conceptualisation of GPD.

For RQ 1 and 2, documentary data were collected, not only for the richness of data itself, but

also as a triangulation for the interview data, so as to gain greater validity for the research. Qualitative content analysis was applied to analyse these interview and documentary data.

RQ 3 used comparative methods to analyse the results for RQ 1 and 2, which was an appropriate method for looking into the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China, as well as better understanding of the concept itself.

RQ 4 and 5 adopted a case study designed in a way suitable for answering the research questions. The case was divided into three stages, with different methods applied respectively. The combination of sources of data in each stage allowed either triangulation (for validity of the data), or made up for the weakness of the other methods in each stage. The data may also be quantified during the case study, when necessary, for better answering the research questions.

To sum up, the core rule followed in this methodology and methods section is for the sake of a better and comprehensive answer to the research questions and the research as whole.

CHAPTER IV

CONCEPTUALISATION OF GRASSROOTS PUBLIC DIPLOMACY - FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the data collected to answer RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3. As mentioned in Methodology and Methods (Chapter III), the semi-structured interviews and relative documents and materials are the sources of data collected to answer RQ 1 and RQ 2, the discussions of which (in Chapter V) will be the findings for RQ3. The discussions of and results arising from the discussion are to be found in Chapter V.

This chapter will consist of an introduction, coding, findings (include findings for RQ 1, 2 and 3), and a summary.

Coding

In the findings below, there will be descriptions of all key subjects comprising the whole process of grassroots public diplomacy (GPD) one by one. Findings on each subject for GPD will consist of relevant interview and documentary data, if any. It will be followed by a graph, which summarises all the relevant elements so as to give a clear and general idea of that subject.

Interviewees' answers will be quoted later to support the finding points. However, due to ethical reasons, the interviewees have been promised anonymity in the thesis. Thus, the interviewees will be coded, so as to be referred to later. The rules for recognising the content of each interviewee are as the following.

As mentioned in Chapter III, the interviewees for RQ1 were selected from four sectors in Australia, which were six from the government sector, five from the media sector, five from the private sector and six from the public sector. Therefore, the six interviewees from the government are coded G1 to G6; the five from the media sector are coded M1 to M5; the five from the private sector are coded C1 to C5; and those six from the public sector are coded P1 to P6.

The interviewees for RQ2 were selected from the same four sectors in China, which include six from the government sector, five from the media sector, five from the private sector and five from the public sector. Following the coding rules above, the six interviewees from the government are coded G7 to G12; the five from media are coded M6 to M10; the five from the private sector are coded C6 to C10; and the five from the public sector are coded P7 to P11.

The content of each interviewee to be quoted will follow the rule of the code for the person and dash, plus the ordinal number. For instance, the first quote for interviewee G1 is coded as G1-1, the second quote for the same person is G1-2, etc.

The Australian documentary data will be coded following the rules of “A” representing Australia, followed by a dash, a letter representing the sector (G for state sector, M for media sector, C for private sector, P for public sector), plus “D” for documents so as to differentiate the coding from interview data, as well as a dash and the ordinal number. For instance, A-GD-1 refers to the first coding for documents from the government sector in Australia. The Chinese documentary data will be coded following the similar rules as Australian documents. The only difference is the first letter of “C” instead of “A”, representing China. For example, C-GD-1 refers to the first coding for documents for the government sector in China.

The graphs following the findings for each subject, will be coded following the rules below: the coding will start with the word “Graph”, followed by “4” (chapter number), and then a dash “-”, and capitalised word “A” or “C” (A for Australia, and C for China), followed again by a dash “-”, and finally the ordinal number. For instance, the first graph in interview data to answer RQ 1 related to Australia is coded as “Graph 4-A-1”. Similarly, for RQ 2 the code is “Graph 4-C-1”.

In all the findings below, the countries that the agents belong to is described as the “agent country”, and the object country that the objects belong to is described as the “object country”.

Now the coding rules are clear, the results of findings for RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3 will be shown below.

Findings

The findings will be shown following the order of findings for RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3.

RQ1: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia?

As mentioned in Chapter III, qualitative content analysis will be used to analyse all the data, the detailed application of which was described in the same chapter as well.

I set up the basic nodes (main subjects for GPD) according to communicative action theory, which is the main theoretical base for this thesis as described in the Literature Review (Chapter II). As mentioned in Chapter III, the interview questions were designed following the same theory. The original nodes created for classifying data were also based on the same theory. The nodes created in a deductive way include: agents, objects, and plan of action of agents, plan of action of objects, aims of agents, aims of objects, communicative act of agents, and communicative act of objects, agreement, and coordination. The meaning of these nodes will be explained below. Besides all these deductively generated nodes, there are also inductively generated ones, like process and result, which will also be explained below. The findings for each subject of GPD below will consist of interview data, documentary data if any, and a summary.

Agents

Interview data

“Agent” or “agents” in this thesis refers to the person or people who originate(s) the process of GPD.

The agents being grassroots or not in the whole process of GPD is essential according to the data, which can finally decide but not necessarily lead to GPD. “Agents” are therefore divided into “grassroots” and “non-grassroots” first. Some GPD have initiators while others don’t: “... but a lot ... would not initiate, but just attend” (G3-10).

As mentioned in Chapter II, “grassroots” refers to the fundamental level of a society, that is, the ordinary people of a society. The following findings will base on this.

1. Individual initiators

According to the interview data, the individual grassroots initiators have the following characteristics and practices.

a. Characteristics

The individual grassroots initiators are ordinary people: “ordinary people of each country” (M2-2).

They have the personalities of “...initiating...exchanges and enjoy what they are doing ... [with] persistence ...” (C3-2) as well as “... curiosity ... and enthusiasm” (C2-1).

Moreover, they have relevant resources including: “... some preexisting relationships in another country ... of persons and organisations ... [like] artistic links ...” (C3-3)

b. Practices

The individual grassroots initiators initiate GPD using various methods: “... bring in other activists to help ...” (C2-2), or “... do this personally ... [which] makes it powerful, because it’s genuine” (M2-1).

2. Groups and organisations as initiators

People mentioned different composition, features and practices of organisational grassroots initiators in interview data.

c. Composition

This group of initiators refer to “organisations and agents ... truly working with grassroots ...” (G6-1), and “NGOs ... smaller communities ... geographical communities ...” (P5-5)

d. Practices

Initiators have different practices. Some organisations organise activities with representatives like “leaders of communities ...” (P5-4).

They try to connect with counterparts in object country:

“... To connect with other official or unofficial associations in other countries ... only if the counterpart grassroots organisations in other countries are well developed could this kind of connections developed by the grassroots organisations be effective and real.” (P6-1)

e. Characteristics

Characteristics they have include having relevant resources (C3-3) and abilities: “ability ... to mobilise around these issues... bring people in, connect with organisations” (P5-3).

3. Individual practitioners

Despite the initiators, people who follow the initiators or practise by themselves could also be regarded as an important part of agents.

a. Composition

Individual grassroots practitioners involve those having experiences in and idea of the object country: “people educated overseas ... People have experiences in Australia and go back ...” (G1-2)

b. Reason for participation

The reasons of practitioners vary. It can be “... someone who felt about an issue ... never felt strong enough to start something. When they see it happen, they’d like to join ...” (G3-7); someone “... desire to do good ...” (M5-4), or “... to get recognition” (G5-4).

c. Practice

Practitioners are involved in GPD in different ways. Some are simply engaged by initiators: “government initiated...and funded, [which] relies on private citizen to actually engage in the activity” (C3-9); “... less main stream ... but more individual” (G5-5); “people who do these things didn’t think of diplomacy” (P6-4).

Some practitioners depend on certain media: “... social media” (G2-3) or “... through the minister or whoever the local representative is” (P1-2).

4. Organisational practitioners

The following are those usually participating in GPD as or from a group or organisation: “... people that are associated with the group ...” (M3-9); “... could be a group of people take on some social issue, and throw it into the public ...” (C1-3)

Non-grassroots

The non-grassroots agents mainly refer to initiators, as no non-grassroots practitioners are clearly identified in the data.

1. Individual initiators

The non-grassroots individual initiators are composed of “... government people, who get the salary and doing things there” (M5-7); “... Leadership is expected in the officer from our public office ...” (G5-3). The reason for them to initiate is “... responsibility” (G5-6) of their position.

2. Organisational initiators

The organisations as well as their characteristics and practices are mentioned below.

a. Composition

The non-grassroots organisational initiators are government-related organisations: “... backed or supported by the government” (G6-5); “government authorised organisations ... [like] official bands companies ...” (M1-8).

b. Practice

The government provides funding (C3-9), while the government supported organisations initiate directly (M1-8). However, some initiators don't work effectively: “the government ... is often local, captive or political ... very niche ... not [work] effectively ...” (M1-7)

However, some believe that government should not be involved: “... Grassroots should not have involved the state whatsoever ...” (G6-3)

Documents data

The point only the documentary data mention is cooperation between different agents:

“Collaboration between government, NGOs, universities and the private sector... all parties share networks, expertise and experience and all benefit from an enhanced image of Australia abroad.(Asialink, 2007, p. 1)” (A-PD-2)

The documentary data here not only have a triangulation function, but also as a complement to the interview data. As shown previously, the agents will be divided into grassroots and non-grassroots broadly.

Grassroots agents

1. Individual initiators

Some individual grassroots initiators have resources and skills:

“Diasporas make up the ‘living link’ connecting virtually every nation state in the world ... cultivating important personal relationships ... (Caitlin Byrne LLB, 2009, p. 112)”(A-PD-1)

2. Organisational initiators

The organisational grassroots initiators sometimes have the resources to connect and cooperate:

“... regions in planning programs and supporting networks of teachers ... schools (including students) in curriculum co-planning and co- design.(Cisco, 2012)” (A-CD-2)

3. Individual practitioners

There are documents mentioning individual practitioners.

a. Composition

They are basically ordinary people: “... volunteers have been placed overseas with government funding ... skilled young Australians on short-term assignments ... (AusAID, 2007, p12)” (A-GD-1)

b. Characteristics

They have influence, resources of networks and other skills (A-PD-1, A-GD-1).

c. Practice

Some individual practitioners are involved in initiated GPD (A-CD-2) while others are not.

4. Organisational practitioners

The organisational grassroots practitioners include different grassroots groups and organisations from the broad spectrum of society: “NGOs ... non-official organisations and groups (Australia. Parliament. Senate. Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs, Trade, Affairs, Defence, & Payne, 2007, p. 129)” (A-GD-3)

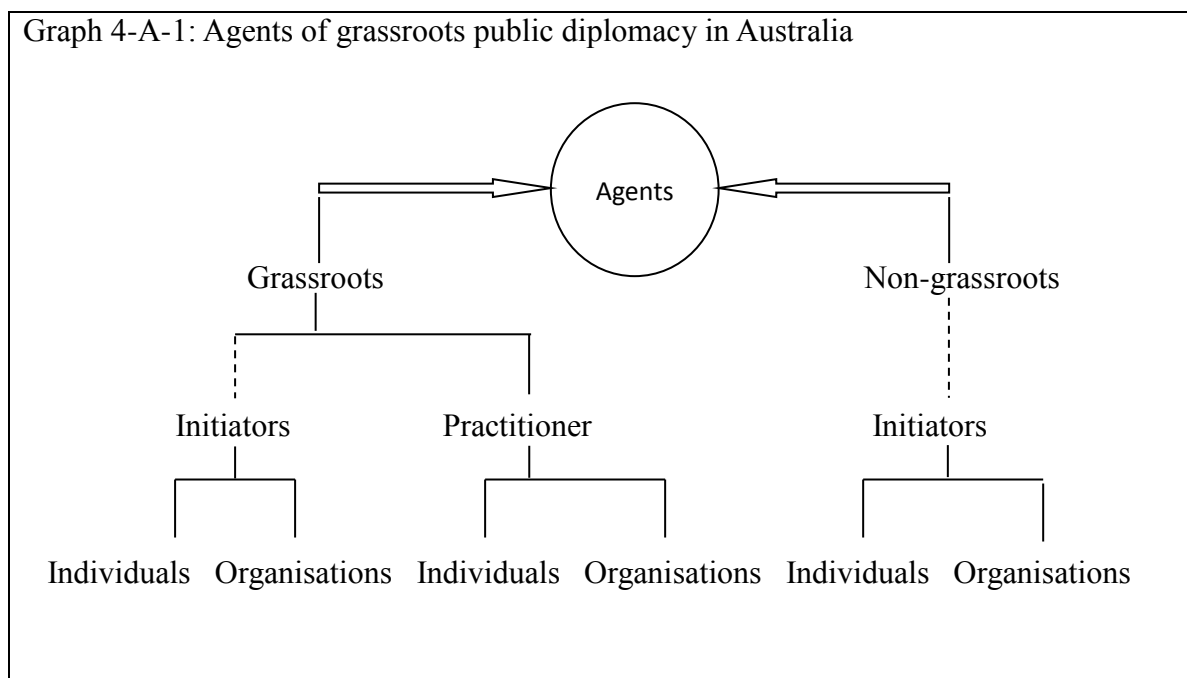
Non-grassroots agents

- Organisational initiators

The non-grassroots organisational initiators refer to governments that initiate and fund GPD activities (A-GD-1).

Section summary

According to the interview and documentary data, the composition of agents can be described by the following graph.



Graph 4-A-1 describes the classification of agents. Sometimes, there is no initiator

(M3-5), indicated by dotted line upon “Initiators” in the graph. The cooperation between different agents is shown as the circle of “Agents” and the arrows pointing to the circle in the graph.

Objects

Interview data

According to the data, there are two kinds of objects in the grassroots public diplomacy process: direct and indirect. This differentiation can also be used for dividing the communication process between agents and objects, which will be mentioned later in discussions. The following section will show the findings of the relevant data in sequence.

Direct objects

Direct objects refer to those objects that receive the information from the agents directly, including individuals and organisations or groups.

1. Individuals

a. Composition

Some direct individual objects have certain relevance to agents, like “public audience” (C1-4), “a partner” (P3-7), or “... counterparts ... who contribute to sharing perspectives ... [on] two-way bases” (M4-4). There can be a combination of objects as well: “an ordinary mix of people from the community” (G5-8).

b. Characteristics

Some direct individual objects are quite active: “want to learn your language ... [and] understand your history... you want to understand [them] too” (C4-4).

No matter whether they are active or not, objects are usually expected to be receptive: “If they are the segment of the population that is receptive, there is very little conflict ...” (G6-9)

Other ideal personalities are: “willingness to learn and be open-minded” (C2-8); being “able to negotiate, [and] having the knowledge of what you want ...” (G4-7)

c. Practice

The objects practise in different ways, some reject while others pass words on: “actively against what [the other side] are saying” (M3-10); “try to pass it on, if they want movement to get wider” (G6-8); “the grassroots person ... [would] takes them on like start a project ... and gets it going ...” (P1-6)

2. Organisations and groups

There are various direct organisational objects: “social organisations, depending on [agents’] aims and ideas” (G6-10). Some are cooperators with agents (P3-7), who is “trying to ... cooperate” (P5-11), especially counterparts that can make the GPD effective (P6-1).

Indirect Objects

1. Individuals

a. Composition

There are indirect individual objects in GPD: “in educational exchange programs ... people are affected by ... those direct participants” (C3-10), these people are indirect individual objects.

b. Reason for existence

Some direct objects would like to take words on (G6-8, P1-6). Also, there’s a ripple effect: “The affected ones are people in the community who have in touch with them, the ripple factor of the society is quite substantial” (C3-12), the indirect individual objects therefore exist.

2. Organisations

The only organisation mentioned as an indirect object in interview data is government: “... indirectly the state is the objective” (G6-11).

Documentary data

In the objects part, the documentary data contains information on direct objects, but not indirect ones, therefore the documentary data is a partial triangulation and complement to the

interview data.

Direct objects

There are individuals and organisations that act as direct objects.

1. Individuals

Direct individual objects are basically non-governmental people at grassroots level:

“Large numbers of students return to their home countries to build their careers and retain links and goodwill towards Australia. Equally, these students bring a cultural richness ... to both the universities and communities ... (Spence, 2012, p. 4)”(A-PD-9)

2. Organisations and groups

Direct organisational objects can be partner organisations that have corresponding needs: “... match Australians with organisations in developing countries needing support in particular areas ... (AusAID, 2007, p12)” (A-GD-5)

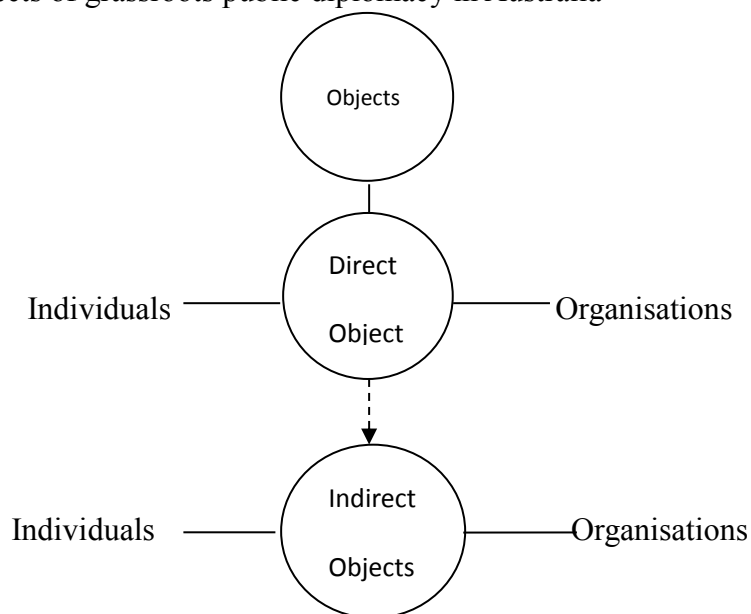
Role in the process

The GPD becomes a two-way communication process when objects have the need to be involved (A-GD-5): “... audience’ needs ... will vary ... influence the nature and delivery of the public diplomacy activity (Caitlin Byrne LLB, 2009, p. 230)” (A-PD-6). Agents and objects can exchange their roles in certain circumstances (A-PD-9).

Section summary

The composition of objects as well as some characteristics mentioned in the data above can be summarised by the graph below.

Graph 4-A-2: Objects of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



In Graph 4-A-2, the circle of objects shows the possibility of a combination of different objects (G5-8). Also, the graph shows the two-phase process involving direct and indirect objects, both of which could be divided into individual and organisational ones (G6-8, P1-6 and M2-6). The dotted arrow from direct to indirect objects indicates that indirect objects may or may not exist.

Plans of action of agents

Interview data

The interview data relating to the plans of actions of agents contain the situations of agents having and not having plans when practising GPD.

Having plans

The data related to the reason for having plans, the plan-making process and content of plans is listed below.

1. Reason for having plans

Some people have plans due to funding processes or long-term expectation. “Preplanning [is] required if you [have] got public money ... [It is also] true for private money ... [as] they won’t give away money to people who don’t

have plans” (C3-15). Also, if you don’t have plans, you will “not get very far” (G6-12).

2. Plan content

The agents have practical detailed plans: “... concept of idea, organisation, delegation of ideas to whoever will take care of that particular idea, implementation, [and] review in the office” (C1-5); “the plan ... [have] more short term ... [and] realistic goals ... [so as] to get to the final step ...” (M3-13)

People may plan to do other things when GPD takes place, like “... learning a foreign language” (M2-7).

3. Plan-making process

There are many factors affecting the whole plan-making process.

a. Capability:

Some don’t have the ability to make long term plans: “Smaller organisations ... don’t have the capacity to have long term plans for international exchange ...” (C2-11)

Meanwhile, some have the ability to make longer term plans: “... [At] higher level, there are policy plans ... [like] white paper” (C2-10).

b. Possibility:

Possibility is needed when planning: “Never go to something you know you won’t get.” (G4-9)

c. Object involvement :

The agents sometimes involve objects in plans or the planning process: “know the needs of the objects, reorganise the information, and then send the information to them” (P4-8); “what type of issues may arise on the other side of initiative, what we need ...” (C3-16); “... targeting a certain kind of audiences ... [They] can predict how they will react ... and working that way” (G3-13).

d. Flexibility

As issues may arise from the objects' side, agents should plan to be flexible:
“flexibility to change the outcome and what you want” (G4-8).

No plan

1. No plan whatsoever

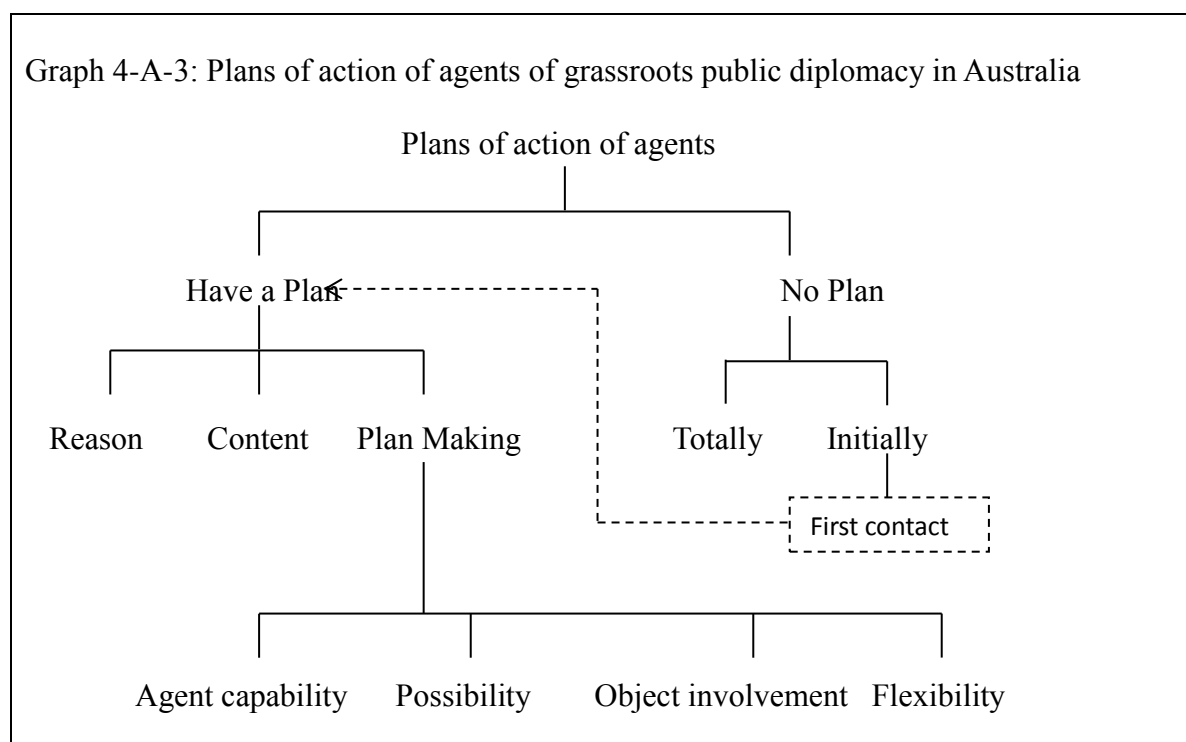
Some agents don't have plans: “serendipity just happens” (M4-7).

2. No plan initially

Some agents don't have plans initially: “... start might be just communicating by emails or whatever method with another country ...” (P1-8) but, after the first interactions, there may be plans following: “other further plans, maybe a more formal plan gets going.” (P2-5)

Section summary

The plans of action of agents can be divided into “having” and “no-plan” situations, which are reflected by the graph below.



In Graph 4-A-3, despite the composition of plans of action by agents, the no-plan situation can change to having a plan, which may or may not take place, and is shown by the dotted

rectangle of “first contact” as well as the dotted arrow pointing from first contact to having a plan.

Plans of action of objects

Interview data

According to the data, the objects of grassroots public diplomacy may or may not have plans initially.

Have plans

Not many objects have plans: “... those have plan [ones] ... are ... really [a] few percent of the participants” (G3-14); “you can have one-off grassroots public diplomacy, but in long term, you have to be a chain of things” (G6-13).

1. Composition of objects

Some objects are partners (also see C3-16): “there are well organised partners ... [who] also have plans ...” (M5-11)

2. Content of plans

Some objects plan to react to agents and get further: “they probably have plans ... [of] letting the message come to them, and reacting to it ... [or] breaking it down ... and trying to take it forward ...” (P1-7)

It can be getting feedback: “... to get some kind of feedback on your action results ...” (G3-11)

Some objects have other personal plans: “some people are looking for travel or education information” (P6-7).

3. Characteristics

The plans are supposed to be practical: “you could cut long-term goals into short-term steps.” (M3-14)

4. Practice

Some objects raise their needs, follow their plans or adjust them.

There are objects raising their needs:

“If in receiving country, somebody say [that he would like] ... to do this wonderful work ... that’s different ... the idea is initiated from the receiving country” (P2-7).

Some objects follow their own plans (P6-7), while others may change if “... their agenda is completely different from the other people’s agenda, and then they ... either being very similar, or a little bit different.”(M3-11)

No plans

There are objects having no plans when they participate in GPD.

1. Composition of objects

Most people don’t have plans: “... part of them is government or media people ... but for the rest of the people, I don’t think they would be [having plans].” (P1-9)

2. Situations

There are objects having no plans initially:

“I don’t think recipients want anything initially, otherwise they won’t wait till somebody come and tell them...” (G6-14)

Usually objects don’t have plans: “... unless he is the initiator, there should not be obvious plans.” (P4-9)

3. Practices

Some objects follow the agents’ plan: “[they] are approached, [so] they follow your plan” (G4-11).

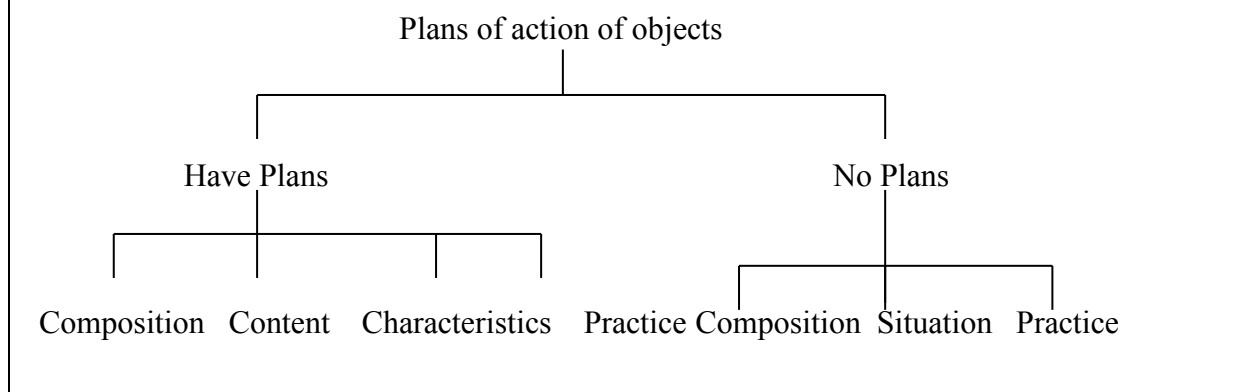
Other objects may pass it on:

“The initial receiver start to own the message, the idea, at that moment, I presume they want to spread to the wider population, and then to the government.” (G6-7)

Section summary

The graph below summarises the plans of action of objects that the interview data describe.

Graph 4-A-4: Plans of action of objects of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



Communication acts

Communication acts of agents

Interview data

According to the interview data, the communication acts that agents adopt include the following types: face-to-face and using media.

1. Face-to-face

Some agents adopt the “face-to-face” (C4-7) method to do GPD “in person” (P4-10).

2. Activities and programs

For instance, some agents organise various activities and programs: “programs of development” (G6-15), “seminars, information sessions ...” (P6-8). “Like ... sister cities with no national purpose” (P2-6).

“Performance, exhibition ... cultural exchanges ... it’s important that people ... [having] dialogue or a conversation. It’s where you encourage people to collaborate and engage others...” (M1-13)

Foreign language ability is essential for the face-to-face method: “In all exchanges, [there is] the appreciation for language ... to [help] effectively communicate ...” (C3-19)

3. Media

A lot of times, media are used by agents.

Some are written words: “I think most of this is written words through articles...to have it more wide spread” (G3-16), “written reports” (P5-13), “writing letters” (M5-6) “old fashioned marketing tools like printing documents and posters ...” (C2-14)

There are digital media used: “interactions between foreign public ... using digital media” (M2-8), “... email, Skype ... YouTube ...” (M5-9), “a website ... [with] populate information and images and so forth” (C3-18), traditional media like “TV and radio” (C1-2); “telephone” (C4-6) and “recordings you could buy” (G5-11); “initially the initiator starts with word of mouth, with meetings” (G3-17)

Agents may practise GPD through “middle persons” (intermediaries) like “opinion leaders” (G6-16); “going through some trade mission” (P1-10).

At different stages of communication, the communication methods could be different: in the early stage, face-to-face and middlemen are good ways to get started, while the media could help further advance it. However, no matter what methods the agents adopt, learning to “be a good listener” (M4-9) is always a good way to make the communication more effective.

Documentary data

The documentary data related to communication acts of agents covered content relevant to methods of face-to-face and using media directly, or depending on activities and programs and using people-to people links.

1. In-person

Some agents choose a direct, face-to-face, method like interviews and people-to-people linkage: “... ministerial interviews and interviews with Invest Australia's executive ... (Invest.Australia., 2007, p. 2)” (A-CD-3)

“... people-to-people linkage ... deliver fundamental and long-term trust and change in relations between states ... which are not primarily intended to be public diplomacy activity.(Caitlin Byrne LLB, 2009, p. 189)” (A-PD-15)

“Building relations through exchange of people ... provide many opportunities for individuals to experience and engage with other cultures ... often leads to collaborative relationships and mutually beneficial outcomes. (AMC, 2012, p.

3)” (A-PD-20)

Some of them are networking activities, which help improve the relationships between agents and objects: “... in a number of business matching and business networking activities around key international events ... (Invest.Australia., 2007, p. 5)” (A-CD-6)

“... people-to-people links between Australians and their counterparts in Asia ... can facilitate the exchange of cross-cultural knowledge and respect.(AIIA, 2012, p. 8)” (A-PD-13)

2. Activities and programs

The methods of activities and programs include partner cooperation, exchange programs and other activities.

a. Partner cooperation

Some individual and organisational agents cooperate with objects to carry out programs together: “... encouraging partnerships between Australian and Asian organisations and individuals.(Asialink, 2007, p. 2)” (A-PD-16); “New Colombo Plan ... enables ... collaboration in teaching and research between Universities (Steering.Group.of.the.New.Colombo.Plan, 2013, pp. 2-3)” (A-GD-14); “contemporary intercultural exchange programs ... are agreed, mutually understood, reciprocally valuable, objectives (Cisco, 2012)” (A-CD-11).

b. Other activities

There are other activities that agents adopt:

“... private activities—from art, education, popular culture to fashion, sports and news—have a bearing on foreign policy (Australia. Parliament. Senate. Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs et al., 2007, p. 129)” (A-GD-20).

3. Media

Some agents choose various media to help: “... dialogue ... a two-way street (Australia Parliament Senate Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs, Defence and Trade, Australia & Senate Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs and Defence, Marise Ann Payne., 2007, p. 79)” (A-GD-12) communication takes place:

“... interaction through a variety of media and fora to support ... the dialogue which

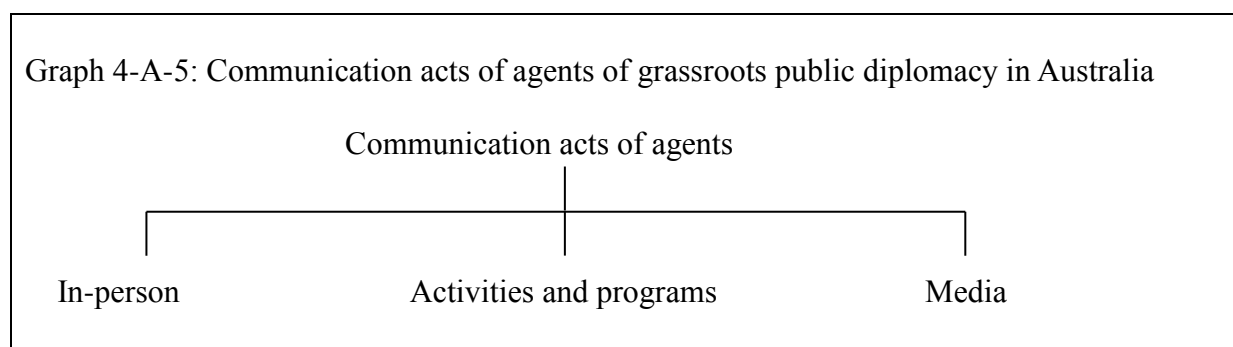
must surround them.(RMIT.University, 2007, p. 1)” (A-PD-14); “... interactive digital channels, wireless technologies ... collaborative virtual communities (Asialink, 2007, p. 7)”(A-PD-18); “... dialogue ... connecting with issues that engage foreign audiences and listening as well as talking.(Tyler, 2011)” (A-PD-12);

“... networked communications devices ... allow ... public participation ... ranges from voting and forum discussions, through interaction with content creators, to collaboration in content creation (ABC, 2012, p. 7)” (A-MD-6)

Some agents turn to help from middlemen: “international projects ... entirely self-funding with support from agencies (SCOTT, 2009)” (A-MD-8).

Section summary

The communication acts of agents can be summarised by the graph below:



Communication acts of objects

Interview data

The objects basically respond accordingly to the agents, but they could pass the word on as well.

1. Corresponding responses

Some objects use the same communication acts as the agents, while others follow the agents.

a. Same methods as agents

The methods objects use can be the same as agents: “... probably are the same. It might be social media, blogging or twitter or whatever” (G1-4), “because

communication is two-way” (C1-7).

b. Follow agents

Some objects participate by following a campaign, actively or passively: “delegations going ... [for] months’ meeting ... receivers ... just getting told” (P1-11); “online communities are quite vibrant and extensive ... people ... actively engage almost in real time ...” (C3-21)

The corresponding communication at the equal level is important: “all ways of communication methods, [on] a level playing field ... [are] more effective.”(P2-9)

2. Passing the word on

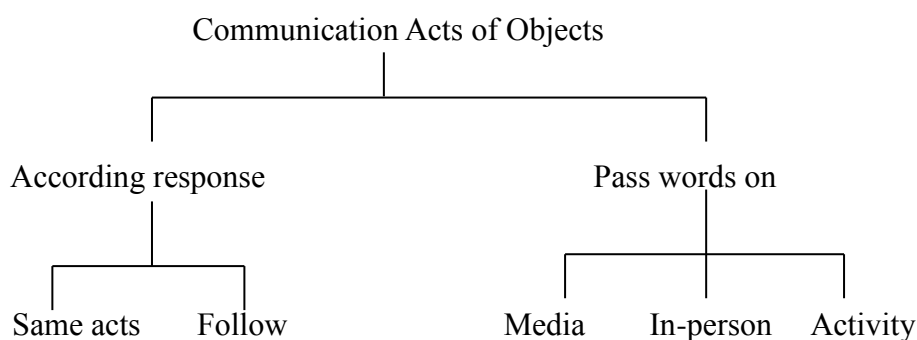
The objects use methods like media or in-person to pass the word on: “The more motivated ones might tell their friends and say you should know this and look at it, or even put it up in their Facebook accounts and say I find this ...” (G3-18);

“... If they try to pass it on, if you want movement to get wider, you would [depend on word of] mouth ... going back to initiate webs and exhibitions, cultural events ...” (G6-17)

Section summary

The graph below is a summary of the findings of communication acts of objects of grassroots public diplomacy mentioned above.

Graph 4-A-6: Communication acts of objects of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



Agreement

Interview data

The agreement between agents and objects can be divided into those occurring before and those happening during the GPD process – once both agents and objects are getting down to specific GPD practice, the GPD process starts. There may or may not be agreements before and/or during the process.

Agreement before GPD

There are agreements before GPD activity takes place: “... cultural event ... probably will be agreements ... [as] other recipients will have nothing to oppose to.” (G6-19)

1. Content

a. Government level

At the governmental level, the content of agreements is as the following: “the government level, there are ... agreements ... guide ... to work together” (C2-17), “once you get, it is a grassroots one ...” (P2-10)

b. Grassroots level

At the grassroots level, the agreements can have certain rules: “a club or an organisation, or groups ... have their own set of rules and principles that you have to abide by” (G3-20); “[some actors] have formulated joint visions so they write down together ...” (P5-12)

It can have certain understandings and needs: “some ... met each other before and have understanding about visions and processes” (P5-16); others include “non-written agreement about you’ll send and they’ll accept” (M1-14), as “two sides ... would have mutual needs” (P6-9).

2. Process

The process of achieving agreements has several characteristics.

a. Two-way

It is a two-way process (P5-12): “drawing a reciprocal agreement ... is a two-way

thing ... to ... get both sides involved” (C2-18).

b. Flexibility

Flexibility is another characteristic: “... has that flexibility to have the agreement that works for both sides ...” (C2-13)

c. Involving coordination

The actors have coordination to reach agreements: “... have whoever is going to facilitate the agreement ... learning about what they do... having that long term ... might compromise ...” (C2-16)

d. Equality

During this process, equality is an important factor.

“... Agreement ... can be influenced by the relative power of organisations. On a more equal footing, some sports teams ... go in good will, and ... come back with friendship and good will ...” (M5-17)

No agreement before GPD

There are situations where agreements are not reached before GPD starts:

“No agreements ... [exist, but] engagement ... can agree on something later” (M4-11); “if you want to organise something extreme, I don’t think there will be agreement ... it will depend on the message and how the recipients will think of it” (G6-20); “other party even not aware that is a problem till the need happens.” (M3-18)

Agreement during GPD

The content of agreement during GPD and the process of reaching the agreement are shown below. As long as one is willing to listen: “you want to sit down to listen to somebody else” (M4-12), there will be agreements during the process.

1. Content

The agreement can be formal or informal: “some groups ... work on a verbal understanding, while others would have a written agreement” (P5-17).

a. Rules of working together

There's agreement of rules: "reaching the agreement ... [and] constantly revisiting [on] how you do work together, [and] being productive" (P5-15)

b. Opinion

Some are agreements on the opinions of actors: "interact ... reach agreement ... on some of their opinion." (P4-11)

c. Goal

There is agreement of reaching certain goals: "a common goal ..." (P1-13); "during the process ... [actors] want the goal to be reached at the very end ..." (M3-20)

2. Process

There are several characteristics in the reaching of an agreement.

a. Equivalence

Equivalence of actors is sometimes needed for reaching agreements: "... it requires ... equivalence between the participants." (C3-20)

b. Flexibility

There are always unexpected changes, therefore, actors should keep revisiting the agreements with flexibility: "agreement, which they develop and keep revisiting" (P5-14); "... always unexpected changes on any projects, it requires ongoing discussion" (C3-11).

c. Intermediates

An intermediate is needed sometimes to help reach agreement: "... there is agreement ... you have to have an intermediate ... the middle man ... a sort of broken things" (C4-9); "middle person ... come up with a sort of agreement, to make sure they all working to the thing, agenda." (P1-3)

d. Interaction

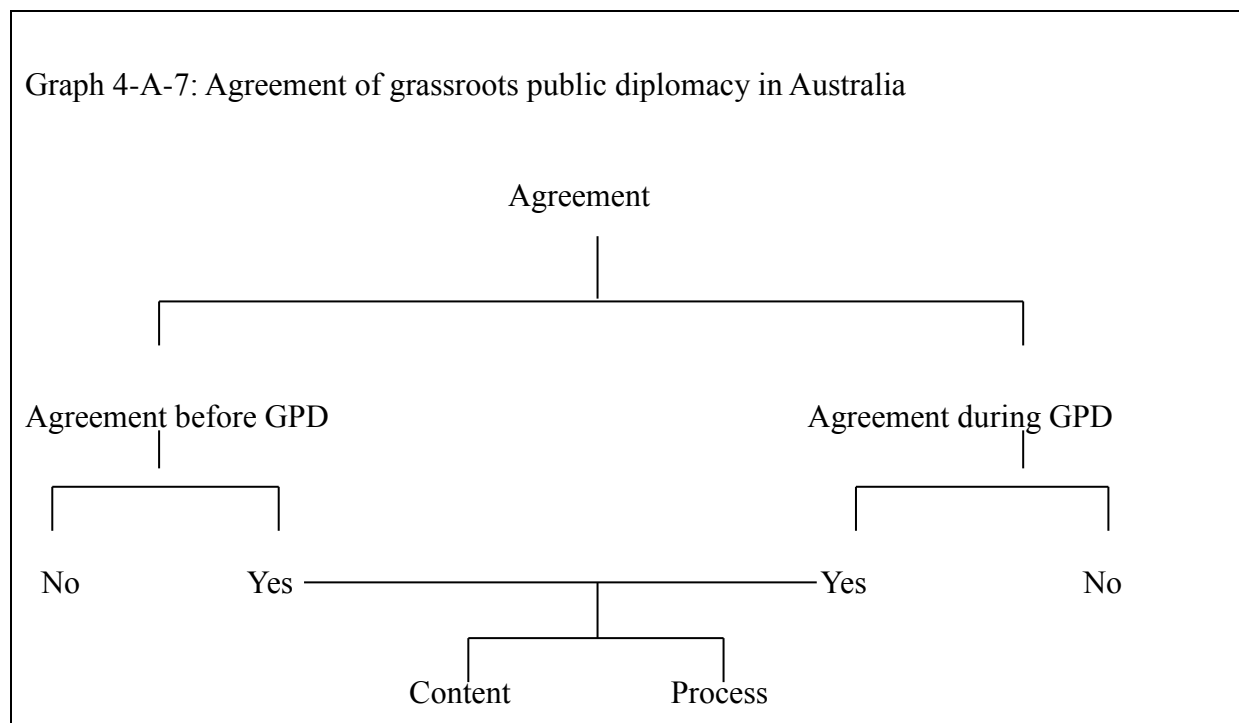
The interactions refer to ongoing discussions and negotiation between agents and objects to reach agreement (C3-11): “Agreements ... are [reached by] step by step ... negotiation in the process ...” (G4-14)

No agreement during GPD

There might be no agreement: “during the process ... [if] you have no pre-existing understanding of each other, it could make it risky.” (P3-14); “... we have our own thoughts, directions and idea” (C5-11), agreements may not be easy to achieve.

Section summary

Graph 4-A-7 below is a summary of agreements of grassroots public diplomacy.



Coordination

Interview data

According to the data, some believe that public diplomacy at the grassroots level could be simple, with not much coordination, while others regard the process as complicated and necessary.

Not much coordination

Some GPD is regarded as not having much coordination: “Some initiatives are pretty simple ... [and] not that much ongoing coordination is required ...” (C3-25); “if it’s citizen to citizen, I think it’s less organised process ... without coordination, more natural ...” (M2-13)

Having a coordination process

Some GPD involves coordination: “Some initiative requires quite a lot of interactive coordination process between the two sides ...” (C3-17). Coordination occurs in certain situations, with various content, and using different methods.

1. Situations

There is coordination for dealing with issues which occur: “... coordinate from organisational level, whether it is on a particular topic or issue ...” (M2-12)

2. Process

The process involves using a coordinator, ongoing interactions and compromising.

a. Coordinator

A coordinator sometimes exists (C2-16, P1-3).

“... Best way [is] ... having ... facilitator that will break the relationships ... that person has the experience on the ground, in your country, has the language, a few networks ... [and] the flexibility to work with the two and reach an agreement.” (C2-21)

“The intermediate ... has the same cultural background ... [and] be the bridge to start the process, persistent to it, and then get it done.” (P6-10)

b. Ongoing interaction

Coordination is a process of ongoing interactions: “you will [have to] change all the time [depending on] ... people ... cost ... fund ... budget” (M5-19), therefore, ongoing discussions, negotiations and revisiting are needed (C3-11, P5-14): “first contact would be small amount and short time. Later when trust has been set up, there’s coordination again.” (P6-11);

“in the individual level, it’s ... done by Skype and emails.” (M5-18)

c. Compromise

The actors might compromise (C2-16): “there may be one side or both sides yielding on certain points, or by further interaction to enlarge recognition, and then reach new agreement.” (P4-12)

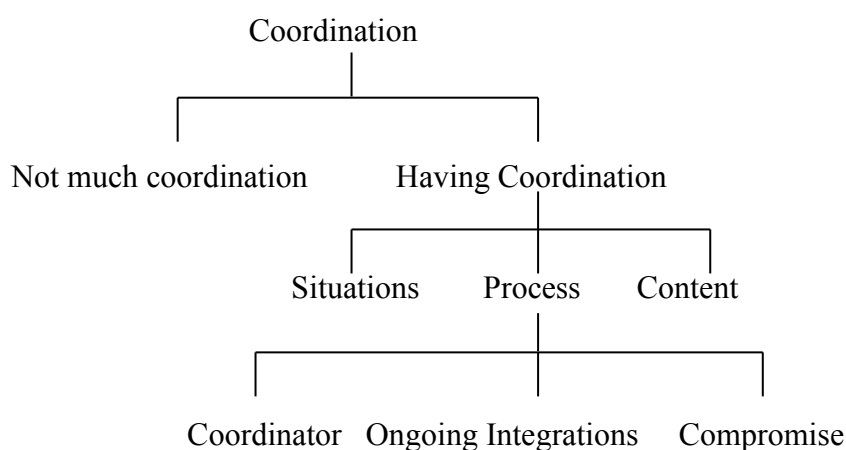
3. content

The content of coordination includes how to solve certain problems or issues which occur (M2-12, P5-15) or the organisational details like people, cost, funds and budget, which are changing all the time (M5-19), could be followed by further coordination (P6-11).

Section summary

The coordination process contains various situations, processes and content, which is described briefly in the graph below.

Graph 4-A-8: Coordination of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



Aims of Agents

Interview data

Agents have different aims for their GPD: “... what the target is ... the agenda is” (C5-13), “depending on what the situation actually is” (G4-16). The aims mentioned in the data include certain interest, better relations, better understanding.

Certain interests

Some agents have certain interests: "... genuine interest in that sport or star of music" (G5-17); "... fame and notoriety ..." (G3-22); "... not the aim of diplomacy, but commercial interest" (P6-12). These could incidentally end up in promoting the agent or agent country, like "promoting innovation of Australia (agent country) ..." (G1-5)

Raising understanding

The aim of some agents is to help objects understand them: "... to help the other party develop a more complete and hopefully more favorable and more supportive understanding." (C3-27)

The agents could aim at understanding themselves as well: "... It could be a journey of self-discovery." (M4-15)

Some agents would like to understand more about others: "to learn new things, more to learn about others' country and culture" (M4-14).

Some want to improve mutual understanding: "they all seek to improve our mutual understanding and thereby create a stronger relationship." (C3-26)

Enhancing relations

Some agents expect to have better relations with objects (C3-26) like cooperation and other broader things coming out of understanding:

"A greater cooperation ... a broader thing that they can be pleased between nations ... from understanding and ordinary people can communicate with one another..." (C4-11)

"This is about their organisational collective agenda ... more engagement with the partner ... in a way that pleases the other person ... agency, so that then they will cooperate with you in furthering a mutual agenda." (P3-16)

Documentary data

There are several aims of agents mentioned in the documentary data.

Enhancing relations

Some agents aim at enhancing relationships between actors at the grassroots level, which is a

good complement to government-level relations:

“... through establishing these communication channels at the non-government level, if relations become strained at the formal government level, then the lines of communication may remain open. (R. a. B. Smyth, Neil., 1997, pp. 99-100)” (A-PD-10)

People want to build people-to-people links to enhance relations: “ ... broadening and deepening bilateral contact and exchange. (Wainwright, 2007)” (A-GD-9) “Radio Australia seeks a more equitable and long term relationship with the region and audiences.(Green, 2007, p. 5)” (A-MD-1)

Raising understanding

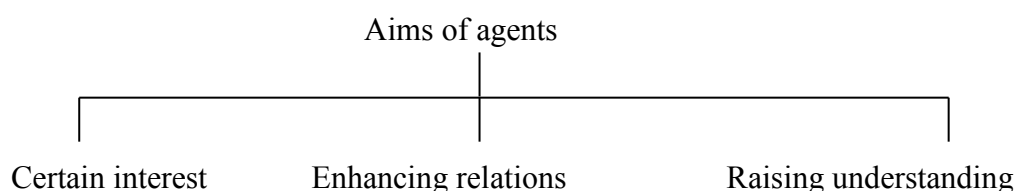
Some agents are aiming at understanding the objects: “... to provide opportunities for the visitors to share their own culture ... (AMC, 2012, p. 3)” (A-PD-11)

Some agents aim at strengthening understanding between agent and object countries: “... strengthen understanding within and between nations and help dispel misperceptions.(Australia, Minister, Cabinet, Force, & Gillard, 2012, p. 268)” (A-GD-7); “aim of improving mutual understanding across cultures ...” (R. a. B. Smyth, Neil., 1997, pp. 99-100)” (A-PD-17)

Section summary

Several aims of agents are mentioned in the interview and documentary data:

Graph 4-A-9: Aims of agents of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



Aims of Objects

Interview data

Some objects have aims while others don't: “It depends on what country they are in, and why they are engaged with the foreign country” (M2-16). “It depends on what the topic or issue would be, could be anything.” (C1-11)

No aims

Some objects do not have any conscious aims, or they won't wait till agents to tell them (G6-14): "You don't know who's even doing it, who to expect ... whether it works or not ... what the result is ..." (P2-14) Therefore, what they have may only be curiosity: "... curiosity ... about [the] mass[es]." (M4-16)

Having aims

The data suggest various aims that the objects have.

1. Certain interest

The objects can have their own interests: "the aims may not be consistent with the initiator. It could be personal economic interest, political ambitions, belief" (P4-5); "having interest ... to understand more about the other culture" (P6-13).

It could be more general interest: "To ... [make] positive contribution, make a difference, and change the world ..." (P5-20)

2. Interactions

Some objects are aiming at fairer interactions with agents: "they are more fair exchange than some country doing something for the other." (M5-22)

3. Better understanding

There is the aim of seeking greater understanding of, or learning about, the agents (P6-13): "to learn about the other culture ... learning, sharing, interacting, and whatever they personally take away from that is great." (C2-25)

4. Better relationships

There are objects willing to have or promote connections and better relationships between agents and objects: "... passionate at promoting better relationship between Australia and China" (P6-15).

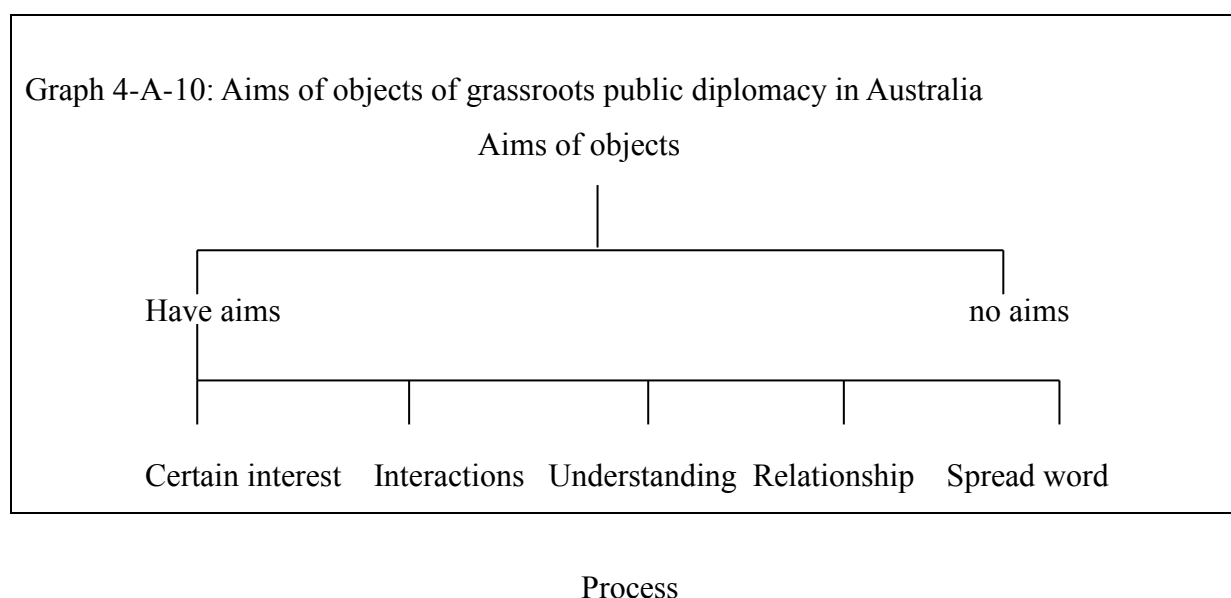
5. Spreading the word

Some objects are willing to spread the word after receiving the message from the

agents (G6-7), which formulate a two-phase communication for the objects: receiving message - spreading the word. (The same point was mentioned in plans of action of objects above, however, the difference between plan and aim is that aim refers to certain general willingness before practice, while plan is to practically direct the detailed practices of actors.)

Section summary

The descriptions of the aims of objects are shown in the graph below:



Interview data

The process does not refer to the whole process, but those segments drawn from interview data, which contain many practical practices at the grassroots level. The findings below show several important steps in the process of GPD, as well as the characteristics of the process.

Detailed process

1. Agents' practice

a. Seeking funding

Some initiators actively seek funding to support their GPD practices:

"Private Citizen makes grant application ... with competitive process, and people may receive money from ... government ... to conduct programs on a people-to-people bases ..." (C3-8)

b. Organising

Some agents do organising work: “organisations ... bring people in ...” (P5-7).

c. First-hand experience

Some agents go to the object country to experience and understand objects: “experience living for a short period of time and other circumstances in other places and other nations” (M4-13).

d. Skill and resources

Some use skills and resources to help participate in GPD: “... use ... language, links and connections ... [which are] realistic approaches ...” (G4-19)

e. Flexibility

The agents are flexible throughout the whole process (G4-8).

2. Objects’ practices

a. Raising initial idea

Objects could, but not necessarily, raise the idea of GPD projects initially: “... people in the other country ... get change and get funding, or get assistance, get access to education ...” (M5-14)

b. First-hand experience

Some objects go to the agent country and experience it for themselves: “... come to Australia (agent country) ... [and] see for ... [themselves]” (M1-17).

c. Spreading the word

Some of the objects would pass the word on (G6-7).

3. Two-way communication

There’s a process to build connections between agents and objects, especially people-to-people links: “... spontaneously like a rock group knows about one another ... [and] work together” (P2-4); “put connect with organisations” (P5-8). Actors can

connect through a middle person (P1-2, C4-9) as well.

Characteristics

1. Incidental

It is sometimes an incidental process (C3-12): “It must be incidental, day-to-day, unspectacular things that keep on going” (M4-17).

2. Grassroots

Grassroots public diplomacy is genuine and authentic (M2-1): “... that’s type of engagement where it’s more credible because it’s authentic, it’s not generated for someone, but because they enjoy what we offer.” (M2-10)

Documents data

Several processes are mentioned in the documentary data.

Agents’ practices

1. Organisational support

There are organisations, including governments (A-GD-1), which support organisational and individual practitioners by sponsoring and creating programs: “... the technology and communications infrastructure ... to sustain and support a global community of Australian professionals (Douglas, 2007)” (A-CD-12); “the FCA is constantly working with sponsor organisations and companies that have an interest in exposure in the countries our members represent.(Walterlin, 2007)” (A-MD-10) “... Australian universities ... create more exchange programs...collaboration with countries ... (AIIA, 2012, p. 9)” (A-PD-26)

2. Coordinating committee

There is also an interdepartmental committee to coordinate a combination of agents and various resources:

“Establish a loose network of individuals and agencies involved in public and citizen diplomacy ... Consider establishment of an agency responsible for coordinating public and citizen diplomacy efforts in Australia.(Tyler, 2011)” (A-PD-32)

Objects' practices

Some objects passively accept messages from agents or respond to them: "... this two-way format of public diplomacy ... messages are received ... response that the message might evoke from the recipient. (Caitlin Byrne LLB, 2009, p. 124)" (A-PD-36)

Two-way communication

There's a process of two-way communication between agents and objects:

1. Building people-to-people links

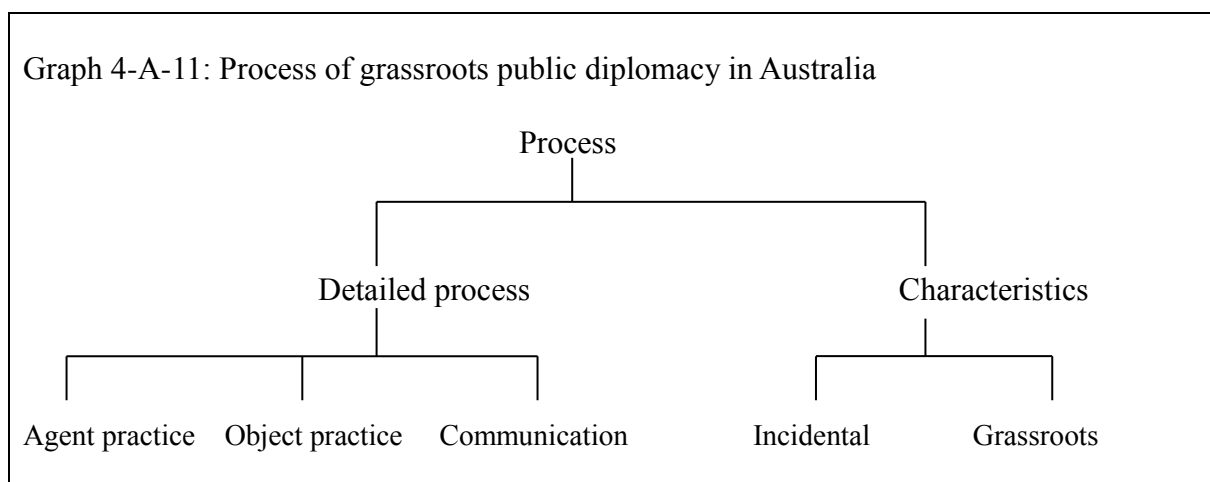
"... strengthen ... 'interpersonal ties' by providing as many opportunities as possible for the citizens of both countries to interact.(R. a. B. Smyth, Neil., 1997, p. 99)" (A-PD-31) "... building people-to-people links with future Asian leaders (AIIA, 2012, pp. 7-8)" (A-PD-25).

2. Fostering dialogue

People interact using methods like fostering dialogue based on new technology: "Connect audiences ... and foster an informed dialogue (Green, 2007, p. 3)" (A-MD-12); "... a new model based on interaction via video rich applications, social networking ... online tools ... (Cisco, 2012)" (A-CD-13)

Section summary

Several processes are drawn from interview and documentary data, as shown in Graph 4-A-11 below.



Results

Interview data

The results listed here do not indicate the successfulness of grassroots public diplomacy. As no matter whether successful or not, there will be certain results. But some people mention that as long as the prospective result is achieved, it can be regarded as successful: “If you can tell them, look, our interests are mutual ... you turn your agenda into their agenda ... that is successful ...” (P3-11)

Even if the aims are not attained, there are incidental results that might be even greater than you can expect. Several results mentioned in the interviews are listed below.

Better understanding

The agents could better understand the objects, their culture and country (M4-14).

Better image

Some GPD could result in agents’ images being increased: “... increasing the positive profile” (M2-17); for GPD with agents having their own goals at the beginning (P6-4), they can incidentally “write a message ... and image about Australia (agent country) ...” (G2-7)

Influence

Some objects influence others in certain ways: “... have influence, and be part of a more constructive and productive debate in different ways” (P5-6); “they will only perceive the message ... [and] communicate to their masses [if] it’s something they are benefit on ... [or] looking for” (P1-18).

Better relationship

There is a result of relations between agents and objects being established and enhanced at the grassroots level to “... build understanding and mutual trust and relationships at the low key sort of level.” (M4-10) For instance, “... in [our] history ... we forged many of our strong relationships ... through sport ...” (G5-20)

Agreement

Another result is agreement between actors. Certain agreements on some opinions are reached

through interactions between agents and objects (P4-11), including mutual interest, agenda (P3-11) or trust (M4-10).

Documentary data

Several results are also mentioned in the documentary data.

Complement

One result is that GPD is a complement to traditional diplomacy: “They are a conduit for ideas and opportunities ... that may not be amenable to government resolution. (Australia et al., 2012, p. 263)” (A-GD-28)

Better understanding

There’s a result of intercultural understanding being improved: “... educating the youth of both countries to understand each other’s cultural mores. (Wainwright, 2007)” (A-GD-27)

Some agents better understand the objects: “Asian ‘literacy’ and a well-developed understanding of the diverse range of regional issues and perspectives will be critical to a successful engagement with Asia. (ABC, 2012, p. 12)” (A-MD-13)

Some objects have further understanding of agents: “... major events like festivals allows fosters further understanding of the ‘story’ of Australia as a creative, diverse and innovative culture in mass audiences.(O’Neil, 2007)” (A-CD-19)

Better image

Some objects have certain impressions of the agent country (A-PD-9), therefore, the image of the agent and agent country in objects’ mind can be enhanced (A-CD-19).

Influence

Objects like those international students who work in senior positions in an object country (A-PD-9) would have impact, as opinion leaders, on people in the object country after going home: “... students went on to distinguished careers ... have a very personal and lasting impact ... (U. Australia, 2009, pp. 52, 56-57)”(A-PD-38)

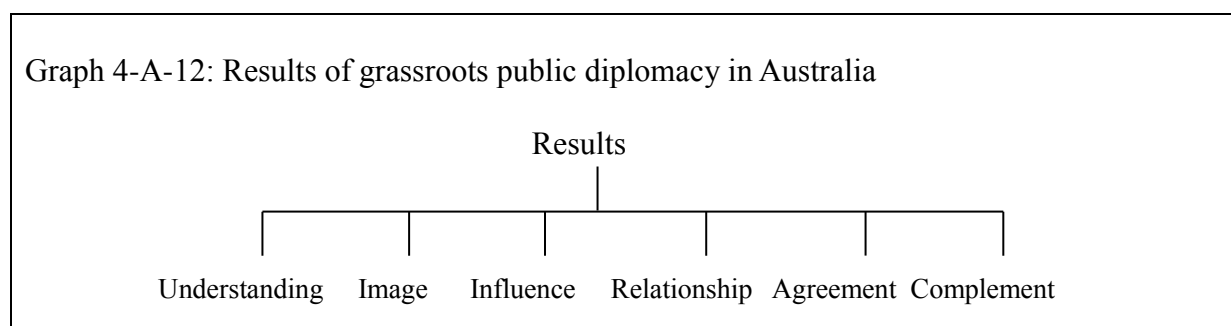
Better relationships

Some GPD results in better relations between agents and objects (A-PD-9): “Establishing strong cultural and social links with Asian populations will, over time, facilitate stronger economic ties and more productive collaboration with the region. (ABC, 2012)” (A-MD-17); “the collaboration and knowledge developed in programs ... successful in ... relationships between cultures ... people (O'Neil, 2007)” (A-CD-10).

“... boosts tourism because family and friends visit students in Australia ... Intensive people-to-people ties are being created between these migrants and family members in their home country.(U. Australia, 2009, pp. 52, 56-57)” (A-PD-37)

Section summary

Various results mentioned in the interview and documentary data are summarised in the graph below:



RQ2: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in China?

Again, similar to the interview data for RQ1 above, I set up the basic nodes according to communicative action theory. The original nodes created in a deductive way for classifying data are the same as those in RQ1 above, which include agents, objects, aims of agents, aims of objects, and plans of action of agents, plans of action of objects, communicative act of agents, and communicative acts of objects, agreement, and coordination of action. The meaning of these nodes was explained above. Besides all these deductively generated nodes, there are also inductively generated ones of process and result, the same as those in RQ1 as well. There will be a graph for each node as a summary for the following data displayed.

Also, as all the interview and documentary data from answering RQ2 are in Chinese, all the data quoted below are translated into English for better understanding and convenience for research and analysis.

Interview data

Individual initiators

In GPD, initiators do not always exist: “... people are doing another thing ... [like] work, travel and study ... and objectively result in others having impression on Chinese, no need to initiate this kind of activities ...” (G9-2) But they do exist in some circumstances.

Individual initiators are described below.

1. Composition

Some individual initiators are unconscious ones, who are:

“... individuals ... with resources ... experiences ... money ... networks ... want to enhance interactions ... having economic interest ... spontaneously initiated ... having interest in it ... professional background ... organising capability ...” (C6-2)

Some are conscious ones like “... public diplomacy officers ... [who] organise companies and cultural organisations to participate ...” (P10-1)

2. Characteristics

They have the characteristics of having opportunities, abilities, passion, networks, certain influence, knowledge, professionalism, and other various resources (C6-2).

Basically, they are ordinary people from the agent country: “... ordinary people ... exclude any organised [ones]” (C10-1).

“Ordinary people ... exclude celebrities ... having certain influence but not to a high degree...no high status in social, economic, political area ... with certain communicating ability, professionalism ... rich, loose and complicated composition” (P9-1).

Organisational initiators

1. Composition

The organisational initiators vary, including grassroots organisations and groups, semi-official civil institutions and government.

“Grassroots organisations ... groups ...” (C9-2); “friendship associations ... in China ... semi-official civil institutions” (G8-2); “government ... bring people to participate in public diplomacy through coordination ... initiating with conscious” (P8-3), and “would guide directions of organising a series of activities” (M9-2).

“... more would be initiated by grassroots associations or even the government ... they need more credibility of the government, and support of government.” (G9-3)

2. Characteristics

They are regarded as having experience, resources, certain understanding of the object country and its culture (C6-2).

Individual practitioners

The individual practitioners are those who have the opportunity to interact with foreigners: “students studying abroad, ordinary people going abroad to travel, [having] cultural exchange ... bringing certain understanding to national image.” (G10-2) The following are different individual practitioners and their characteristics.

1. Composition

a. Ordinary people

There are more grassroots practitioners who are ordinary people: “grassroots participators” (M9-1); “not government leading ... more between individuals, ordinary public ...” (C6-1)

b. Opinion leaders

Some of them are opinion leaders: “public elite, opinion leaders” (G11-1); “... at the media level, activists are opinion leaders in leading ... having many fans ... [who could] spread wider ...” (M10-2)

But this is not agreed on, as there are arguments that agents are more grassroots, not official or elite individuals: “... people ... not official, not elite ...” (P11-1)

2. Characteristics

a. Role reversal

Agents sometimes exchange roles with objects: “Those going abroad and accepting information directly are recipients abroad; but those foreigners who contact with them are their recipients as well.” (G10-5)

b. Incidental

They could be partially conscious or unconscious of doing GPD: “... ordinary people ... not so conscious ... [when having] dialogue ... peer to peer” (P10-2); “main characteristics ... [having] interactions at the grassroots level ... without conscious” (M10-13).

c. Passive and active participation

Some people just follow, while others play an active role: “usually people just follow ... [when using] new media ... ordinary people could upload videos ... [and] play a significant role ...” (G7-2)

Organisational practitioners

Organisational practitioners are basically non-governmental or grassroots organisations and groups, who are partially conscious or unconscious (P10-2, M10-13) when practising: “... Public groups or social groups, grassroots organisations, NGO ... resolve disputes; tell stories about the home country.” (G12-1)

Documents data

Organisational initiator

‘Organisational initiators’ refers to various organisations and groups, including government: “... enterprises ... groups ... spontaneous actions ... or cities ... government initiating, grassroots promoting ... to public ... elites ...”(Wang(王义枢), 2012) (C-PD-9); “... cultural groups, academic ... governmental agencies promoting, grassroots interacting ...”(Wang(王文佳), 2010) (C-MD-11)

Individual practitioners

1. Ordinary people

Individual practitioners could be the general public: “... public to public ...” (Liao(廖雷), 2011)(C-PD-26). Grassroots individuals are especially mentioned: “... individual and nongovernmental public ...” (Pang(庞中英), 2013)(C-PD-12)

They have the relevant knowledge, capability, passion and opportunities to interact with foreigners: “... public know about situations home and abroad ... with capability and passionate ...” (Sun(孙萍), 2010)(C-PD-20). “Religious believers and foreigners ... live in China ... could become ... subjects and objects of public diplomacy” (Zheng (郑筱筠), 2013) (C-PD-2).

2. Intermediate elites (Li & Chitty, 2009, p.7)

They can also be members of intermediate elite who are placed equidistantly between the public and policy elites (Lasswell, 1958; Lasswell, 1965):

“... visiting scholars ... better understand and bring resources back ... learning process ... recommend young scholars out ... continue visiting ...” (Wang(王玮), Chen(陈阳), & Cheng(程秀秀), 2010) (C-MD-22)

Organisational practitioners

Organisational practitioners are basically non-governmental or grassroots organisations and groups.

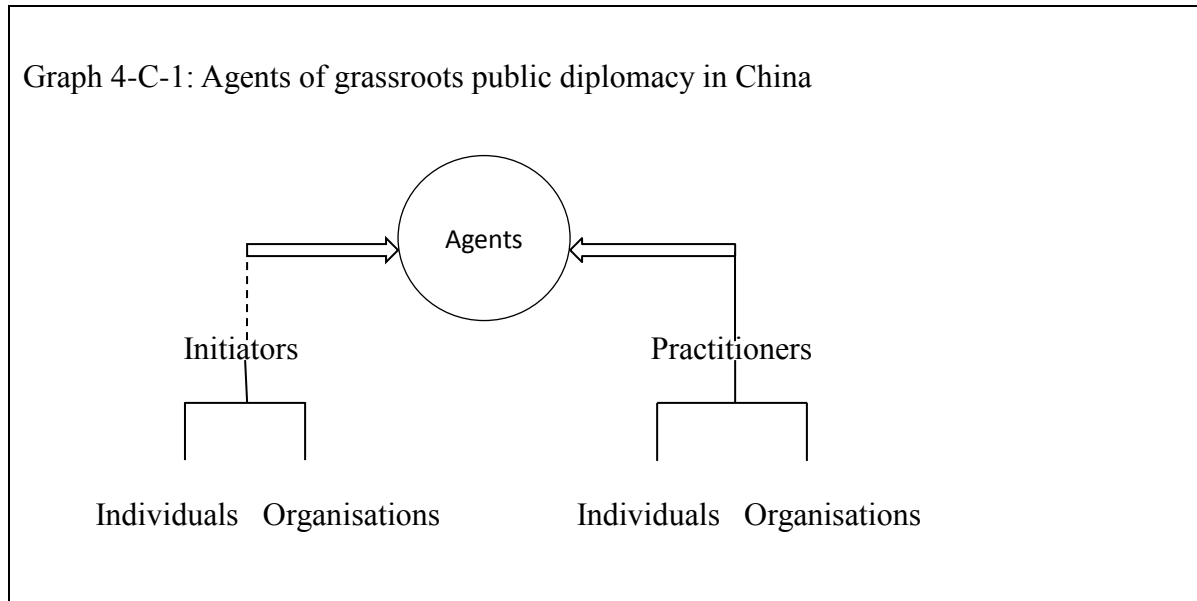
“... nongovernmental think-tank visit overseas ... join international forums ... NGO ... grassroots organisations ... [using] mass media at home ... journals ... books ...” (Ke(柯银斌) & Zhao(赵新利), 2012)(C-PD-25)

They have opportunities to interact with people abroad: “... grassroots groups visiting abroad, holding forums in different areas ...”(Ge(葛军), 2012) (C-MD-2)

Some of them are conscious ones, like “think-tanks” (Wang (王莉丽), 2013) (C-MD-14), while some are partially conscious or unconscious: “... NGOs, multinational enterprises ... showcase Chinese image more or less ...” (Yang(杨兴锋), 2010) (C-MD-3)

Section summary

According to the data, agents can be categorised as individual and organisational initiators and practitioners. The graph below summarises the situation of agents of grassroots public diplomacy based on interview and documentary data.



Initiators may not exist, depending on the situation, as shown by the dotted line when categorising them in the graph (G9-2). The agents could be a loose but complex composition of various individuals and organisational initiators and practitioners (P9-1, P8-3) as shown by the circle for agents in the graph above.

Objects

Interview data

The objects could basically be divided into individual or organisational direct and indirect objects.

Direct individual objects

1. Composition

Direct individual objects include ordinary people (C6-1), public elite and opinion leaders: "... public abroad ... counterparts ... opinion leaders ... elite ... directly or pass on to elite groups ..." (P11-2) "grassroots are ordinary people, media and opinion

leader [that could] influence public ... [and] interest in the initiating country, having recognition.” (G11-5)

2. Characteristics

a. Receptive

Some of these objects are receptive: “... religious believers, audiences, people ... [who are] easily influenced, [having] complicated composition, unstable and selective” (P9-2).

b. Active

There are active ones as well: “... experts in certain area ... know and participate accidentally ... love interacting, expressing their opinions and discussing ...” (C7-3)

c. Having needs and opportunity

These objects have the needs and opportunity to participate in GPD: “individuals work, live, and have social activities abroad, accepting information, and passing the words on through certain ways” (G10-4).

d. Effectiveness

Those with interest and an open mind can make GPD effective: “Effective audiences are those interested in China, wanting to understand, and having the channel to get the information.”(G8-6)

Direct organisational objects

Direct organisational objects include grassroots and non-grassroots organisations and groups: “Similar grassroots groups, stakeholder groups, middle class and government ... depending on ... content close to whom” (M7-3); “grassroots communities, groups ... counterparts ... directly or pass on” (P11-12).

Direct objects as middleman

There’s a special group of direct objects that pass the word on (G10-4), who are a bridge between direct and indirect objects. They could be opinion leaders or just ordinary people or

groups (P11-2, P11-12): “the active objects have certain responsibility for the society or in certain position like scholars ... [who have the] responsibility to disseminate to public in their country” (G10-7).

Indirect individual objects

Indirect individual objects are those receiving information from middle persons among direct objects (G11-5). They could be elite (P11-2), or ordinary people without experience:

“They don’t have direct experience ... easy to believe what people around them bring to them; they would question information got from other channels ... do comparisons ... expect to ... get the truth ...” (G10-6)

Documents data

The documentary data mention direct individual and organisational objects, as well as indirect organisational objects. The documentary data has a triangulation function, in terms of the former direct ones. It is a complement to the interview data, in terms of the indirect organisational objects, which was not mentioned in the interview data.

Direct individual objects

1. Composition

Direct individual objects include ordinary people in the object country: “... educational exchanges ... local people feel more about Chinese culture and friendship ...” (Zhang (章轲), 2011) (C-GD-13)

They could be public elite (C-PD-9): “... influence think-tank” (Wang(王莉丽), 2012) (C-PD-17).

Although they are mainly non-governmental individuals (C-PD-12), they could be foreign politician as well: “... inviting foreign politicians to have dialogue with our people ...”(C-MD-21)

2. Characteristics

These objects usually have the opportunity to have contact with agents, for instance, living in the agent country (C-PD-2):

“... Volunteers ... young people ... warm the heart of visitors from around

the world ... become best business card for expressing China to the world ...”(Hou(侯丽军), Liang(梁淋淋), Wang(王琳琳), & Yang(杨越), 2011) (C-PD-1)

Direct organisational objects

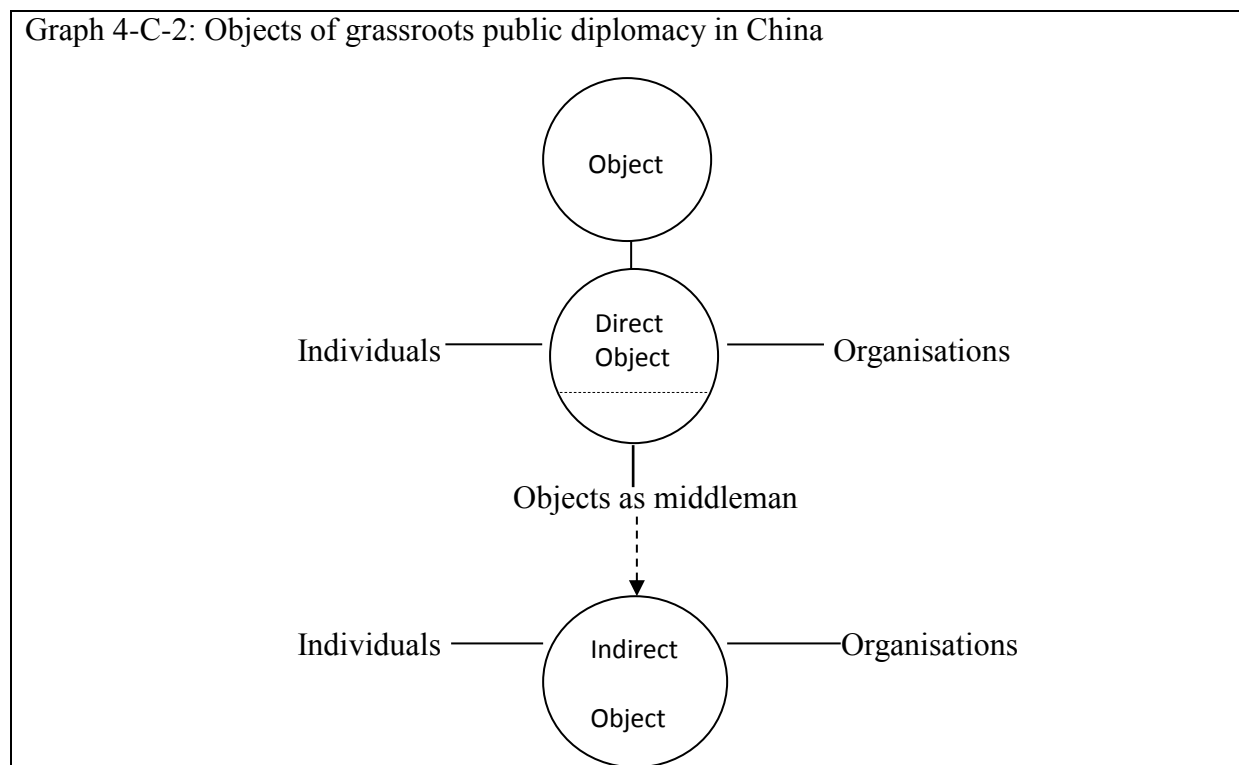
Direct organisational objects include various groups and organisations: “... foreign government and enterprises ... exchange and cooperation ... quasi-non-governmental, non-governmental think-tanks facilitate ...” (Long(龙曦), 2012) (C-CD-1)

Indirect organisational objects

The only indirect organisational object mentioned in the data is the government of an object country: “... public to public ... and then to the government of another country ...”(Zhao (赵启正), 2010)(C-GD-4)

Section summary

According to the interview and documentary data, the objects of grassroots public diplomacy can be segmented into direct and indirect individuals and organisations. Graph 4-C-2 below describes the composition of objects of grassroots public diplomacy in China.



In Graph 4-C-2, a small part of the circle of direct objects is named as ‘objects as middleman’

in the graph, to indicate only those direct objects that pass the word on to the indirect objects (G10-4), (without details of proportions being discussed here).

Plans of action of agents

Interview data

There are several types of plans mentioned in the data: no plan, simple plan and detailed plan.

No plan

Some agents of grassroots public diplomacy activities don't have much of a plan: "... spontaneously, without much plan" (G8-10). These unconscious activities can be followed by incidental public diplomacy result: "not clear ... just share information ... objectively result in national image increasing" (P11-3).

Simple plans

Some agents have very general and simple plans, "... depending on importance, backing power, and future ... casual or planned" (P8-5).

The plans are general and subject to change: "... unpredictable ... could know the direction, but not the details ... can't control if people pass the words on." (M6-11)

Detailed plans

Some agents have detailed plans depending on the situation (P8-5). The contents of plans vary: "... own steps for problems met" (P9-3); "... plan of book writing ..." (G10-11)

The reason can be the nature of GPD itself or the habits of agents: "If the goal is something big, then you would have plans, the well-educated ones would be well-planned" (G7-13).

Detailed plans are regarded as usually being for short-term and specific events, which are not effective immediately but in the longer term: "... effective in long term ... specific events for short term ..." (P10-4)

Based on the data, the processes of plans contain implementation, evaluation and follow-ups after a preparation stage: "... more experienced ones organise [activities] following timelines: preparations, communication, organising, summary ... having experience for later ..." (C6-7)

1. Preparation

During the preparation stage, agents are supposed to prepare themselves and objects:

“... decide to do the activity or not, who are the audiences ... decide media to use, form, and implementation ... evaluation of whether expectations are reached ...” (C8-9)

2. Plan of action

After the decision is made, the plans of action follow. The plan involves several parts of content of implementation, evaluation and follow-ups: “grassroots cultural exchanges: inviting and contacts; promotion; implementation; evaluation” (P7-4); “... contact, connected, discussing, fix plans, exchange, follow-ups, make it regular ...” (P8-7)

a. Implementing the plan

The most important part of the plan is communication and agents’ organising work during the process (C6-7): “... preparations ... people responsible for each section ... budget ... other details like proposal, people ... inviting ... held ... follow-up ...” (C7-7)

Adjustment is an important factor of agents’ implementing plans: “... initially get experience ... adjust accordingly ...” (G12-7); “planning ... and to decide whether to adjust or not in the next step according to the reaction of the participants.” (M9-3)

Agents plan to have better understanding and influence through implementing plans: “... let them know about the real situation, and clarify the misunderstandings through communication” (G8-11); “... communicating with the opinion leaders through forums, and then [they] publish articles and advertisement in their media.” (G11-10)

b. Evaluation plan

There should be a plan of evaluation, in order to have a summary (C8-9) at the end to provide experience for the next organising process (C6-7).

c. Follow-ups plan

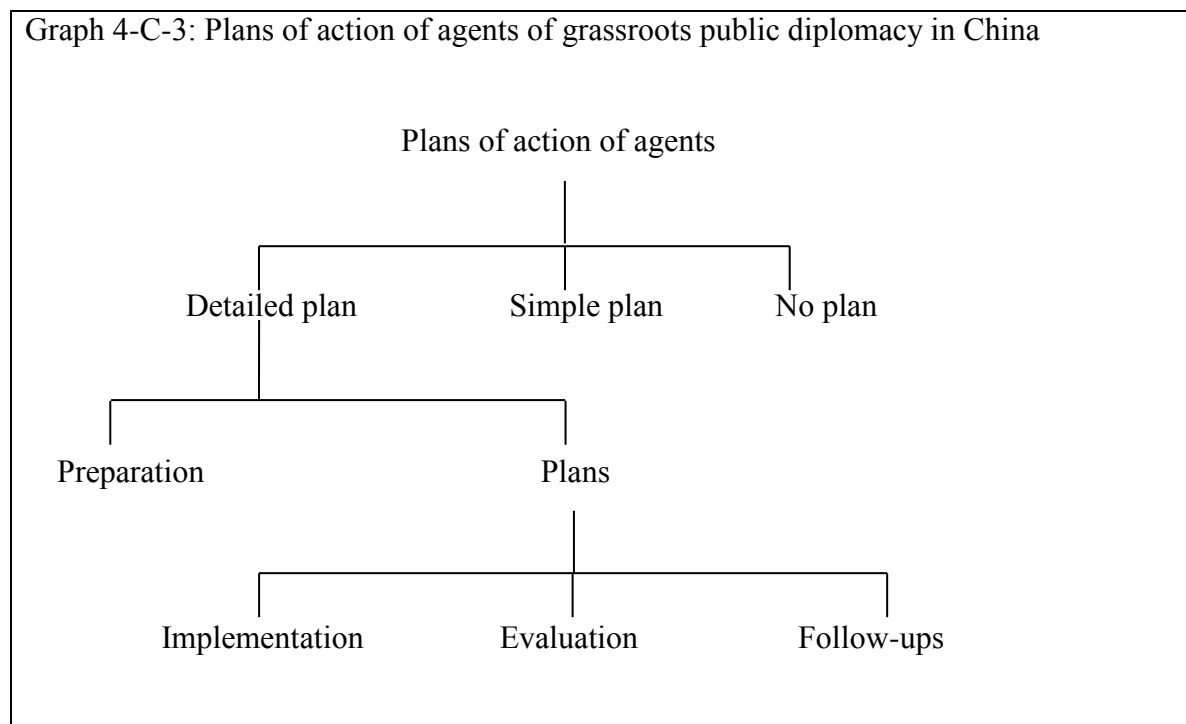
There are plans for further follow-ups of regular activities (P8-7) after the initial

try, which helps get experience (G12-7).

Section summary

The situations mentioned in the data-related plans of action of agents are described in the graph below.

Graph 4-C-3: Plans of action of agents of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Plans of action of objects

Interview data

Some of the objects have their own plans and do GPD unconsciously, while others do not. There are different types of plans of actions of objects: no plan, simple plan and detailed plan.

No plan

Based on the data, some objects are unconscious, and have no plans: "... some not ... unconscious" (P9-4). Some issues are simple and don't need plans: "friendship activities, no plans" (P8-6).

Different objects with no plans have various responses to agents. Some may not follow the agents' plans: "Very random, as audience ... passive ... you design the stages, and they ... may not follow" (M10-9); some stakeholders may follow the agents' plans: "the stakeholders

would follow the plans of agents, unless disagree with them.” (G7-14) Some just receive the information and that’s it: “for some people, they just know it, and that’s it.” (G9-14) Meanwhile, others would disseminate: “... people unconsciously accept and disseminate ...” (G10-12)

Simple plan

The data suggest several kinds of simple plans of objects: having understanding, recognition, and participation.

1. Understanding

Some objects plan to have certain understanding of agents: “... curious about counterparts in the other country ...” (P11-4), and have “... unclear plans to... participate to learn ... [the] country [that] come to perform ... [and] know their culture ...” (M9-9)

2. Recognition

Some objects have the plan of being recognised: “... expect to ... be accepted in certain scale with viewpoints in paper ...” (C9-6)

3. Participation

Some objects are just considering their participation: “... to participate or not” (C8-10); “interested in participating, want to hear different voices, expressing own ideas ... [they would] accept invitation” (C7-8). They plan to seek for mutual understanding through participation: “seek for common grounds, seek or establish common value [and] mutual idea” (M8-9).

Detailed plans

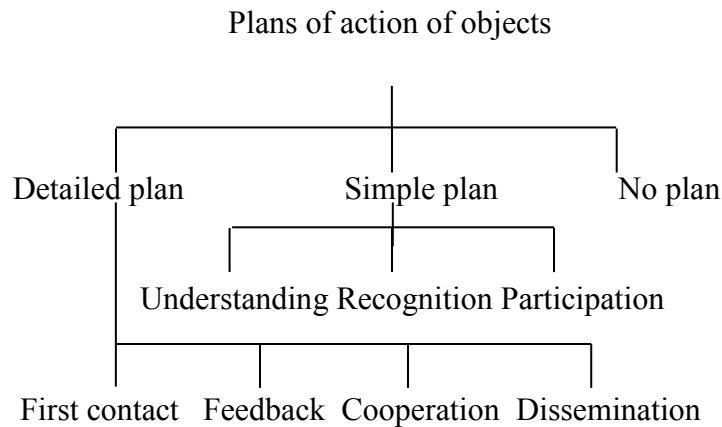
Complex issues usually require the following of steps in plans: “... big issues [are] complex ... [could] follow steps” (P8-4).

The data mention the plan stages of first contact, feedback, cooperation, dissemination: “... contact ... combining self needs and interest to give feedbacks, there’s positive result of cooperation, then further collaboration.” (M7-9) “... Some would pass it on like staff of agencies for studying abroad.” (G10-13)

Section summary

The graph below gives a general idea of the plans of action of objects.

Graph 4-C-4: Plans of action of objects of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Communication acts

Interview data

Communication acts of agents

Communication acts of agents include in-person, organised activities and various media: “All kinds of communication methods, not a single one” (M6-8).

“... People-to-people communication is less efficient, but more targeting ... media publishing information, one-to-many are more efficient but less in-depth ...” (M9-6)

1. In-person

Some agents adopt in-person methods (M9-6).

2. Activities and programs

There are activities organised during GPD (G10-2): “... organise meetings, holding activities in various areas, through gather people, to let them bring more people in” (M7-6); “grassroots and non-government organisations organise activities” (G9-10).

These are to exchange ideas on various content that “fit mutual values” (M8-6).

3. Media

a. Online

There are various online methods adopted by agents: “... arts ... environment, peace related websites [that] provide platforms for interaction ... connecting people ... emails, forums” (C7-1); “associations organise activities online ...” (C6-6); “... dialogue ... segmented ... perceptive ... more choice of independent or half independent new media ...” (P11-5); “... [Use] social media, microblogs to expand audience group” (M7-13).

b. Traditional media

Traditional mass media platforms are used, including newspaper, radio, TV: “... media ... newspaper” (G7-9) and “TV” (G9-11). Although these are comparatively non-interactive ways of communication, they could help reach many audiences who would help expand their influence (M9-6).

c. Other media

There are other media used by the agents: “... common ways to communicate, like music, exhibitions, internet, leaflets, advertisement ...” (M10-7), as well as “advertisement, letters” (C7-12).

Communication acts of objects

It mainly depends on the agents, what communication acts objects adopt, but they also have their own methods.

1. Corresponding method to agents’

Many objects adopt the corresponding method to agents: “... through friends, organisations, social groups, media, own materials, depending on the other side” (M8-7); “participate in activities accordingly” (C8-8).

a. Face-to-face

Some objects use in-person approaches to communicate: “People’s impression on

the initiating country comes from experiences and descriptions of friends” (M6-1).

b. Activities and programs

Some objects participate in organised activities and programs (C8-8): “... accordingly, direct dialogue for opinion leaders” (P11-6); “meetings, discussions ...” (P8-2).

c. Media

i. Online

Many objects use interactive online methods: “more using internet” (M7-7). These include online activities, social media, or phone meetings: “... express their ideas online for influencing the public, the stakeholders would involve in the activities” (G7-10); “same ... communicate one-to-one using microblog ... forum ...” (P10-7); “online chatting, phone meeting” (C7-6).

ii. Traditional mass media

Objects receive what the traditional mass media delivers: “... indirectly, traditional media” (P11-7); “mass media, TV, radio, internet” (G10-10); “useful ones, listen and see, give feedback and interact ... absorb answers, learning process” (P9-6).

2. Passing the word on

Objects adopt various methods to disseminate messages, including organised activities, using media, and word of mouth: “... gradually become organiser after participation ... understand different culture and people” (M8-3); “disseminate ... the international information or knowledge useful and inspiring for their culture, by TV, newspaper, radio, internet, and book” (G10-20); “transmitted among friends and relatives in a small scale” (G10-3).

Communication acts of agents and objects

According to the interview data, agents and objects share communication methods that bring them together, including face-to-face and media.

1. Face-to-face

There are one-to-one or one-to-many face-to-face interactions in various activities: “... interpersonal ... actions ... words ... face-to-face, one-to-one or one-to-many ...” (P10-6); “... cultural exchange, interest exchange, trade and travel” (G11-8); “interactions [in] trade, and forum ... [which have] feedback to information” (G11-9);

2. Activities and programs

Some agents and objects have communications in organised activities: “... if somebody organised something, they would participate ...” (G7-3).

3. Media

Agents and objects interact and express ideas on media platforms based on the internet (C7-1): “ ... those using internet ... know things quickly” (G7-16); “the most convenient and effective communication methods, like mass media, new media, social media” (G11-6).

Documentary data

Communication acts of agents

Documentary data related to the communication acts of agents can again be divided into in-person, activities and using various media.

1. In-person

There are organisational and individual agents who choose face-to-face methods to communicate with objects:

“ ... every citizen going abroad...travel, study, work ... or taking care of foreign guests are ambassador of the country ... improve public diplomacy awareness of public ...”(Huang (黄友义) , 2011) (C-GD-5)

2. Activities and programs

Some agents organise activities:

“Chinese grassroots organisations ... participating in international meetings ... forums ... other international activities...interactions with

NGOs ...” (Sun, J.Z. (孙家正)2010) (C-GD-8)

3. Media

There are various media used by agents for communication acts.

a. Online

Many online methods are mentioned in the documentary data, especially “new media”: “... subjects and objects vary ... nongovernmental ... include micro-blogging of non-official media, opinion leaders and grassroots public ...” (Li(李彤), 2012) (C-PD-23)

“ ... ‘new media’ refers to new emerged media format supported by new digital communication technology system, like digital magazine, newspapers, broadcasting, phone message, moving TV, social network, digital movie, touch media, etc. ”(Dong(董青岭) & Sun(孙瑞蓬) , 2012) (C-MD-15).

They are influential as they deliver more credible content:

“... ‘internet user journalist’... social networks...disseminate truth to the world ... more credible ... one-to-one communication ...” (Li(李希光) & Wang(王晶), 2011)(C-PD-15)

b. Traditional mass media

Traditional mass media refers to “... media (newspaper, radio, TV) ”(Gao(高伟浓), 2012)(C-PD-3), as well as print media like journals and books (C-PD-25).

Communication acts of agents and objects

According to the documentary data, actors basically use in-person methods and media, sometimes needing facilitators to effect communication.

1. In-person

Some actors interact face-to-face, including visits or exchanges: “... visit each other and communicate” (Wang(王文佳), 2010) (C-MD-23); “... ordinary people ... cultural exchanges ... ” (Wang(王丕屹), 2009) (C-MD-20).

2. Media

a. Online

Agents and objects may interact online: “... new media like online media, pocket media, digital mobile media ... combine mass and interpersonal communication ...”(Ou(欧亚), 2011)(C-PD-27)

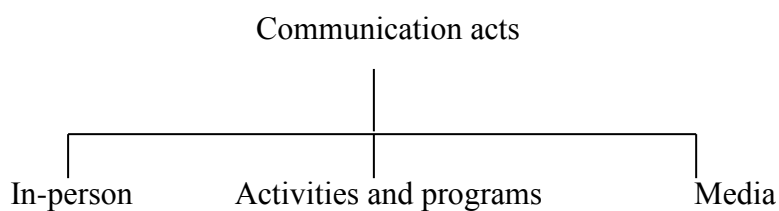
b. Facilitator

Some agents and objects need facilitators to become connected. These middle bodies include public diplomacy organisations, quasi-non-governmental and non-governmental think tanks (C-CD-1).

Some activities involve communication acts using face-to-face methods and media, like the cultural exchanges mentioned above (C-MD-20).

Section summary

Graph 4-C-5: Communication acts of grassroots public diplomacy in China



According to the interview and documentary data, the communication acts of agents include using face-to-face and media, which is described in Graph 4-C-5 above.

Agreement

Interview data

There may or may not be agreements before and during GPD: “... no pre-existing agreements” (G8-13); “during the process, there could be agreements or not if not agree...” (M10-11)

In some cases there’s no need to have agreement: “... unconscious ones could pass the

information and not expect agreements” (G10-15);

“Some online interactions are spontaneous, and don’t need to reach agreement, like ... if have to be anything, that’s through interaction between two sides.” (G9-17)

With soft topics counterparts have a better chance to reach agreement, either courteously or substantially:

“During the process ... not sensitive topic, more agreements between counterparts ... courtesy agreements ... real ones ... good preparation with research, right choice of the opposite department” (P8-9).

Content of agreements

1. Sharing points

For those pre-existing agreements, there are things that both sides share before GPD takes place, including: “... cultural background, value system and common goals, cooperation history” (M8-10).

For those agreements reached during the GPD process, it can be mutual understanding: “... enhance mutual understanding ... agree and understanding on content” (P11-8); “will reach certain agreement, not written ones ...” (M9-11)

2. Expectations

The pre-existing agreements can be common goals (M8-10): “... some yes, first a goal, promise what, follow what rules ...” (C6-10); “there should be agreements on scale, content ...” (G12-11)

During the process, some agreements are the effecting or fulfillment of all or part of the expectations of both sides: “.... result and effectiveness of activities ... fulfil previous expectations or not ...” (C6-13); “both sides have expectations for a next time, which is agreement” (C8-11).

3. Rules to follow

Pre-existing agreements can be rules or procedures (C6-10): “There will be certain agreements and procedures between commercial groups” (C8-14); “both governments have framework agreements ...” (P8-8)

During the process, the actors usually follow the agreed rules: "... when to meet ... do what ... how to organise ... how to reach agreement ... rules to follow during communication ..." (C9-10)

Process to reach agreement

1. Preparation

Good preparation with research and right choice of objects can help reach agreements (P8-9). Factors which affect the agreements include the willingness and understanding of both sides: "... similar points for both sides ... one want and one give" (P9-7); "both sides know each other's ideas after discussions" (C7-10).

2. Communication

The actors, contents, dialogue environment and dynamics are important in the communication process.

Firstly, characteristics of initiators and educational level could affect the process of reaching agreement: "There might be agreements, organised by central figures ... initiators having credibility, expertise ... others follow" (G7-17); "depending on ... credibility of both sides ..." (G10-14)

Secondly, the initiating points can affect the communication process for agreements:

"If both sides have same interest, there would be more agreements; if initiating points are not similar, there would be less agreement; but still might be something to agree on." (M7-11)

Thirdly, whether the content is close to what the objects know, or not, also counts:

"The recipients ... don't know about other countries ... naturally have agreements and accept ... Recipients with rich information would not believe if heard of something different from what they knew" (G10-17).

Fourthly, a good atmosphere for dialogue could help actors express standpoints in full communication, so as to find mutual points: "... not easy ... more interactions and good atmosphere of dialogues" (P7-7); "... fits both interests ... fully interacting ... finding mutual points" (P8-13).

Fifthly, reaching agreement is a dynamic process:

“Find the balance point acceptable for both sides with differences and disagreements through interactions and communications, reaching dynamic balance, depending on the methods and skills” (G11-13).

3. Agreement

It could be agreement on part of the subject: “... might result in agreement, with doubts exist for recipients ... who may accept the information ... may pass it on.” (G10-18); “no pressure to reach other agreements, just generate naturally, partially, ah it’s like this ... to know what the other side means ...” (G12-9)

New agreements can occur naturally from communications, including certain understanding (G12-9).

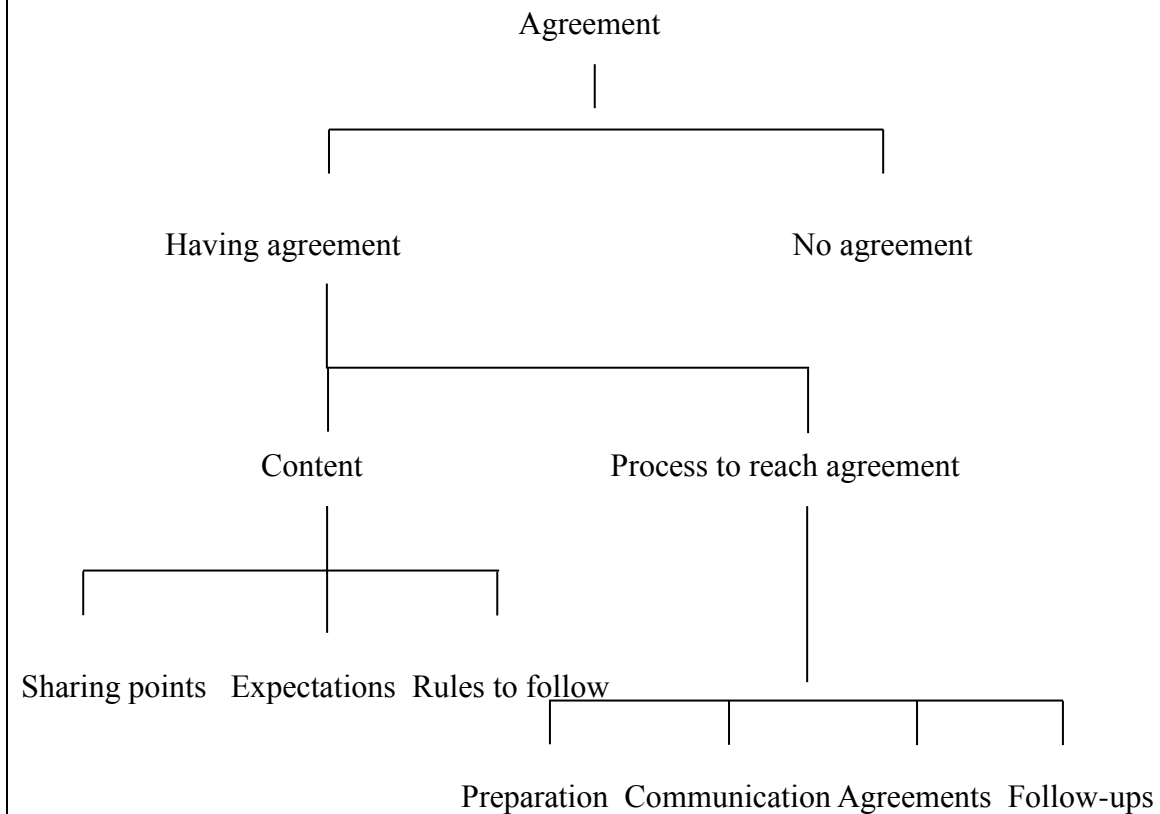
4. Follow-ups

There are follow-ups to the agreements, like objects passing the agreements on (G10-18), or large amount of GPD practices following in the long term: “... find demands point and satisfy them ... long term in large amount” (P9-8).

Section summary

Based on the relevant data, the agreements of grassroots public diplomacy contain the following content.

Graph 4-C-6: Agreements of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Coordination of action

Interview data

Some situations don't need much coordination between agents and objects, while others do: "... not much coordination for a writer" (P7-9).

Coordination process

1. Coordinator

There is an individual or organisational coordinator to help both sides work together: "... both sides need coordinator or coordinating department ..." (P8-10) "... agency to coordinate ... work together ..." (P10-9)

2. Constant communication

This is a constant communicating process: "... continuously communicating, seek

common ground, expand agreements, and narrow down differences” (M7-12); “keep thinking and discussing” (C10-12).

3. Compromise

Either or both sides compromise in certain ways within a certain range: “... agreements on facts, and adjust or yield at the values level ...” (P11-9). It could also be a response to the other side’s reactions (M9-3).

This is to solve problems like topic changes: “... initiator stops discussion, or topic change, or one side raise a higher topic ... seek for common grounds based on common values ...” (C10-8); “... meet obstacles and adjust” (P9-12).

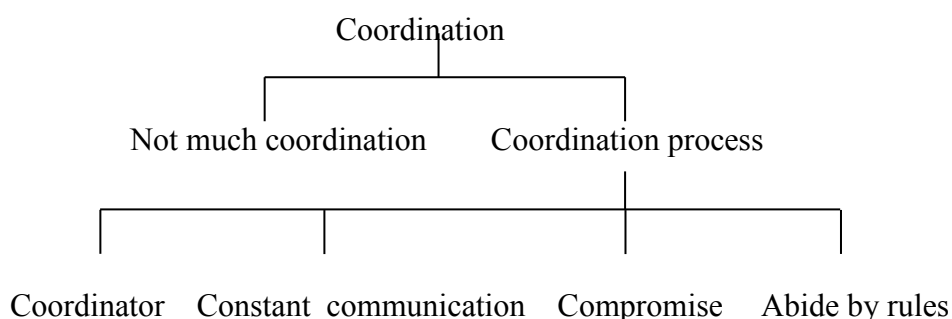
4. Abide by rules

Both sides sometimes follow the rules and outlines agreed beforehand to deal with problem or conflicts that occur: “... there will be problems occurring ... differences of ideas ... follow the pre-existing rule ...” (C6-14); “there will be groups to prepare and implement arrangements of activities ... organising meetings according to outlines discussed” (C7-11).

Section summary

The graph below summarises the coordination process during grassroots public diplomacy.

Graph 4-C-7: Coordination of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Aims of agents

Interview data

There are conscious and unconscious situations: “... conscious and unconscious, both want to disseminate their culture and values” (M10-5).

Some unconscious agents don't have clear aims: “... no aims, but expressing views; or reactions to misunderstandings; unconscious and not follow-up after expression” (C10-13). “No aim situation could end up incidental result of public diplomacy effect” (G12-1).

Others have aims, like those who represent certain groups: “representing certain group and express consciously” (C10-14).

The following are various aims of agents of GPD. Agents can have a single, or a combination of aims, with additive or subtractive effects: “... former and later similar ... accumulation ... different ... reduction of effectiveness” (P11-10).

Certain interests

Some agents have their own aims and volition: “... spontaneous at the grassroots level, commercial, not political ... personal aims ... willingness ... not planned” (C8-1); “... different ... personal interest, or commercial interest for business groups...want to enhance interactions” (C6-4). Some agents aim at better national image: “... better national image among foreign public” (P11-14).

Their interest is in wanting to benefit, and realise the mutual interests, of both sides: “... better to be beneficial to both sides, and avoid hurting the other side” (G12-4); “concerning about interest of the other side” (P10-11).

Influence

There are agents willing to expand influence, preferably long-term influence, on objects: “... influence in long term” (P9-9); “willing to have international exchange, expanding ... lasting ... self-influence” (C9-3); “people ... believe that they have the power to influence the society, or participate in it.” (G7-19)

Understanding

Some agents want better understanding between people and countries: "... enhancing understanding ... contacts with counterpart to reach agreements and meaningful results" (P8-11).

Some agents aim at better understanding of objects and their country: "... exchange information; know their culture, social conditions, social customs, and living conditions" (G8-7).

Some agents would like objects to understand them: "... the public in the other side understand our social, political situations through grassroots communications ..." (P7-10)

However, it may end up strengthening stereotypes as well: "... brief impression of the other country ... stereotype ... first impression ..." (P11-11)

Domestic public diplomacy

There are agents tending to educate the domestic public about relevant knowledge: "... letting domestic public know about relevant knowledge" (M9-7).

Better relationships

Some agents want to enhance friendship between the agents' and objects' countries and people: "... enhancing ... friendship between countries and people" (P8-14); "finally get own interest ... long-term cooperation" (P10-15).

Problem solving

Some want to solve problems with public opinion pressure:

"Want to call for concern of the society about certain issue, through ... public opinion pressure to let government change ... can't solve it at home, so make it international ..."(M7-4)

Documentary data

The documentary data also contain several aims of agents.

Certain interests

Some agents aim at achieving certain interests, like self-interest, national interest or the interests of humanity: “... organisations or individuals ... interact internationally ... for national interest ...”(Zhang(张胜军) & Wang (王润斌), 2012)(C-PD-30); “maintain world’s peace and common interest of human ...”(Zhang(张胜军) & Wang (王润斌), 2012)(C-PD-19)

Better understanding

Some agents want objects to better understand and accept agents: “... unconscious ... let local market, consumer, media and government accept us ... eliminate unnecessary misunderstanding and worry ...”(Lin(林坤), 2012) (C-CD-5)

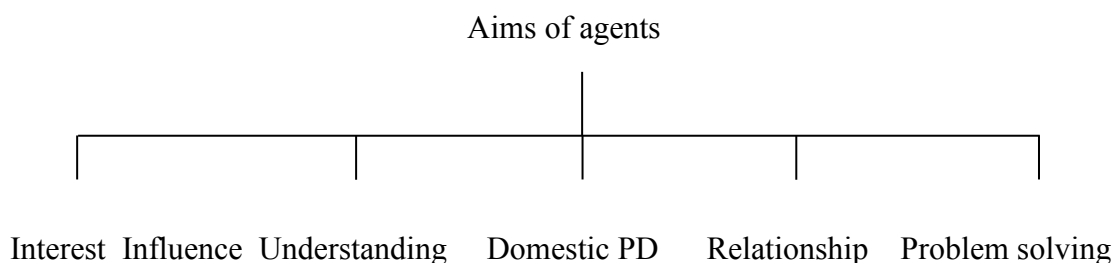
Agents may also aim at building bridges for mutual understanding and trust:

“Taijiquan (Tai Chi) ... build a friendship bridge of mutual understanding and trust ... promoting international economic cooperation and broaden cultural exchanges ...”(Zhou(周庆杰), 2012)(C-PD-21)

Section summary

The interview and documentary data mention several aims of agents of grassroots public diplomacy. Graph 4-C-8 below summarises these aims.

Graph 4-C-8: Aims of agents of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Aims of objects

Interview data

Some objects participating in GPD have aims, while others don't.

No aims

Some people are unconscious and doing GPD without aims: "... passive, and may not be conscious" (M6-7). They may even pass the word on with no specific aims: "the passive ones tell friends about their own experience and understanding of the outside world, with no willingness to influence, but having objective results." (G10-8)

Of those not having aims, objects could have similar aims to agents after interactions: "... having similar interest and goals as initiator ... [after] communication ..." (C9-5); "some would try to know whether they would ... reach the goal." (G9-9)

Having aims

Various objects have different aims.

1. Certain interests

Some objects participate out of certain interest (C7-8, C9-5), like self-interest, national interest or mutual interest: "... benefit themselves" (M8-5); "increase the country's reputation ..." (G12-6); "... the government would support if there's interest" (M7-2); "public ... similar grassroots groups, having same interest needs, work together to realise ... mutual goals" (M7-5).

2. Involvement

Some objects want to be involved in the communication, like responding (C7-8, G9-9): "... communications are two-way and interactive, send their message to the other side" (G11-7); "... want to express their ideas, prove their views are recognised by others" (C7-5).

3. Understanding

Some objects want to understand agents and their country and culture or even be affected by them: "Let them understand the other side, and vice versa" (C8-6); "... let the other side know more about them, be affected by them ..." (G12-10). Moreover, there are objects willing to enhance mutual understanding (P8-11).

4. Better relationship

Some objects want to enhance relationship between agents and objects: “ ... make friends during [the process] ...” (C7-14); “so the agent would be closer to object’s country” (G12-8).

5. Problem solving

Some objects are willing to solve problems:

“Just want to raise attention and put pressure on certain events through external influence, in order to help solve the problem domestically, or solve the external problem with domestic efforts.” (G7-8)

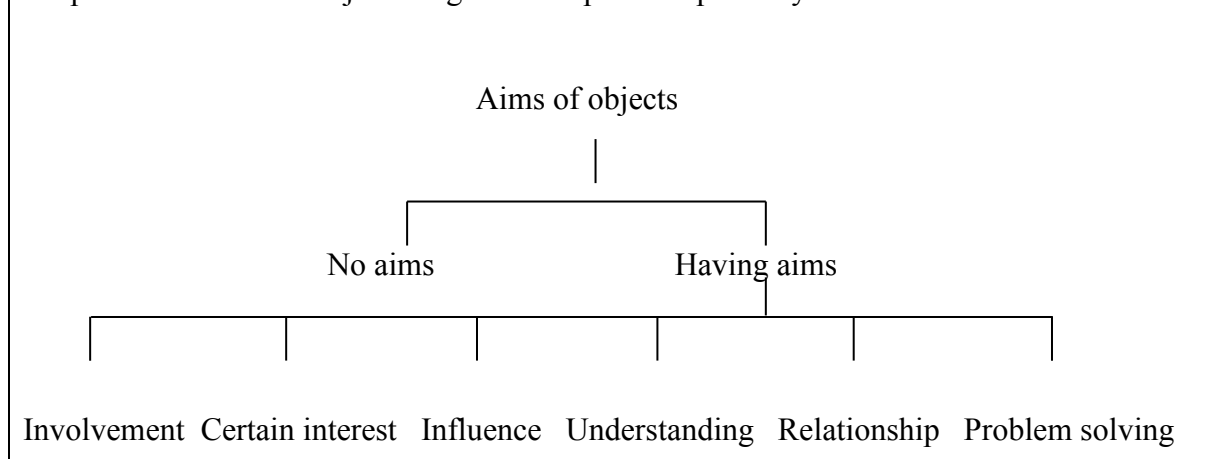
6. Influence

Some ordinary people believe that they have the power to influence society (G7-19).

Section summary

There are having aims and having no aims situations mentioned in the interview data, which is described by Graph 4-C-9 below.

Graph 4-C-9: Aims of objects of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Process

Interview data

Interview data related to the process of GPD can be divided into the characteristics and details

of processes.

Characteristics

The GPD process has several characteristics: spontaneous, communicative, incidental and grassroots. These characteristics may or may not exist in a specific GPD activity, depending on the situation: “others have official elements, some are conscious and some are unconscious.” (G9-18)

1. Spontaneous

Many of the GPD activities are spontaneously initiated (C6-2) with collaborators forming coalitions on the basis of self-motivation rather than co-option in: “... ways of organising ... [that are] loose, spontaneous” (G7-15).

2. Communicative

This is a two-way communication process: “... local people may participate or invite you ... two-way ... not totally passive ...” (P10-3)

3. Incidental

The process can be quite incidental. It could be the unconscious practices of agents (M10-13) and/or objects (M6-7), with the incidental results of expressing themselves (G9-2) or passing the word on (G10-15): “... during interactions ... to convey own culture, history, value ... unconsciously ... express opinions on public issues ... [through] individual interactions” (C10-3).

4. Grassroots

Grassroots public diplomacy is a grassroots-dominant process, as opposed to government-dominant actions: “... a concept opposite to the government” (G9-19). It is more commercial and less political, less planned (C8-1), and more personal: “diplomacy is more serious while grassroots one is more individual and personal.” (G7-4)

This is reflected in the communication acts and agents: “individual, grassroots, with process and ways more close to people” (M8-1); “... some initiated by grassroots individuals and organisations, and are purely grassroots” (G9-15).

Detailed process

The process is a factor of GPD drawn directly from the data. There are segments of processes mentioned in the data, including initiation, practice, expanding influence and follow-ups.

1. Initiation

Some activities are spontaneously initiated (C6-2) by grassroots organisations and individuals, while some involve government in initiation (G9-18). Some incidental ones don't need initiation (G9-2).

Those individual and organisational initiators bring people in to participate (P8-3). It is usually the initiators organising and leading, with some individuals and groups implementing arrangements (C7-11), while others are following and practising (G7-17).

2. Practice

Several importance practices of actors during the process are mentioned.

a. Domestic public diplomacy

Part of the practice is domestic public diplomacy: “... domestic public diplomacy ... educating people and groups about public diplomacy” (Wang(王文佳), 2010) (C-MD-24).

It is a process to raise public diplomacy awareness in the agent country: “... the domestic publics are mainly learning about the diplomatic knowledge.” (G9-6)

b. People-to-people interaction

The practice is basically people-to-people interactions (P10-2): “... people-to-people interactions and exchange, [which is] most lasting, important and normal ...” (G11-2)

c. Understanding

There is the process of understanding: “... understand ... foreigners working and living in China ... knowing our way of living and thinking” (G8-3).

d. Cooperation

Cooperation is based on first interactions and the understandings that come out of it: "... friendship, mutual interest, dialogue first, and understand, recognize and cooperate ..." (P10-13).

e. Activity participation

Some objects participate a bit, while others may involve themselves fully (G7-10): "... some are fully involved, others just joined a bit." (G7-6)

f. Problem solving

Some people get involved in GPD generate pressure through public opinion, so as to help with problem solving (G7-8).

g. Localisation

There are agents trying to localise themselves: "... integrate into local society" (G8-5).

3. Expanding influence

There's a process of expanding influence (M7-6) by all means: "... to achieve what they advocate and expanding the influence by all means" (G7-5); "turning one's will to both sides' and participate together; also turn benefiting one to two, and disseminate further ..." (M8-12)

4. Follow-ups

Those short term GPD activities can be followed by a large amount of similar activities long term (P9-8). New stories may also replace old ones, and have certain effects in longer term: "... more approvals and less oppose...new stories to tell to change views ..." (P10-8).

Documentary data

The relevant documentary data also involve information related to characteristics and details of processes of GPD.

Characteristics

The characteristics mentioned in documentary data include spontaneous, communicative, incidental and grassroots.

1. Spontaneous

Many of the GPD activities are spontaneously initiated (C-PD-9).

2. Communicative

This is a communicative, two-way process: "... communicative process ... between ... elites and public at all levels to communicate across cultures" (Chen (陈华), 2009) (C-MD-19); "... public to public ... two-way ..." (Feng (冯永锋), 2011) (C-MD-9)

3. Incidental

Many of the processes are quite incidental, for instance, unconscious practices of agents (C-CD-5): "... enterprises that going global ... raise national image ..." (Hu(胡浩), 2011)(C-CD-2)

4. Grassroots

GPD is regarded as being quite grassroots, for instance, in terms of the composition of actors of GPD: "... people from grassroots level ... non-governmental sports groups and organisations ... interact" (Huang(黄莉), 2012) (C-PD-32).

5. Long term

This is a long-term communication process: "... long-term communication ..." (Lu(鲁世巍), 2013) (C-PD-11)

Detailed process

According to the documentary data, the GPD processes include initiation, practice and expanding influence.

1. Initiation

Those individual and organisational initiators, including government (C-MD-11), coordinate and arrange various social resources to participate:

“... grassroots individual, groups or organisations ... aiming at coordinating and managing various social resources and power to participate in public diplomacy ...” (Chinanews(中新网), 2013)(C-GD-6)

2. Practice

The data contain several importance practices by actors during the process.

a. Domestic public diplomacy

Part of the practice is domestic public diplomacy (C-MD-24). It is a process to raise awareness (C-GD-5) among the public by various media, like journals and books (C-PD-25).

The content also includes knowledge related to international situations, diplomacy: “ ... introduce international situations and our diplomacy policy and work ...”(Qin(秦刚), 2013)(C-GD-9)

b. People-to-people interactions

Actors have people-to-people interactions, exchange, and dialogues (C-MD-7) during GPD: “... public to public ... explain ... about ... culture ... history ... policy ... anything foreigners don’t understand ...”(Feng (冯永锋), 2011) (C-MD-10). They can be spontaneous one-to-one interactions within social networks, which is usually with more credibility (C-PD-15).

c. Cooperation

There is cooperation between organisations, like media corporations of different countries: “... tourists ... media ... strengthen cooperation between domestic and foreign media” (Lei(雷辉), 2010)(C-MD-1).

d. Activity participation

Actors participate in GPD activities: “... communicating and mutual

understanding between people from different countries ... should respect and understand each other” (Han(韩震), 2013) (C-PD-14); “... enterprises ‘going global’ ... represent own image and national image ...” (Li, Q.Y.(李清源)2012) (C-MD-8).

e. Solving problems

There is the process of both sides of actors overcoming difficulties together: “... overcome difficulties together ...” (Han(韩震), 2013) (C-PD-33)

f. Localisation

There are agents going to the object country, and trying to adapt to local culture: “... enterprises ... build up good relationship with local government, public, media, and NGOs ...”(Yu(于欢) & Hu(胡学萃), 2013) (C-CD-6);

“... enterprises that are going global ... combine companies’ and local culture together... support local community and provide employment opportunities... more trust from foreign public and support from foreign government ...”(Hu(胡浩), 2011)(C-CD-4)

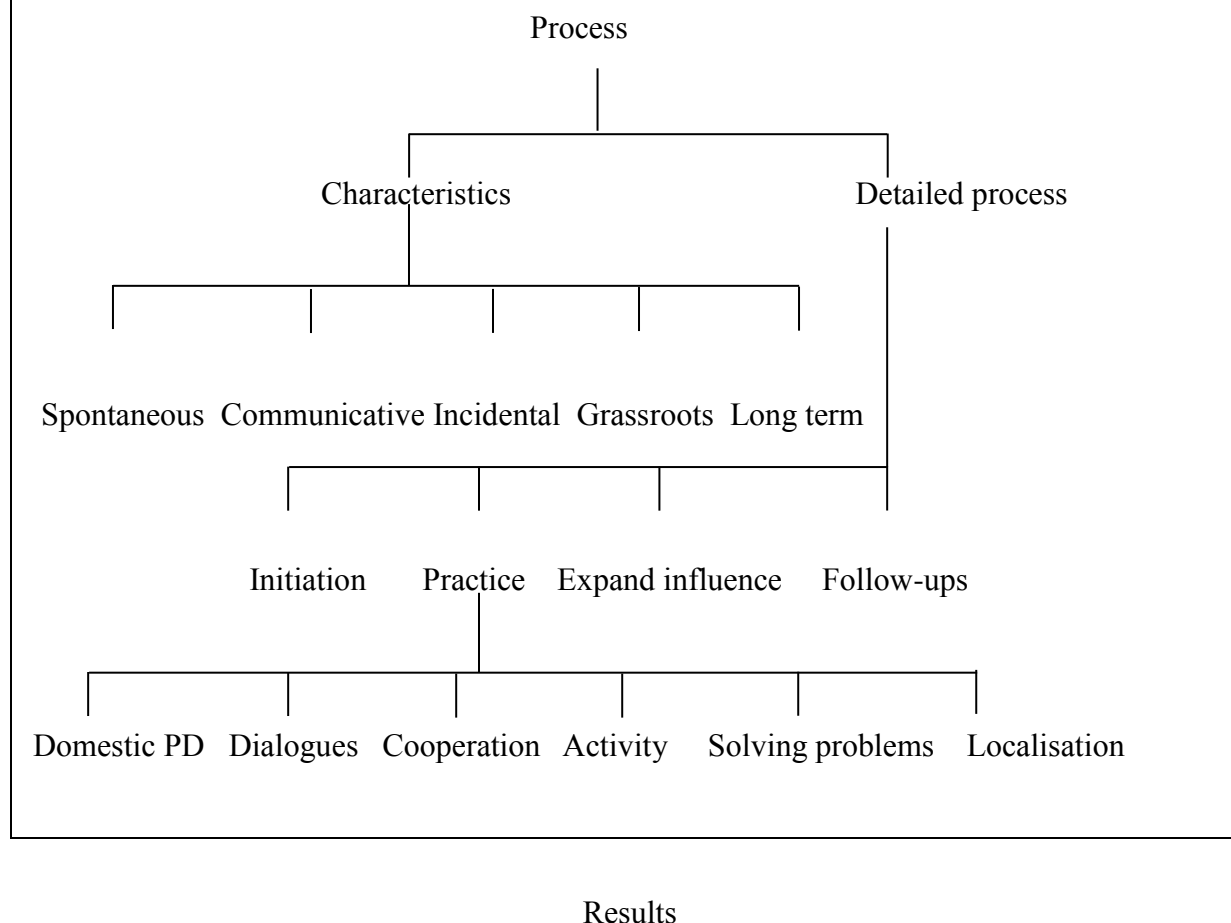
3. Expanding influence

There is direct communication that reaches objects like opinion leaders and the elite, including think-tanks (C-PD-17), which is followed by the direct objects passing the word on to indirect objects: “... and then to government, media and ordinary public of another country ...”(Wang(王莉丽), 2012) (C-PD-18).

Section summary

The characteristics and details of processes of grassroots public diplomacy mentioned in the interview and documents data are shown in Graph 4-C-10 below.

Graph 4-C-10: Process of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Interview data

Interview data related to different results generated by GPD activities is shown below.

Relationships

GPD can result in connecting two countries and maintaining good relationships: “... the goodwill ambassador from the civil society, they connect different countries and maintain the good relationship...” (G9-1)

But, while the relationship could be improved, it could be loosened as well: “... either improve or weaken the relationship ...” (M8-13)

Better understanding

There is a result of increasing understanding of another country, its people and culture (G8-7), or removing misunderstanding: “... feedback and interaction and adjustment ... increase

understanding and remove misunderstanding ... depends” (P7-5).

It could result in the people of an object country better understanding agents (G9-2), or agents better understanding objects, their culture and country: “ ... learning [about] the situation, customs, and arts through communication” (C9-11), as well as achieving or enhancing mutual understanding (P11-8): “adjust their expectations to reach more mutual expectations through interactions.” (M9-12)

Influence

GPD can influence the object country and the world: “... the grassroots ... could have big influence ... [to] the country ... information transmission is powerful in the information age” (G10-16). Moreover, they are regarded as having the most lasting influence (G11-2).

Agreements

Grassroots public diplomacy could result in new agreements (G12-9), like mutual expectations on certain things (M9-12).

Recognition

The result could be recognition from objects of the agent and/or their country (G10-2), or from agents about the objects and/or their country: “... later attracted and accept ... objects” (P10-12).

Incidental benefits

Despite the results mentioned above, there are some incidental benefits for actors other than public diplomacy results, like helping enhance the settlement of disputes (G12-1) or contributions to the broader community: “... want to have an opportunity to showcase achievement ... if with own work, to publish in certain range and contribution to the field” (C9-7).

Documentary data

Various results are also mentioned in the documentary data.

Relationships

One result of GPD is maintaining good relationships between actors: “ ... everyone going

abroad are ambassador of home country ... grassroots to grassroots interactions ... accumulating friendly views to each other ... ” (Xu(徐剑梅), 2013) (C-MD-12); “... more friendly views ... foreign government” (Liang(梁婷婷), 2012) (C-MD-4).

“... trading, and investment cooperation ... [which help] deepen friendly and win-win cooperation, also enhance mutual understanding and friendship ...”(Liu(刘水明) & Pei(裴广江), 2013) (C-CD-3)

Better understanding

There is the result of better understanding of another country, its people and culture: “ ... finally reach understanding and agreement ...” (Sun(孙萍), 2010)(C-PD-29).

It includes objects’ better understanding of agents: “ ... to introduce real situation abroad, including culture ... let the world know a real China ...” (Zhao (赵启正) , 2010)(C-GD-3). In the meantime, it could result in agents better understanding objects, their culture and country (C-MD-22). There are situations where mutual understanding and trust is achieved or enhanced (C-CD-3) through communication between people (C-MD-9): “... Reach mutual understanding, tolerance, and appreciation and trust ...” (Pang(庞中英), 2013)(C-PD-13)

Misunderstanding could also be reduced (C-CD-5): “... public to public ... reduce unnecessary misunderstanding ...”(Feng (冯永锋) , 2011) (C-MD-13)

Influence

Grassroots interactions could enhance the international public opinion environment and therefore have influence internationally:

“Universities ... everyone ... enhance international public opinion environment ... promoting development and prosperous of human civilization.
(Lianbing Xiao(肖连兵), 2013) (C-MD-5)

Agreements

Grassroots public diplomacy can sometimes result in lasting agreements (C-PD-29): “ ... idea exchange to reach sincere understanding and lasting agreements with foreign public ...” (Zhu(朱灵), 2010) (C-MD-6)

Recognition

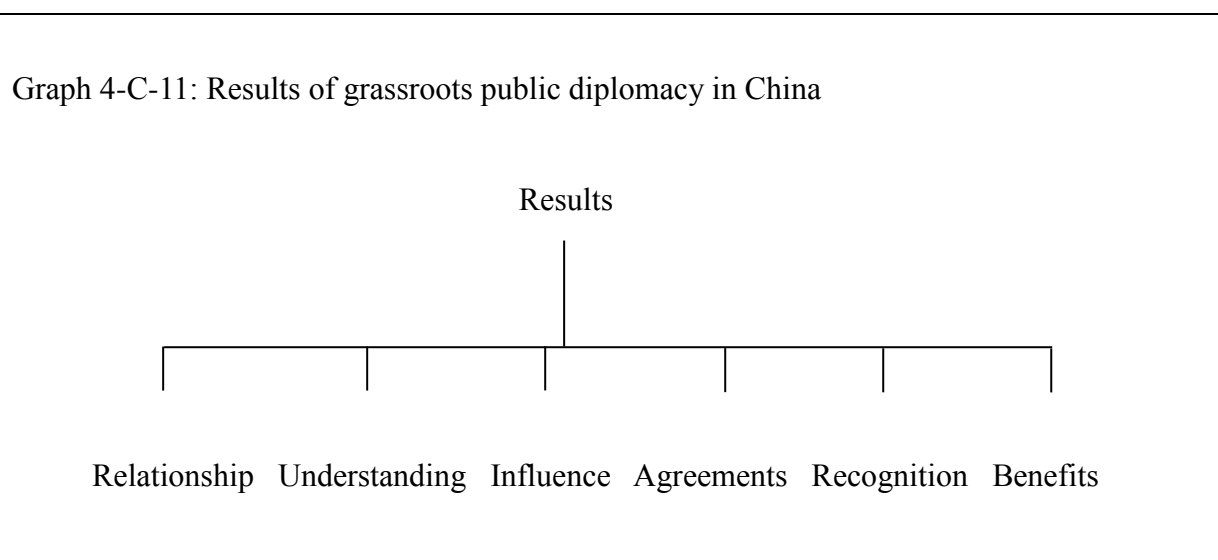
The result could be recognition, like trust from foreign public (C-CD-4); support from foreign government (C-CD-4); friendly views of each other (C-MD-12); mutual appreciation and tolerance (C-PD-13).

Incidental benefits

Besides the results above, the process could end up being improvement of either or both sides of actor, or expanding of certain markets abroad, or contribution to the broader community (C-MD-5): “... nongovernmental ... individual ... NGOs ... expand specific market ...”(Ye(叶皓), 2012)(C-PD-10).

Section summary

The graph below summarises the situation related to results of GPD listed above.



RQ3: What are the differences and similarities between the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China?

The findings to answer RQ3 consist of both discussions for RQ1 and RQ2 below in Chapter V. The main part of answers to RQ3 forms the discussions following those RQ1 and RQ2 in Chapter V as well.

Chapter summary

The findings above are to answer RQ 1, 2 and 3. The findings of RQ 1 and 2 comprising interview and documentary data describing agents, objects, and plan of action of agents, plan of action of objects, aims of agents, aims of objects, communicative act of agents, and communicative act of objects, agreement, and coordination of action, derived from theoretical base. Process and results drawn from data naturally are also explained in detail. Factors mentioned above have their own characteristics, which help understand conceptualisation of GPD in two states in a segmented way. Findings for RQ 3 will be the discussions in the next chapter, and are therefore not listed in detail here.

CHAPTER V

CONCEPTUALISATION OF GRASSROOTS PUBLIC DIPLOMACY – DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter, the answers to RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3 will be discussed. The chapter will consist of an introduction, coding, discussions (including discussions of RQ 1 and RQ 2, together with which will be the findings for RQ 3, followed by discussions of RQ 3), and a summary.

Coding

The discussions below will be based on the findings in Chapter IV. Therefore, all the coding rules relevant to interviewees' quoted answers and quoted documentary data will be the same as in Chapter IV (see “coding” section of Chapter IV for details). In analyzing the results, I have interspersed my own opinions intertextually with extracts from opinions provided by interviewees – identifying the interview sources with the codes.

The graphs following the discussions for each subject, will be coded following the rules below: the coding will start with the word “Graph”, followed by “5” (chapter number), and then a dash “-”, and capitalised word “A” or “C” (A for Australia, and C for China), followed again by a dash “-”, and finally the ordinal number. For instance, the first graph in interview data to answer RQ 1 related to Australia is coded as “Graph 5-A-1”. Similarly, for RQ 2 the code is “Graph 5-C-1”.

In all the discussions below, again, the countries that the agents belong to is described as the “agent country”, and the object country that the objects belong to is described as the “object country”.

Now the coding rules are clear, the results of discussions of RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3 will be

shown below.

Discussions

RQ1: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia?

As a concept is a whole instead of segmented elements, the discussions below focus on the nexus between these factors displayed above, so as to shape the entire concept of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia. First of all, based on the data above, all the factors are interconnected, in terms of the actors, including agents and objects, which are mentioned throughout the Findings. Therefore, the relationship between actors in all these factors will be discussed in the first place. Other connections between actors will be mentioned as well, if naturally occurring from the discussions.

The discussions will be based on both interview and documentary data, mainly focusing on the relationships inside and between the key subjects of the process of grassroots public diplomacy. In all the discussions below, the countries that the agents belong to will be described as “agent country”, while those that the objects belong to will be mentioned as “object country”. The discussions will follow the same order as those in the findings above, including actors, plans of action, communication acts, agreement, and coordination, aims of actors, process and results.

Actors

The data listed in the findings above give a clear picture of the composition of the agents and objects of GPD. In this section, the relationship between different agents, objects, as well as agents and objects will be explored below, based on both interview and documentary data.

Agents

The documentary data not only has a triangulation function, but is also a complement to the interview data. Cooperation between different agents to enhance the effectiveness of GPD (A-PD-2) is mentioned in the documentary data. It could be government initiating, and collaborating with individual and organisational practitioners from different sectors, to share networks, expertise and experience (A-PD-2). However, it is not always the case, as sometimes, there are no initiators (G3-10). Moreover, while public diplomacy could require deeper cooperation between government and other sectors, the GPD needs less interference from government when practising (G6-3).

Objects

There is a combination of different objects (G5-8), including various direct and/or indirect individual and/or organisational objects (G6-8, P1-6). As there may or may not be indirect objects (M3-10, G6-8), there is the possibility that information flows from direct to indirect objects (P1-6, G6-11), forming a two-phase process.

The documentary data on objects contains information on direct objects (A-GD-5), but not indirect ones. It is a partial triangulation and complement to the interview data in terms of the composition of direct objects.

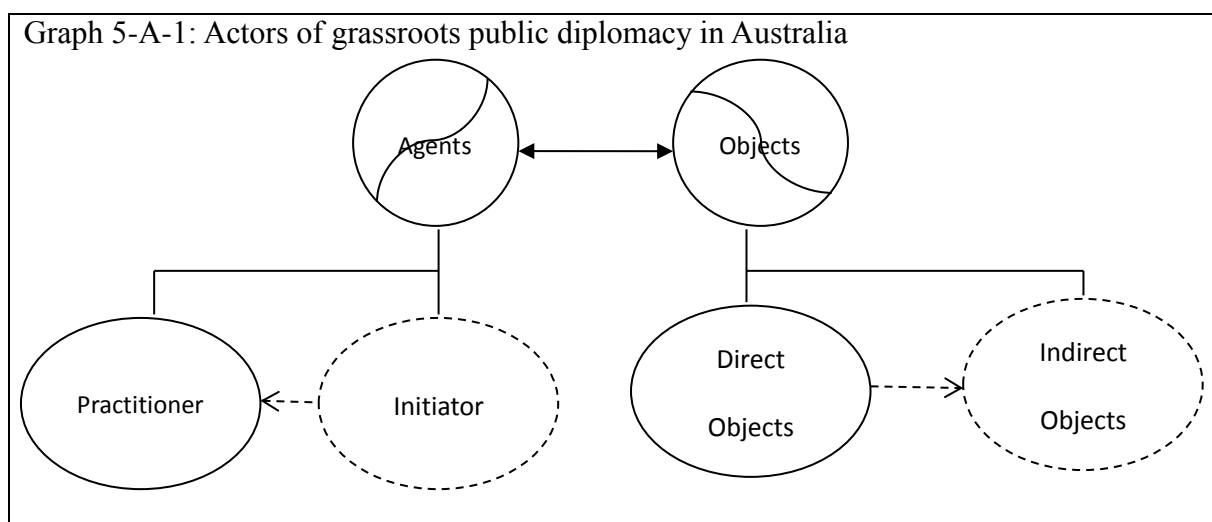
Agents and objects

There is a two-way communication process connecting agents and objects (M4-4): some objects need to be involved (C4-4, A-GD-5, and A-PD-6); some agents want to understand the objects (C4-4); some previous objects could become agents and pass the word on (G1-2); some objects could become agents when responding (A-PD-9, M4-4). Equal sharing happens, especially between counterparts (M4-4), and agents and objects exchange roles as a result (C4-4, A-PD-9).

Section summary

Graph 5-A-1 below illustrates those relationships.

In Graph 5-A-1, the circle of “agents” is divided by a curved connector into two parts, indicating a combination of different agents. The percentage issue is not considered in this research, and therefore, not reflected by the graph. It could be a composition of initiator and practitioner, or different practitioners, shown by two ovals of “initiator” and “practitioner”, as well as the arrow connecting them. This divided circle of “agents” will occur again in later graphs in this chapter, which will have the same meaning. Also, the ‘no-initiator’ situation is shown by the dotted oval of “initiator”.



In Graph 5-A-1, the dotted arrow, pointing from the oval of “direct objects” to that of “indirect objects”, shows the information flow. Also, the possibility of a combination of different objects is shown by the circle of “objects” divided by a curved connector into two parts, as well as the ovals of “direct objects” and “indirect objects”, together with the solid line connecting them. It can be a composition of direct and indirect objects, or different direct objects. The percentage issue is again not considered. This divided circle of “objects” will occur again in later graphs in this chapter, which will have the same meaning as mentioned here. The dotted oval of “indirect objects” indicates the no indirect objects situation.

The two-way communication between actors is reflected in Graph 5-A-1, by the circles of “agents” and “objects”, as well as the double arrow between them.

Plans of action of agents and objects

No clear and direct descriptions of the plans of action of actors were found in the documentary data. Therefore, the later discussions in this section will be based only on the interview data. Both agents and objects have the having-plans (M3-13, G3-14) and no-plans (M4-7, G6-14) situations. The discussions below focus on the relationship between actors, in terms of plans of action.

Relations between agents

Agents having plans have interactions among themselves related to the funding process. Some initiators seek public or private funding, while some individuals and organisations provide it (C3-15).

Relations between agents and objects

For those having plans, the data suggest that actors would take the other sides’ needs into consideration (P4-8). It can be either prediction of the objects’ reactions (G3-13) or both actors working out a mutual plan (P2-7) with consideration of the needs of both sides (C3-16). While agents would coordinate by developing their plans according to the situation (G3-13), the objects would also adjust their own plans accordingly (M3-11).

Even when not having plans, there is an interactive process between actors, as the objects basically want to respond to the agents’ approach by participating, following through (G4-11), or even passing the word on (G6-7).

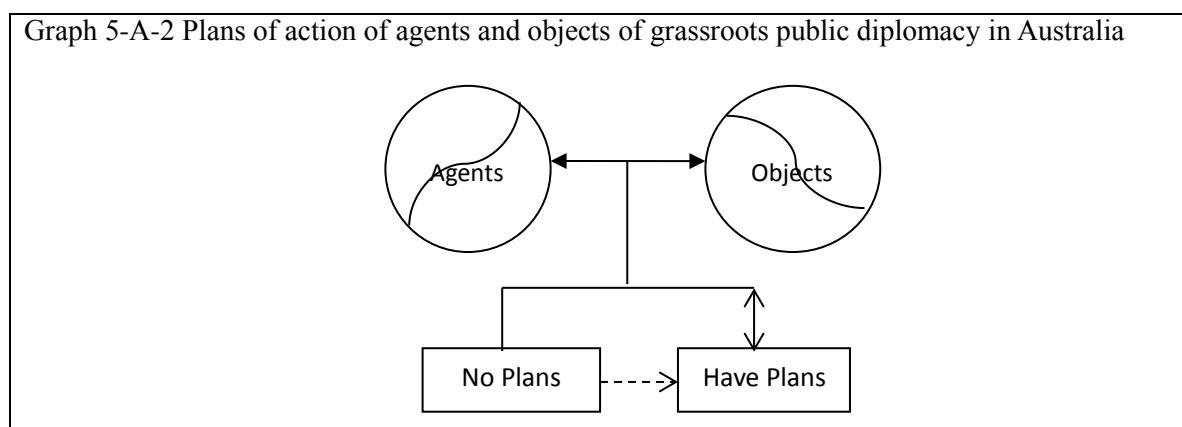
Also, actors could have further plans to maintain the relationship between agents and objects (P2-5) after not having plans initially.

Relations between objects

There are also interactions between objects. Some ‘having-plan’ objects are well organised, and therefore interactions related to organising work exist between them (M5-11). No matter whether having plans or not, some objects own the message from the agents, and would pass the relevant part of information on to a wider population, and even reach the government eventually (P1-7, G6-7). Communications thus happen between these objects and their objects.

Section summary

The relations between actors can be summarised by Graph 5-A-2 below:



The interaction between agents is indicated by the circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector into two parts in the graph.

Plans involving the other side are shown in the graph by the circles of “agents” and “objects”, the “have plans” rectangle, and the double arrow connecting them. The ‘no-plans’ situation can become “have plans” which is shown by the rectangles of “no plans” and “have plans”, as well as the dotted arrow pointing from the former to the latter.

The interactions between objects are indicated by the circle of “objects” divided by a curved connector into two parts.

Communication acts are links between agents and objects, which connect the two sides of GPD. Actors share the same or according communication acts. Therefore, the communication acts of actors will be discussed together below.

Communicative acts between agents and objects

There are communicative acts involving two-way communications between agents and objects. The agents adopt various communication methods while the objects are involved accordingly. Both interview and documentary data suggest several methods that involve both sides.

Relations between agents and objects

1. Dialogues

The data suggest two-way communication of dialogue or conversations (A-GD-12, M1-13) through a variety of media and fora (A-PD-14) to interact between both sides (M2-8). These media include interactive internet platforms based on digital channels and wireless technologies (A-PD-18), like forum (A-MD-6), Skype (M5-9) and blogs. People can be actively engaged almost in real time (C3-21). There are also face-to-face dialogues like interviews (A-CD-3) and meetings (G3-17), involving listening and talking (A-PD-12, M4-9).

2. Collaborations

The data suggest several collaborative methods of partner cooperation, exchange programs, and other activities and programs involving both sides of actors.

Partner cooperation refers to the program taken out by individual and/or organisational (A-PD-16, M1-13) agents and objects partners (A-PD-16) together, like collaborative virtual communities online (A-PD-18), to generate knowledge, understanding and better relationships (A-CD-10).

Intercultural exchange programs (A-GD-9, M1-13) could let agents and objects have agreed, mutually understood, reciprocally valuable objectives (A-CD-11) based on their better understanding of each other (A-PD-20). It provides opportunities for individuals to experience and engage with other cultures (A-PD-20).

Other activities and programs involve both sides of GPD, and include activities like educational programs (A-GD-14) and arts activities, which have a bearing on foreign policy (A-GD-20).

3. People-to-people links

People-to-people links can refer to those not intended to be public diplomacy activity (A-PD-15), but having the incidental result of delivering fundamental and long-term trust in, and change to, relations between countries (A-PD-15). It can also refer to various networking activities (A-CD-6) between agents and their counterparts in object countries, which can facilitate the exchange of cross-cultural knowledge and respect (A-PD-13).

The three different communication methods are closely related to each other. The first method of dialogue could lead to a second one of collaboration (M1-13); in the collaboration programs, the first method of dialogue would again take place, which could lead to further collaboration. But the first method of dialogue is regarded as being far better than activities involving passive audiences in the second method like performances or arts exhibitions (M1-13). The first and second method of dialogue, collaboration of various programs and activities could end up in the third method of longer term people-to-people relationships and, finally, mutually beneficial outcomes (A-PD-20).

Relations between objects

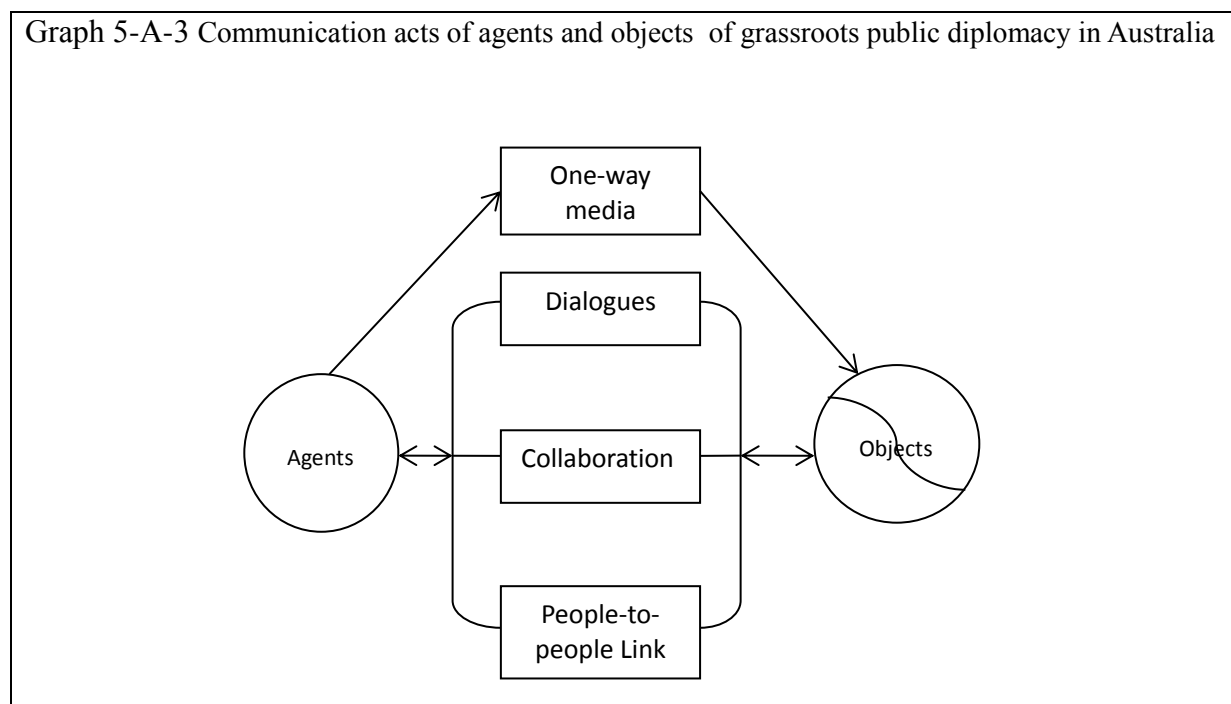
Objects can pass the word on using media like social media (G3-18) and websites (G6-17); or in-person methods like face-to-face (G3-18) and word of mouth (G6-17); or organising activities like exhibitions (G6-17). These are communicative acts between direct and indirect objects.

Non-communicative acts between agents and objects

There are communication methods which are not communicative. The interview data indicate that traditional media are one-way communication acts used by agents. They can get information widespread with the help of various media (G3-16). The media include written letters (M5-6), reports (P5-13) and articles (G3-16); old fashioned marketing tools like printed documents and posters (C2-14); traditional media like TV, radio (C1-2); other websites with information and images (C3-18); recordings you can buy (G5-11). These methods only help agents to spread the word to objects, mostly with no feedback.

Section summary

Graph 5-A-3 below illustrates the communication acts of agents and objects.



The two double arrows connect circles of “agents” and “objects”, as well as the three communicative methods mentioned in discussions above. The circle of “objects” divided by curved connector indicates the interactions between direct and indirect objects as discussed. Also, the arrow pointing from the circle of “agents” to the rectangle of “one-way media”, then to the circle of “objects” describes the non-communicative acts used by agents.

Agreement

The following discussions focus on the interaction and relationship between actors related to agreement. They are based on interview data only, due to the lack of relevant documentary data.

Relationships between agents

Before GPD, a combination of agents could have been involved. At government level, the agreement between governments could be a guide to the general information of the GPD (C2-17). Once you have the agreement, it becomes the grassroots (P2-10) that conduct the activity. Here, the initiator of government and the practitioner of people from grassroots level can be

regarded as collaborating in certain way to make GPD possible.

Relations between agents and objects

The relationships between agents and objects, especially partners working together, are as the following.

Counterparts

Before or during GPD, agreement can be affected by the relative power of both sides, as with powerful and weak partners. However equal footing would be helpful for reaching agreements (M5-17, C3-20).

Interactions

Despite the relative power, there are direct and indirect interactions between agents and objects for reaching agreements.

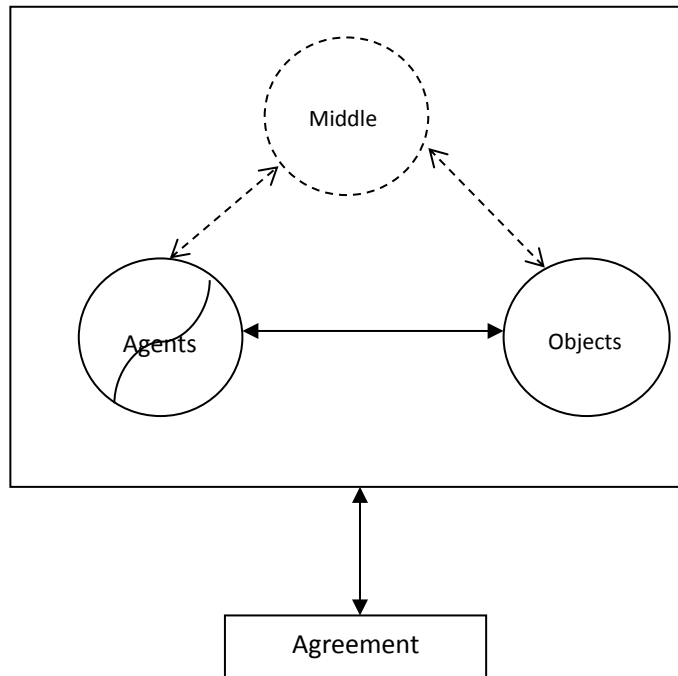
Before GPD, the agents and objects communicate for a two-way and reciprocal agreement (C2-18) in a written (P5-12) or non-written form (M1-14) that works for both sides (C2-13). The “no-agreement” situation could be developed into having agreement through engagement (M4-11). During GPD, agents and object have ongoing discussions (C3-11) and negotiations step by step (G4-14) or working together (P5-17) to reach agreement, which is followed by actors’ flexibility (C3-11) to keep changing, revisiting and developing it together (P5-14, C3-11).

Before or during GPD, agents and objects sometimes communicate indirectly through middle or intermediate persons (C4-9) to help facilitate agreements (C2-16, C4-9). The intermediates help start the connection between both sides (C4-9) and make sure that all actors are working to the agenda (P1-3).

Section summary

Relations between actors that affect reaching agreement are described by Graph 5-A-4 below.

Graph 5-A-4 Agreements of actors of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



In Graph 5-A-4, the circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector represents a combination of various agents and the cooperation between them.

Equal footing of actors is reflected in the graph by the same size of circles of “agents” and “objects” on the same level. The circles of “agents” and “objects”, as well as the double arrow between them represent direct communication of agents and objects to reach agreements. Meanwhile, the indirect communication of actors is shown as a dotted circle of the “middle person”, as well as the dotted double arrow connecting agents and the middle person, as well as objects and middle person.

Constant revisiting of agreements reached is shown by double arrow connecting the rectangle of “agreement”, and the rectangle containing the actors forming agreement.

Coordination

As mentioned in the data, some initiatives require quite a lot of interactive coordination (C3-17), while some don’t (C3-25). The discussions below focus on the relationship between agents and objects during the coordination process.

Relations between agents and objects

Direct interactions

Some actors have a structured way of dealing with a partner (P3-16). For instance, grassroots organisations sometimes need to coordinate with other organisations (M2-12). One or both sides may yield or compromise on certain points during the process to reach new agreements (P4-12, C2-16). As there will always be changes (M5-19), ongoing interactions (C3-11) with flexibility, revisiting and developing (P5-14) are needed (M5-18) to solve certain problems or issues which occur (C3-11, M2-12), like changes of people and costs (M5-19).

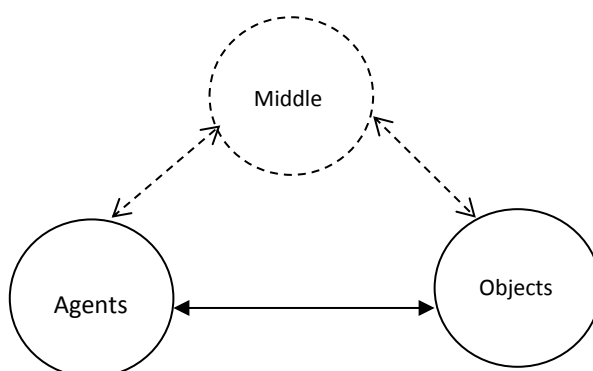
The coordination process may involve two steps of first contact with a small amount of discussions and communications in the short term, and further communications after trust is established (P6-11).

Indirect interactions

The data suggest that a coordinator is sometimes needed to broker relationships (C2-16, C2-21). This middle body is more effective if it has a similar cultural background to the object (P6-10), experiences on the ground, foreign language skills, relevant networks and flexibility (C2-21). Hopefully, the coordinator is aiming for long-term relationships (C2-16), is persistent and gets it done (P6-10).

Section summary

Graph 5-A-5 Coordination of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



Various interactions take place between agents and objects for coordination, which are shown in Graph 5-A-5 as the circle of “agents” and “objects”, as well as the double arrow connecting them.

Middle persons who help the coordinating process are represented by the dotted circle of “middle person”, connected by the dotted double arrow to the other two circles of “agents” and “objects” respectively.

Aims of agents and objects

As there are several similar points, drawn from interview and documentary data, the discussions below are based on both data sources, and focus on the relationship between actors and aims.

Relations between agents and objects

The aims of actors can be anything pleasing to agents and objects (C4-11), like achieving mutual agendas (P3-16).

Enhancing relationship

The data indicate that some actors want to build people-to-people links (A-GD-9) at the non-government level (A-PD-10), to connect and enhance interactions with objects (A-GD-9). This can also help broaden and strengthen relationships between agents, objects and their countries (C3-26, A-MD-1).

Raising understanding

Some agents aim at understanding more about themselves (M4-15) and others (M4-14). At the same time they want to help the object develop a more complete, and hopefully favourable, understanding of the agents' country (C3-27, A-GD-7). Meanwhile, some objects are seeking greater understanding of or learning about (C2-25), the agents, their country and culture (P6-13). Some actors aim at improving mutual and intercultural understanding (C3-26, A-PD-17) between agents and objects (C3-26, A-GD-7).

Dialogues

Some objects want to have dialogue with the agents and share their culture with the agents (C2-25), which is a comparatively fair exchange (M5-22).

Relationship between aims

The aims are related when actors are practising. People-to-people links (A-GD-9, A-MD-1)

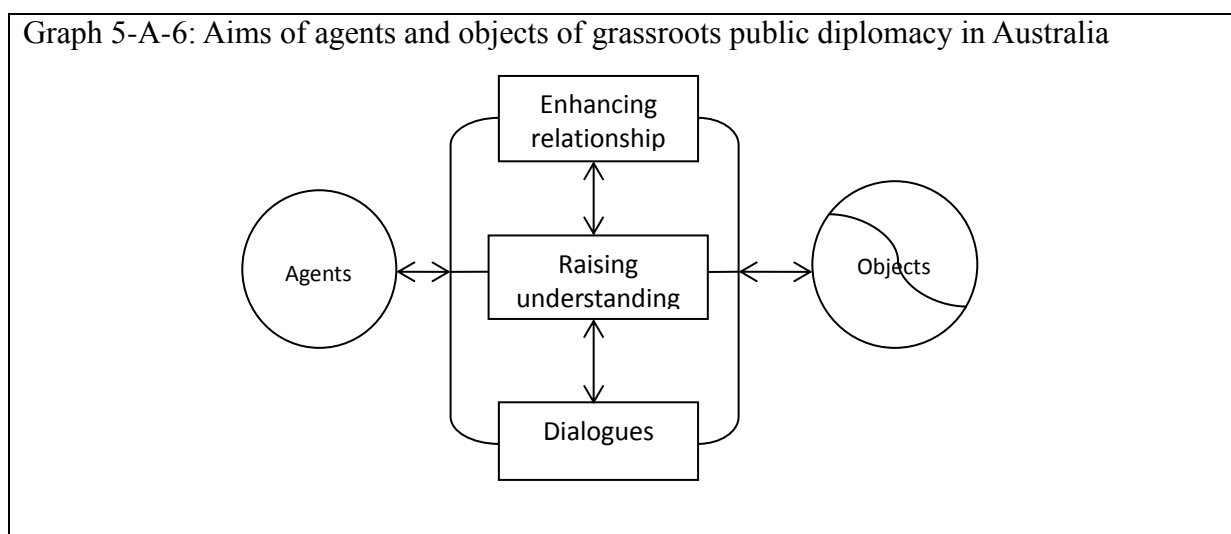
and mutual understanding which come out of it could lead to a stronger relationship between agent and object (C3-26). The dialogue between actors could lead to better relationships (P3-16, C4-11).

Relations between objects

The aim of spreading the word involves different objects, with direct ones passing the word on after receiving the message from agents (G6-7), and indirect ones receiving information from direct ones. It helps formulate a two-phase communication for the objects: receiving messages – spreading the word.

Section summary

Graph 5-A-6 below is a summary of the relations between actors and aims discussed above.



The aims involving agents and objects are shown in Graph 5-A-6 as the circles of “agents” and “objects”, the rectangles of “enhancing relationship”, “raising understanding” and “dialogues”, as well the two level double arrows connecting the circles and rectangles. Connections between aims are shown in the graph above by the vertical double arrows connecting different rectangles of aims.

Situation of objects spreading words is shown in the graph as the circle of “objects” divided by a curved connector.

Process

As mentioned in the interview data, the process is drawn from the data. The discussions below

will explain the interactions between actors, in terms of the process based on both interview and documentary data.

Relations between agents

The data suggest that some government agents support government agencies and initiatives, as well as other organisational and individual practitioners in various ways, like providing funding (A-GD-1), communication infrastructure (A-CD-12), and setting up interdepartmental committees to coordinate various resources (A-PD-32). Meanwhile, some organisations other than government support organisational and individual practitioners by sponsoring (A-MD-10) and creating more programs (A-PD-26). Some initiators actively seek funding to support their GPD practices (C3-8).

There is also preparation of building up a loose agent network that involves a combination of government and communities (A-GD-25), other organisations, groups and individuals (A-PD-32).

Relations between agents and objects

At the early stage, there is a process to build up connections between agents and objects (P5-8, A-PD-31), especially people-to-people links (A-PD-25, P2-4), through an intermediate person (P1-2, C4-9), different interactions (A-MD-12), or using interactive platforms (A-CD-13). The objects may or may not raise the idea of GPD projects initially (M5-14). Connections can help enhance intercultural understanding between agents and objects (A-GD-27).

The objects also have connections with agents by having different reactions: they passively accept messages from agents and/or respond to it (A-PD-36), or actively go to the agent country and experience it (M1-17).

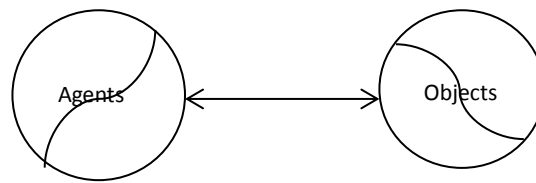
Relations between objects

The general process of direct objects passing the word on to indirect objects (G6-7) is mentioned, which is different from the relevant detail actions mentioned above, like the aims of spreading the word or plans for passing the word on.

Section summary

Different processes in the whole GPD process broadly contain interaction between actors, which is summarised by Graph 5-A-7.

Graph 5-A-7: Process of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



The combination of different agents, as well as connections between them, is shown in Graph 5-A-7 as the circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector. In the graph above, the circles of “agents” and “objects”, as well as the double arrow connecting them reflect the process of interactions between agents and objects. Objects spreading words is mentioned again, and is reflected by the circle of “objects” divided by the curved connector in the graph.

Result

Based on the interview and documentary data, the relationship between actors, in terms of the result of GPD, is discussed below.

Relations between agents and objects

Agents and objects have certain connections in several of the results discussed below.

Better understanding

The data suggest the result of intercultural understanding being improved (A-CD-10, M4-10). Some agents better understand the objects, their culture and country (A-MD-13, A-PD-9, and M4-14), while some objects have further understanding (A-PD-9) of agents and their country (A-CD-19).

Better relationships

There is the result of better relations between agents and objects, including establishment and enhancement of strong cultural and social relationships, as well as lasting and positive people-to-people ties (A-MD-17, A-PD-37, A-PD-9, A-CD-10) at the grassroots level (M4-10, G5-20). This can help with stronger economic ties being formed between countries (A-MD-17), like productive collaborations between agents and objects (A-MD-17, A-CD-10).

Agreement

Another result is agreement between actors, including mutual interest, agendas (P3-11) or trust (M4-10), which is reached through interactions between agents and objects (P4-11). Here, agreement is regarded as a result, instead of a specific process discussed previously.

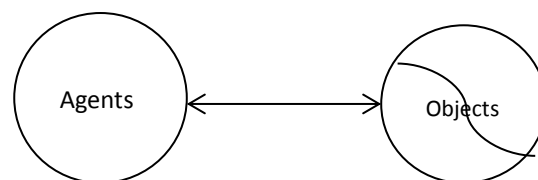
Relations between objects

Some objects have interactions by passing the word on and debating certain topics to achieve the results of having influence. Objects, like those students who work in senior position (A-PD-9) and have impact (A-PD-38) after returning to home countries would have further influence (P5-6) by passing the word on (P1-18) or involving themselves in different and productive debate (P5-6).

Section summary

The relations between actors related to results of GPD are summarised by the graph below.

Graph 5-A-8: Result of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



Circles of “agents” and “objects”, as well as the double arrow between them in Graph 5-A-8 indicate intercultural understanding, better relations between agents and objects, as well as interactions for agreements. Here the arrow refers to two directions from “agents” to “objects”, and the opposite.

The circle of “objects” divided by the curved connector in the graph refers to interactions between objects to achieve certain results.

RQ1: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia?

Going back to RQ1, based on the discussions above, the concept of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia is composed of various factors: agents, objects, plans of action of agents, plans of action of objects, communication acts of agents, communication acts of objects, agreement, coordination, aims of agents, aims of objects, process, and result. There will be brief descriptions of the factors, followed by a summary to answer RQ 1.

Agents and objects

The agents of GPD comprise initiators and practitioners, who could collaborate when practising. Initiators are individual or organisational, grassroots or non-grassroots, organising themselves or cooperating with other initiators. Also, practitioners are individual or organisational grassroots, as the organisation would play the role of middle agent. It is finally individual grassroots practitioners practising directly, either independently or as a group.

There are individual and organisational objects involved in GPD. Direct ones of the grassroots individual and organisations or indirect ones of both ordinary people and the government, incidentally or not, combined or not, participating in passive or active ways. This makes the process a two-phase communication.

The different actors converse with each other in certain circumstances and have two-way communication throughout GPD.

Plans of action of agents and objects

Both agents and objects may or may not plan for GPD activity.

Actors having plans involve each other in the planning process, and are more considerate of the needs of both sides, having flexibility for coordination. There are also communications between those well-organised objects and those planning to pass on relevant information. If the plans are of their own needs, then GPD would be an incidental result.

Those agents not having plan could, but not necessarily, end up with further plans, which can lead to long-term relationships between agents and objects from different countries. Those objects not having plan, who are the majority, could follow the agents' plans or react, or pass the word on.

Communication acts of agents and objects

The communication methods for agents are organising programs, media, and in-person; for objects, they are responding accordingly by using the same methods or participating, or passing the word on. The methods involving both sides are dialogue, collaboration and people-to-people links, which are closely related. It is better for both sides to use communication at equal levels.

Agreement

Before and during GPD, there may or may not be existing agreements. For existing ones, there are formal or informal agreements constituted through interactions involving various agents and objects. With or without the help of intermediates, this process needs flexibility and is subject to change and being revisited. Equivalence of agents and objects is also important during the process.

Coordination

For those simple and less organised initiatives, there's not much coordination needed. Meanwhile, for those collaborations at the organisational level or situations when difficulties occur, coordination will be needed. In this case, agents and objects would need either a coordinator, or to communicate in various ways, like using online tools, with the flexibility to revisit and develop. Actors compromise on certain points to help reach an agreement. Coordination would again happen following the new agreement.

Aims of agents and objects

Some agents and objects have their own needs, similar to or different from the other sides'. Also, they would like the other side to understand them, and want to understand the other side and their culture and country, so as to improve mutual and intercultural understanding between them. Moreover, some of them would like to build up people-to-people connections, enhancing relationships and having dialogue with each other. Some objects want to take the word or projects onwards, which could make the GPD more influential.

Process

Basically, processes are interactions between actors. The agents can be a combination of different organisations and individuals. There is support from organisational source to various

agents. Agents are better well-prepared and participate in GPD activities with flexibility and consideration of both sides. Meanwhile, objects can passively follow and respond, or actively raise the initial idea and go to experience on their own, or spread the words.

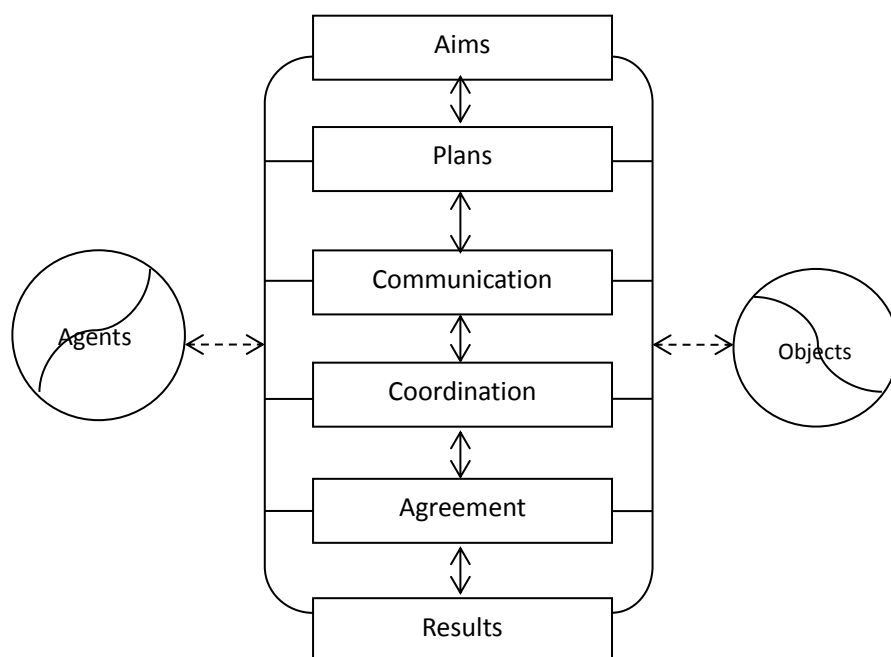
Incidental or not, the whole process contains two-way communication through different communication methods. The interactions at the grassroots level are genuine and authentic in nature.

Result

Incidental or not, GPD can result in better intercultural understanding and interest in the other culture, generating agreements like mutual interest, agenda and trust during the process. All these can help form people-to-people ties, leading to better relationships at the grassroots level, closer collaborations, and stronger ties at a higher level. Those objects having impact can debate certain topics or pass the word on and widen the influence, which can help agents and their country have a better image and profile, or even economic benefits. Consequently, more GPD could happen, creating an ongoing beneficial cycle.

Section summary

Graph 5-A-9 Communication process between actors in grassroots public diplomacy in Australia



Graph 5-A-9 is a summary of the processes of actors doing GPD. The circle of actors divided by curved connectors indicates the possibility of a combination of different actors who interact with each other. The dotted double arrows, connecting rectangles of different processes of GPD and circles of actors, indicate the two-way and interactive process of interactions that reciprocally constitutes these processes. These interactions may or may not exist in practice. The double arrows connecting different rectangles of processes indicate the interactive relationship between them.

To sum up, based on interview and documentary data, the concept of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia refers to: the process of communication between agents of individual and/or organisational grassroots practitioners, and/or individual and/or organisational initiators, as well as direct and/or indirect individual and/or organisational objects in another state. The role of agents and objects may interchange. Agents and objects, having or not having a brief or detailed plans for the long or short term, with or without aims, and may result, incidentally or not, in having dialogues, better relationships, better understanding, reciprocally constituted formal or informal agreement, and/or spreading the word. Actors communicate through acts including organising programs, using media, or in-person. Interactions between actors happen throughout the whole process, with flexibility for revisiting, as well as coordination, using coordinators or other communication acts, or compromising along the way.

RQ2: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in China?

Details of each factor of the whole process of grassroots public diplomacy in China were mentioned in the Findings above, including interview and documentary data, if any. Similar to previous sections concerning RQ1, the discussions below will focus on the nexus between these factors, so as to shape the entire concept of grassroots public diplomacy in China, especially the relationship between various actors including agents and objects, which are mentioned throughout the Findings. Those other connections naturally generated from analysis will be discussed as well.

Again, discussions of each of the factors for answering this research question will be followed by a graph that summarises the situation mentioned. The graphs will be named following the rules of “Graph”, plus “4” for Chapter IV, a dash “-”, following by “C” for data for the concept in China, a dash “-” for connection, and ordinal numbers like “1”.

Actors

Based on the interview and documentary data related to agents and objects, the relationship between actors could be segmented into those between agents, agents and objects, as well as objects.

Relationship between agents

Combination of agents

There are different agents involved in doing GPD together.

An individual initiator, such as a public diplomacy officer, could organise groups like cultural organisations to participate (P10-1) in GPD. However, some interviewees believe that the agents should be ordinary people, and exclude any organised ones (C10-1).

The organisational initiator, like the government could play the role of supporting (G9-3) or giving directions for organising activities (M9-2). They can bring people in to participate in GPD (P8-3), and enable the grassroots practice (C-MD-11, C-PD-9).

Agents could also be a combination of various individual practitioners; some just follow, while others play an active role (G7-2, C-MD-22), like opinion leaders who have many fans and could play a leading role or spread the word wider (M10-2). Although some interviewees consider the public elite as part of the practitioners (G11-1), some believe that practitioners should not include officials or the elite (P11-1).

Relations between agents and objects

Agents and objects are both involved in various situations.

Opportunities and needs

The agents and objects will have needs and/or opportunities to interact with each other (M7-3, C-PD-1 and C-GD-13). For instance, ordinary people go abroad to travel (G10-2), work and live (G10-4); non-governmental think-tanks, joining international forums (C-PD-25); grassroots groups visiting abroad (C-MD-2).

Nature of relationships between actors (agents and objects)

Agents and objects involved in GPD have various degrees of commonality in terms of

position, responsibilities in their group/organization and formality in their counterpart roles). For instance counterparts in a sister city relationship would have formal roles (P11-2, M7-3). Both parties to a dyadic agent-object relationship are stakeholders in the relationship (M7-3).

Nature of organisation

Some organisations are in the position of undertaking GPD and interacting with objects, which were established for building and maintaining connections between people in different countries, like friendship associations (G8-2).

Role reversal

Agents and objects may experience role reversal in specific situations. For instance, those going abroad could accept information as objects, or give others certain impression as agents (G10-5, C-PD-2).

Interactions

Agents and objects interact with each other during the GPD process (M10-13), like communicating on shared media platforms including social media (C-MD-15), and therefore building up good relationships with the other side (C-CD-6).

Relations between objects

There can be a combination of various direct and indirect objects, the former spreading the word to the latter.

Passing the word on

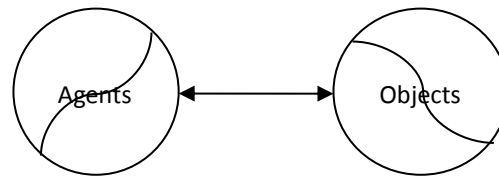
Some objects, like opinion leaders, have certain reasons like responsibility (G10-7) to pass the word on to people in the object country, including elite groups (P11-2). Those indirect objects can be elite (P11-2) or ordinary people (G11-5) who would like to get the truth from direct objects (G10-6).

Combination of objects

Objects can have complicated composition (P9-2), including direct and indirect objects (G11-5) from various sectors, like from think-tanks, government, media and the ordinary public (C-PD-17, C-PD-18). They can be involved together in GPD, and make the process different.

Section summary

Graph 5-C-1: Actors of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Graph 5-C-1 summarises relations between actors, in terms of interactions between them. The circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector refers to the combination of different agents, as well as the interactions between them. The circle of “objects” divided by curved connector also refers to a combination of various objects and the action of passing the word on from direct to indirect ones. Double arrow connecting two circles indicates interactions between agents and objects, as well as the possibility of role exchange between them.

Plans of action of actors

As no documentary data relates to plans of action of actors, the following discussions will be based on interview data only. The relations between actors in terms of plans of action are as following.

Relationship between agents

Some agents work together with, or considering, other agents when making plans.

Combination of agents

The agents of GPD may consider the supportiveness of other agents when making plans. For instance, some agents would consider their backing power (P8-5).

Work distribution

Agents who work together for one GPD activity take responsibility for certain sections of their plan, like budgets and proposals (C7-7), which is a kind of cooperation between them.

Relations between agents and objects

From plan-making to plan-implementing, there are actors trying to involve the other side.

Subject to change

Some agents are supposed to be prepared to adjust plans whenever necessary (G12-7), as they can't control the objects' responses, and therefore can only know the direction but not the details (M6-11).

Plans involving the other side

Some actors have plans related to the other or both sides. Some agents would like to know who the objects are (C8-9), and plan to involve objects like opinion leaders in the object country to help expand the influence of certain activity (G11-10). Some objects, like the counterparts of agents, are curious about the other side (P11-4), and plan to participate and learn more about agents (M9-9). Meanwhile, some actors plan to seek common ground for both sides (M8-9).

Cooperation

Some agents and objects work together to seek or establish common values and mutual ideas (M8-9). Some of them combine self-needs and interest to give feedback and interact, so as to form a plan of cooperation. Here actors not only cooperate to make plan, but also plan to cooperate.

Following plans

Some objects like stakeholders will follow the plans of agents unless they disagree with them (G7-14).

Relations between objects

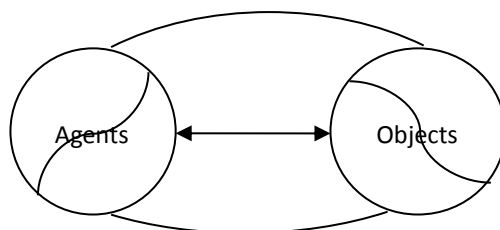
Dissemination

There are objects in the position to have plans to pass on the information received from agents (G10-12), like the staff of agencies for studying abroad (G10-13).

Section summary

Based on the discussions above, the relationship between actors in terms of plans of action of GPD can be shown by the graph below.

Graph 5-C-2: Plans of Action of grassroots public diplomacy in China



In Graph 5-C-2, the circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector indicates a combination of various agents involved in the plan-making process, as well as the relations between them. The circle of “objects” refers to plans involving various objects. The arcs, connecting two circles and making it a closed shape, refer to the plans involving both agents and objects. The double arrow represents the cooperation of agents and objects when making a plan, or one side following the other’s plan, as well as the plan of cooperation between the actors.

Communication acts

The discussions below analyse the relations between actors, in terms of communication acts.

Relations between agents

Some agents work together due to the communication method of organising activities (G9-10).

Relations between agents and objects

There are communication acts involving both agents and objects in GPD practice.

Choice of communication acts

Some agents take objects into consideration when choosing communication acts. Face-to-face ways are more targeted at certain audience but less efficient. Meanwhile, mass media like newspaper and TV are more efficient in reaching broad audiences though less in-depth (M9-6), which better suits comparatively passive objects.

Communication acts involving both sides

Some actors are involved in interactions with communication acts that the other side use (M8-7).

1. Face-to-face

The face-to-face methods of organising meetings or holding activities provide opportunities for both sides to have communicative interaction (M7-6, C8-8, P8-2, C-GD-8, and C-MD-20). Other kinds of face-to-face interaction happen on day-to-day bases, including work, study, doing business, etc. (G10-2, G11-8, and C-GD-5). One-to-one grassroots communication is regarded as influential with credible content being shared between actors (C7-1).

2. Media

Some media are used for interaction between agents and objects (C7-1), including micro-blogging, forum (P10-7), online chatting, phone meetings (C7-6), and emails (C7-1). Some agents organise activities online (C6-6). The “new media” like social media allow objects to talk back (G11-6, P10-7), which is regarded as interactive two-way communication. They combine mass and interpersonal communication (C-PD-27), and therefore involve agents and objects in an agreeable way.

Intermediaries, or middlemen, are also important for connecting agents and objects, including friends of objects, or organisations (M8-7) as well as quasi-non-governmental and non-governmental think-tanks (C-CD-1).

Content involving agents and objects

Agents and objects can exchange ideas on mutual values (M8-6).

Communication acts and results

Communication acts like face-to-face interaction help build friendship bridges of mutual understanding and a trust of both sides (C-PD-21, C-CD-3). They can be sincere understandings and lasting agreements with a foreign public (C-MD-6), or friendly views of each other (C-MD-12).

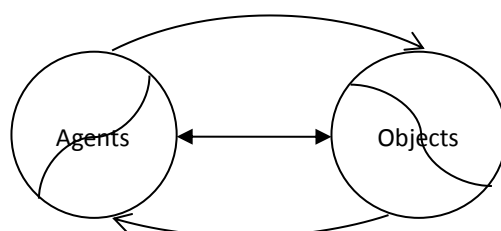
Relations between objects

Various communication acts can let objects bring more people in or spread the word outwards. For those objects gathered for occasions like activities, they are supposed to bring more people in to become involved (M7-6). The choice of social media like microblogs by agents can also help expand audience groups by enabling objects to spread the word on social media if the latter find anything interesting (M7-13). Some objects spread the message by word of mouth among friends and relatives (M6-1, G10-3), while others use mass media like newspaper, radio, or books to disseminate information (g10-20).

Section summary

Analysis of communication acts indicates the relations between actors, described in the graph below.

Graph 5-C-3: Communication acts of grassroots public diplomacy in China



The circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector refers to different agents working together. The circle of “objects” divided by a curved connector indicates various objects who bring others in and spread information out. Meanwhile, the curved arrows from one circle to the other show the communication acts adopted by actors considering the other side. The double arrow connecting two circles reflects the communication acts involving and connecting the two sides of actors, which is a bridge for friendship between them.

Agreement

According to the interview data only, the agreement and the process to reach agreement involves much interaction between agents and objects. The discussions below focus on their relations.

Relations between agents and objects

An agreement here refers to agents and objects agreeing with each other on certain points.

Interactions

There are interactions between two sides to reach agreement (G9-17, P8-13). It is helpful to have a good atmosphere of dialogues, as well as more interactions to reach agreements (P7-7). The willingness of both sides to have contact also helps (P9-7). It can result in strengthening or weakening relationships between actors (M8-13).

Relationship of actors

The right choice of objects is believed to help with reaching agreements (P8-9). If agents and objects are counterparts, they are supposed to have a better chance of reaching agreement (P8-9). The credibility of both sides also counts (G10-14). If essential figures have the expertise and credibility to organise an activity, others will follow (G7-17).

Mutual points

Agents and objects try to find mutual points that fit the interests of both sides (P8-13, M7-11), or at least have a balance point acceptable to both sides (G11-13). However, doubts could still exist for actors (G10-18). The points include value systems, common goals, and history of cooperation (M8-10), as well as rules they have agreed to follow (C6-10), and mutual understanding on the content of communication (P11-8, G12-9).

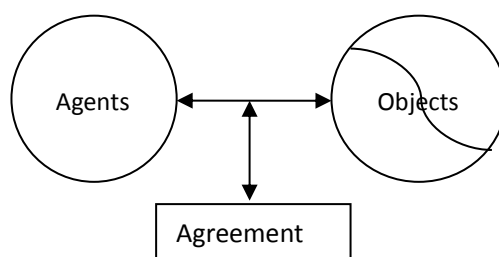
Relations between objects

Agreements may be passed on to objects by direct objects (G10-18).

Section summary

Situations relevant to agreement are summarised by the graph below.

Graph 5-C-4: Agreements of grassroots public diplomacy in China



In Graph 5-C-4, double arrows, connecting two circles of “agents” and “objects”, as well as

the rectangle of “agreement”, indicate the process of communication between agents and objects to reach agreements, and also the relationship between agents and objects being improved or weakened due to agreements. The arrow pointing from the rectangle of “agreements” to objects, together with the circle of “objects” divided by the curved connector, representing the disseminating of agreements from direct to indirect objects in this situation.

Coordination

As there is no supportive documentary data, the discussions are based on interview data only. Some situations don’t need much coordination, like writing a book (P7-9), in terms of the author writing mostly alone, while others do. The following analysis will focus on the interactions between actors when coordinating.

Relations between agents and objects

Interactions

Agents and objects have various forms of interaction for coordination, including feedback (P7-5) and responses to the other side’s reactions (M9-3); adjustment (P7-5) when meeting obstacles (P9-12, C6-14); or yielding on certain points (P11-9).

These interactions can lead to understanding being increased and misunderstandings between agents and objects being removed (P7-5). It can help find common grounds or reach certain agreements (C10-8).

Coordinator

Individual or organisational coordinators, like coordinating departments, are sometimes needed when coordinating (P8-10) agents and objects.

Dynamic process

Coordination is a dynamic process, as communications like discussion (C10-12) between agents and objects happen continuously (M7-12). It helps actors find common ground, expanding agreements and narrowing down differences (M7-12).

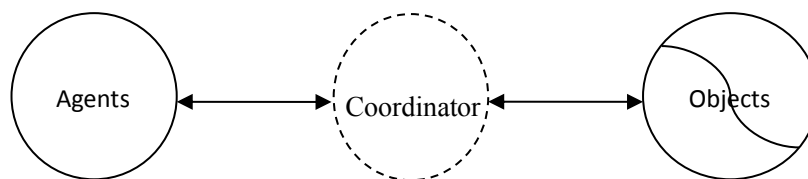
Relations between objects

Besides the coordination process mentioned above, it is also a process of creating mutual

benefits, and increasing dissemination (M8-12).

Section summary

Graph 5-C-5: Coordination of grassroots public diplomacy in China



In Graph 5-C-5, double arrows connecting the circles of “agents”, “objects” and the dotted circle of “coordinator” indicate the dynamic interaction process between agents and objects, with or without coordinators. The circle of “objects” divided by a curved connector indicates the coordination process of benefitting both sides and disseminating the benefits.

Aims of agents and objects

The interview and documentary data indicate that agents and objects may or may not have aims (M10-5, M6-7). Discussions below focus on relations between actors related to the aims of actors.

Relations between agents

Different agents may share aims and work together to achieve them.

Combination of various agents

Some agents represent certain groups (C10-14). Therefore their aims are the group’s aims to some extent. Here a combination of agents involving individuals and groups participate in GPD together and share their aims of participation in the way of representation.

Interactions

Different agents share certain aims and try to realise their aims together. There are agents tending to educate the public in the agent country about relevant matters (M9-7), and later to do GPD together. Some agents want to pressure their government to solve problems with the help of international public opinion (M7-4).

Relations between agents and objects

Unconscious interaction

Some agents have no aims and will react to misunderstandings unconsciously (C10-13). Those unconscious objects can have similar aims to the agents after interactions with the latter (C9-5).

Aims involving another side

Some agents and objects have aims involving the other side. Various ways of involvement are mentioned in the data.

1. Interaction

Some agents want to enhance interaction between both sides (C6-4), like international exchange and communications (C9-3, C-PD-21). Some objects want to be involved in communication with agents and express their ideas (C7-5) like responding (G11-7), and listening to different voices (C7-8). Some actors want to work together with the other side to realise their mutual goals (M7-5).

2. Friendship

Some agents aim to enhance relationships (P8-14) or friendships between countries and people (P8-14, P10-13); while some objects want to make friends (C7-14), and want agents to be closer to their country after the agents better understand and become affected by them (G12-10).

3. Understanding

Some agents aim for better understanding between people and countries (P8-11) and to eliminate unnecessary misunderstandings (C-CD-5), by building a bridge between them (C-PD-21). Some objects want to understand agents and their country and culture (C8-6), and let the other side know more about them (G12-10), as well as enhancing mutual understanding (P8-11, C8-6). However, it may result in stereotypes being reinforced (P11-11).

4. Agreements

Some agents believe that better understanding can result in agreements (P8-11).

5. Cooperation

Friendship enhancement can lead to long-term cooperation between agents and objects (P10-15). Some agents aim at promoting cooperation in areas like economy (C-PD-21).

6. Mutual interest

Some objects have the same interest as agents do (M7-5). Some agents want to achieve the mutual interests of agents and objects (P10-13), or common interests of human beings like world peace (C-PD-19). The aims of actors are sometimes more about wanting to benefit and realise the mutual interests of both sides and avoid hurting the other side (G12-4, P10-13).

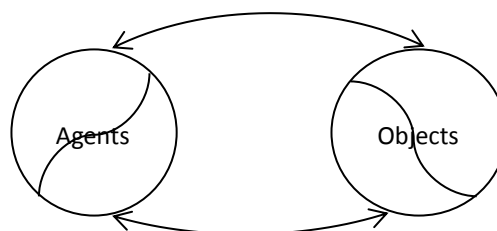
Relations between objects

Some objects have the aim of cooperation between various objects. For instance, some objects would like to work with others in the object country to solve certain international issues (G7-8); the object country's government would support objects participating in GPD if it fits the national interest (M7-2).

Section summary

Aims shared by or involving different actors can be described by the graph below.

Graph 5-C-6: Aims of actors of grassroots public diplomacy in China



In Graph 5-C-6 above, the circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector indicates a combination of agents working together in certain way in GPD. The two curved arrows

connecting the two circles of “agents” and “objects” show the aims of involving the other side or both sides. The circle of “objects” divided by a curved connector reflects the aim of cooperation between various objects.

Process

Based on the interview and documentary data, there are interactions between actors in terms of various processes of GPD drawn from data.

Relations between agents

Agents have certain forms of interaction in different processes.

Cooperation of agents

Some GPD are initiated and led (C7-11) by grassroots individuals and organisations (G9-15) or government (G9-18), who bring grassroots individual and organisational practitioners to participate (P8-3). There are also initiators coordinating and managing various social resources and power to participate (C-GD-6).

Domestic public diplomacy

The domestic public in the agent country is educated and learns about public diplomacy (G9-6). Here, those who educate the public and the public themselves interact in terms of education. It is a process to raise public diplomacy awareness (C-GD-5)

Relations between agents and objects

Various processes contain communications between agents and objects.

Interactions

There is a process of two-way communication, which is communicative. For example, there are people-to-people interactions and exchanges (G11-2, C-PD-15); cooperation between agents and objects (P10-13, C-MD-1); communication across cultures between elites and public at all levels (C-MD-19); overcoming difficulties together (C-PD-33).

Communications can lead to mutual understanding (C-PD-13), which is shared by agents and objects.

Understanding

There is a process of reaching mutual understanding between agents and objects (C-PD-14). Better understanding can lead to cooperation between the two (P10-13).

Localisation

There are agents trying to integrate into the objects' society (G8-5) by combining their own and local culture, as well as taking community responsibility (C-CD-4).

Friendship

There's a process of agents making friends and having good relationships with people from the object country (C-CD-6).

Relations between objects

There are connections between various objects when participating in GPD together.

Spreading the word

As already mentioned above in other sections, there is a process of objects passing the word on (G10-12) to indirect objects like the public (G11-5), government and media of object country (C-PD-18).

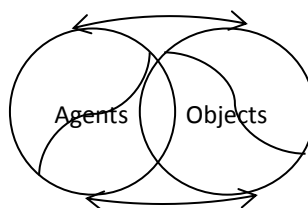
Combination of objects

There are different objects participating in GPD together, for example, some of the public participate while their government supports them in certain ways (C-CD-4).

Section summary

The relations between actors in terms of process of GPD generated from data are described by the graph below.

Graph 5-C-7: Process of grassroots public diplomacy in China



In Graph 5-C-7, the circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector indicates a combination of agents and the interactions between them, including cooperation and education. The similar circle of “objects” refers to a combination of different objects, as well as words spreading from direct to indirect objects. Also, the overlapped area of two circles symbolises the process of localisation, during which agents take both actors into consideration, with communication and other necessary interactions. Moreover, the two curved arrows not only suggest interactions and understanding involving two sides, but also a close relationship between the two.

Result

According to interview and documentary data, there are interactions between actors in terms of the results of GPD.

Relations between agents and objects

The result of connecting two countries and maintaining or building good relationships involves both sides of GPD (G9-1, C-CD-3). The relationship can be weakened as well (M8-13).

Understanding

There is a result of understanding being increased on the other side, its country, people and culture (G8-7, C9-11, C-PD-29), or misunderstanding being reduced (P7-5, C-MD-13, C-CD-5). Mutual understanding can also be achieved or enhanced (P11-8, C-CD-3, C-PD-13, C-PD-13), which entails understanding by two sides. The result is reached through interactions between agents and objects (G9-2, M9-12, and C-MD-9).

Agreements

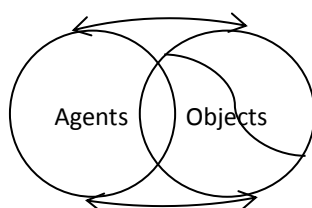
There is a result of reaching new agreements (G12-9) or lasting agreements (C-MD-6, C-PD-29), like mutual expectations on certain things (M9-12). It includes opinions of two sides of GPD and interactions including coordination and confrontation between agents and objects.

Relations between objects

The result of recognition, like support from a foreign government (C-CD-4), involves different objects from the public and the government.

Section summary

Graph 5-C-8: Results of grassroots public diplomacy in China



Graph 5-C-8 above summarises the relations of actors reflected by the discussions above. The overlapped area of circles of “agents” and “objects” indicates the results of agreements, coordination and mutual understanding that involve both sides’ opinions and confrontation. The two curved arrows indicate better understanding from one side to the other, as well as the relationship being tightened or loosened between the two due to their interactions. Also, the circle of “objects” divided by curved connector reflects the combination of various objects participating together in GPD.

Answer to RQ2

RQ2: What is the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in China?

Based on the discussions above, the concept of grassroots public diplomacy in China consists of actors, plans of actions, communication acts and the aims of agents and objects, agreement, process and results.

Actors

The actors include agents and objects. Some actors are in the position of doing GPD (G8-2). Agents and objects could transform into each other in certain situations (G10-5, C-PD-2). Some are counterparts while others are not (P11-2). Both sides have opportunities and needs (C-PD-1) to interact with each other.

The agents of GPD involve a loose but complex composition of conscious or unconscious grassroots individual and organisational practitioners, which may be organised by various ordinary or elite, individual or organisational initiators (P10-1, P8-3, and C-MD-22). They have ability, passion, needs, and networks, knowledge and opportunities to communicate with foreigners (C6-2), and support or lead the activities, while others follow (M9-2, C-MD-11).

However, it is not always the case as some people believe that agents should not refer to those organised ones (C10-1).

Objects can be direct and indirect (G10-4). Direct objects include grassroots and non-grassroots individuals (G9-5, C-MD-11), groups and organisations (M7-3), with the opportunity, interests and channels to be involved in grassroots public diplomacy (G8-6, C-PD-17). While indirect ones are the ordinary public, elite (G11-5, P11-2) or government of the object country (C-GD-4) who are informed by middleman between direct objects (G10-4, G10-7).

Plans of action of actors

Both agents and objects include those having their own plans (P9-3, G10-11, G10-12), or having no plans when participating in GPD, which is more spontaneous and unconscious with incidental results (G8-10, P9-4). Some of the objects may follow agents' plans (G7-14).

Some plans involve different agents and they work out plans together with consideration for each other (P8-5). After the plan is clear, different agents will be assigned certain parts of the plan (C7-7) so as to implement the whole plan together.

There are some agents and objects with simple plans (M9-9, M6-11). Both agents and objects have detailed plans sometimes. The agents' detailed plans mainly focus on the concrete steps of organising events (C8-9, C6-7, P7-4, P8-7), while objects' plan are comparatively simple with contacts, feedback, and follow-ups (M7-9). Some plans involve the other side (G11-10, M9-9). There are actors working out plans together, inside which they are seeking common grounds through cooperation (M8-9).

There are interactions between objects, including direct objects disseminating information further (G10-12, G10-13).

Agents with any of the kinds of plans above may meet objects with any kind of plans during GPD. Actors with the same kinds of plan don't necessarily meet and interact with each other in one GPD event. Agents' detailed plans are comparatively more concrete and more detailed than those of objects.

Communication acts of agents and objects

Communication acts of agents can use a single method, or a combination of various methods.

There are face-to-face methods of organised activities, exchanges, and cooperation, daily work and study (C-MD-2). There are also ones using media, including social media, emails, forums, websites and organised activities online (C7-1); traditional mass media like newspapers, radio and TV (G7-9, G9-11, C-PD-3); and other media such as leaflets (M10-7).

The objects mainly adopt communication acts corresponding to what agents use, so as to directly interact with agents (P11-6, M7-7, G10-10, and M8-7). Some objects also pass the word on online, using traditional media or word of mouth (G10-10, G10-3).

Looking at the two-way communication process as a whole, agents and objects participate face-to-face (M9-6, C-GD-5), or use interactive media (P10-7, C-MD-15), or have facilitators (M8-7, C-CD-1) to enable communicative dialogue and interaction (C-PD-27). Actors including stakeholders and counterparts (G7-10, C-MD-12) take the other side into consideration when choosing communication acts (M9-6) to interact with each other (P9-6), which help enhance cooperation, exchanges and friendship between them (C-PD-21). The content of communication between agents and objects also considers both sides' needs, like mutual values (M8-6). Also, different agents work together in organised activities (G9-10), while various objects are involved in GPD due to indirect objects spreading the word (M6-1, M7-6).

Agreement

There are agreements on some sharing points (P11-3), expectations and rules to follow (C6-10) before GPD activities take place. There are also agreements on the communication content (P11-8), longer term expectations (C8-11) and rules to follow (C9-10) during the GPD process. It might be passed on to others by direct objects (G10-18).

Agreements may be reached following stages of preparation (P9-7, C7-10), communication (G7-17, M7-11, G10-18, and P7-7), agreements (G11-13) and follow-ups (G10-18, P9-8). It is a process of interaction between agents and objects (G9-17), who can be counterparts (P8-9) with credibility (G10-14) that helps with forming agreements on mutual points for both sides (P8-13).

Coordination of action

There are different coordination methods, including coordinator (P8-10, P10-9), following rules (C6-14, C7-11), adjustment, like compromising (P11-9, P10-10), and constant communication (M7-12, C10-12), which could help with problem solving (P9-12).

It is a dynamic process (M7-12) of interactions (P7-5) with or without coordinator (P8-10) that may help reach agreements (M7-12). It can involve agents and objects (P7-5) or different objects (M8-12) participating jointly.

Aims of actors

Both agents and objects have aims related to their own or other interests (C8-1, C-PD-30, C7-8), just having certain influence (C9-3, G7-19), achieving better understanding (P8-11, C-CD-5, C8-6), relationships (P8-14, C7-14), and solving problems (M7-4). Among the aims, are those involving both agents and objects (C7-8, P8-11, P8-14, C-CD-5, C-PD-19, P10-13, and C-PD-21) who might become better counterparts (P8-11). Some objects may have the same goal as agents after their communication (C9-5).

There are various agents participating in GPD together (C10-14) and having various aims that involve different agents (M7-4). Also, some objects plan to cooperate (G7-8) or pass the word on (G10-8).

Process

There may or may not be initiation (C6-2). Some agents and objects do GPD spontaneously (C-PD-9, G10-8). The practices include domestic public diplomacy (G9-6, C-MD-24), cross-cultural people-to-people dialogue and cooperation (G11-2, C-MD-7, and C-MD-1), activity participation (G7-10, C-PD-14), problem solving (G7-8, C-PD-33) and localisation (G8-5, C-CD-4). Lasting effects could result in the long term (P9-8, C-PD-11).

Some processes involve different agents (G9-6, C7-11, and P8-3) who play different roles and participate in GPD together (C-CD-4). Also, some contain both agents and objects (G11-2, C-PD-15, G8-5, C-CD-4, G8-3, C-PD-14, and C-CD-6). Moreover, some objects spread the word to indirect objects like the public in an object country (G10-12, C-PD-18).

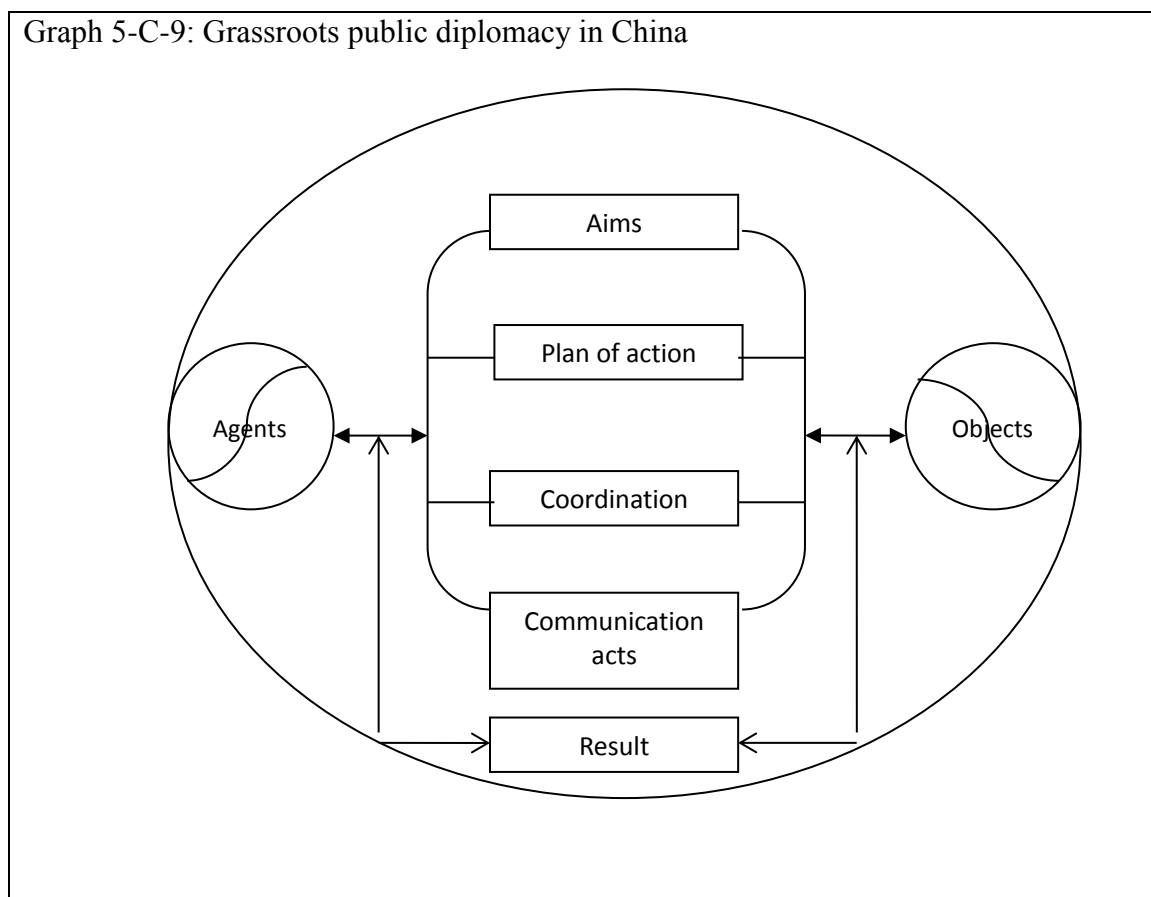
Results

The GPD results are as the following: change of relationship between agents and objects, agent country and object country (G9-1, C-CD-3); better understanding between agents and objects (P7-5, C-PD-13), and misunderstanding removed (C-GD-12, C-MD-13); new and even lasting agreements reached (C-MD-6); influence on objects and furthermore, internationally (G10-16, C-MD-1); recognition of each other, and each other's country, especially national image (C-CD-2, G10-2); other personal benefits (C-PD-10) and those for

broader community (C9-7, C-MD-5). The first three results mentioned above involve agents and objects and/or interactions between them. The result of recognition also contains different objects working together (C-CD-4).

Section summary

Based on the findings and discussions above, the whole process of GPD can be summarised by Graph 5-C-9 below.



In the graph above, the circle of “agents” divided by a curved connector refers to a combination of various agents interacting with each other and working together to participate in GPD. Meanwhile the circle itself can also refer to certain kind of agent practising on its own. Similarly, the circle of “objects” divided by a curved connector indicates a combination of different objects participating together in GPD or disseminating information from direct to indirect objects. Also, the circle itself refers to certain kind of objects involved in GPD in a certain way. There are five rectangles of processes between the two circles, which are aims, plan of action, coordination, communication, and result. The former four processes are two-way and communicative processes between actors; the last one of result is not only an outcome of all the interactions mentioned, but could affect the process as well. This is shown

by a double arrow connecting result and processes between agents and objects. Moreover, the oval indicates those interactions between agents and objects, or one side of actors trying to involve the other side in certain communication.

To sum up, based on the data collected, the answer for RQ2 of the thesis is: the concept of grassroots public diplomacy in China refers to a combination of various grassroots individual and/or organisational practitioners, with certain interest-related goals, initiated or not, who independently or cooperatively communicate with possible direct individual and/or organisational objects using one or a combination of various communication acts. These include face-to-face methods like communicative dialogue and interaction, participating in activities at home and abroad in a more spontaneous and unconscious way; and certain media like traditional media, social media or middlemen. Direct objects may disseminate information further to indirect objects. Actors are better able to take other's expectations and needs into consideration to meet mutual needs. The interactions together with a dynamic coordination process help result in reaching agreements on views, expectations and rules; change of relationship between actors; better understanding, recognitions; and realising personal or broader interest.

RQ3: What are the differences and similarities between the conceptualisation of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China?

In order to answer RQ 3, there will be comparisons and contrast between every factor of concept of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China based on the discussions above for answering RQ 1 and RQ 2. Due to comparison and contrast, the following writing will mention the previous discussions often. "GPD AU" will be short for "discussions on grassroots public diplomacy in Australia"; "GPD CN" will be short for "discussions on grassroots public diplomacy in China". The comparisons and contrasts below are based solely on those points here and comparable in both GPD AU and CN. This means that there may be other important or interesting points not mentioned in the later discussions if they exist only in either data discussions of GPD AU or GPD CN.

Agents

Comparison

1. Complex composition of agents

Although the composition of agents can be quite simple, it can also be a combination of various individual and/or organisational initiators and/or practitioners, which is mentioned in both GPD AU and CN (A-PD-2, P9-1).

2. Initiator

Initiators may or may not exist, depending on the situation in both GPD AU and CN (G3-10, C3-2, G9-2, and G9-3).

3. Consciousness of individual initiators

Both conscious (C3-2, P10-1) and unconscious (A-PD-1, C6-2) individual initiators are mentioned in GPD AU and CN. Both non-grassroots individual initiators like government people are conscious of doing GPD (M5-7, P10-1).

4. Role reversal

As GPD is a two-way communication process, some agents can also be objects when the latter respond, as mentioned in GPD CN (G10-5). Meanwhile, some objects could later become agents and tell others about what they know of agents and the agent country (G1-2). The agents and objects exchange roles in certain situations, which occur in both GPD AU and CN.

5. Composition of initiators and practitioners

Although there is one more level of grassroots or non-grassroots above initiators and practitioners in Graph 4-A-1, the composition of initiators is grassroots and non-grassroots, while the practitioners include grassroots only, in both GPD AU and CN. The GPD AU contains more clear division of grassroots or non-grassroots, while GPD CN doesn't. As the nature is the same, both GPD AU and CN are regarded as having similar composition of actors.

a. Individual Initiators

The characteristics of individual initiators are similar, including having the passion (C2-1, C6-2), leadership personalities (C2-2, P9-1), and resources (C3-3, A-PD-1, and C6-2) needed.

b. Organisational initiators

Both GPD AU and CN mention the composition of organisational initiators as both grassroots and non-grassroots (G6-5, M1-8, and C-PD-9).

c. Individual practitioners

In both GPD AU and CN, the individual practitioners are ordinary people from agent and object countries. GPD AU mentions those having experience in agent country (G1-2), while GPD CN mentions foreign residents in agent country (C-PD-2). People have similar characteristics of having ability (A-GD-1, C-PD-20) to do GPD. They participate in GPD in a more individual way (G5-5, G7-2).

d. Organisational practitioners

In both GPD AU and CN, the organisational practitioners are grassroots groups and organisations (M3-9, C-PD-25).

Contrast

1. Government involvement

When being the initiator, GPD AU mentions the less, or no, interference of government into the GPD process (G6-3), while GPD CN regards government as having certain credibility and should therefore be involved in initiating grassroots public diplomacy (G9-3).

2. Individual Initiators

Among individual grassroots initiators, the elite and opinion leaders are mentioned in GPD CN, but not in GPD AU. However, this does not indicate that there is no elite or opinion leader initiating GPD in Australia. The characteristics of grassroots initiators mentioned in GPD AU include leadership personalities (C3-2) that the elite and opinion leaders usually have.

3. Individual practitioners

Among the individual grassroots practitioners mentioned in both GPD AU and CN, the elites and opinion leaders are debatable in GPD CN, but not specially mentioned in GPD AU. In GPD CN, there are data regarding them as an important component of grassroots practitioners (G11-1, C-MD-7, C-MD-7), while others disagree (P11-1). However, this group of people does play the role of expanding influence (M10-2) during GPD practice.

Objects

Comparison

1. Composition of objects

In both GPD AU and CN, the objects are composed of direct and indirect individuals and organisations (Graph 4-A-2, Graph 4-C-2). Although not shown in Graph 4-A-2, both GPD AU and CN mention that the objects as middlemen are bridges between direct and indirect objects (G6-8, G11-5). This also indicates a two-phase communication process (G6-8, P11-12): directly to direct objects; and from direct to indirect objects; the latter of which may or may not happen.

a. Direct organisational objects

Both GPD AU and CN mention that it depends on agents (G6-10, M7-3) and the needs of objects (A-GD-5, M7-3), who the direct objects are, like counterparts (P6-1, P11-12) or stakeholders (A-GD-5, M7-3) of the agent organisations and groups.

b. Indirect organisational objects

The only indirect organisational object mentioned in both GPD AU and CN is the government of an object country (G6-11, C-GD-4).

2. Two-way communication process

In GPD AU and CN, some agents and objects convert to the other side in certain circumstances (C4-4, A-PD-9 and G10-5), and have equal sharing between agents and objects (M4-4). Therefore, a two-way communication process is formed.

3. Effective communication

As mentioned in GPD AU and CN, involving those open-minded objects with interest in an agent country can make the GPD effective (C2-8, G8-6).

Contrast

1. Direct individual objects

Although both mention that non-governmental people are the majority of direct individual objects, GPD AU mentions that they can involve a mix of ordinary people (G5-8). Meanwhile, GPD CN mentions that they include government people (C-MD-21), and the grassroots objects include the public elite and opinion leaders (P11-2).

2. Middlemen

Although both GPD AU and CN mention intermediaries connecting direct and indirect objects, they are different in detail. In GPD AU, the middleman not only passes the word on directly, but may also choose how to start a new project (P1-6). In GPD CN, middlemen could be ordinary people (P7-3) or groups (P11-12), which is not mentioned in GPD AU.

3. Indirect individual objects

The perspectives of describing indirect individual objects are different in GPD AU and GPD CN. In the former, the indirect objects are incidental result as ripple effects (C3-12); in the latter, they could be elite (P11-2) or ordinary people (G11-5). Moreover, this interpersonal process from middleman to indirect objects is comparatively credible (G10-6) as mentioned in GPD CN.

Plans of action of actors

Plans of action of agents

Comparison

1. Spontaneous GPD

Those agents doing GPD spontaneously and opportunistically usually don't have plans (M4-7, G8-10), which is mentioned in both GPD AU and CN.

2. One-off GPD

In both GPD AU and CN, one-off GPD activities with not much of a plan at the beginning are mentioned (P1-8, P11-3).

3. Plan details

Both GPD AU and CN mention the short-term and practical detailed plans (M3-13, P10-4). Not much is mentioned on simple plans, but both mention the steps of detailed plans including preparation with the involvement of objects (P4-8, C8-9) and decision-making, implementation and evaluation (C1-5, C8-9). Both plans involve the important factor of agents being flexible, as the need to change may occur at any time (G3-13, M9-3).

Contrast

- Further plans

For those having no plans initially, in GPD AU, these agents have the chance to make plans after their first contact with objects (P2-5), while in GPD CN, no further plans are mentioned (Graph 4-C-3) .

For those having plans , in GPD AU, no further plans were mentioned after the evaluation process; while in GPD CN, the follow-up plans of regular activities (C7-7, P8-7) are mentioned, which could help build up long-term relationships between agents and objects.

Plans of action of objects

Comparison

1. No plans

In both GPD AU and CN, those objects unconsciously participating in GPD are described as having no plans (P1-9, P9-4), with or without certain expectations depending on the situation (P4-9, G9-14).

Both mention the responses of objects to agents as well. Similar ones including one-off activities (G6-13, G9-14), follow agents' plans (G4-11, G7-14), and those passing the word on (G6-7, G10-12).

2. Plan content

Both discussions mention the content of plans, in terms of different steps (P1-7, P8-4), in GPD AU and CN. Both mention the steps of reacting to agents (P1-7, M7-9), passing the word on (P1-7, G10-13), and follow-ups (P1-7, M7-9).

Contrast

1. No plans

Apart from those responses mentioned above in the comparison, the GPD CN mentions some responses that GPD AU doesn't. Some objects do not follow agents' plans (M10-9), while others may keep discussing with agents despite passing the word on (C10-12).

2. Plan content

Although both mention the steps, the step of the objects' first contact with agents (M7-9) is mentioned in GPD CN only, while objects getting feedback from agents (G3-11) is mentioned in GPD AU alone.

Communication acts of actors

Communication acts of agents

Comparison

- Similar communication methods

GPD AU and CN, both mention similar communication methods of various in-person methods, activities and programs, as well as media (M5-9, C4-7, G3-16, M7-6, M7-13, C-PD-3 and M10-7).

Contrast

1. Different communication methods

As a communication method connecting agents and objects, the middle person (G6-16) is mentioned in GPD AU, but not in GPD CN.

2. Characteristic of communication methods

As mentioned in GPD AU but not in GPD CN, different methods suit different stages of communication. For instance, face-to-face and middlemen suit early relationship-making stages, which are more in-depth (M9-6). Meanwhile, media suits the later influence-expanding stage, and is more efficient (M9-6).

3. Combination of methods

Also, as mentioned in GPD CN, but not in GPD AU, the agents could adopt a combination of communication methods (M6-8), as well as a single method.

Communication acts of objects

Comparison

1. Passing the word on

Both GPD AU and CN mention the methods adopted by objects for passing the word on. Similar methods include various media (G3-18, G10-20), in-person, word of mouth (G6-17, G10-3), and organising activities (G6-17, M8-3).

2. Corresponding methods of agents

Both GPD AU and CN mention the corresponding methods of agents that object use. Although the categories are different, the methods involved are similar. These include the same methods objects use as agents, based on two-way communication platforms online (C1-7, M7-7); and objects following agents' methods like organised activities (P1-11), and traditional and other media (P11-7, M8-7).

Communication acts of agents and objects

Comparison

1. Communication methods

As mentioned in both GPD AU and CN, most methods connecting agents and objects are similar. These include in-person and media-based dialogue (A-GD-12, C-PD-27, G11-6 and G11-8); activities and programs (A-GD-20, G7-3); media of intermediaries like public diplomacy organisations (C-CD-1) or other agencies (A-MD-8).

2. Communicative characteristic

The very important characteristic mentioned in GPD AU and CN about communication methods that connect both sides is that it is two-way and communicative (A-PD-14, C-MD-9). It actually exists throughout all other methods that involve two sides, according to the data (A-CD-11, C-MD-23, and C-PD-27).

Agreement

Comparison

No agreement

When mentioning those situations of not having agreements, GPD AU and CN both indicate that content not acceptable for actors usually doesn't lead to agreement (G6-20, P8-9).

Content of pre-existing agreements

There are several content points shared by GPD AU and CN. Firstly, the agreements are rules and principles to follow. They include framework agreements between governments (P8-8), and other rules for actors to follow during the process (G3-20, C6-10), which are formulated jointly by both actors (P5-12). Secondly, both mention actors' mutual needs like carrying out certain plans in certain way (M1-14, P6-9). Thirdly, the agreement is pre-existing relationship history of actors (P5-16).

Content of agreement during process

There are also several similar points mentioned in both GPD AU and CN. Firstly, there is the agreement of common understanding on certain points after the actors' interaction (P4-11, P11-8). Secondly, the agreements are the fulfilment of expectations (M3-20, C6-13). Thirdly, there are rules and procedures agreed by both actors (P5-15, C9-10).

Process to reach agreement

Although in GPD AU, the discussions of the process focus more on the characteristics, while GPD CN is more focused on the procedures, there are still some similar points. First is dynamics. While GPD AU mentions that the agreements are subject to change (P5-14), GPD CN directly mentions the dynamic feature of agreements (G11-13). Second is communicating fully. In GPD AU, ongoing discussions are needed for reaching agreement (C3-11), while in

GPD CN, dialogue and communicating fully are needed for reaching mutual agreement (P8-13).

Contrast

No agreement

Despite the similarities above, there are different reasons for no-agreement situations. In GPD AU, unexpected issues (M3-18), different ideas of people (C5-11) and no pre-existing relationship (P3-14) between actors can cause a no-agreement situation. However, this situation can change to having an agreement when possible. Meanwhile in GPD CN, those unconscious actors (G10-15) with no needs (G9-17) can cause the same situation.

Content of agreement during process

Despite the similar points mentioned above, GPD CN also mentions the agreement of expecting a future GPD practice (C8-11), while GPD AU doesn't. Moreover, GPD AU mentions both formal and informal agreements during the process (P5-17), while mainly non-written agreements are mentioned in GPD CN (M9-11).

Coordination of action

Comparison

Coordination process

There are several ways mentioned by both GPD AU and CN for coordination between agents and objects during GPD, including coordinators, ongoing communication and compromise. Both discussions mention the coordinator who helps agents and objects to work together (C2-21, P10-9); the ongoing communication mentioned in both discussions is a process of continually discussing (C3-11), influencing (P9-9), seeking common grounds (P4-12, M7-12) and reaching new understanding (P3-16), which involves both sides and having further communication following on (P6-11, M8-12); compromise usually takes place between both sides on certain points of difference, to help reach new agreements (P4-12, P11-9).

Contrast

Not much coordination

Although both GPD AU and CN mention the not-much-coordination situation, the former focuses more on those less-organised GPD (M2-13) while the latter refers to the situation involving one side of actors mainly (P7-9).

Coordination process

Besides the similar ways of coordinating mentioned above, GPD CN also mentions another method of abiding by the rules, which GPD AU doesn't. The rules both sides follow when problems occur are part of the agreements reached by both sides beforehand (C6-14).

Aims of actors

Aims of agents

Comparison

1. Aims

In both GPD AU and CN, several aims are mentioned, including certain interests, better relationship and understanding.

Certain interests refers to personal interests (P6-12, C8-1), interests of both sides (P3-16, P10-13), or interests of the broader community (G3-19, C-PD-19).

In both discussions, better relationship refers to enhancing friendship between agents and objects (C3-26, P8-14).

Better understanding in both discussions refers to agents' understanding of objects and their country and culture (M4-14, G8-7), objects' understanding of agents and their country and culture (C3-27, C-CD-5), and mutual understanding of agents and objects (C3-26, C-PD-21).

2. Incidental

Both GPD AU and CN mention that some unconscious agents have personal aims, like travel and study, which end up incidentally in public diplomacy as a result of

delivering a message about the agent country (G1-5, G12-1).

Contrast

- Aims

Despite the similar aims of agents mentioned above, there are different points among those aims mentioned like certain interests, better relationships and better understanding.

In GPD AU, certain interest also refers to agents' genuine interest of the activity itself (C2-24); while in GPD CN, national interest of the agent country is mentioned as part of agents' aims (P11-14).

In GPD AU, better relationships at the non-government level is also a complement to governmental-level relations (A-PD-10); while in GPD CN, friendship could later lead to long-term cooperation (P10-15).

Better understanding in GPD AU involves agents' better understanding of themselves (M4-15); while GPD CN mentions that better understanding could lead to agreements and other meaningful results (P10-13) like cooperation and knowledge (C-PD-21, C7-4), but it can also reinforce stereotypes (P11-11).

There are also aims mentioned only in GPD CN, including influence, problem-solving and object literacy. Influence involves agents influencing objects (C9-3) and even the whole society (G7-19); problem-solving includes domestic public opinion pressure for international problems and international public opinion pressure for domestic problems (M7-4, G7-8); agents bringing international information and knowledge to people in the agent country to raise object literacy (M9-7).

Aims of objects

Comparison

- PD Aims

In both GPD AU and CN, personal aims, aims of interactions, better understanding and relationships are mentioned. There are objects unconsciously participating in GPD, who have their personal interests or needs (P4-5, M8-5 and C7-8). Both discussions mention objects' aims of interacting with agents (C2-25, G11-7). They

also mention objects having aims of better understanding the agents and their country and culture (P6-13, G8-7). Better relationships between agents and objects (P6-15, G12-8) are regarded as the aim of objects in both discussions.

Contrast

- Aims

Despite the similarities mentioned above, personal aims, aims of interactions and better understanding differ in two discussions. For objects having their own aims, GPD AU mentions that the objects' aims would be similar to, or different from, the agents' (P4-5); while in GPD CN the objects are considered to follow agents' aims after interaction (C9-5). In GPD AU, interaction refers more to dialogue and exchanges between agents and objects (M5-22), while GPD CN focuses more on objects' responses and being involved (G11-7, G9-9). In GPD CN, objects are regarded as also having the aims of wanting the agents to understand them and be affected by them (G12-10), as well as enhancing mutual understanding (P8-11).

There are other aims of objects mentioned separately in GPD AU and CN. In GPD AU, the aim of objects spreading the word after interactions (G6-7) is mentioned. Meanwhile, GPD CN includes objects' aims of influencing society (G7-19); problem-solving through pressure generated by public opinion (G7-8); and national interest (M7-2) and reputation (G12-6).

Process

Characteristics

Comparison

1. Communicative

The two-way communicative process (P5-8, C-MD-9) is mentioned in both GPD AU and CN for better understanding between agents and objects (A-GD-27, G8-3).

2. Incidental

Activities with incidental results happen at the grassroots level (M4-10, M4-17, and C10-3).

Contrast

1. Spontaneous

The spontaneous initiation of GPD activities is only mentioned in process discussions in GPD CN (C6-2, C-PD-9).

2. Incidental

Although both mention incidental activities, GPD CN also contains agents' and objects' unconscious interactions (C10-3, G9-17) and actions like passing the word on (G10-15).

3. Grassroots

While both GPD AU and CN mention the grassroots characteristic, GPD AU focuses more on the characteristics of authentic and genuine (M2-1), while GPD CN talks more about the organising process, including grassroots initiators and practitioners (G9-15), and less about the political and planning process (C8-1) with more grassroots communication methods (M8-1).

4. Long term

Both discussions mention longer-term communication. GPD AU puts it as future relationships between agents and objects (A-GD-27), while GPD CN directly describes it as long-term communication (C-PD-11) involving an amount of similar activities with lasting influence (C9-3) following (P9-8).

Detailed process

Comparison

1. Initiation

Both GPD AU and CN mention organising and bringing people in (P5-7, P8-3), as well as agents including a combination of individuals and organisations (A-PD-32, G9-15, C-GD-6).

2. Dialogue

Both GPD AU and CN mention two-way interactions and exchanges between agents and objects (A-MD-12, C-MD-9).

Contrast

1. Initiation

Besides the similarities above, GPD AU also mentions seeking funding process (C3-8), while GPD CN covers the spontaneous-initiation (C6-2) and no-initiation situations (G9-2).

2. Localisation

While both mention agents going to the object country to experience it (M4-13, C-MD-8), GPD CN takes it one step further to discuss agents' integration efforts into the object country's local community (G8-5).

3. Domestic public diplomacy

GPD CN involves the domestic public diplomacy process that equips agents with knowledge of both their home country and the object country (M9-7, C-GD-9).

4. Spreading the word

While GPD AU simply mentions that some objects would pass the word on (G6-7), GPD CN also discusses the methods used to spread the word (M7-6), which can be a combination of means (G7-5).

5. Other practices

GPD AU also discusses several practices not appearing in GPD CN, including: organisational support (A-GD-1, A-MD-10); objects going to the agent country and experiencing it (M1-17), accepting information from agents and responding (A-PD-36); agents remaining flexible during the whole process (G4-8). Meanwhile, GPD CN covers something not mentioned in GPD AU, including actors' cooperation (M8-12), activity participation (C-PD-14, G7-6), and problem-solving (G7-8).

Results

Comparison

Better understanding

In both GPD AU and CN, agents and objects increase their understanding of the other side, the other side's country and culture through communication (A-MD-13, A-CD-19, G9-2, C-GD-3, and C-MD-22).

Relationships

GPD AU and CN both mention the result of having better relationships between agents and objects (A-MD-17, G9-1), for instance, cooperation between actors (A-MD-17, C-CD-3).

Influence

In both GPD AU and CN, grassroots-level interaction could directly influence audiences (P1-18, P5-6 and P10-8).

Recognition

In both GPD AU and CN, there's the result of recognition from objects of the agents, especially the national image of the agent country (A-CD-19, G10-2).

Incidental benefits

In GPD AU and CN, both have economic benefits resulting from GPD, like the expanding of certain markets (A-PD-37, C-PD-10).

Contrast

Better understanding

Besides these similarities, GPD CN also mentions mutual understanding between agents and objects coming out of communication (C-PD-13). Moreover, GPD CN mentions the level of misunderstanding between actors being reduced after communication (C-MD-13).

Relationship

GPD AU mentions the formation of people-to-people ties at the grassroots level (A-PD-37,

M4-10), and that better relationships could lead to stronger economic ties (A-MD-17). Meanwhile GPD CN mentions friendliness from foreign governments (C-MD-4) and the possibility of a worse relationship instead of a better one, after interaction (M8-13).

Influence

In GPD AU, there's how objects have further influence, including passing the word on (P1-18) or participating in debates (P5-6). Meanwhile, GPD CN mentions that grassroots interactions have international (C-MD-1) and lasting (G11-2) influence.

Agreements

Although both discussions mention agreements as one result of GPD, there are different aspects. The contents of agreements differ, as in GPD AU, the agreements include mutual interest, agendas (P3-11) and trust (M4-10); while in GPD CN, and agreements include mutual expectations on activities (M9-12). GPD CN also mentions characteristics of agreements like new (G12-9) and lasting (C-MD-6).

Recognition

GPD CN also mentions agents' recognition of objects and object country, despite the point mentioned above, shown as friendly views from agent to object (C-MD-12), and appreciation and tolerance from agent to object (C-PD-13).

Incidental benefits

Besides economic benefits, GPD CN alone also mentions other benefits like the settlement of disputes (G12-1), contributions to the broader community (C9-7), and developments for human beings (C-MD-5).

Chapter summary

The discussions above answered RQ 1, 2 and 3. Discussions for RQ 1 and 2 mainly focused on relationships between actors of GPD within all components of GPD, based on findings in Chapter IV. Relationships between some components of GPD were also mentioned in discussions. Besides segmented discussions, all the components were also considered as a whole, in terms of the shared element of the actors of GPD.

Both discussions for RQ 1 and 2 are findings for RQ 3. Therefore, discussions for RQ 3

followed, using a comparative method to discuss differences and similarities between conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China, following the same components of GPD mentioned in findings and discussions for RQ 1 and 2.

CHAPTER VI

CASE STUDY: PART I

Introduction

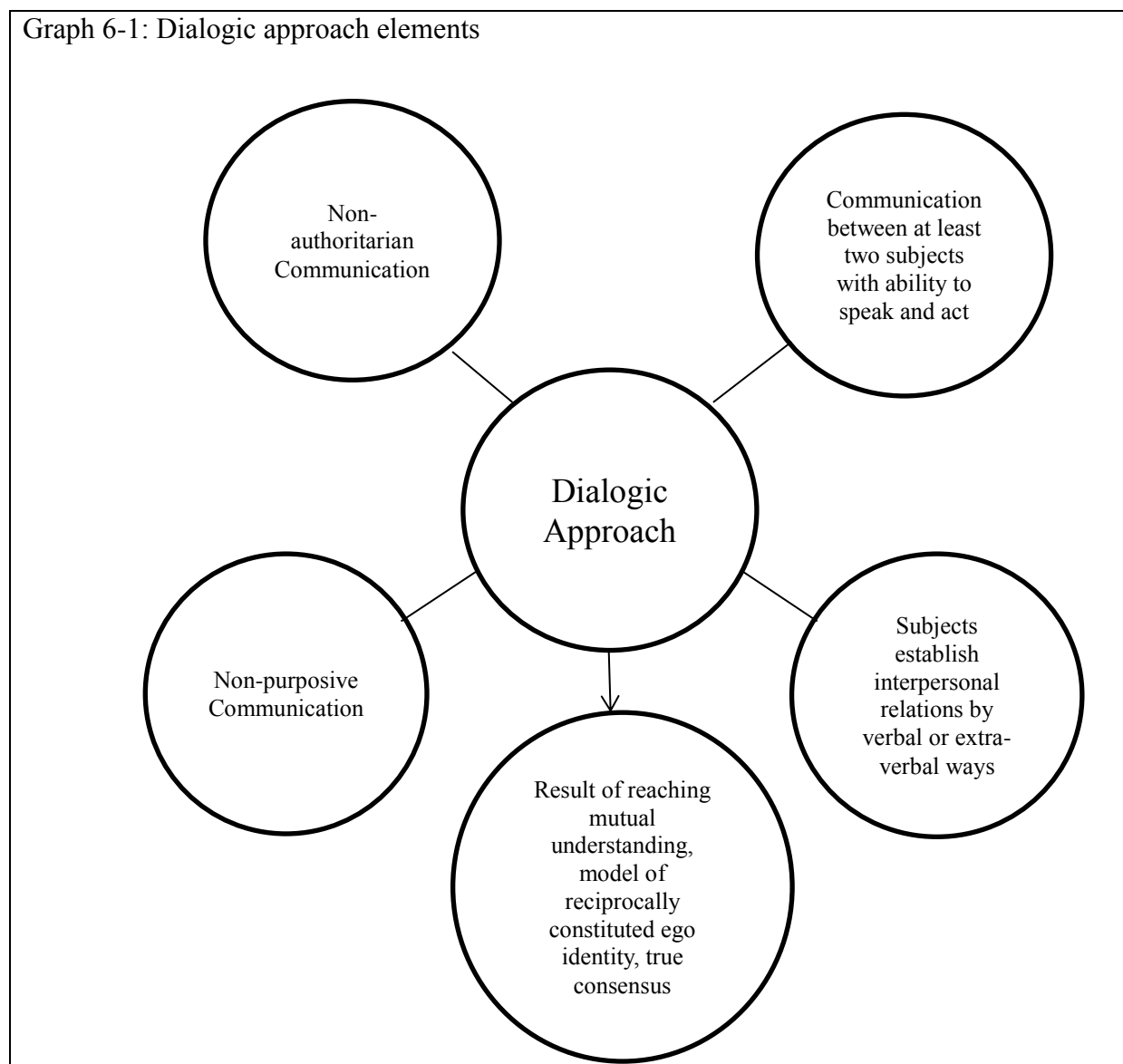
RQ 4 will be addressed in this chapter through the first part of the case study – of a self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy project.¹² First of all, the key concept here is “dialogic approach” in Habermas’ sense, as defined in the Literature Review chapter. It refers to non-purposive and non-authoritarian communication between at least two subjects, with the ability to speak and act, establishing interpersonal relations in verbal or extra-verbal ways, and who may finally reach mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction, or the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity or true consensus.¹³

Several important factors need to be considered so as to find out whether dialogic approaches are to be found in the case under consideration. First is non-purposive communication. Purposive refers to “the behaving entity desires some goal, and is behaving in a manner it believes appropriate to the attainment of it” (George & Johnson, 1985, p. 33). And non-purposive means communication sans conscious purpose or intention (Westley & Jr, 1955). Second is non-authoritarian communication. Third is communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act. Fourth is the subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways. While fifth is the result of reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction, or the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity or true consensus. The first four of the five elements mentioned above are the necessary conditions for dialogic approach while the fifth is a result of dialogic communication. Meanwhile, the fifth condition may or may not be met. These five factors

¹² The case study was described in detail in Chapter III Methodology and Methods above.

¹³ The concept of “dialogic approach” in this thesis was developed basing on the study of Habermas, Bubner and other scholars (Bubner, 1982; Habermas, 1972). See Dialogic approach section of Chapter II above for more information and references.

shown in Graph 6-1 below were included in the interview questions as described in the Methodology and Methods chapter.



This chapter consists of an introduction, data presentation considerations, findings related to RQ4, a discussion and a summary.

Data presentation considerations

Coding

In order to preserve the anonymity of participants, the 14 interviewees were coded as I1 to I14; the two speakers as S1 and S2; the representative of the partner organisation that sponsored the case study as F1; two organisers as O1 and O2. Quotes within interviews (e.g. interview of I1) will receive a further number (e.g. I1-1 and I1-2). Every original quote will

only be listed once. If necessary, the code of the quote will be mentioned as “see I1-1” for instance, in the Findings section in this chapter when reference is made to the same quote a second or further time.

The graphs, tables and figures will be coded following the rules below: the coding will start with the word “Graph” or “Table” or “Figure”, followed by “6” (chapter number), and then a dash “-”, and the ordinal number. For instance, the first table in this chapter is coded as “Table 6-1”.

Project stages

The whole process of the case study has several stages, which involve different groups of interviewees. According to the two organisers, the whole project could basically be tri-segmented into “preparation, event, and post-event (O1-1, O2-5)” stages.

Although each stage could again be separated into different phases, the three-stage sequence was also described as such by the second organiser, which is concise enough to map out the whole case study in a clear order. Here the preparation stage refers to the time period before 5.40 pm of the event day when the on-site participant observation of the event started; the event stage refers to the time span from 5.40 pm of the event day till 9.20 pm when all the people left the event venue; the post-event stage lasted from 9.20 pm of the event day until five months later when the relevant data was last checked.

As the stages of the case study were ensured before all interviews took place, the interview questions were clustered in groups, germane to the stages, and administered soon after their completion; which actually made the interviews a bit easier for the interviewees, as they could recall the things that happened in chronological order. Thus, the following findings will be shown stage-by-stage within each section. In every stage, there will be interview data drawn from different kinds of interviewees, including organisers of the project, the partner of the project, speakers in the event and participants in the event.

Having made the coding rules and the relevant stages clear, the results of the findings for RQ4 will be shown in the following section.

RQ4: Are dialogic approaches applied in the process of the case of self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy projects?

In order to answer RQ4, situations mentioned by the interviewees containing the four necessary conditions (non-purposive communication; non-authoritarian communication; communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act; and the subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways) have to be found. The meaning of each condition was briefly elucidated on above, so I will now display all the data in detail below.

RQ4 asks “[a]re dialogic approaches applied in the process of the case of a self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy project?” This section is based on the data collected from this case study to answer this question. The section is tri-segmented into interview data, participant observation data and data from social media.

Interview data

Data related to the four necessary conditions above will be displayed one-by-one. The first is non-authoritarian communication.

Non-authoritarian communication

Non-authoritarian communication is discussed in the first place here because the relevant answer given by the interviewees could apply to all the stages of the case study. What does non-authoritarian communication mean? The word ‘authoritarian’ means wanting to rule, control or restrain others, and shaped by power interests (Fromm, 1957). Thus, authoritarian communication could be viewed as communication that seeks to command and control, which is shaped by power interests. Non-authoritarian communication, in this thesis, therefore refers to a communication process that is devoid of power interest, and does not seek to effect obedience or compliance. In all the interviews, interviewees were asked whether there was anybody who was authoritarian to him or her during the whole process of the event – following the provision of a definition of authoritarian. The relevant data can be divided into authoritarian and non-authoritarian communication.

Non-authoritarian

In the case of those who did not experience a feeling of authoritarianism, some had simply no authoritarian feeling, for instance, “no such person or feeling exists” (O1-2), “...didn’t have any feeling of authoritarian[ism]” (S1-1, S2-1); while others had no such feeling but with other comments, like “No... (S1) knew the topic of the event quite well” (I3-1).

There were various reasons for not feeling authoritarianism as mentioned in the data.

1. Familiarity with key figures of the event

“... quite familiar with ... (S2)... coincidentally I knew... (one organiser) from another program ... because I’ve already known some people there, which makes it easier for me to talk to people ...” (I10-1)

2. Characteristic of communication

“Everybody speaks openly, and this was talk between young people” (I13-1); “no orders or commands, otherwise things wouldn’t be productive at all” (F1-1)

Authoritarianism

For those who did discern a feeling of authoritarianism during the process of the case study, there were different reasons as well:

1. Organisational hierarchical position

“The president of the organisation that started this event gave [out] such [a] feeling of authoritarian[ism]” (O2-1)

2. Key figures play special role

“... (S1) was quite authoritarian, he told young Australian professionals how to do business in China ...didn’t talk ...” (I1-1); “the speakers gave me the authoritarian[ism] feeling, they have much experience, but I didn’t talk to them” (I9-1);

“The moderator and two speakers gave me such feeling, I talked to all of them ... the moderator’s personal background is quite interesting ... (S1) told me quite personal information ... (S2) was quite approachable” (I12-1).

3. Age difference causes pressure

“One (turned out to be I3) quite authoritarian ... older than me ... I was caring about what I said ... I thought he made a bad decision” (I8-1)

Section summary

The situation related to authoritarianism in the case study is depicted in the Table 6-1 below.

Table 6-1 Non-authoritarian and authoritarian communication		
Situation Reason	Non-authoritarian	Authoritarianism
Reasons relevant to the situations	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Familiarity with key figures of events2. Favourable disposition towards the characteristic of communication	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Organisational/hierarchical position generates unfavourable disposition2. Key figures play special roles3. Age differences cause pressure

After the descriptions of the interview data related to the condition of non-authoritarian communication, I will now move on to the other three conditions for a dialogic approach. Below are the data regarding non-purposive communication.

Non-purposive communication

As mentioned above, non-purposive communication refers to communication with no conscious purpose or intention (Westley & Jr, 1955). The following question was asked whenever interaction occurred during an interview, so as to know whether the situation was purposive or non-purposive: “Did you have any expectations when communicating with the person/people?” Although the word “expectation” is not the same as purpose, and some expectations are conscious purposes while others are not, if there is no conscious purpose at all, then even if people mentioned their purposes, these will not be regarded here as purposive ones. At least people could give an answer containing what they wanted at a certain time. Whether there is conscious purpose or not could be determined through analysis. The conclusion would be made based on either both sides of the communication, or on the detailed description of one subject of that communication; and other types of data would be considered when drawing conclusions. The interview data would be displayed in the first place here

stage-by-stage.

Preparation stage

At the preparation stage, the organisers had both purposive and non-purposive communications with different kinds of people.

1. Non-purposive

Those communications with non-purposive elements happened in different situations.

a. Informing others of event

i. Inform with invitation

“Other participants—I emailed them, I invited some colleagues in law firms in Sydney, but I didn’t expect them to come, just wanted to let them know, and finally one couple RSVPs me through email ...” (O2-3) ¹⁴

“... I got email and Facebook message, and I post on the Facebook ... I shared on my Facebook group. I invited people. She came without RSVP. I called her up and ask her to come. She knew about it, I just call her and tell her.”(I8-2)

ii. Inform without invitation

“... I didn’t invite anyone, but I sent this information to several friends ... one [who] was involved in an event has shown up, some of them I didn’t invite them and they came ...” (I14-1)

“... (S2) mentioned the event to me and asked if that interests me. I asked if I could come” (I10-2)

b. Event-organising process

“... they ask if I would be willing to participate and make some comments on the subject, I said yes ... no expectations ... When they approached me ... I have already had a very good impression about them as individuals and about the organisation” (S2-4).

“We had a phone conversation on the day because I asked where the building was, other was email ... They ask me for CV so I sent that through email, so they could read that ...” (S1-4)

c. Response to promotions

¹⁴ RSVP (repondez-vous sil vous plait) refers to the standard request for the invited person to respond to an invitation.

“... got [an] Email flyer as [did other] members, and did RSVP on [the] desktop. Register. Read the website” (I5-1); “... got email. Check online once. Yes reply email on computer. ” (I6-1);

2. Purposive

There were people having different conscious purposes during the communications.

a. Making the event happen

“... Making this event take place” (O1-3); “... I hope other organisers could contact quickly and to the point, and we should make clear what we should do by ourselves, and get things done” (O2-2).

b. For connections

“I received email, I look at website. I expect there is some senior Chinese [to] introduce experience in Australia, after talking with my friend we expect [we] could [get to] know somebody [with] similar interest[s] and similar area.” (I1-3)

“... I did have some expectation that I would get more familiar with people who have the similar interest and in similar industry...” (I10-3)

c. For learning

“... The event sounds interesting, and might be beneficial – with some guidance and directions from two speakers from different areas so I go to the event” (I4-2); “... I had expectations that if she (I10) attended, she would benefit from it ... in hearing what other people have to say and in networking with other people.” (S2-2)

d. For reputation

“... Getting our name out ...” (F1-2)

Event stage

During the event, there were also non-purposive and purposive communication acts taking place, as well as purposive situations arising after interactions. As in the previous stage, whether the purpose or intention was conscious, or not, counted. If both sides of the

communication could not be included in interview data, at least the detailed description of one subject of that communication could be considered carefully.

1. Non-purposive

The non-purposive elements were involved in social chatting, introducing people and organising related communications.

a. Social chatting

People had social interactions during the event stage.

“The organisers welcomed me when I entered the room, we chat a bit. No expectations. Not much result ... just like a new friend. No expectations for participants ... probably I could meet new friends as there is something related to China.” (I2-2)

“I communicated with Australian and Chinese ... (O1, S1)... I have no expectation on (S1), not in detail... It was a quick exchange of info and card with (S1) at the beginning ...” (I11-2)

“I communicated with ... (S1) 5 minutes, no expectations, I thought it would be authoritarian, but he wasn't. The result was its quite interesting that he views himself to be more Chinese, I didn't get very much out of it.” (I13-3)

“I talk to people before, so after this Q&A finish, I talk to them again about the event and the speech, my expectation was people should enjoy...people respond to the speech quite well, the result was we agreed that this was a good event, that we would like to see more of this event ...” (I10-6)

b. Introducing people

Some introduced those they knew to others, while some were introduced to others.

“I first met you, and then ran into old colleagues in ... I introduced my friends to them, and I started talking to those neutral but strange friends ...” (I14-2)

“When I got there I was introduced to ... (one organiser), who I didn't know, to (S2) who I never met, didn't know ... (the moderator) I know for a very long time. No expectations...if you have questions you just ask me and I will give the answer as I can.” (S1-5)

c. Organising related communication

“No expectation, with ... (the moderator), she gave me examples of what kind of questions would be asked ... whatever the question is, I can answer it in that context.” (S1-6)

“We talked to ... the people from ... (partner organisation) who arrived early to help with the event... we welcome the audience, and had a quick introduction, and we ask the audience about how they find the events and why they came. No expectations, I hope people could enjoy the event and get something out of it.” (O1-5)

2. Purposive

Different people had various conscious purposes during the event stage for different reasons.

a. Role to play

People had different purposes due to the special roles they had to play.

“Before the event started at 7:00, I primarily interacted with the organisers ... and the woman who moderated ... For (the moderator) I had a simple expectation about which way she would moderate the event ... The outcome was ... understand what we would accomplish for the evening ...” (S2-5)

“We talked to the speakers ... about how the event was going, and the format ... I want the speakers to know the procedure so we could get along with this...” (O1-10)

“I interacted with attendees, (one organiser), speakers. (Partner organisation) believes that we should invest in the future generation, that’s why we choose to give sometimes” (F1-3).

b. Networking for certain benefits

Some people were communicating for certain benefits.

“I may have a chance to find internship or work experience opportunities; it’s a matter of keeping your ear to the ground.” (I6-2);

“... potentially may become my clients ... My agenda is that I might meet someone from China, doing business here, who might think about doing investment with property ...” (I9-3);

“I expected that there could be anybody interested and participate in the upcoming medical conference we organize in April. I met 1 to 2 people, Australian and Chinese, interested in that ...” (I1-4)

3. Certain purposes arising after interaction

There were situations when certain purposes arose after the subjects communicated with each other for a while.

a. Potential cooperation

"A lawyer, Chinese, having kind of experience about living and consulting ... we do travel, so we are interested in going there and bringing people and learning something. No expectations ..." (I1-5)

b. Future help with problems

"I interacted with ... (the organization) in UNSW (a university chapter), Chinese guy ... he gave me info on setting up the chapter...they managed the problem ... they gave me some supporting documents."(I8-4)

Post-event stage

Again, both purposive and non-purposive communications happened during the post-event stage.

1. Non-purposive

People had follow-up contacts in different ways without specific expectations.

a. Follow-up contact for contact's sake

"I received one email from one guy, just making some comments about the evening, no expectations. I just responded this morning ... if we see each other again, we would probably remember each other." (S2-8)

"We happen to travel the same way to the city, I ran out of business cards, they gave me theirs, and I emailed them, and two of them responded ... no further contact ... I wrote in my email only about ... normal greetings ..." (I14-3)

b. Future contact for connection maintain

"I contacted two, one is [a] lawyer, one is [a] real estate guy (I9), no expectations but contact, and we have [the] June event and thinking if it is possible to cooperate with the lawyer. We will have dinner with another friend and that real estate guy (I9)." (I1-6)

"A group of us went to the pub, no expectations, drinks, chatted for few hours, contact information, Facebook added and interacted, text message[d]... everybody may meet up again next few weeks." (I7-3)

2. Purposive

People had various purposes during communications in the post-event stage.

a. Soliciting feedback

“I and ... (one organiser) spoke to ... (the moderator) and ... (S1) last night in a dinner and they say it was great; I emailed ... (S2) about people’s comment ... get the feedback and say thank you.” (O1-6)

b. Maintaining connections

“I had a few [who] emailed me, maintain friendship, I met somebody from high school. I expected to network, interacting with some people ... Mainly emails. The result is we developed network and acquaintance.” (I4-3)

c. Deepening connections

“I went out to bar and chat [ted] with a group of 7 or 8, my main objective was to build up a relationship with... (I8), been there for years ... (I7) was there for one year...The result was I made new friends. I spoke with ... (I7) and (I8)... (two other participants), I added them on Facebook.” (I3-4)

“I was invited to join two coming events, one is a delegation from China, and one is an art exhibition. As they invited me, I will ring them. Expectation is ... a lot of people don’t have expertise in that area, and we could help them [in order] to help ourselves...I contact other people, [this] will be something in the future.” (I9-4)

“I had some communication this morning with ... (two organisers), I expect to stay in touch with them. The result would be that we may collaborate on our project again in future. ” (S2-7)

Section summary

As mentioned above, no matter whether purposive or not, people have certain expectations, and some are conscious ones while others not. The table below describes the situations of purposive and non-purposive communications in the case study.

Table 6-2 Non-purposive and purposive communication			
<div>situations</div> <div>expectations</div> <div>Stages</div>	Non-purposive	Purposive	Purpose arising later
Preparation stage	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inform others of event 2. View event as being well organised 3. Respond to promotions 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make event happen 2. Attend for connections 3. Attend for learning 4. Attend for reputation 	N/A
Event stage	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chat socially 2. Introduce people 3. Organise event 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Play a role at the event 2. Network for certain benefits 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Attend for potential cooperation 2. Attend for future help with problems
Post-event stage	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make contact 2. Intend to make future contact for maintaining a connection 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Solicit feedback 2. Maintain connections 3. Deepen connection 	N/A

Communication between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act

Another condition of “communication between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act” includes the two elements of “communication between at least two subjects” and “subjects with ability to speak and act”. In case study project participants associated with this research have the ability to speak and act; this will be dealt with in the discussion section below. Therefore, the focus below would be on whether there were no less than two subjects in the communications.

Preparation stage

During the preparation stage, people played different roles in the event communicating with each other in various situations. All the communications below happened between at least two people.

1. Organiser and participant

a. One-to-one

The organisers informed friends and people they knew about the event (also see O2-3):

“I talked to friends about this event beforehand, and social media, email, orally. No expectation, they might have interest, and some of them came, and enjoyed it.” (O1-4);

“... [One organiser] emailed me, we cooperated on my programs. I thought it would be very well organised, it would draw some people from the arts community, and there are probably young professionals. And I would like to see what young people would have [an] interest of Asia. On Facebook I ‘like’, ‘share’, ‘follow’, and RSVP, using desktop ... invited two or three people, they came. No expectations. Use Facebook and email, they replied on Facebook. I went along and enjoyed it.” (I13-2)

b. One-to-many

Here, the participants didn't include those friends of organisers, whom the organisers contacted separately in a personal way.

“We have our Facebook group, many people found out from that, she shared the event on her page, email, word of mouth, RSVP ... flyer. Email was for members on the mail list in our database, and others like friends on page of Facebook.” (O1-9)

Some participants received email flyers or Facebook information from the organisation, RSVP through email, and checked relevant information (also see I6-1):

“I am involved in ... (sister organisation), its Facebook page post the event. I ‘like’ the post; I followed the link to RSVP. I brought up to one lady ... and I asked her about the event ... Finally she didn't come ... Using iPad” (I7-2).

“I searched for different connection groups and this one just popped up, so I

thought it's nothing hurtful in joining, and I joined and got invited and participated. I received email from them. I emailed back to confirm that I would come."(I9-2)

2. Organiser and organizer

The organisers discussed the event during this stage:

Organiser O1 "...came up with this idea when eating Yumcha, we thought people would be interested in this sort of topic ..." (O1-7); "I interacted with them through email, with ... (another organiser) Skype (software that could be used for video chat) sometimes, to make clear ..." (O2-4)

3. Organiser and speaker

Both speakers communicated with organisers at the preparation stage:

"Email with organisers...there was a conversation about what I would be talking about, I asked who the audience were, and they told me" (S1-9)

"They communicated [with] me by email ... asking if I would be willing to make some comments on this subject. And I said yes... there was further communication, regarding the organisational details ..." (S2-9)

4. Organiser and partner

The partner mentioned his interactions with one organiser:

"She drafted the order, and we approved it, we agreed that she would ... and we would ... that was agreed on, it's not so difficult, we don't need to set up a meeting, only through email or phone calls." (F1-4)

5. Participant and participant

What the participants did during the preparation stage was mostly to find out about the event, decided whether to attend or not, and invited others or not (also see I6-1, I7-2, I8-2, I13-2, and I14-1).

"I am not (a member of the organisation), but my friend is. He recommended, face-to-face, his friend was a member and invited him as a member" (I1-2)

"... just joined, three weeks ago, a friend told me this organisation is for professionals, so I Google and click website, put inside the email, and became a member..." (I2-1)

“My friend ... came across that and forwarded to me ... I was having lunch with him, and we were talking ... I wasn’t expecting anything, as it was just a catch up, and the topic came across. I thought it is interesting, and it might be beneficial, so I went to the event. The result was I went there by myself, as he has works to do.” (I4-4)

“... Received email ... [and did] go to a separate website and RSVP, forwarded the email on the event to 5 people and invited them, but didn’t mind whether they [did] go or not as it’s their choice. Some came.” (I11-1)

6. Participant and speaker

One participant knew of the event from a speaker:

“When we were in the company (S2 and I10 are employer and employee) ... (S2) mentioned to me, if that interested me, I asked if I could come ... I was immediately interested after knowing about this ... and I went on to the ... (organisation’s) website.” (I10-7)

Event stage

During the event stage, people played different roles, communicated with all kinds of people who showed up at the event.

1. Organisers

The organiser O1 talked to everybody he met at the event, including speakers, partners and audiences (see O1-4, O1-5).

2. Speakers

Speakers talked to organisers, moderator, the other speaker and audiences during the event (also see S1-5, S2-5):

“I spoke to ... (two organisers) in the end, and (O1) and I had coffee together; I knew him previously ... I talk to ... (the moderator) roughly, because she had to rush... and ask me if I would have dinner tonight, I said yes and good bye.” (S1-7)

“After 8:15, I spoke to those people again, but I primarily spoke to people in the audience...For about an hour after the event finished, I ... interacted with about 15 people, who approached me and asked different questions ... the result was that I had some understanding of the issues that are on the mind[s] of the people ... I might give them some information ... useful. I said good bye to (O1, another organiser; S1, and the moderator), but [there were] no subsequent interactions.”(S2-6)

3. Partner

The partner communicated with different people, including organisers, speakers and audiences (see F1-3).

4. Participants

Among all the participants, all the communications happened between at least two subjects, either in personal communication or group discussions.

a. Personal communication

i. Participant and organiser (also see I2-2)

“... no expectations, it was just [a] discussion about the things we’ve been working on together ... the result was positive talking with (one organiser and O1), I was very pleased that I did attend this event, she said it would be on a regular basis, and I think I would be interested to attend again.” (I10-5)

ii. Conversation between participants (also see I14-2)

“Thanks (S2) for the speech, and the card, other guy was talking, so ... I did use some social media ... one guy was [from] the same university as me, and so I added him on LinkedIn. Typically I just get people’s cards, and if I want to I will email them or whatever. I usually do that, to add people on social media at the spot, otherwise I will forget later.” (I5-2)

“... I met (I14)... one guy from hotel business, targeting Chinese customers ... If someone mention something specific, it might be a chance to follow up, otherwise it’s just getting a business card, and that’s it, maybe email and say keep in touch, or if anything specific, maybe coffee.” (I12-3)

b. Group discussions

People joined different groups and shared ideas during the event stage:

“I walked [up]to [the] speaker, surprisingly relaxed with (S2), he gives people business card before talking and says ‘feel free to contact me’, he really engages you in a conversation ... I found people asking quite engaging questions...people listen to what the speaker says and [are] genuinely interested in him ...” (I7-4)

“I talk to (S1), talk to ... from my home college, the girl invited; other Chinese guy in Sydney ... all went out for a drink. Coffee with them was the result. One of the guys knew the situation that (host organisation) met, he forwarded all the documents. Other business card, I heard story from the guy (I3).” (I8-5)

Post-event stage

At the post-event stage, there were still some follow-up communications happening between people due to the event.

1. Organiser and speaker

Organisers had communication with speakers after the event (also see O1-6, S1-7, S2-7).

“From ... (one organiser), they say they received very good feedback from the audience; we had a conversation today for four hours. Because she is just beginning, she asked for a meeting to ask about more detailed things ...” (S1-8)

2. Speaker and participant

The speaker communicated with a participant by email (see S2-8).

3. Participant and participant

Interactions happened or may happen between participants in personal and collective ways during this stage.

a. Personal communication (also see I4-3)

Some personal communications happened between participants (also see I14-3):

“(I8) send [a] message to me, I was asking more about ... (the host organisation)...I phoned them, face-to-face with (I8), just catch up and share stories.”(I3-6)

“I interacted with the guy from the same university as I did [attend], a friend who works at the same company, so they contact me as well. I also add people on LinkedIn, and message on LinkedIn. Maybe I will make a coffee at some time; I’m not sure. No result.” (I5-3)

Some communications may happen in the near future according to the data below:

“A lot of people, we swap contact info. One of them, we have common friend, so we are very interested in a coffee or catch up after the event. It’s [the] first time I attend it, and it’s [gained my] very high regard, so I would [be] willing to go again.” (I11-3)

“Not yet. I am planning to contact one or two, [by] email. No expectations, maybe dialogue or coffee ... Facebook - keep monitoring ... (host organisation’s) events.” (I13-4)

b. Group communication

During this stage, some participants did, or planned to communicate with those they newly met at the event in groups (also see I1-6, I3-4, I7-3).

“Bar for drink ...Chinese guys [and] the girl I invited. I ‘liked’ on Facebook, 2 ‘likes’ on that. I talked to people on the phone, if I want to get the document, I call him and he’ll send [it to] me. I add everyone on Facebook, I add them to my ... (the sister organisation) group. (I8-6)”

Section summary

Based on the data above, the communications related to this condition could be summarised as Table 6-3 below.

Table 6-3 Communication between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act		
Condition Subjects Stages	Communications between subjects	
Preparation stage	Organiser vs. organiser	Organiser vs. participants
	Organiser vs. speaker	Speaker vs. participants
	Organiser vs. partner	Participants vs. participants
Event stage	Organiser vs. speaker	Organizer vs. participants
	Organiser vs. partner	Speaker vs. participants
	Speaker ss. speaker	Speaker vs. partner
	Partner vs. participants	Participants vs. participants
Post-event stage	Organiser vs. speaker	Speaker vs. partner
	Participants vs. participants	

The communications which happened between various subjects during the event, and were mentioned by interviewees, were listed above in Table 6-3. However, as not all the

communications were mentioned in the interview data, the table is only to give a general idea of the data collected on “communication between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act”.

Subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal means

The other necessary condition is “subjects to establish interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal” means. It involves communication as well as the intention of the subjects to establish interpersonal relations, and the verbal or extra-verbal means adopted by the subjects. The data below would include the relationship between subjects communicating, and the methods used by subjects stage-by-stage.

Preparation stage

1. Means adopted

There were basically verbal and extra-verbal methods of communication methods used during preparation stage.

a. Verbal

i. Face-to-face methods (also see I4-4, O1-7):

“I invited two other friends ... We were catching up, and that’s how the topic was picked up. They said ‘that was interesting and forward the info to me’ ... I forwarded the info to them ... But they had work that night and could not make it ... The result ... this conversation comes up, and when you receive the, email you know that this is for you.” (I4-5)

“I know from LinkedIn ... this event popped up. I glanced [at] the Facebook page, I call ... (I7, I8), I did RSVP. I called two friends and told them about the event, I simply want to let them know ... I discussed it with my classmates, but I didn’t invite... I just mentioned it, 2 minutes ...” (I3-2);

ii. Phone calls

Phone calls were sometimes made during the organising process (S1-4, F1-4) or inviting friends to the event (I3-2, I8-2);

iii. Distant face-to-face ways

“I interacted with them through email, with ... (another organiser) Skype (software that could be used for video chat) sometimes, to make clear...” (O2-4)

b. Extra-verbal

i. Email contact (also see F1-4, O2-4, S2-9, I4-4, I4-5, I8-2)

“... [One partner] had a connection with somebody in ... [the organising group], I know some friends quite well, so I asked them personally through email. No contract.” (O1-8);

“I have a friend, he is on the board of ... (a partner organisation), he emailed me and I replied ‘thank you’. He didn’t come as he was away this month. I RSVP.” (I12-2)

ii. Social media

Social media was used in the preparation stage, like “post” and other interactions on Facebook (O1-9, I7-2, I8-2, and I13-2).

iii. Websites (also see I7-2, I11-1, I10-7)

“We invited our executive members, by email marketing and publishing on our website, word of mouth” (F1-5)

2. Subjects’ relationships in communication

a. One-to-one

There were situations when people communicated one-to-one. These included knowing about the events (I4-4), informing others about the events (I3-2, I4-5, I8-2, I12-2, I13-2), organising related communication (O1-7, O1-8, S2-9, O2-4, F1-4), and responses to promotions or invitations (I4-4, I12-2, I7-2, I13-2).

b. One-to-many

There was one-to-many communication happening during this stage. This included promotional email flyer (O1-8, I8-2, F1-5), promotion message on Facebook (O1-9, I8-2), and event-related websites (I3-2, I11-1, I10-7, F1-5).

Event stage

The relevant interview data from the event stage contained communication means used and

relationships between the subjects of communication.

1. Means

a. Verbal

The only verbal method here was face-to-face communication.

i. Social chat (also see S1-5, F1-3, I2-2, I14-2)

“A couple of cards were given to others ... A lot [of] others were gathering around the speakers, and asked question not asked during speaking. I wanted to ask one question, but did not have [a] chance to ask speakers. I talked to [the] organiser, no expectation. Not really interesting.”(I6-3)

“I talked briefly with (S2), and I didn’t get new info from him, he was just talking about the event, well done, good organiser and good speakers.” (I10-8)

“...connected with each other, talk to each other, just want to talk and meet” (I13-5).

ii. Organising-related communication

Some organising work related communications happened during this stage; for instance, the conversation between speaker and moderator for making clear the content of speech later (S1-6, S2-5).

iii. Speech

The Q&A session and talk by speakers were included in the speech panel in the event.

“...when they (speakers) were talking they were talking to everyone there, not just a lecturer, really trying to create enthusiasm, good tone” (I7-5) “During the program... I responded to questions from (the moderator)... I responded to questions from [the] audience...” (S2-10)

iv. Informal Q&A

Participants stood around the speakers and raised questions not asked in the Q&A session or questions arose from listening to the speech after the speech

panel (I7-4).

b. Extra-verbal

There were various extra-verbal methods used by participants during this stage.

i. Business cards

People exchanged business cards during the event stage (also see I8-5, I5-2, I7-4, and I11-2).

“A couple of cards were given to others ... A lot [of] others were gathering around the speakers, and asked question not asked during speaking. I wanted to ask one question, but did not have [a] chance to ask speakers. I talked to [the] organiser, no expectation. Not really interesting.”(I6-3)

ii. Social media

Social media was used by some participants for maintaining connections made at the event, during their social chat (I5-2).

iii. Mobile Phone

The phone was used for recording contact information and messages for problem solving.

“... I [ex]change[d] card[s] with many people, probably not everybody ... I used my phone, there are some people from Australia-Hong Kong chamber, I have conversation, and a girl from 4A, I got invited to one event organised this month. I message them, and [undertook] giving a call.”(I9-5)

“I messaged my friend about his degree so I could ask [for an] internship, I got his reply... I asked (S1) whether they have [an] internship for my friend, and he said they don't use first year students” (I8-3);

iv. Other action

People listened carefully to the speaker during the speech (I11-2).

2. Relations

a. One-to-one

Various communications happened during the event that were interpersonal

interactions, including social chat (I6-3, I2-2) and other information, like exchanging contact information (I7-4, I9-5).

b. One-to-many

The introduction of the organiser (O1-5), the formal Q&A session (S2-10), and the speech (I7-5) were basically one-to-many communication process.

Post-event stage

During the post-event stage, verbal and extra-verbal communication happened or may have happened between people because of the event.

1. Means

Verbal and extra-verbal means were adopted.

a. Verbal

i. Face-to-face

People had (S1-7, S1-8) or planned to have (I1-6, I11-3) face-to-face communication after the event finished.

ii. Phone calls

People make phone calls after the event (I3-6, I8-6).

b. Extra-verbal

i. Business cards

Some people exchanged business cards after the event (I14-3).

ii. Mobile phones

People used mobile phones to make contact after the event by sending text messages (I7-3).

iii. Email

Email was used by people to stay in contact (S2-8, O1-6, and I4-3). It may be adopted later by some people as well (I13-4).

“I will keep contact [with the] organiser, not only [for] this event, but [also for] other programs that we could work on, email is a reliable way of communication.” (I10-9)

iv. Social media

Social media was used in an extra-verbal means by some participants. This included adding new friends on Facebook (I3-4) or LinkedIn (I5-3), pressing buttons of “like” on Facebook (I8-6), messaging on LinkedIn to contact others (I5-3), or they may keep monitoring social media for future activities (I13-4).

2. Relations

a. One-to-one

Various communications which happened during the event were interpersonal interactions, including social chat (I6-3, I2-2) and exchanging other information like contact details (I7-4, I9-5).

b. One-to-many

Future promotions for other activities on Facebook would be a one-to-many way of communication that would be used by some participants (I13-4).

Section summary

Based on the findings above, there are two main parts to the data: methods used for communication, and the relationship between subjects during the communication process, in terms of being interpersonal or not. The two tables below summarise the situation in the event.

Table 6-4 Relationship between subjects communicating		
Relation Stages	One-to-one	One-to-many
Preparation stage	X	X
Event stage	X	X
Post-event stage	X	X
X=YES “X” refers to the existence of the according situation.		

Table 6-4 describes the relations being interpersonal, or not, between subjects communicating in each stage. We could tell that one-to-one and one-to-many communication happened in all three stages.

Table 6-5 Communication methods adopted by subjects		
Means Stages	Verbal	Extra-verbal
Preparation stage	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Face-to-face 2. Phone calls 3. Distant face-to-face 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Email 2. Social media 3. Websites
Event stage	Face-to-face	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Business card 2. Social media 3. Mobile phone 4. Other actions
Post-event stage	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Face-to-face 2. Phone calls 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Business card 2. Mobile phones 3. Email 4. Social media

Table 6-5 summarises the communication methods used in each stage, either in a verbal or extra- verbal way.

Participant observation data

As mentioned earlier in the Methodology and Methods chapter, I practised participant observation as a participant of the case study during the event. Therefore, the relative data would be all about the Event Stage, which are only part of the data; but would be a supplement and triangulation to the interview data gathered on the same stage. The participant

observation data are displayed condition-by-condition, following the timeline:

Non-purposive communication

5.40 pm: Organisers, including O1 and people from the partner organisation, started setting out the tables and chairs. And they mentioned the number of people who had RSVP'd had reached 100 in the end (N5).

6.20 pm: Speakers came, and five people chatted for a while, including one organiser, organiser O1, the moderator, speakers S1 and S2 (N2).

6.20 – 7.00 pm: People continuously coming. There was one Chinese girl (turned out to be I2) who came from the entrance and talked to the organisers (O1 and the other organiser) who were standing there for a short time (N1). The two speakers talked to several other people during this time (N3).

Communication between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act (also see N2, N5)

7.00 – 7.30 pm: moderator hosted the panel using an interview format. She addressed questions to speakers S1 and S2 in turn, and added some comments after their answers (N7). There were two old ladies and two young men sitting together, engaging in a rapid conversation during the panel, possibly commenting on the talk that was going on (N13).

7.35 pm: One organiser went to open the door as there was somebody knocking at the door. The organiser O1 picked up a pen from the floor and gave it to the former organiser, having a quick chat, nodding and smiling (N12). When the talk finished, people clapped their hands (N9).

7.40 pm: Two people sitting together exchanged ideas while the two speakers were answering questions one after the other (N14).

7.53 pm: One participant sought permission to ask a question, then stood up and asked it. S1 answered first, and everyone laughed at some point. S1 then asked one question and gave the answer, and people laughed again. There was much interaction and laughter during S1's answer time (N10). S2 gave his answer after that. And the moderator thanked the two speakers and nodded her head, and then asked one person to start asking questions (N8).

8.00 pm: A third person asked a question, and S1 answered, people laughed five times during the answer (N11).

8.10 – 9.20 pm: After the panel, people kept talking, and a few left directly after the panel finished. There were groups talking, some of around 10 people, and one of around 20 people, with two speakers in each group. There were people listening, asking and responding in the groups involving speakers. The moderator talked to different people, and was quite flexible and nice. (N6)

8.45 pm: There were still around 30 people left in the venue, including six people around S2, the seven people group mentioned above around S1, and rest of the 20 were separated into five groups (N4).

9.20 pm: The event finished and people left. The seven people (including I3, I7, and I8) group mentioned earlier left together (N15).

By observation, everybody who participated in the event had the ability to speak and act (N18).

Subjects establish interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways (also see N1, N6, N7, N8, N9, N10, N11, and N13)

6.20 – 7.00 pm: More people gathered together as a group to talk, including six of them in a group (N17).

9.20 pm: The event ended.

When two strangers wanted to decide whether to talk or not, they would make quick eye-contact in the first place, and then they may or may not start a conversation (N16).

Social media and other data

Social media and other data here basically refers to the data collected online, which was mainly from social media like Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, and related websites, as well as email flyers and confirmation from the organising groups. Most of the data were collected during the preparation and post-event stages for practical reasons viz. because the event stage time was mostly spent on participant observation, and the participants, organizers, partners and speakers mentioned above did not go online much according to their interviews and my observation.

Therefore, the online data would mainly cover the preparation and post-event stage. So as to render it easier for later analysis, the following data will be coded according to the following

rules. In order to avoid repetition, the email material will be coded as “E” plus an ordinal number, for instance, the first displayed email data would be coded as E1; other type of materials would follow the same rules with different letters to start with: website: “W”; Twitter: “T”; LinkedIn: “L” ; Facebook: “A”. On each social media, the paragraphs of text message written on the timelines have different appellations: Facebook: post; Twitter: tweet; LinkedIn: Discussion. The data below would follow these names.

There are several types of online data that were collected during the preparation stage, including from the following platforms: website, email, Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn. Most of the data were related to promotion of the event, which would be displayed following the three necessary conditions for dialogic approach. After the event, there were no further updates from the organisers, although people still checked the event information or posted something on the social media of Facebook and LinkedIn after the event.

Purposive and Non-purposive communication

Preparation Stage

All the promotions made by the organisers in an official way to the members of the organization or to the public had the purpose of promoting the event.

1. Email

An electronic poster (e-poster) was sent to members of the organising institution on their email list through emails. This E-poster included the event details... and RSVPS information... (E1);

One organiser posted on Facebook five days before the event about the selling out of ticket for this event, which was also emailed to the people who did RSVP. The email content was actually a Facebook post, which included all the information that the specific Facebook post contained, and the links that would lead users to the original Facebook page. The email was in fact specially generated on Facebook through a special setting by the organiser. (E2);

Some information was generated automatically by the website chosen and set up by the organisers, like the RSVP website. After sending an RSVP, one could receive an email immediately and automatically generated by the RSVP website chosen by the organisers, including the confirmation of the ticket and links (E3);

On the event day in the morning, the same RSVP website generated an email, reminding people who did RSVP about the event. The email was a reminder, with links (E4).

2. Website

On the organisation's official website, there was one web page for this event, detailing the name, time and date, venue, event content, speakers, RSVP deadline and link, etc. (W1);

On the RSVP website, there was one web page for the event, with the event information ... a "Register" button for RSVP ... and several ways to share this event: Email, LinkedIn Share, Twitter's Tweet and Facebook Like buttons... All the underlined parts were active links... On the event day in the afternoon, "29 people like this"... (W2);

On the website of one partner organisation of this event, there was a similar promotion page with all the relevant information of name, time, date, venue, RSVP link, and more info, a link to the organiser's official website, content, speakers, map and social media links (W3).

3. Facebook

There were several branch organisations related to each other, which were all for young Australians and Chinese. The host organisation of this event was one of them, but they also have close relationships with other branches of the parent organisation, and therefore would promote on different platforms belonging to those different branches. Two of the branch organisations have their own Facebook groups, and the organisers posted in both Facebook groups for more exposure. I will regard the organising institution as "the host organisation", and the related organisation with the same parent organisation as the "sister organisation". One organiser first posted the information about the event on the host organisation's Facebook group 25 days before the event happened. The post included relevant details and the Sign up link, which led to the RSVP page. Like all other Facebook posts, it contained the time and date of the post, as well as the location of the person who had posted. It had been "seen by 19" and one "likes this" seven days before the event, "seen by 27" and still one "likes this" 1 day before the event (A1);

The organiser also posted on the Facebook group of the sister organisation one hour after A1 was posted with the same content. There were “seven people (including I8 and I14) like this” 16 days before the event, and the same number of “likes” 13 days before the event (A2).

The same organiser posted regarding the sold-out tickets, five days before the event. This post included the information about tickets having been “sold out” and the RSVP link to the event, together with the event information. The same post was sent as an email to people on the mailing list, as mentioned above. One day before the event, the post was “seen by 16”, with “two people like this”, and one comment of “WHOA! Full house! Congratulations guys” left on the same day. The same post had been “Seen by 19” on the event day (A3);

Organiser O2 posted on the Facebook group of the sister organisation 25 days before the event with the same content (the event’s time, venue, RSVP link with organization logo, etc.), and got one “likes this” 16 days before the event (A4).

One person posted “Reminder about ... (the host organisation’s) free upcoming event in... (Time and city)”, followed by the name, content, speaker, and RSVP link with a partner organisation’s event logo. The post was shared on the fourteenth day before the event, with one “likes this” on the seventh day before the event. (A5)

4. Twitter

The group Twitter of the sister organisation posted a tweet (different expression of “post” due to the social media platform) 25 days before the event happened, which included the event details. The link of “View summary” led to other detailed information. The name of the event was also a link leading to the RSVP web page (T1);

Seven days before the event, the group Twitter of the sister organisation posted a reminder tweet with the same details about the event. The tweet was re-tweeting by someone (who turned out to be participant I13) on the same day (T2).

5. LinkedIn

The organiser O2 started a discussion on the LinkedIn group of the host organisation 20 days before the event, with the name, content, partners, time and date, RSVP

deadline and link, venue and two speakers' introductions. The discussion got "likes" from one person 19 days before the event (L1).

The organiser O2 also started the same discussion on the LinkedIn group of the sister organisation 20 days before the event, with the same content. 17 days before the event, this discussion got one "likes" from a person (L2).

Post-event stage

Compared with the promotions before the event, the interactions on social media were less purposive after the event.

- Facebook:

Under the A3 post on Facebook, one person who posted A5 on Facebook commented on the third day following the event day said "congrats guys! Great achievement." There were also "three people like this", and was "seen by 21" by the same day. Five months later, the same post was "seen by 60". (A3-1) Other posts including A1, A2, A4 and A5 had no changes after the event.

Communication between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act

Preparation stage

As mentioned above, all the people who participated in this event had the ability to speak and act, therefore, only the number of subjects who participated in the communication will be discussed in this section. As all the material data was displayed in the previous condition section with a code, the code will be used when mentioning the relevant materials.

1. Emails

E1, E2, E3 and E4 were certain messages from organisers to the participants, which were one-to-many types of communication for the organiser, and one-to-one communication for the people receiving emails.

2. Website

The web pages W1 and W3 were promotion pages with not much interaction, while the W2 RSVP page was more interactive.

3. Facebook

There were communication actions on Facebook (A1, A2, A3, A4, and A5).

4. Twitter

There were 628 followers of the sister organisation, and 1,817 followers of the one that re-tweeted the tweet (I13) 12 days before the event, who were potential readers of the tweet (T2-1).

5. LinkedIn

There were communications on LinkedIn (L1, L2).

Post-event stage

Again, only the communication between at least two subjects would be considered, as the other part of the condition was met.

1. Facebook

There were communications between the person who commented on A3 and those who saw the post. (A3-1)

2. LinkedIn

On LinkedIn, the L1 was updated later, after the event. Four months after the event, one person commented on the discussion by asking “ ... so, NSW is in partnership with the ... (one partner organisation of the event)?” There were also two people who clicked “like” in the five months that followed the event. (L1-1)

Subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways

Preparation stage

1. Emails

The emails were basically one-to-many promotions, not for establishing interpersonal relations.

2. Website

W2 was in some sense establishing interpersonal relations between the organiser and the participants who did RSVP.

3. Facebook

Interactions on Facebook could be regarded as one-to-one communication in some senses (A1, A2, A3, A4 and A5).

4. Twitter

There was communication between individual readers and the organisation representative in T1, and re-tweeted by participant I13 in T2.

5. LinkedIn

It could be regarded as interpersonal communication between O2 and the person who responded on LinkedIn (L1, L2).

Post-event stage

As the actions taken by people after the event day on Facebook and LinkedIn were personal, all of the communication which occurred relating to both A3 and L1 were in order to establish interpersonal relations by either Facebook or LinkedIn.

1. Facebook

Interpersonal communications occurred on Facebook (A3-1). But other posts, including A1, A2, A4 and A5, had no changes after the event.

2. LinkedIn

Interpersonal communication happened on LinkedIn (L1-1).

According to the social media data above, the relevant social media and other materials used can be shown in the table below.

Table 6-6 Social media and other data			
Conditions Online data Stages	Purposive and non-purposive communication	Communication between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act	Subjects establish interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways
Preparation stage	1. Email 2. Websites 3. Facebook 4. Twitter 5. LinkedIn	1. Email 2. Website 3. Facebook 4. Twitter 5. LinkedIn	1. Email 2. Website 3. Facebook 4. Twitter 5. LinkedIn
Post-event stage	Facebook	1. Facebook 2. LinkedIn	1. Facebook 2. LinkedIn

Discussion

As mentioned above, the following four conditions are necessary conditions for a dialogic approach: firstly, non-authoritarian communication; secondly, non-purposive communication; thirdly, communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act; fourthly, the subjects establishing interpersonal relations in verbal or extra-verbal ways.

The representative data related to the four conditions was displayed above. This included interview data, participant observation data, social media and other data.

The discussion below contains all types of data collected, to explain whether the four conditions were met or not in the case study one-by-one. As the data was displayed stage-by-stage, the discussions below will also follow the same order of preparation, event and post-event stages used previously (O1-1). Those will be followed by the discussion of the four conditions together, so as to draw a conclusion for RQ5.

Non-authoritarian communication

Again, as mentioned previously, this condition refers to a communication process that involves no power to enforce obedience. As communication is not monologue, every subject involved in a communication process should be considered in order to figure out whether the process is authoritarian or not. Therefore, usually, two or more subjects' descriptions would be considered – depending on the situation. As the interviewees were randomly chosen, there

could be a situation where not all the subjects involved in a communication process were interviewed. In this case, the detailed description by the interviewee will be carefully considered; and different relevant situations will be discussed below.

Examples of authoritarian and non-authoritarian communication in the case study were mentioned in the data above.

Non-authoritarian element

Among 19 interviewees, some people who played various roles in the event had no authoritarian feeling. Two organisers participated in the interview, one of whom participated in the event, while the other didn't. The one who participated in the event found no such feeling of authoritarianism (O1-2). The partner of the event who accepted the interview had no such feeling of being authoritarian during the whole process of the case study, whether between the partner and others or between participants themselves (F1-1). Both of the speakers invited to talk during this case study didn't have such feelings either (S1-1, S2-1). Despite the people mentioned above, all other interviewees were participants in the event. There were, altogether, 14 participants who participated in the interview, each of whom is coded I1 to I14, following the rules mentioned above. Among the interviewed participants, six did not find that anybody gave him or her feeling of authoritarianism, while the remaining seven found that they did.

Authoritarianism element

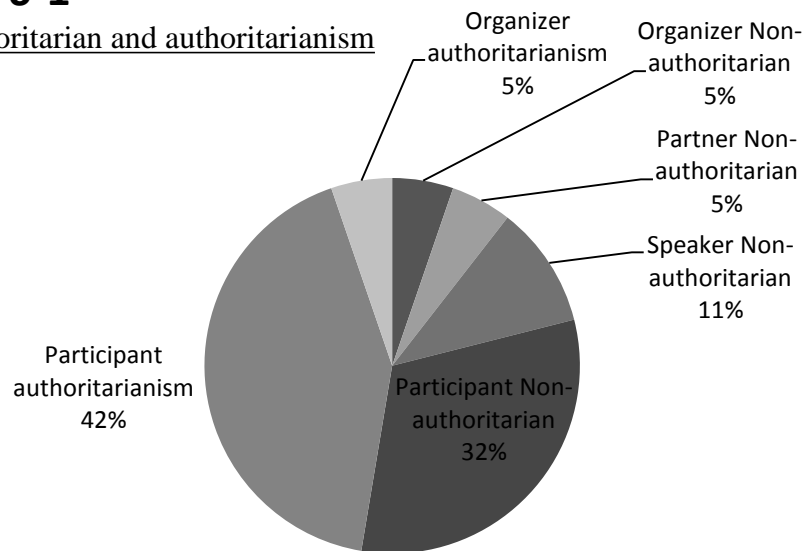
There were people with different roles who had feelings of authoritarianism. The organizer, who had not participated in the event, found feelings of authoritarianism (O2-1). Others who found certain people gave them authoritarian feelings were the rest of the eight interviewed participants.

Non-authoritarian vs. authoritarianism

Figure 6-1 below shows the percentage of interviewees playing different roles during the event having, or not having, authoritarian feelings based on the discussions above.

Figure 6-1

Non-authoritarian and authoritarianism



According to the pie-chart above, among the 19 interviewees, 47% of all the interviewees (42% are interviewed participants and 5% are interviewed organisers) have feeling of authoritarianism, while the rest of 53% have no such feeling (32% are interviewed participant, 11% are speakers, 5% are partners of the event, another 5% are interviewed organisers).

Figure 6-1 is the only figure in discussions for RQ4. The reason is that the data related to the condition of non-authoritarian communication are only data quantifiable among all data for the four necessary conditions of dialogic approach. Other data are not quantifiable for the following reasons. Firstly, not all interviewee's interview content will be quoted when discussing other three conditions. Unlike the yes-no question asked, which expected simple answers for condition one, situations related to other three questions are found out based on open-ended questions, which generated large amount of relevant data. Even every interviewee had relevant answers, only representatives will be quoted among similar data. In this case, discussions below for other three conditions are not able to include all interviewees' answers, and therefore could not be summarised by a quantified figure as Figure 6-1. Secondly, whether the other three conditions are met or not is actually case-by-case. For instance, when discussing condition two of non-purposive communication, interviewees may mention their purpose in one situation and deny that they have any purpose in another. Moreover, different interviewees hardly mention the same situations of communication with same people. Even they do, they may still have different descriptions due to different perspectives. Discussions for conditions three and four have similar situations. Therefore, it is hardly possible to quantify the following data for other three conditions.

Non-authoritarian communication

Among the people mentioned above in the data, only the communications between I12 and S1, I12 and S2, I12 and the moderator (I12-1), and I3 and I8 (I8-1) happened. As at least one subject of the communication found the other side to be authoritarian, the relative communications would not be regarded as dialogic in nature.

According to the data, people had different reasons for having (O2-1, I1-1, I8-1) or not discerning an authoritarian feeling (I10-1, I13-1, F1-1) when communicating with others throughout the case study. Those communications that generated a discernment of authoritarianism would not be considered as meeting the first necessary condition of non-authoritarian communication.

Taking all the information obtained from the interviewees into account, those that did not find the feeling of authoritarianism will be considered in the next step.

Non-purposive communication

As mentioned earlier, non-purposive communication refers to communication with no conscious purpose or intention¹⁵. The discussions below are mainly about various situations of non-purposive and purposive communications, as well as the criteria for those who could be regarded as meeting this condition.

Preparation stage

According to the interview, social media and other data on the preparation stage, people had various non-purposive and purposive communications. Three kinds of communications could be noted in relation to their being purposive or not.

All subjects with purpose

In some communications, there was more than one subject with conscious purpose, as in the communications among the organisers during the preparation stage (O1-3&O2-2, S2-2&I10-3).

Either subject with purpose

In some communications, although one side of the subject of a process of communication may

¹⁵ See introduction of Chapter VI.

have no conscious purpose, the other side of the subject had a conscious purpose (S2-2 & I10-2, E1, A1, and F1-2).

No subject with purpose

There are also non-purposive communications regarding all subjects involved (O2-3, I8-2).

Those communications involving any subject with conscious purpose during the preparation stage will not be taken into consideration as dialogic approach.

Event stage

During the event stage, some communications were started with conscious purposes while others were not.

Start without conscious purpose

During the event stage, those with no conscious purpose in the first place when communicating had different situations.

1. No conscious purpose vs. *no* conscious purpose

Those who talked with people having no conscious purpose, the communication could be counted as non-purposive. For instance, according to the participant observation, participant I2 talked with the organisers for a short time when she entered the venue (N1); as both I2 and O1 had no expectations (I2-2, O1-5), their conversation could be regarded as non-purposive. A similar situation obtained between S1 and I11 (S1-5, I11-2).

Even certain purposes were naturally aroused in the latter part of the communication (I8-4), it would still be considered as non-purposive process.

2. No conscious purpose vs. conscious purpose

For those with no conscious purpose, when talking to others having specific purposes, their communication could not be classified as non-purposive. For example, according to the participant observation, there were five people joining a conversation, including O1, another organiser, the moderator, S1, and S2 at the beginning of the event (N2). Among the data related to this conversation, only S1 had no conscious purpose (S1-6), S2 and O1 both had their purpose of making this event a good one (O1-10, S2-5). Therefore, this

conversation could not be recognised as non-purposive communication.

Start with conscious purpose

There were several people with a conscious purpose when communicating with others during this stage, whose conversations would not be considered as non-purposive communication or be characterised as a dialogic approach. Sometimes, they communicated with people having conscious intentions (S2-5, O1-10), while in other situations, they interacted with people not having a conscious purpose (I1-4). Certain purposes could arise later after interactions (I1-5, I1-4). No matter in which situation mentioned above, their communication would not be considered as non-purposive. Therefore, it will not be considered for analysis for dialogic approach under this or later conditions during the event stage.

Post-event stage

During the post-event stage, non-purposive and purposive situations also existed.

Non- purposive

In the post-event stage, considering the subjects involved in the communications, those involving only non-purposive elements would be considered as non-purposive. For example, follow-up contacts between several people would be seen as being non-purposive (S2-8, I14-3).

Purposive

1. Non-purposive vs. purposive

Meanwhile, those involved in non-purposive and purposive actions would still not be regarded as practising non-purposive communication. For instance, according to the interview data and the participant observation data (I3-4, I7-3, N4), around 7 of the participants went out for a get-together after the event, including I3, I7 and I8, although I7 had no expectations, I3 had the purpose of deepening his connection with people especially I7 and I8; and so this communication among the three could not be counted as being non-purposive; other communications under the same situational context during the post-event stage were I1&I9 (I1-6, I9-4), I9&I13 (I9-4). On social media, the previous Facebook promotion information was also followed up with comment days after the event by the author of A5, simply in order to offer congratulations for the success of the event

(A3-1).

2. Purposive vs. purposive

The communications involving both subjects with conscious purpose will not be considered as non-purposive, like the interactions between the organiser O1 and speaker S2 after the event (O1-6, S2-7).

Section summary

According to the discussions above, in all stages, the purposive-related situations can be shown as in the table below.

Table 6-7 Non-purposive and purposive communication		
Subject/s	Non-purposive	Purposive
Non-purposive	Non-purposive	Purposive
Purposive	Purposive	Purposive
Grey area: non-purposive communication.		

There are communications which happened between purposive and non-purposive agents and objects; only the communications which happened between non-purposive agents and objects, marked as grey in Table 6-7 could be regarded as non-purposive communication.

Communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act

There are two dimensions of meaning in this condition as mentioned earlier: communication between at least two subjects, and subjects with the ability to speak and act. Disregarding the latter part of the condition that had already been met (N18); the following discussions would include all types of data in different stages.

Preparation stage

During the preparation stage, there were several different situations of communications between at least two subjects with ability to speak and act. The discussions below help in understanding why those communications happened at the preparation stage, and what people

did in those interactions.

Informed of the event

People joined the host organisation (I1-2, I2-1), knew about or participated in the event after communicating with others in different situations, such as in the work place (I10-7) and when catching up (I4-4), or through different ways like emails (I13-2). Here they mentioned joining the organisation, as each member of the organisation would receive promoting email flyers on the event (O1-9).

Passing the word on

People knew of the event and passed the information on through various ways to inform or invite others. Organisers either mentioned to their friends about the event (O1-4), or invited their friends personally (O2-3). Also, some participants passed on the word after learning about the event from promotional emails or social media, either discussing it with or informing friends without invitations about it (I6-1, I7-2, and I14-1). The participant I13 re-tweeted the tweet message on the event, which was communication between I13 and the organization (T2-1).

Online response

People engaged in online interactions using social media and RSVP between participants and organisers. some people responded to the promotion e-poster (E1) through email and confirmed their participation (I6-1, I9-2); some people were led by links from the promotional email or Facebook post to RSVP page (W2), and did RSVP on that page with their own email and other necessary information (I7-2, I14-1, I13-2, N5); although there was promotion of both website pages (W1, W3) and follow-up emails generated by Facebook (E2) and the RSVP website (E3, E4); but as no written records were available on the web pages or related interview data, therefore whether people have seen them or not is indeterminable; the Facebook posts were “seen” by people (I13-2, A1, A3), or received “likes” from people (A1, A2, A3, A4, A5), which were communications between people that were posted and responded to; on LinkedIn, there was a kind of communications between the organiser O2 and people who “liked” the discussion (L1, L2).

Organising issue

People had communications related to organising issues, such as ones about the event and

sponsoring details. These included discussions between the organiser and speaker regarding invitations to speak (S2-9), content of talks and the audience composition (S1-9), and with partners regarding sponsoring opportunities (F1-4).

Event stage

During the event, both the interview data and participant observation data showed that people played different roles and communicated with each other in different situations.

Organising detail

People engaged in some interactions related to organising details. There were interactions between organisers, speakers and partners on procedures of the event (O1-5, N5, S1-5, S2-5, N2); organisers welcomed participants before and after the panel speech as at the beginning of the event (O1-5, I2-2, I10-5); speakers talked to people around them after the panel on further questions and answers based on the previous speech, which also let the speakers and participants get to know each other better (S2-6, I5-2, I6-3, N6, N4).

Social connection building

People were trying to build up new connections by chatting, exchanging business cards or in other ways (F1-3, I5-2, I12-3, I14-2, and N6); people communicated with those they knew previously and maintained or strengthened their relationships (S1-7); people introduced those they knew to others (I14-2) or introduced them to others they did not know (I8-5, I14-2), and new connections were made.

Exchanges during speech

Some communications were not mentioned by people in their interviews, but there were communications during the speech panel between different people according to the participant observation data.

1. One-to-many communication

One-to-many communications happened between the moderator, speaker and audiences during the panel by eye-contact, head-nodding, laughing and talking (N7, N8, N9, N10, and N11).

2. One-to-one communication

There were interactions for idea exchange through talking, head-nodding, and smiling during the panel: the two organisers communicated once quickly (N12); the audience members also interacted with each other from time to time, usually in addressing the answers of speakers or exchanging ideas (N13, N14).

Post-event stage

After the event, people communicated with each other for different reasons and in various ways. The discussions below will help in understanding why the communications took place at this stage.

For feedback

People would engage in face to face communications like chatting over coffee, drinks or dinner in order to receive feedback (O1-6).

For connections

Some people did, or planned to, communicate face-to-face to maintain connections (S1-8, I1-6, I7-3, I11-3, I13-4, I14-3, and N15); while others did it, or planned to do it, distantly using internet (I8-6) or mobile phone (I3-6).

For communication's sake

People followed up promotions on social media by using functions such as “comment”, “seen” and “likes”, which could be regarded as a kind of communication between themselves and the organiser (A3-1, L1-1).

All the communications mentioned above during different stages happened between at least two people with the ability to speak and act, and therefore would be taken into account in terms of dialogic approaches.

Section summary

In different stages, there was communication happening between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act. The table below summarises what these communications were about.

Table 6-8 Content of communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act	
Communication Stage	Content of communication
Preparation	1. Informing of the event 2. Passing words on 3. Online response 4. Organising issue
Event	1. Organising detail 2. Social connection building 3. Exchange during speech
Post-event	1. For feedback 2. For connections 3. For communication

Subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways

This condition is composed of two parts, namely that “the subjects establish interpersonal relations” and that they “establish interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways”. The discussions below consider both parts of the condition, and only if both were met could the data be regarded as having met the fourth condition. The discussions again follow three stages depending on the interview, participant observation, social media and other material data.

Preparation Stage

According to the data, there were verbal and extra-verbal ways of communication in the form of one-to-one or one-to-many during this stage.

Verbal way

All these verbal ways mentioned in the findings above, including face-to-face that happened when dining out (O1-7, I4-4, and I4-5) or in class(I3-2), phone calls for organising events (S1-4, F1-4) and informing friends (I3-2, I8-2), and distant face-to-face video chat (O2-4), were forms of one-to-one communications – a way of establishing and building up interpersonal relations.

Extra-verbal way

1. Email

As mentioned by a participant, “email – a reliable way of communication” (I10-9), was adopted by organisers, speakers, partners and participants for communication

during the preparation stage.

- a. The email was used for one-to-many promotion: the promotional email flyer was sent by the organisers on behalf of the organisation (E1, O1-8, I8-2) and the partner (F1-5) through a mailing list, which would not be considered as building up personal relations;
- b. The email was also used for personal interactions, like organising work for the event (O1-8, F1-4, O2-4, S2-9), informing or inviting people (I4-5, I12-2), and responses to promotions (I4-4) or invitations (I12-2).

2. Social media

The social media used in the preparation stage included Facebook, Twitter and LinkedIn.

- a. Social media used for promotion within a group (A1, A2, A4, T1, T2, L1, L2, O1-9, I8-2) or passing the words on within a group (I8-2) would not be regarded as meeting the fourth condition. The reason was that one side of the communication was not aiming at, and finally did not act in, an interpersonal way.
- b. Some communications on social media were quite personal, such as personal messaging or posting for purposes of exchanging information or inviting people (I13-2); or responses such as “like”, “share” and “follow”, “re-tweet”, “comment” or simply “seen” on social media (I7-2, I13-2, A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, T2, L1, L2). Here, except in the instance of inviting people, other actions were not interpersonal. Although people’s responses and other private ways of communication revealed their intention of establishing interpersonal relations, however, because the organiser’s promotion was targeting all potential audiences instead of a specific person, the whole communication process will not be considered as meeting the fourth condition.

3. Website

The other way of communication was through websites.

- a. One kind of website used in this event was communicative and designed for interaction, which tried to involve people in more active interaction. The RSVP website the organisers chose was specially designed for RSVP, which contained many ways of involving participants in interaction (W2); some people were led by

the link in the email to the RSVP website for more information and did RSVP (I3-2, I11-1); some people also participated in interactions such as “like” on the website page (W2).

- b. Another kind of website was for information only. Information on the event for non-members could be obtained from the organisation’s Website. There were participants who knew about the organisation or the event from their website (I10-7). The partner also mentioned their promotion on their organisation’s website, involving some interaction (F1-5, W3).

Among the websites discussed above, websites used for promotion could not be regarded as building up interpersonal relations, no matter being interactive like the RSVP website or not, as the publisher of the website was aiming at a large audience rather than a specific person.

Table 6-9: Subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways in preparation stage

Means \ Relations		one-to-one	one-to-many
Verbal	Face-to-face	X	O
	Phone call	X	O
	Distant face-to-face	X	O
Extra Verbal	Email	X	X
	Social Media	X	X
	Website	O	X
X=Yes, O=No, Grey area=Condition met			

‘X’ refers to the according situation existed in preparation stage; while ‘O’ refers to the situation not existing at this stage in the table. The grey area could be considered as meeting the condition of “subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways”. Some of the verbal communications like face-to-face or telephonic communication (here referring to phone calls) helped with detailed planning of organisation of the event (O1-7, O2-4, F1-4. Phone call (S1-4) and email (O1-8, F1-4, O2-4, S2-9, I4-4, and I12-2) helped with successful organisation of the event – post planning. Some participants were informed about or invited to the event and finally came to event because of hearing about it on social media (I13-2) and through email (I4-5, I12-2) and verbal communication – such as face-to-face communication (I4-4); others were informed but did not attend in the end for various reasons

(I4-5, I3-2).

Event stage

During the event stage, there were different forms of communication occurring among the organisers, speakers, partner and participants according to the interview data and participant observation data. Those communications were either an interpersonal or a one-to-many process. The discussions below help define the situations that meet the condition.

1. Verbal communication

Verbal communication among people was mentioned during the event stage; people talked to each other before and after the panel, while the speakers talked to the audiences during the panel.

a. Interpersonal

Social chat (F1-3, I2-2, I10-8, I11-2, I13-5, N1, N17) included being introduced by or to others (I14-2) for networking (N3), welcoming, organising (S1-5, S1-6, S2-5, N2), further questions and answers after the panel in groups (I5-2, I6-3, N6), which were quite interpersonal ways.

For those small examples of communication within three people, it was more about establishing interpersonal relations; for those bigger groups, as people were still trying to communicate with each other, it was still interpersonal relationship building.

b. For instance, one participant found the speakers really engaged audience members in a conversation when he was in a group of people who were conversing after the panel (I7-4).One-to-many

The speakers' and moderator's verbal communications between themselves (S2-10, N7) and with the audience members (I7-5) during the panel and Q&A session (S2-10, N10, N11) were more in the one-to-many form rather than interpersonal communication, and therefore could not meet the fourth condition.

2. Extra-verbal communication

a. Interpersonal

i. Social media

Using social media like LinkedIn to add somebody newly met for later connections (I5-2) was quite an interpersonal way of communication.

ii. Phone

People used mobile phones for messaging and calling in order to exchange contact information (I9-5) or for other communications related to the event (I8-3) in order to establish interpersonal relations.

iii. Business cards

People's exchanging of business cards, usually along with verbal communications for later connections (I5-2, I6-3, I7-4, I9-5, I11-2, and I14-2), were quite interpersonal.

iv. Other actions

Despite talking, actions like nodding one's head and smiling happened between participants during the panel (N12, N16).

b. One-to-many

Some people responded to speakers or moderator in various ways like listening (I7-5, I7-4, I6-3, N6), nodding and smiling, laughing or looking at others (N11, N9), which would not be regarded as meeting the fourth condition due to their involving one-to-many interactions.

Table 6-10 Subjects establish interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways in event stage			
Means \ Relations		one-to-one	one-to-many
Verbal	Face-to-face	X	X
Extra Verbal	Social media	X	O
	Phone	X	O
	Business card	X	O
	Other actions	X	X
X=Yes, O=No, Grey area=Condition met			

X, O and Grey area in Table 6-10 have the same meaning as in Table 6-9. The social chat and group communication (S1-5, S1-6, S2-5, N2), as well as extra-verbal ways like gesturing (N12, N16) helped with better communication between participants and successful organization of the event; the verbal way of social chat and group communication (N3), social media (I5-2), phone call and message (I9-5), exchanging business cards (I5-2, I6-3, I7-4, I9-5, I11-2, and I14-2) also helped with new connection building between participants; some extra-verbal methods such as messaging helped to kindle personal interest e.g. in finding internships (I8-3).

Post-event stage

During this stage, people again adopted different ways to keep in contact with each other for maintaining connections soon after the event; and may have further contact in the future, according to the interviewees.

Communication means

1. Verbal communication

All the verbal ways of communication that happened in the post-event stage were to establish interpersonal relations.

a. Face-to-face conversation

People communicated (O1-6, S1-7, S1-8, I3-4, I4-3, I3-6, I7-3, I8-6, and I14-3) or were planning to communicate (S1-7, I1-6, I5-3, I7-3, I11-3, I13-4) in face-to-face like over dinner or coffee, which was quite interpersonal.

b. Mobile phone

Phone calls were also a way for some participants to contact each other after the event (I3-6, I8-6).

2. Extra-verbal communication

a. Interpersonal

i. Social media

Some people used, or were planning to use, social media for interpersonal communications like networking (I3-4, I7-3, I8-6, and I5-3).

ii. Email

People used the interpersonal means of email for getting feedback (O1-6), maintaining connections (S2-8, I4-3, I14-3), or were planning to do so (I10-9, I13-4).

iii. Mobile phone

People used their mobile phones for interpersonal connections, either for calling (I3-6, I8-6) or for text messages (I3-6, I7-3) to stay in contact.

iv. Business cards

Some people exchanged business cards after the event for further interpersonal connections (I14-3).

b. One-to-many

Some did (I8-6), or were planning to (I13-4), follow-up the event promotion on social media like “seen” and “likes” with more people after the event (A3-1, L1-1),

which was not a way to build interpersonal relations on the promoter's side.

Communication relations

In the post-event stage, many interpersonal communications were results of previous ones. People exchanged business cards in order to contact each other by email (I14-3); contacted others on social media following previous activity, for instance adding others as new friends on social media (I5-3, I7-3); or met after the event following their introduction or previous interaction (S1-7, O1-6). There were also other similar situations identified, but those mentioned above were directly from the data collected related to this stage.

Table 6-11 Subjects establishing interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways in post-event stage			
Means \ Relations		one-to-one	one-to-many
Verbal	Face-to-face	X	O
	Phone call	X	O
Extra Verbal	Social media	X	X
	Email	X	O
	Phone	X	O
	Business card	X	O
X=Yes, O=No, Grey area=Condition met			

X, O and Grey area in Table 6-11 have the same meaning as in Table 6-9. Some verbal communication methods like face-to-face or phone calls helped with fulfilling certain personal goals (I8-6); some verbal ways like phone calls (S1-7, I1-8, I3-6, I14-3), messaging (I3-6, I7-3), using email (S2-8, I4-3, I14-3) resulted in better understanding and connection maintenance between participants; communications using email (I10-9, I13-4) and exchanging business cards (I14-3) helped with possible future connection maintenance; some face-to-face communication (I3-4, I7-3), using social media (I3-4, I7-3, I8-6, and I5-3) and email helped with making new connections; some face-to-face communication led to setting up of appointments or possible future meetings (S1-7, I1-6, I5-3, I7-3, I11-3, I13-4); some face-to-face communication (O1-6), and use of email (O1-6) helped with the potential successful organisation of future events – such as through soliciting feedback for the current event (O1-6).

Section summary

Based on the discussions above, the following table shows those situations met the condition in the three stages.

Table 6-12 Subjects establish interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways in event				
Stages Means		Preparation	Event	Post-event
Verbal	Face-to-face	X	X	X
	Phone call	X	O	X
	Distant face-to-face	X	O	O
Extra Verbal	Social media	X	X	X
	Email	X	O	X
	Phone	O	X	X
	Business card	O	X	X
	Other actions	O	X	O
X=Yes, O=No, Grey area=Condition met				

X, O and Grey area in Table 6-12 have the same meaning as in Table 6-9. This table gives a general idea of what communication methods were used to establish interpersonal relations in all stages of the case study. As noted above, various ways of communication, verbal or extra-verbal, helped with successful organisation of the event, new connections were made and maintained, better understanding was reached between participants, as well as some personal goals were achieved. There were no absolute boundaries between the two different patterns of verbal and extra-verbal communication, and either could have happened due to different or similar reasons and resulted in different or similar outcomes according to the specific situation, as mentioned in the discussions above. As mentioned earlier in Chapter III, the goal of the organising group was to promote more connections and better understanding between young professionals from Australia and China. The concrete goal seems to have been achieved - as seen in the discussions above. Looking back to Chapter V and its comparison and contrast of aims of actors, the aims of personal interest, better relationships and better understanding (mentioned in both GPD AU and GPD CN) are proved to be true in practice. The results of better understanding and better relationship mentioned by both GPD AU and GPD CN, as listed in the comparison and contrast of results in Chapter V are also confirmed to be the case.

Dialogic approach

All the discussions mentioned above are for answering RQ4: Are dialogic approaches applied in the process of the case of self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy projects?

As mentioned at the beginning of this part of the discussion, only when all four necessary conditions are met could a situation be characterised as a dialogic approach in the case study. Therefore, whether there are dialogic approaches or not in the case study could be determined based on the discussions above.

In each discussion part under each condition, there were some data supporting the condition and some not supporting the condition, and also a brief summary of what kind of data would finally be considered as having met the condition. Disregarding those that could not be considered as having met the condition, and considering those situations that have met each condition, the instances in the data that were concordant with the four conditions would be regarded as dialogic approaches.

The conditions to be considered as dialogic approach are shown below in Table 6-13.

Table 6-13 Conditions for dialogic approach	
Dialogic Conditions	Dialogic approach premise
Non-authoritarian	Except communications with authoritarianism between I12 and S1, I12 and S2, I12 and the moderator, and I3 and I8
Non-purposive	Communications between non-purposive subject/s and non-purposive subject/s
Communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act	All communications mentioned in data
Subjects establish interpersonal relations by verbal or extra-verbal ways	One-to-one verbal or extra verbal communications (see Table 6-11)

After going through all the data, it was found that there were dialogic approaches existing in the case study. To avoid repetition of data display, all the dialogic approaches data are shown in the form of code stage-by-stage in Table 6-14 below, which will be displayed later as well in the Findings part in Chapter VII for answering RQ5, following the rules of selection mentioned above. As no materials mentioned in the social media and other data were

interpersonal communication, the table below does not include this group of data.

Table 6-14 Dialogic approaches		
<div> <div>Data source</div> <div>Dialogic approach</div> <div>Stages</div> </div>	Interview data	Participant observation data
Preparation stage	(O1-4), (O2-3), (I1-2), (I1-3), (I2-1), (I3-2), (I4-4), (I4-5), (I7-2), (I8-2), (I11-1), (I12-2), (I13-2), (I14-1)	N/A
Event stage	(O1-5), (S1-5), (S1-7), (S2-5), (S2-6), (I2-2), (I5-2), (I6-3), (I7-4), (I8-4), (I8-5), (I10-5), (I10-6), (I10-8), (I11-2), (I12-3), (I13-3), (I13-5), (I14-2)	(N5), (N1), (N3), (N17), (N13), (N12), (N14), (N6), (N4), (N16)
Post-event stage	(O1-6), (S1-7), (S2-8), (I1-6), (I3-4), (I3-6), (I4-3), (I5-3), (I7-3), (I8-6), (I11-3), (I13-4), (I14-3)	(N15)

As a result, the dialogic approaches that met the four conditions were involved in the data listed above in Table 6-14. Therefore, the answer for RQ4 is, “Yes, there are dialogic approaches applied in the process of the case of self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy project.”

Chapter summary

The interviews, participant observation, social media and other data of the case study of a self-supported Australia-China grassroots public diplomacy project were displayed above to answer RQ4 of the thesis. The data were gathered following three stages – preparation, event and post-event – explaining the four necessary conditions that dialogic communication approach need: non-authoritarian; non-purposive; communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act; and subjects establishing interpersonal relations by

verbal or extra-verbal ways. Considering discussions on each condition, there were situations where all four of the conditions were met. Therefore, the dialogic approaches existed in the case study, and the RQ4 was answered.

CHAPTER VII

CASE STUDY: PART II

Introduction

RQ5 will be addressed in this chapter through the same case study. The key concept here remains Habermas' "dialogic approach"¹⁶ as in Case Study: Part I. The results displayed in Graph 6-1, will be described in this chapter as they were not in Chapter VI. The process drawn from the data will also be discussed following Graph 7-1 shown below. This chapter consists of an introduction, data presentation considerations, findings related to RQ5, a discussion, answer to RQ5 and a chapter summary.

Data presentation considerations

The considerations of data presentation (coding and project segmentation) are the same as in Case Study: Part I and are not repeated here.

Findings related to RQ5

Since there are dialogic approaches applying to the case study, as evinced in the answers to RQ4, this part discusses their functioning. All the discussions of answers to RQ5 will draw on rules mentioned in the Dialogic Approach section of the Discussion in Chapter VI. In order to answer RQ5, I will go back to the theoretical base for the case study. Among the five important elements drawn from the theoretical base, the first four have been discussed in detail in Chapter VI, and the fifth – the result of reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction, or the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity or true consensus – will now be discussed.

As dialogic approaches have been found in the case study, the results of these dialogic approaches will be essential to examine in the answers for RQ5 – following a deductive

¹⁶ The concept of "dialogic approach" in this thesis was developed basing on the study of Habermas, Bubner and other scholars (Bubner, 1982; Habermas, 1972). See Dialogic approach section of Chapter II above for more information and references.

method of analysis. Despite the results mentioned in the fifth condition above, other parts of the answer for how the dialogic approaches function will arise from the data in an inductive way.

Regarding the data mentioned earlier, the code of the data for discussion, together with all the data related to the dialogic approaches in Preparation, Event and Post-Event Stages will be displayed below. These data can all be found in Table 6-14 in Chapter VI.

Interview data

Preparation stage

(O1-4), (O2-3), (I1-2), (I1-3), (I2-1), (I3-2), (I4-4), (I4-5), (I7-2), (I8-2), (I11-1), (I12-2), (I13-2), (I14-1)

Event stage

(O1-5), (S1-5), (S1-7), (S2-5), (S2-6), (I2-2), (I5-2), (I6-3), (I7-4), (I8-4), (I8-5), (I10-5), (I10-6), (I10-8), (I11-2), (I12-3), (I13-3), (I13-5), (I14-2)

Post-event stage

(O1-6), (S1-7), (S2-8), (I1-6), (I3-4), (I3-6), (I4-3), (I5-3), (I7-3), (I8-6), (I11-3), (I13-4), (I14-3)

Participant observation data

Event stage

(N5), (N1), (N3), (N17), (N13), (N12), (N14), (N6), (N4), (N16)

Post-event stage

(N15)

Discussion

To discuss the process unfolding in dialogic approaches – in order to describe their functioning – the data above have been carefully read. As they are all dialogic approaches, they have already met the four necessary conditions of: first, non-authoritarian communication; second, non-purposive communication; third, communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act; fourth, the subjects establishing interpersonal relations in verbal or extra-verbal ways.

The following descriptions of dialogic approaches will take communications between two subjects as a basic communication model, following the fourth condition. Although there are

communications among more than two people (which conforms to the third condition), unless the third or fourth or fifth person is closely related to the two main subjects of the communication, they will be treated as subjects of a separate communication process other than this one in the analysis. The reason for taking two subjects as the main composition of those dialogic approaches is that it could provide basic models of the communication process of dialogic approaches; and other processes will be similar to, or a repetition of, the most basic process. For instance, each of the two speakers was interacting with more than 10 people simultaneously after the panel (N4). Unless another person was actively involved in their communication and affected the relationship between them, the communications would be treated as more than 20 communication processes having happened between one speaker and one participant separately.

Based on the data in the Findings above, the process of dialogic approaches of this case study could be described as in Graph 7-1 below, including the relationships between the subjects of the communication process and the results from the process. The results include the consequence of reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction, or the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity, or true consensus – being the fifth condition drawn from the theoretical base of the “dialogic approach”. These results will partly explain how the dialogic approaches function.

In detail, the result can be tri-segmented as:

1. Result of reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction

Some scholars mention “...social actors achieve common, shared ... apprehension of the social world...” when mentioning the understanding of “mutual understanding” (Vanderveken & Kubo, 2001, P122). Based on this description, this result refers to the subjects of the interaction achieving common apprehension of the situation and the content of the interaction.

2. Result of the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity

Some scholars regard “reciprocal” in English as a pronoun of “each other” (Nedjalkov, Geniusiene, & Guentchéva, 2007, P XVIII); “ego-identity” refers to “the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction (Loue & Sajatovic, 2008 p453)”, or:

“The awareness of the fact that there is a self-sameness and continuity to the ego’s synthesizing methods, the style of one’s individuality, and that this style

coincides with the sameness and continuity of one's meaning for significant others in the immediate community (Erikson, 1968, p. 50)"

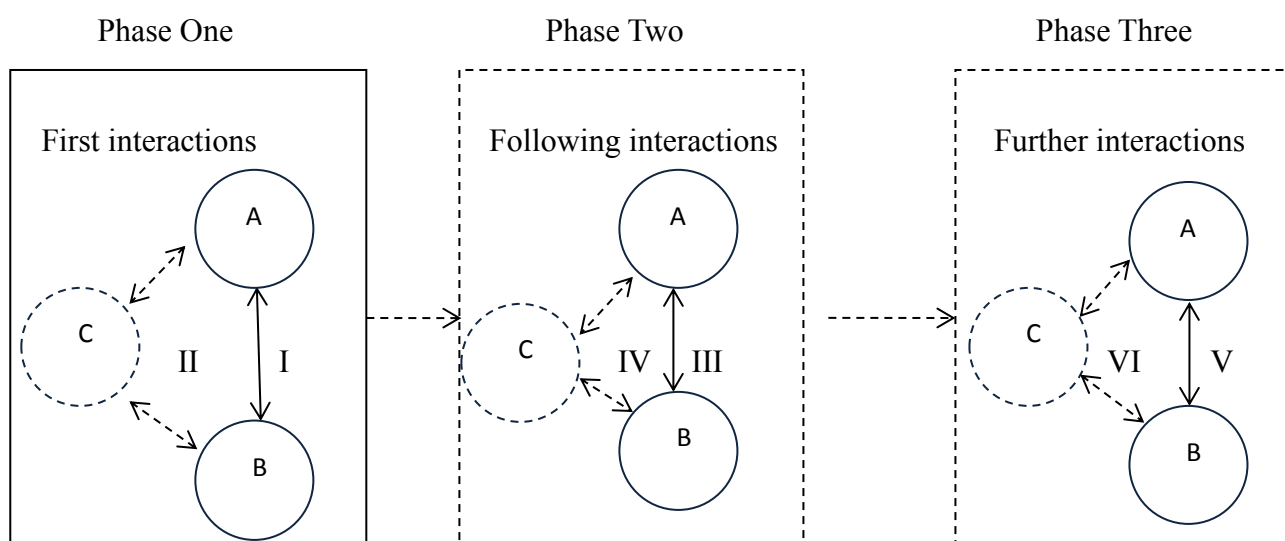
Considering all the key words and regarding the situation of the case study in the research, this result meets the model of achieving one subject's conscious sense of self by the perceptions of all subjects involved in the interactions.

3. Result of true consensus

Some scholars mention that true consensus should be “founded on truth, rightness...”, and that consensus “involves a voluntary agreement which can be reached rationally only if principles are established to which all could willingly consent” (King, 2012, p211); consensus could also refer to “a cooperative process in which all group members develop and agree to support a decision that is in the best interest of the whole (Dressler, 2009, p. 1)”. Based on the meanings above, “true consensus” in this thesis refers to true and voluntary agreement reached rationally and collectively among the subjects involved in the interactions that is in the best interest of the whole.

The graph below shows the basic model of the process of dialogic approaches in this case study. The following discussions will be based on this graph and the relevant data phase-by-phase, so as to answer RQ5. The results will be discussed in a deductive way while other processes will take an inductive approach.

Graph 7-1: Dialogic approach process



I, III and V refer to communications between Subject A and Subject B, while II, IV and VI refer to communications among subjects A, B and C. The dotted lines refer to situations that may or may not exist.

In all the discussions below, wherever “first interactions”, “following interactions”, and “further interactions” are used, they refer to the content of Phases One, Two and Three, as shown in Graph 7-1.

Phase One: first interactions

The dialogic approaches in the case study could be tri-segmented into phases. The first phase of initial interactions between subjects existed in various forms. Phase Two and Phase Three may or may not exist depending on the situation; this will be discussed later in detail. In this section, the process and results of interactions between subjects in Phase One will be discussed based on the data listed in the Findings above.

The communication process of the dialogic approaches can be divided into two kinds in Phase One: communication that only involved Subjects A and B, and communication involving C presenting aside when Subjects A and B were interacting. Also, the communication processes of those dialogic approaches are better described as a whole, so as to present a clear picture of the relationship among subjects.

Subject A: Subject A refers to the person who initiates a dialogic approach, and undertakes the first communication action during the whole communication process. Subject A will remain the same throughout the discussion of three phases of dialogic approaches. Subject A usually refers to the interviewees who describe their communication process with others using first-person expressions and active voice. However, who is Subject A ultimately depends on the role that the person plays in the communication process.

Subject B: Subject B refers to the person who plays the role of object in the communication process, responding to the agent person (Subject A mentioned above). Subject B remains the same throughout discussions of three phases for one specific dialogic approach.

Subject C: Subject C refers to the people or person who connect(s) Subject A and B, who play(s) a certain role in dialogic communication processes between Subjects A and B. This category may or may not exist, depending on the situation. The existence of Subject C is only as a connection, so as to help explore the communication process between A and B. Moreover, the communication process between Subjects A and C or Subjects B and C may or may not be dialogic in nature. Subject C may also exist throughout the three phases within dialogic approaches due to his or her special relationship with Subject A or B, or both.

Process I

Subject A started the communication process with Subject B through different communication methods for a particular reason; with Subject B responding to Subject A as a result. The following are four situations where first interactions took place between Subjects A and B.

1. Event participation decision

Subject A wanted to let Subject B know about an event, to invite subject B to an event or to discuss the event with Subject B – in this case at the preparation stage – using social media, email, phone, a face- to-face lunch meeting, a catch up, or other method (O1-4, O2-3, I3-2, I4-4, I4-5, I7-2, I8-2, I11-1, I12-2, I13-2, I14-1).

The responses by Subject B to Subject A on the invitation, information or discussion were: getting involved in the discussion started by Subject A face-to-face (I3-2); indicating the event was interesting or beneficial (I4-4, I4-5, I13-2); mentioning the possibility of participating in the event, which may or may not lead to going to the event (I7-2); simply replying to an email or messages on social media (I12-2, I13-2); checking relevant information online or on social media (I13-2); sending a RSVP email (O2-3, I12-2, I13-2); going to the event (O1-4, I4-4, I8-2, I11-1, I13-2, I14-1). As all the interviewees participated in the event, their participation could be regarded as a result of their interaction with subject A, as long as indicated by the data – no matter whether directly mentioned or not in the data.

2. Knowing about the host organisation

Subject A wanted to recommend that Subject B become a member of the host organisation of this event or simply wanted to tell Subject B about the host organisation face-to-face or in other ways (I1-2, I2-1). Subject B checked the website online or directly joined the host organisation online after recommendation by subject A (I1-3, I2-1).

3. Event organising work

Subject A communicated with Subject B who had an existing relationship with subject A (O1-5, S1-5, and S2-5). They work together to organise the event (O1-5, N5, S2-5, N2). It ended up in exchanging ideas about the event (I10-8) or learning about work to do in the event (S2-5).

4. Social interactions

Subject A and Subject B – who may or may not have previous connections, and were familiar with certain matters such as the event, the host organisation and others communicated during the event. They interacted after making eye contact, talking, exchanging business cards or using social media (I1-6, I4-3, I5-2, I8-4, I10-6, I11-2, I11-3, I12-3, I13-3, I13-5, I14-3, N16, and N6).

These resulted in not feeling interested (I6-3); not much result other than further information exchange (O1-5, N5, I2-2, N1, S2-5, I14-2); just engaging in communication (I13-5); some interest without much communication (I13-3); new connections and exposure (I5-2, I8-4, I11-2); further communication by ways such as email or coffee (I8-4, I11-2, I11-3, I12-3); attendance of a later event held by the organisation (I11-2).

To sum up, Process I refers to first interactions between Subjects A and B in the case study. Basically, it can be divided into five steps:

Step one, history of relationship between Subjects A and B. Subjects could be longtime friends or strangers meeting for the first time (I2-1, S1-5).

Step two, the stimulus for communication between Subjects A and B. The reason could be that subject A wanted to share with B the information s/he had about the event (O1-4), or Subjects A and B simply happened to meet (I4-4).

Step three, communication between Subjects A and B. The process could be Subject A starting communicating and B responding by making eye contact, talking face-to-face (I1-2), exchanging business cards (I14-3), calling (I8-2), emailing or contacting online using social media (I7-2), etc.

Step four, the result of communication. It could be reaching mutual understanding about the event (I10-8), the host organisation (I3-1) or other topics.

Step five, further outcomes could include Subject B checking the relevant information (I1-3); joining the organisation after getting information from Subject A (I2-1); a better acquaintance developing between A and B after their initial social interaction, which may lead to later interactions (S2-5); a favorable impression about the event and the host organisation forming in Subject B's mind after positive social interaction between A and B (I10-8). The results

could also lead to nothing more than mutual understanding (I2-2).

Process II

This is a group of dialogic approaches that occurs in Phase One, involving a third subject, C. As mentioned earlier, Subject C should play a special role in the communication process. The explanation here would be the interactions among Subjects A, B and C, when Subject C played different roles.

1. Social interactions

a. Subject C Introduced by and to a Main Subject

Subject A, who may have known B and/or C for a long or short time (S1-5, I14-2), introduced Subject C to Subject B after Subject A had engaged in communication with Subject C (S1-5, S2-5) or B (I14-2).

Communication between Subjects A and B could happen later during the event (S1-7); communication between B and C would be very brief, like greetings (I14-2); there may only be greetings between A and C (I14-2); interactions involving all of them may happen later (S1-7, S2-5).

b. Subject C as middle person

Subject A was introduced to Subject B by Subject C (S2-5, I14-2). It resulted in everybody engaging in communication (I14-2); A and B getting to know each other better and making a new connection (S2-5, I14-2).

c. Subject C present on the side

Subject A communicated with Subject B by talking, listening or exchanging business cards during the event, with subject C being present (I8-5, I14-3). It resulted in Subjects A, B and C getting on well with each other, and going out for a drink (I8-5) or being contacted by emails later (I14-3).

2. Informal Q & A

Subject A communicated with Subject B by asking and answering questions not asked in the Q & A session earlier, with Subject C being present (S2-6, I5-2, I6-3, I7-4, N17, N4, and N6). Subject C may not join the interaction (S2-6, I5-2, I6-3, I7-4, N17, N4,

and N6).

The result could be: A, B and C knew each other and a particular topic better (S2-6, I5-2, I7-4); C may not have become involved, and found the communication uninteresting in the end (I5-2, I6-3); if interested, C may find the communication engaging (I7-4).

In summary, in this process, the first interactions among Subjects A, B and C were discussed. The main subjects of the communication were still Subjects A and B. C here could refer to one or more than one person. The process can also be divided into five steps:

Step one, relationship history among subjects A, B and C. 1. At least two of the subjects did not know each other previously so that introduction by one person to the other could take place, and the relationship between those who knew each other before could be long or short (S1-5); 2, having previous relationships or not among subjects A, B or C, communication could take place anyway (I14-2, I14-3).

Step two, why did the communication happen? The third subject showed up or stood alongside while Subjects A and B were talking, and the mutual friends would help introduce each other (S1-5). Communication among the three thus took place. Other communications could just happen naturally due to subjects' participation in the event (I14-3).

Step three, communication among A, B and C. Social interaction happened among Subjects A, B and C after introduction, mainly greetings, introducing personal backgrounds or discussions on certain topics face-to-face (S1-5).

Step four, result of the communication among A, B and C. The result was mutual understanding between or among the subjects on the situation that they were meeting old and new friends in a social occasion, or about certain topics they discussed (I14-2, I8-5).

Step five, further outcomes of the result for the subjects. There could be better understanding about certain topics (S2-6), further communication (I14-3), found the communication engaging (I7-4), exchanged contact information (I5-2) or not found the communication interesting (I6-3).

Phase One Summary

To sum up, in Phase One, various kinds of first interaction happened between only two of the

subjects, A and B, or three subjects, A, B and C. Those interactions could be divided into five steps: history of relationships between the subjects of first interactions of dialogic approaches; the reason that led to the communication; the communications that happened between subjects; the result of reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of interactions; further outcomes that may lead to following interactions. Table 7-1 below describes the situations of interactions that happened in Phase One; while Table 7-2 displays the result of communications that happened in Phase One.

Table 7-1 Situations of interactions in Phase One		
Processes Situations	Process I	Process II
Situations of interactions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Event Participation Decision 2. Know of Host Organisation 3. Event Organising Work 4. Social Interactions 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Social interactions 2. Informal Q & A

Table 7-2 Result of interactions in Phase One		
Result Processes	Result of interactions	Further outcomes
Process I	Reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Attendance at event 2. Subject joined host organisation 3. Subject checked relevant information 4. New connections made 5. Further communication
	Not much result	N/A
Process II	Reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Possible later interactions 2. New connections made 3. Engaging in communication 4. Later communications 5. Knowledge about certain topic 6. Find communication uninteresting

Phase Two: following interactions

Only dialogic Phase Two interactions are selected, despite there being many non-dialogic interactions – in Phase One and Phase Two as well as in between them – and treated as a phase-by-phase analysis to see how far they go and what kind of process or result crystalises.

As mentioned in Phase One, the first interactions between subjects may lead to following interactions in Phase Two (see Graph 7-1). If so, the following interactions, which have a positive influence on the relationship between the subjects of the dialogic approaches, would happen. The discussions below are based on the existence of the following interactions, which is not always the case. Also, similar to Phase One, the following interaction is divided into process III having happened between Subjects A and B, and process IV among Subjects A, B and C. The discussions below include different situations of Process III and Process IV, and the relationship between the processes in Phase Two and Phase One.

Process III

After first interactions in Phase One, the following interactions happened naturally as a result of Phase One between Subjects A and B. And the previous interactions were coded following the process number, such as “Process I”, dash “-”, and ordinal number for certain interaction kind in that process like “1”, dash “-”, and the sub-ordinal number if any. For instance, the first item of the first kind of dialogic approach in process I in Phase One was coded as “Process I-1-1”. The coding is for the convenience of later analysis. Also the process below was based on the descriptions and the original data.

1. In some communications, Subject A and Subject B had a longer relationship.
 - a. Ideas exchanged on event

Subjects A and B exchanged ideas on the event after gaining information about it (Process I-2) in the preparation stage (I1-3).

According to Process I-2, Process III-1-a, I1-2, I1-3 and O1-9, the relation between Process I-2 in Phase One and Process III-1-a in Phase Two is:

In Process I-2, being a member of the host organisation of the event, Subject A told Subject B about the organisation, and Subject B joined as a result. Both being members, Subjects A and B received an email flyer on the event. Therefore in Process III-1-a, Subjects A and B exchanged ideas on the event

after learning about it. Here Process I-2 in Phase One is a reason for Process III-1-a in Phase Two.

b. Participation issue

Subjects A and B could communicate again to confirm whether going together or not to the event after Subject A invited B (Process I-1), which may result in one or both of them participating in the event (I4-4, I4-5, I12-2).

According to Process I-1, Process III-1-b, I4-4, I4-5 and I12-2, the relation between Process I-1 in Phase One and Process III-1-b in Phase Two is:

In Process I-1, Subject A invited Subject B face-to-face and/or through email, and Subject B responded to the invitation accordingly. In Process III-1-b, Subject A or B was contacted again to inform the other subject that s/he could not go to the event due to work arrangements. Here Process I-1 is the cause of Process III-1-b.

c. Follow-up info sharing

Subject A could have forwarded the information about the event to Subject B using email, social media, or face-to-face after discussion in first interactions related to the event (Process I-1). This resulted in subject B checking their email and social media, replying or not, going to the event or not, for various reasons (I4-5, I13-2).

According to Process I-1, Process III-1-c, I4-5 and I 13-2, the relationship between Process I-1 in Phase One and Process III-1-c in Phase Two is:

In Process I-1, Subject A invited B to the event using email, face-to-face or social media, and Subject B responded accordingly. In Process III-1-c, Subject A forwarded detailed information on the event to Subject B, thus Subject B knew more about the event. Here Process III-1-c in Phase Two is a follow-up of Process I-1 in Phase One.

d. Social interaction at event

Subject A and B communicated on the event day as Subject B went to the event due to an invitation (Process I-1) from subject A (I13-2);

According to Process I-1, Process III-1-d and I 13-2, the relationship between Process I-1 in Phase One and Process III-1-d in Phase Two is:

In Process I-1, Subject A invited B to the event using email and social media, and Subject B replied on social media. In Process III-1-d, both Subjects A and B participated in the event and communicated at the venue. Here Process I-1 in Phase One is a reason for Process III-1-d in Phase Two, and Process III-1-d in Phase Two is a result of Process I-1 in Phase One, so their relationship is cause and effect.

e. Connection maintenance

Subjects A and B, who had a long relationship, had interactions like coffee or drinks, or email after the event, following their first interactions (Process II-1-a, Process I-4) during or after the event (S1-7, I14-3, I4-3). This was a good way to strengthen their existing relationship (S1-7, I14-3).

According to Process II-1-a, Process III-1-e, S1-5 and S1-7, the relationship between Process II-1-a in Phase One and Process III-1-e in Phase Two is:

In Process II-1-a, Subject A, who knew Subject B and C before the event, was talking to Subject C when Subject B showed up. Therefore Subject A introduced Subject C to B, and interactions happened among them after that. In Process III-1-e, Subjects A and B went out for coffee after the event and interacted for some time. Here Process II-1-a and Process III-1-e is related in terms of Subjects A and B having a long relationship, and thus had first and following interactions in the event.

According to Process I-4, Process III-1-e, I14-3 and I4-3, the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-1-e in Phase Two is:

In Process I-4, Subjects A and B, who already knew each other or discovered their relationship during the event, interacted face-to-face. In Process III-1-e, Subjects A and B communicated again by email after the event to maintain contact. Here the relationship between Process III-1-e in Phase Two and Process I-4 in Phase One is cause and effect.

f. Brief interactions during panel

After their first interactions (Process I-4), Subject A and Subject B interacted on things they found worth communicating about during the event by talking, head-nodding, smiling and other ways (N13, N12, N14). This resulted in agreement on certain points of view (N13, N12, and N14).

According to Process I-4, Process III-1-f, N12, N13 and N14, the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-1-f in Phase Two is:

In Process I-4, people communicated with those they knew before, face-to-face. In Process III-1-f, all those communications happened during the panel between Subjects A and B who sat or stood side-by-side; as it was during the panel when speakers were talking and audience were listening, therefore communication between subjects were brief and quick. Process I-4 and Process III-1-f are related in terms of Subjects A and B knowing each other before the event, and thus they would have first and following interactions in the event.

2. In other communications, Subjects A and B had newly met for their first interactions.

a. Connection maintenance

Subjects A and B communicated using email, social media like adding one person, messaging, or face-to-face after the event following the exchange of their contact information in their first interactions (Process I-4, Process II-2) during the event (S2-8, I1-6, I4-3, I5-3, I14-3). This was a follow-up right after the event for maintaining new connections, networks or acquaintances (S2-8, I1-6, I4-3, and I5-3). It may lead to further communication in the near future (I1-6, I5-3, I14-3), which may or may not happen, for different reasons (I14-3).

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-a, I1-6, I4-3, I5-2, I5-3 and I14-3, the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-a in Phase Two is:

In Process I-4, the subjects communicated and exchanged business cards or kept in contact on social media. In Process III-2-a, the subjects then used email and social media to communicate or interacted face-to-face following the contact information exchanged earlier. Here the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and the Process III-2-a in Phase Two is cause and effect.

According to Process II-2, Process III-2-a, S2-6 and S2-8, the relationship between Process II-2 in Phase One and Process III-2-a in Phase Two is:

In Process II-2, Subject A gave Subjects B and C business cards. In Process III-2-a, Subject B contacted A using email. Here Process III-2-a in Phase Two is the result of Process II-2 in Phase One, and the relationship between the two processes is cause and effect.

b. Social communication during event

Subjects A and B communicated at the end of the event after their interaction (Process I-3, Process I-4) at the beginning of the event (S2-6, I10-6, S1-7). This could be a way to be courteous and give each other a better impression than if the communication was only a brief greeting (S2-6), or exchanging ideas related to the event and reaching agreement on impressions of the event (I10-6), or other topics worth communicating (S2-6), or making an appointment for further interactions (S1-7).

According to Process I-3, Process III-2-b, S2-5, S1-5 N3, S1-7 and S2-6, the relationship between Process I-3 in Phase One and Process III-2-b in Phase Two is:

In Process I-3, Subjects A and B communicated due to their working together at the beginning of the event. In Process III-2-b, Subjects A and B interacted again, saying good-bye and making an appointment for a later meeting. Here Process I-3 in Phase One and Process III-2-b in Phase Two are related in terms of Subjects A and B having a temporary working relationship during the event, and thus would have first and following interactions in the event.

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-b, I10-6, the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-b in Phase Two is:

In Process I-4, the subjects newly met communicated on various topics at the beginning of the event. In Process III-2-b, those subjects interacted again and agreed on the view that the event was very good. Here Process I-4 in Phase One is a reason for Process III-2-b in Phase Two.

c. Problem solving

Subjects A and B communicated again by phone and email on issues raised in the previous communication (Process I-4) (I8-5, I8-6), resulting in the issue being resolved (I8-5).

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-c, I8-4, I8-5 and I8-6, the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-c in Phase Two is:

In Process I-4, Subjects A and B communicated during the event while one issue arose from the conversation. In Process III-2-c, the issue was addressed by further phone calls and emails between Subjects A and B. Here the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-c in Phase Two is cause and effect.

d. Brief interactions during the panel

Subjects A and B interacted on things they found worth communicating on during the event, after their first interactions (Process I-4), by talking, head-nodding and smiling (N13, N12, and N14). This could result in agreement on certain points of view (N13, N12, and N14). (The only difference between Process III-1-f and Process III-2-d is whether or not subjects had a long relationship.)

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-d, N12, N13 and N14, the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-d in Phase Two is:

In Process I-4, people who newly met communicated with each other face-to-face. In Process III-2-d, all those communications happened during the panel between Subjects A and B, who sat or stood side-by-side; as it was during the panel when speakers were talking and audience were listening, the communications between subjects were brief and quick. Process I-4 is the reason for Subjects A and B to sit together in Process III-2-d.

e. Future catch-up

Subjects A and B may communicate again for a coffee or catch-up following their first interaction (Process I-4) which revealed that they had a common

friend (I11-3).

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-e and I11-3, the relationship between Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-e in Phase Two is:

In Process I-4, Subjects A and B who had newly met and communicated, discovering they have a common friend. In Process III-2-e, Subjects A and B expressed a strong interest in having coffee together after the event. Here Process I-4 in Phase One is a reason for Process III-2-e in Phase Two.

As a result, in this process, the communications mainly happened between Subjects A and B after their first interaction, which could be divided into several steps:

Step one, history of relationship between Subjects A and B. Some subjects knew each other before and had first interactions like sharing information on the event (I1-3), invitation (I4-4, I13-2), and social conversations (N13), which could lead to the following interactions. Meanwhile, the first interactions for those newly met at the event in Phase One could be: certain issues could arise when subjects working in similar fields met (I8-5); both subjects knew each other briefly (I10-6); found out that they had a mutual friend (I11-3); exchanged contact information (I14-3).

Step two, there are various reasons for the communications to take place. The reasons could include an invitation from one subject (I4-4), topic of mutual interest (N13), previous contact information exchange (I14-3) and other interactions during the event (I10-6).

Step three, communication between subjects A and B by way of conversation face-to-face, email (I4-5), phone calls (I8-5), coffee (S1-7), smiling, head-nodding, eye-contact (N12), and social media (I5-3). Their communication could be discussion or interaction related to the event (I1-3) or other topics and issues, after both subjects learned of the event (I1-3), or after one inviting the other (I4-5), or after something interesting/important occurring earlier (N13), or after meeting for the first time at the event (I10-6).

Step four, the results were: reaching mutual understanding on the content of the interaction (I4-4), reciprocally constituted ego identity after interaction during the event (S2-6), and consensus on certain topics (I4-5).

Step five, further outcomes of the results. The outcome could be: people going to the event together, separately or alone (I4-4, I12-2); becoming better acquainted and understanding

each other or themselves better (S2-6); reaching agreement on certain topics (N12); further communications in near future (S1-7); solving problems (I8-5); no results, but understanding.

This process contains the following interactions after the first ones. Having a longer term relationship or not between the subjects doesn't count that much, but would still affect the result of the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity. The reason is that those who know each other for longer could talk directly about interesting and meaningful topics instead of greetings and personal backgrounds, which would help achieve the result more easily. But it's not always the case, as there are some clever and knowledgeable people whose conversation could easily impress others in first interactions.

Also, during this process, the result of reaching mutual understanding would happen in the first place, and the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity, as well as consensus might be achieved thereafter. The reason is that, for the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity, one's conscious sense of self would come from the perceptions of both subjects, out of their interactions. Only those perceptions consciously or unconsciously accepted by the subject could help shape the ego identity. Moreover, for consensus, only people, who have an understanding of what they are talking about, could move on to reach consensus on certain viewpoints. Therefore, mutual understanding would occur firstly, which may or may not follow the model of reciprocally constituted ego identity.

The relationships between phases will be summarised later.

Process IV

Similar to Process II in Phase One, the explanation of Process IV will focus on the interactions among Subjects A, B and C.

- Follow-up social communication

After first their interactions (Process II-1-c, Process II-1-a), Subjects A and B communicated during coffee or drinks together after the event, with Subject C also present. The interactions among A, B and C resulted in A, B and C becoming better acquainted and knowing each other better (I8-5, I3-4, N15, I7-3, I8-6, S1-7), exchanging information for further contact (I7-3), and having in-depth reflections on certain topics (I3-4).

According to Process II-1-c, Process IV-1, I3-4, I8-5, I7-3, I8-6, N4, N15, the

relationship between Process II-1-c in Phase One and Process IV-1 in Phase Two is:

In Process II-1-c, Subjects A and B communicated, with C standing beside them. In Process IV-1, Subjects A, B and C had coffee together right after the event. Here Process II-1-c in Phase One is the cause for Process IV-1 in Phase Two.

According to Process II-1-a, Process IV-1, S1-5 and S1-7, the relationship between Process II-1-a in Phase One and Process IV-1 in Phase Two is:

In Process II-1-a, Subjects A, B and C communicated due to working together for the event. Their relationships were: Subject C knew both A and B before the event, and Subjects A and B knew each other well long before. In Process IV-1, Subjects A and B communicated again at the end of event to greet and make an appointment for a dinner after the event, with C standing alongside. Process II-1-a in Phase One and Process IV-1 in Phase Two are relative in the way that Subjects A and B who knew each other well before had temporary working relations during the event, and thus had first and following interactions during the event.

To sum up, the following interactions of more than two subjects – a very important part of Phase Two – can be divided into several steps.

Step one, relationship history among Subjects A, B and C. All the subjects communicated on the event or other topics before or during the event (I8-5, S1-5).

Step two, reason for communication among Subjects A, B and C was the previous social interaction during the event (I8-5).

Step three, communications among Subjects A, B and C. All the subjects communicated again face-to-face at the end of, or after, the event (I3-4, I7-3, and S1-7).

Step four, the results were: reaching mutual understanding of the situation and content of interactions (I8-5, S1-7); model of reciprocally constituted ego identity gained from, and affected by, understanding of the other subject and mutual understanding of certain topics (I8-5, I3-4).

Step five, following outcomes of the results. The outcome was Subjects A, B and C knew each other better (I7-3); contact information was exchanged for further connections (I7-3).

The relationships between phases will be summarised later.

Phase Two summary

As interactions in Phase Two were following communications after first interactions between or among people, people would not only reach mutual understanding on certain things, but also achieve a model of reciprocally constituted ego identity during the longer and more in-depth interactions, and could reach agreement or consensus as well. All those could lead to better acquaintance, better understanding of oneself and better understanding of certain topics. Table 7-3 below summarises the situations of interactions in Phase Two.

Table 7-3 Situations of interactions in Phase Two		
Processes Situations	Process III	Process IV
Situations of interactions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. For subjects with longer relationship: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Ideas exchanged on event b. Participation issue c. Follow up info sharing d. Social interactions at event e. Connection maintenance f. Brief interactions during panel 2. For subjects newly met <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Connection maintenance b. Social communication during event c. Problem solving d. Brief interactions during panel e. Future catch up 	Follow-up social communication

Meanwhile, Table 7-4 below gives a general idea of the results of interactions in Phase Two.

Table 7-4 Result of interactions in Phase Two		
Result Processes	Result of interactions	Further outcomes
Process III	Reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Subject's response to received information 2. Relationship strengthened 3. Agreement on certain view point 4. Possible future networking 5. Appointment for future interactions 6. Problem solved
	Reciprocally constituted ego identity after interactions during the event	N/A
	Consensus on certain topic	Either or all subjects' attendance at event
Process IV	Reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction	Possible further contact
	Reciprocally constituted ego identity after interactions during the event	Further social interactions
N/A=Not Applicable		

As the relationship of processes in Phase One and Two were also discussed in detail, Table 7-5 below summarises the types of relationship mentioned above.

Table 7-5 Relationship between processes in Phase One and Phase Two	
Process Relation	Phase One & Phase Two
Reason	Process I-2 & Process III-1-a; Process I-1 & Process III-1-b; Process I-4 & Process III-2-b; Process I-4 & Process III-2-d; Process I-4 & Process III-2-e; Process II-1-c & Process IV-1
Related	Process II-1-a & Process III-1-e; Process I-4 & Process III-1-f; Process II-1-a & Process IV-1
Follow-up	Process III-1-c & Process I-1
Cause and effect	Process I-1 & Process III-1-d; Process I-4 & Process III-1-e; Process I-4 & Process III-2-a; Process II-2 & Process III-2-a; Process I-4 & Process III-2-c

Between the processes connected by “&” in Table 7-5, the former process is the “reason” or “follow-up” of the latter; or the former and the latter processes have “related” or “cause and effect” relationship. For instance, between the first groups of processes above in the “reason” row, Process I-2 is the reason for Process III-1-a.

Phase Two contains those dialogic approaches following the first interactions during the event. Notably, not all the following interactions of the first interactions were dialogic approaches, and those not dialogic ones were not discussed in this thesis. Also, there might be communications between the first and following interactions mentioned in the thesis, which were not dialogic approaches. Moreover, not all the first interactions had following interactions, as some first interactions just stopped there and led nowhere in this case study. Therefore, Phase Two does, (but doesn’t necessarily have to) exist in a grassroots public diplomacy case, and could (but does not necessarily have to) be a result of Phase One.

Phase Three: further interactions

There may or may not be further interactions between subjects of dialogic approaches after the following interactions of first interactions (see Graph 7-1). This Phase Three of the communication process in the event could indicate a possibility of long-term relationship. The situations also differ according to the data.

On the whole, the data would also be divided into those dialogic approaches happened between subjects A and B – Process V, and those involving a third subject C – Process VI.

Process V

After the first and following interactions mentioned above, further interactions between Subjects A and B will be discussed here.

1. Getting feedback

Subject A communicated with Subject B face-to-face, by email or phone calls after the event for feedbacks or other things of interest after their first (Process I-3) and following interactions (Process III-2-b), resulting in maintenance of the relationship between them (O1-6).

According to Process I-3, Process III-2-b, ProcessV-1, S2-5, S2-6 and O1-6 the relationship among Process I-3 in Phase One, Process III-2-b in Phase Two and Process V-1 in Phase Three is:

As mentioned earlier in Process III-2-b, Subjects A and B communicated due to working together at the beginning of the event in Process I-3; in Process III-2-b, Subjects A and B interacted again to say good-bye. Also in ProcessV-1, Subjects A and B interacted by email after the event for feedback and maintaining their acquaintance. Process I-3 in Phase One, Process III-2-b in Phase Two and Process V-1 in Phase Three are related, as Subjects A and B, who knew each other before, had temporary working relations during the event, and thus had first, following and further interactions during and after the event.

2. Possible further cooperation

After their first interactions (Process I-4) that enabled both sides to know each other better and see the possibility of cooperation, and the following interaction (Process III-2-a) in another occasion that helped them know more about each other, Subjects A and B could have further cooperation in their neutral working area (I1-6). But first and following interactions may not necessarily be the direct reason for their further interaction.

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-a, Process V-2, I1-6, I4-3, I5-2, I5-3 and I14-3, the relationship among Process I-4 in Phase One, Process III-2-a in Phase Two and Process V-2 in Phase Three is:

As mentioned in Process III-2-a, the subjects communicated and exchanged business cards or kept in contact on social media in Process I-4; in Process III-2-1, the subjects then communicated using email, social media or face-to-face. In Process V-2, Subjects A and B could cooperate at work due to earlier interactions. Process I-4 is the cause for Process V-2, and Process III-2-1 is the result of Process I-4. Therefore, Process I-4 in Phase One leads to Process III-2-a in Phase Two and Process V-2 in Phase Three. Moreover, as both Process I-4 and Process III-2-a helped Subjects A and B know each other better, which could lead to their cooperation at work, Process V-2 in Phase Three is a result of both Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-a in Phase Two.

3. Connection maintenance

Subjects A and B communicated on social media and text message after their first (Process II-1-c) and following interactions (Process IV-1), to maintaining contact (I7-3, I8-6) and possible long-term connections (I3-4).

According to Process II-1-c, Process IV-1, and Process V-3, I3-4, I8-5, I7-3, I8-6, N4, N15, the relationship among Process II-1-c in Phase One, Process IV-1 in Phase Two and Process V-3 in Phase Three is:

As mentioned earlier in Process IV-1, Subjects A and B were communicating, with C standing alongside in Process II-1-c; in Process IV-1, Subjects A, B and C had coffee together right after the event. Also in Process V-3, Subjects A and B communicated on social media and text message to maintain contact after the event. Process II-1-c in Phase One is the cause for Process IV-1 in Phase Two. Process IV-1 in Phase Two could be the cause for Process V-3 in Phase Three due to the subjects' exchanging contact information. Therefore, Process V-3 in Phase Three is a result accumulated from Process II-1-c in Phase One and Process IV-1 in Phase Two.

4. Possible future networking

After first (Process I-4) and following communications (Process III-2-a), Subjects A and B may communicate face-to-face, like a coffee in the future to maintaining contact (I5-3).

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-a, Process V-4, I5-2 and I5-3, the relationship among Process I-4 in Phase One, Process III-2-a in Phase Two and Process V-4 in Phase Three is:

As mentioned in Process III-2-a, the subjects communicated and exchanged business cards or kept in contact on social media in Process I-4. In Process III-2-1, the subjects then communicated face-to-face, by email and social media. In Process V-4, Subjects A and B could meet up again for coffee later. Process V-4 in Phase Three is an accumulated result of Process I-4 in Phase One and Process III-2-a in Phase Two.

In summary, in this process, further interactions between subject A and B were discussed, which could be divided again into five steps:

Step one, relationship history between Subjects A and B. Subjects A and B had already had good relations or understanding of each other after their first and following interactions (I5-3).

Step two, reasons for further interaction between Subjects A and B. The reason could be that both subjects found mutual interest or possible fields of cooperation in earlier communications (I1-6).

Step three, communication between Subjects A and B on certain things of interest, face-to-face, by email (O1-6), phone calls and social media (I8-6). It could be about feedback or other topics (O1-6), something to cooperate on (I1-6), or purely social interactions (I5-3).

Step four, results: mutual understanding of the situation and content of interaction between Subjects A and B (O1-6).

Step five, further outcomes of the result, like better relationships between subjects (I7-3) or further cooperation (I1-6).

The relationships between phases will be summarised later.

Process VI

Again, similar to Phase One and two, the explanation of Process VI will focus on the interactions among Subjects A, B and C.

1. Possible future networking

Subjects A and B, together with C, may meet up again later following their first interactions during the event (Process II-2, Process I-4) and following interactions right after the event (Process IV-1, Process III-2-a). This could be due to previous appointments (I1-6), or just for catch-ups and longer term relations (I7-3). It may

result in subjects A, B and C becoming better acquainted.

According to Process II-1-c, Process IV-1, and Process VI-1, I3-4, I8-5, I7-3, I8-6, N4, N15, the relationship among Process II-1-c in Phase One, Process IV-1 in Phase Two and Process VI-1 in Phase Three is:

As mentioned earlier in Process IV-1, Subjects A and B were communicating with C standing alongside in Process II-1-c. In Process IV-1, Subjects A, B and C had coffee together right after the event. Also in Process VI-1, Subjects A, B and C may meet up again later. Process II-1-c in Phase One is the cause for Process IV-1 in Phase Two; Process VI-1 in Phase Three is an accumulated result of Process II-1-c in Phase One and Process IV-1 in Phase Two.

According to Process I-4, Process III-2-a, Process VI-1 and II-6, the relationship among Process I-4 in Phase One, Process III-2-a in Phase Two and Process VI-1 in Phase Three is:

In Process I-4, the subjects communicated, exchanged business cards, and made appointments for later meetings at another event and dinner. In Process III-2-1, the subjects made an appointment and met face-to-face after the event. Also in Process VI-1, Subjects A, B and C will meet up again for dinner as per their previous appointment. Process VI-1 in Phase Three is the result of the appointment made in Process I-4 in Phase One.

2. Keeping dinner appointment

Subject A communicated with Subject B during dinner, with Subject C also present, not long after the event, following an appointment they'd made earlier. The appointment was made in previous interactions (Process III-2-b) after first interactions (Process II-1-a) during their time working together for the event (S1-7, O1-6).

According to Process II-1-a, Process IV-1, Process VI-2, S1-5, S1-7 and O1-6, the relationship among Process II-1-a in Phase One, Process IV-1 in Phase Two and Process VI-2 in Phase Three is:

As mentioned in Process IV-1, Subjects A, B and C communicated while working together at the event in Process II-1-a. Also, Subject C knew both A and B before the event, and Subjects A and B knew each other well, long before. In Process IV-1,

Subjects A and B communicated again at the end of event to greet and make an appointment for a dinner after the event, with C present. In Process VI-2, Subjects A, B and C met up and interacted at dinner as per their appointment. Therefore, Process VI-2 in Phase Three is the result of the appointment made in Process IV-1 in Phase Two.

To summarise, this process is more about interactions among Subjects A, B and C after their previous communications, which could again be divided into five steps:

Step one, relationships between Subjects A, B and C. All the subjects may know each other in their social interactions (I7-3) or when working together for the event, or long ago (S1-7).

Step two, reason for further interactions among Subjects A, B and C could be their appointment made in earlier interactions (S1-7).

Step three, subjects could communicate face-to-face to keep appointments made previously (O1-6).

Step four, results include: mutual understanding of the situation that all subjects want to maintain connections (O1-6), and consensus on certain topics (O1-6)

Step five, further outcome of the communication and results could be better acquaintance and understanding of each other and certain topics, which could lead to long term relationships (O1-6).

The relationships between phases will be summarised later.

Phase Three summary

Based on the discussions above for Phase Three, Table 7-6 summarises the content of situations of interactions; Table 7-7 gives an idea of the results of the interactions in Phase Three, while Table 7-8 describes the relationships between processes in three phases.

Table 7-6 Situations of interactions in Phase Three		
Processes Situations	Process V	Process VI
Situations of interactions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Getting feedback 2. Possible further cooperation 3. Connection maintenance 4. Possible future networking 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Possible future networking 2. Keep dinner appointment

Table 7-7 Result of interactions in Phase three		
Result Processes	Result of interactions	Further outcomes
Process V	Reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction	1. Possible future cooperation 2. Connection maintenance
Process VI	Reaching mutual understanding of the situation and the content of the interaction	Social interactions
	Consensus	N/A
N/A= Not Applicable		

Table 7-8 Relationship between processes in Phase Three and other phases			
Process Relation	Phase One & Two & Three	Phase One & Three	Phase Two & Three
Reason	Process I-4 and Process III-2-a & Process V-2	N/A	N/A
Related	Process I-3 & Process III-2-b & Process V-1	N/A	N/A
Result	Process V-2 and Process I-4 & Process III-2-a; Process V-3 and Process II-1-c & Process IV-1; Process V-4 and Process I-4 & Process III-2-a; Process VI-1 and Process II-1-c & Process IV-1;	Process VI-1 and Process I-4	Process VI-2 and Process IV-1
N/A=Not Applicable			

For all relations in Table 7-8, the processes are connected by “and”, as well as “&”. Although with the same meaning, the word and sign are for differentials. “And” refers to the main relationship, while “&” just connect two processes to let them be regarded as a whole. For instance, for the “reason” relation, Process I-4 is the reason for Process III-2-a & Process V-2 together.

The interactions in Phase Three between subjects may not necessarily be the third time of communication between subjects, as only dialogic approaches count in this thesis. There could already be several interactions which happened between subjects during Phase One and

Phase Two. Phase One is the stage where subjects first communicated due to the event, while subjects communicated again in Phase Two after their first interactions, and became more familiar with each other. Moreover, Phase Three could happen sometime after their Phase Two interactions; it could be further interactions for certain reason.

The steps of interactions will be summarised later.

Relationships between phases

There are different kinds of relationships between or among different processes in various phases of dialogic approaches.

Phase One – only dialogic approach

In the discussions above, looking at three phases altogether, Process II-1-b of Phase One was not mentioned in later phases. However, this does not mean that the subjects involved in the two situations did not have following communications, as they may have other interactions not belonging to dialogic approaches; or they may have following interactions that they did not mention in the interview data.

Nevertheless, there were situations in Phase One where the subjects did not have the intention of having following interactions with the same group of subjects. There were such situations mentioned in Process I-4 and Process II-1-a as part of those two processes.

In Process I-4, some people communicated with others, who may or may not have had previous connections, with not much result apart from the exchange of information (O1-5, N5, I2-2, N1, S2-5, I10-6, I14-2), or something interesting (I13-3). Among those communications, some interactions happened between subjects who already knew each other for some time before the event, and they therefore may communicate again in the future. Those communications which took place between subjects newly met at the event with not much result but merely understanding, usually won't lead to further communication. The reason is that the subjects did not have the intention in the first place, unless they have some other unexpected opportunity to meet again. So the very important elements that decide whether there's further communication or not here, are the previous relationship between subjects and the content of the conversation.

In Process II-1-a, there were people getting to know each other due to a particular person they both knew for a long or short time (I14-2). The communication between Subjects B and C would be very brief, like greetings (I14-2); there may only be greetings between A and C (I14-

2). Going back to the interview data I14-2, and considering the relevant data that described the following interactions (I14-3), the subjects involved in Process II-1-a did not have any following interactions that impressed the interviewee I14. The reason for not having following interactions could be: the content of first interactions was not interesting for the subjects; some newly met subjects did not exchange contact information for further connections.

To sum up, those one-phase-only dialogic approaches merely occur in Phase One. This kind of communication could happen between people who already know each other before the event or have just met at the event. Those with existing relationships may still have future interactions, which was not recorded in this case study. Meanwhile, those newly introduced subjects ones may just stop after their first interactions if they did not find anything interesting; or they may have other non-dialogic approaches or interactions in other situations, which is not the focus of this thesis. Moreover, the decisive elements for following interactions are relationship history and content of interactions.

Relationships between processes of two different phases of dialogic approaches

Phase One and Phase Two

After looking at the processes in Phase Two, no situation gave clear indications of not having further communications after this phase of interaction; however, the following discussions will only focus on the relationship between Phase One and Phase Two.

There are several kinds of relationships between dialogic approach processes in Phase One and Phase Two.

1. The process in Phase One could be a reason for the process in Phase Two (Process I-2 & Process III-1-a, Process I-1 & Process III-1-b, Process I-4 & Process III-2-b, Process I-4 & Process III-2-d, Process I-4 & Process III-2-e, Process II-1-c & Process IV-1). This means that process in Phase Two happened because process in Phase One happened in the first place, but it does not necessarily mean that process in Phase Two was a direct, or the only, result of process in Phase One, as it could be due to other reasons.
2. The process in Phase One and the process in Phase Two could be related due to the reason that all the subjects involved in the interactions were either old friends (Process II-1-a & Process III-1-e, Process I-4 & Process III-1-f, Process II-1-a & Process IV-1) or having special situations for interactions like working together for organising the

event (Process II-1-a & Process III-1-e, Process I-3 & Process III-2-b, Process II-1-a & Process IV-1). This means that there's no direct relationship between Phase One process and Phase Two process, but they are still related as they happened between the same subjects due to their existing relationship and working together.

3. The process in Phase One and the process in Phase Two could be cause and effect (Process I-1 & Process III-1-d, Process I-4 & Process III-1-e, Process I-4 & Process III-2-a, Process II-2 & Process III-2-a, and Process I-4 & Process III-2-c). This means that the former should be the cause of the latter and the latter should be result of the former; meanwhile, the former should happen before the latter.
4. The process in Phase Two could be a follow-up of the process in Phase One (Process I-1 & Process III-1-c). Here, the Phase Two process could be a following process of, and a support for, Phase One process.

To sum up, the relationship between processes in Phase One and Phase Two are:

1. The former could be a reason for the latter, but not necessarily the only or direct reason.
2. The latter could be a follow-up of the former.
3. The relationship between the two could be cause and effect, which means that the former is the reason for latter, and the latter is the result of the former, also the former happened earlier than the latter.
4. The relationship between both could be related in terms of the same subjects interact due to their history of the relationship or the occasion provided by the event for the subjects to work together.

Phase One and Phase Three

According to discussions in Process VI of relationship between Process VI-1 in Phase Three and Process I-4 in Phase One, process in Phase Three could be a result of that in Phase One. The former could be but not necessarily a direct result of the latter like appointment, as the former could be a result of other reasons as well.

Phase Two and Phase Three

According to discussions in Process VI of relationship between Process VI-2 in Phase Three and Process IV-1 in Phase Two, process in Phase Three could be a result of that in Phase Two. The result could be a very direct one, like an appointment, or exchange of contact information

that could, but not necessarily, lead to the former.

Phases One, Two and Three – dialogic approach

Again, the discussion later will mainly focus on the relationship among Phases One, Two and Three. But there is no sign to indicate that the subjects of the interactions would not have further communications in the future.

There are several kinds of relationships among dialogic approach processes in Phase One, Two and Three.

1. Process in Phase Three is an accumulated result of Phase One and Two (Process I-4 & Process III-2-a & Process V-2, Process II-1-c & Process IV-1 & Process V-3, Process I-4 & Process III-2-a & Process V-4, Process II-1-c & Process IV-1 & Process VI-1, Process II-1-a & Process IV-1 & Process VI-2). It is usually the situation that process in Phase One could be a reason for process in Phase Two. Also, both of the processes build up and/or strengthen the relationship between all the subjects of interactions, who exchanged contact information, and the process in Phase Three could therefore happen. But still, Phase Three process could happen due to other reasons.
2. Process in Phase One, Two and Three are related due to the reason that all the subjects knew each other before their temporary working relations at the event (Process I-3 & Process III-2-b & Process V-1).

Relationship summary

Based on the discussions above, there are various relationships between or among different phases of dialogic approaches. Table 7-9 below shows the distribution of the relations.

Table 7-9 Relations among phases of dialogic approaches					
Phases Relation	Phase One	Phase One & Two	Phase One & Three	Phase Two & Three	Phase One & Two & Three
Cause	O	X	O	O	O
Follow-up	O	X	O	O	O
Cause & Effect	O	X	O	O	O
Related	O	X	O	O	X
Result	O	O	X	X	X
O= No, X= Yes.					

Answer to RQ 5

All the discussions above were to answer RQ5: If dialogic approaches are applied, how do they function? If not, what logic is applied in this case? As dialogic approaches are used, which was discussed in Chapter VI, the discussions above were all about how dialogic approaches function in the case study.

As mentioned at the beginning of Chapter VII, the results drawn from Habermas' "dialogic approach" were discussed as part of the answer for RQ5 in a deductive way. The rest of the discussions were drawn from the data in an inductive way. These include different phases of dialogic approaches (Graph 7-1) involving different processes with various situations of communications and several steps of these interactions, as well as various relations between or among phases.

Tables 7-1, 7-3 and 7-6 above, show all the situations of interactions in three phases of dialogic approaches; Table 7-9 contains all the relations between or among the phases; while Table 7-10 below gives a general idea of the steps of the three phases.

Table 7-10 Steps of process in Phases One, Two and Three		
Steps Process	Process I & III & V	Process II & IV & VI
Steps of process	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. relationship between subjects A and B 2. the reason for communication between subjects A and B 3. communication between subjects A and B 4. the result of communication between subjects A and B 5. further outcome of result 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. relationship among subjects A, B and C 2. reason for communication among subjects A, B and C 3. communication among subjects A, B and C 4. result of the communication among subjects A, B and C 5. further outcome of the result

As discussed in three phases, and shown in Table 7-10 above, the Process I in Phase One, Process III in Phase Two and Process V in Phase Three shared the same steps, while the rest of three processes in three phases of dialogic approaches also shared steps of communication process.

Based on all the discussions above, the function detail of dialogic approaches in this case study was explained. And therefore, RQ 5 of the thesis was answered.

Chapter summary

According to the data, and based on Graph 7-1, the dialogic approaches function in the manner containing the following content: the dialogic approaches could be divided into three phases of first, following and further interactions between or among subjects of communications. In each phase, the communication process between the main Subjects A and B, and among all the subjects of A, B and C happened in different situations, following the steps of the relationships between/among subjects, reasons for interaction between/among subjects, communication between/among subjects, the result of communications and further outcomes of the results. There were also various relations between or among these phases, including cause, follow-up, cause and effect, related and result.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSION

Introduction

The whole thesis project is an exploration and exposition of conceptualisations of grassroots public diplomacy in Australia and China. Based on all the findings and discussions in previous chapters for RQ 1 to 5, this chapter will draw a conclusion to the whole research. The discussions below will explain how the answers to research questions help achieve the original aims of the whole thesis project, and will provide an overview of the research. The theoretical and practical implications of these results will be explained as well together with the limitations of the research, and the suggestions of directions and areas for future research. This chapter consists of an introduction, discussions on research questions, theoretical and practical implications, limitation, future research and a conclusion.

Discussions on research questions

Going back to propositions mentioned in Chapter I, the RQ 1, 2 and 3 did help prove Proposition I to be true, while RQ 4 and 5 did help affirm Proposition II.

Proposition I: There are similar as well as different aspects between the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and in China, and the similar points could reflect the innate characteristics of GPD.

RQ 1 and 2 provide the conceptualisations of GPD in Australia and China respectively. It is based on the understanding of experts and practitioners of GPD, from government, media, private and public sectors in Australia and China, through methods of interview and documentary review. The findings and discussions for RQ 1 and 2 help give general descriptions of the conceptualisation of GPD in both states, through detailed discussions of components of GPD drawn from both theoretical bases of communicative action theory and

the data itself. These components include actors, aims of actors, and plans of action of actors, communication acts of actors, agreement, and coordination of action, process and results. Answers to RQ 1 and 2 lay the foundation for understanding the conceptualisation of GPD in the two states on the whole.

Based on RQ 1 and 2, RQ 3 provides an in-depth look into the conceptualisation, through comparisons and contrast of each component of GPD mentioned above, using a comparative method. The differences between various points contained in these components of GPD in the two countries help give a more detailed and comprehensive understanding of the conceptualisations of GPD in Australia and China respectively. Meanwhile, the similarities between points in these aspects of GPD can be possibly generalised on a larger scale if these are proved to be true in similar studies, in the same research field, in the future. Possible future research will be suggested below.

Thus, research for answering RQ 1, 2 and 3 did affirm Proposition I.

Proposition II: A dialogic approach exists in GPD activities, and functions in a way that helps with the process of GPD.

Based on the overview of the conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China provided by RQ 1, 2 and 3, RQ 4 and 5 will help further explore the application of core logic for GPD – dialogic approach – by a case study of GPD between Australia and China. RQ 4 proves the existence of a dialogic approach applied in a self-supported GPD case project by examining the four necessary conditions of dialogic approach derived from theoretical bases, one-by-one initially, and combined later. These conditions include non-purposive communication, non-authoritarian communication, and communication between at least two subjects with the ability to speak and act, and subjects establishing interpersonal relations verbally or extra-verbally. Several situations are found to have met all four necessary conditions, which are regarded as dialogic approaches. RQ 5 goes one step further, to explore the function process of this core logic in the GPD case project chosen. Based on discussions of situations found in the case study, the dialogic approach could, but not necessarily, involve three phases of first, following and further interactions between the main subjects of GPD. The discussions of relationships between processes in different phases, and between phases give a comprehensive map of application of dialogic approach in the GPD case.

Therefore, research for RQ 4 and 5 did help affirm Proposition II, and further explained the detailed functioning process of dialogic approach in the GPD case study.

The exploration of the concept of GPD in Australia and China in RQ 1 and 2, the comparisons between the two in RQ 3, as well as discovery of the application of dialogic approach of GPD in RQ 4 and 5, constitute a multi-dimensional conceptualisation of GPD in Australia and China.

Theoretical and practical implications

Theoretical implications

To discuss the theoretical implications of this research, the theoretical bases of the thesis should first be mentioned.

Part of the communicative action theory used as the theoretical base for this research helps build categories as part of the components of GPD. These not only constitute main categories when analysing data for RQ 1, 2 and 3, but also help with interview design for RQ 1 and 2. The categories of “process” and “result” which emerged from the data, help develop the original theoretical base. The whole set of categories, drawn both from theory and data, constitute the main framework of GPD in this research. The framework could be applied to future study of GPD, so as to test whether it could be used directly as structure of the conceptualisation of GPD, or hopefully be developed into a more suitable framework.

The function process of a dialogic approach as the research result of RQ 5 is an original contribution of this thesis as well. The process of dialogic approaches in the self-supported GPD case discussed in RQ 5 can be divided into three phases of: first, following and further interactions, between which exist various relationships. They could also be applied as basic function modes of dialogic approach to other similar studies in future, either in self-supported GPD cases, or other GPD cases. Further modification to this function mode could eventually help reveal how a dialogic approach applied in different GPD cases functions.

Also, the methods adopted in this research, including comparative method, case study, interview and documentary, having helped with an in-depth understanding of conceptualisation of GPD, could be applied to other GPD studies to see whether they could be applied to studies of the conceptualisation of GPD broadly.

Practical implication

When it comes to the practical implications of this research, there are points suggested during discussions, which could provide positive results for GPD. For instance, the data suggested

that intermediaries with similar backgrounds to objects could help in coordinating GPD; the aims of agents should benefit and help realise the mutual interests of both agents and objects of GPD; a good atmosphere of dialogue and more interaction could help in reaching agreements between agents and objects; actors should consider the other side's expectations and needs in order to meet mutual needs. Also, in the case study, the data indicated that certain dialogic approaches could lead to better acquaintance and relationships between subjects participating in GPD case activity, and better understanding of certain topics, the people themselves and others. These examples are practical suggestions for GPD practice. Although this whole research focuses on theoretical discussions, it is closely related to the practice of GPD. Not only is the research based mainly on GPD practices, or people's understanding about GPD practices, but it also could result in the research finally helping to direct the practice of GPD in a positive way. At a practical level the research could be of value to Australian and Chinese organisations that host public diplomacy initiatives between the two countries. It could also be of value to policy makers in both countries who look to encouraging further grassroots interaction. The same would be true for organisations and policy makers in other countries.

Limitations

This thesis is only an exploratory study of the conceptualisation of GPD, which has its own limitations, as any research does.

In RQ 3, there are only comparisons and contrast between the conceptualisation of GPD following categories drawn from theory and data in RQ 1 and 2. No in-depth analysis followed to discuss the reasons for differences and similarities. As mentioned in RQ 3 section in Chapter III, deeper explorations are very important for better understanding GPD in different state contexts. However, this complicated process is not possible to be explained clearly within one chapter. RQ 3 helped better understand GPD in two states respectively, and helped with a more accurate conceptualisation of GPD. Thus, it is already a meaningful step, and hopefully, further and independent research can be done on those comparisons, to help people better understand the relevant situation in greater depth.

In RQ 4 and 5, the research questions only cover a dialogic approach and a self-supported GPD case. Due to the time constraints of a thesis project, this research could not be inclusive of every issue that was worthy of deep inquiry. In this case, although there could be other logics that may be as important as the dialogic approach in GPD, this core logic derived from theoretical base was chosen. The good point is that an in-depth study has been done on this

logic. Nevertheless, those approaches not belonging to dialogic approaches in GPD are not viewed as being unimportant. In fact, they are an indivisible part of the GPD case project between Australia and China. However, as there should be a focus for this research, which is dialogic approach, others are not covered here. Similarly, only a self-supported GPD case was chosen to be studied, among various GPD forms, in this research. Other forms of GPD are also important composition of GPD study.

Future research

As mentioned above, this thesis is only an exploratory study in the field of GPD. For the conceptualisation of GPD specifically, more studies of the conceptualisation of GPD in other states can be done in future. As the number of states under study increases, the nature of GPD could be figured out by looking at them together. The reason is that since different states have various cultural, economic and political backgrounds, similar factors drawn from the conceptualisation of GPD in different contexts could help find the innate characteristics of GPD. Also, if the conceptualisation of GPD in other states could be studied following part or all of the methodological approach and methods used in this thesis, they could help test the application of those methods to GPD study. If the study of the conceptualisation of GPD in other states follows other methods not used in this research, more suitable methodology and methods for study in this field may be developed. Moreover, whether using a similar theoretical base applied this research, or not, to study the conceptualisation of GPD in other states, there will be further theoretical developments for the GPD study.

More GPD case studies can be done in the future. As mentioned in the limitations above, only self-supported GPD cases were chosen in this thesis to explore the dialogic approach of GPD. On one hand, more case studies can be done to explore other important logics or characteristics of GPD; on the other hand, more forms of GPD like government-supported GPD cases can be studied, to look into dialogic approach or other approaches in GPD.

Also, more studies can be done to specifically apply communicative action theory and/or dialogic approach in research, so as to test and develop the application of the theory as a theoretical base for GPD study. Although non-authoritarian and non-purposive communication were regarded as two very important conditions for dialogic approach as applied in Chapter VI, which eliminated the pre-existing psychological prejudices among participants of communication process in GPD, more rich psychological data could be used, and more alternative frameworks from Habermas could be applied in future studies to explore dialogic approach more comprehensively (Habermas, 2008, p.50).

Moreover, although the perennial question of whether public diplomacy works is always asked by politicians and tried to be answered by many public diplomacy researchers (P. Seib, 2013), while public diplomacy itself could only see the result in the long term, outcomes of public diplomacy seem to be a very important but difficult study point. However in this thesis, when discussing results of GPD as part of the components of the concept of GPD (see Chapter VI and V for more details), it was not given as much emphasis as some scholars may expect. As discussed in Chapter VI and VII, a dialogic approach in Habermas' sense is proved to be applied in GPD, one key condition for which is non-purposive communication referring to subjects of GPD having no conscious purpose or intention. Outcomes of interactions of GPD in this ideal case become not as important as communication itself, although there is no detailed discussion of whether a purposive communication would lead to a failure of GPD, non-purposive communication is still an important element of the dialogic approach in a communicative action. Therefore, based on the theoretical base, of communicative action theory, of this thesis, the result of GPD was given as much equal importance as other elements of GPD. But still, due to the importance of outcomes of interactions in public diplomacy study, further study could be done on this particular area, exploring the result or effectiveness of GPD using similar or different methods, including interviews, focus groups, case study and so on.

Another point, which has not covered in this thesis but is worthy of study is exploration of the relationship between the dialogic approach and GPD practice, which may finally help with GPD practice in reality.

Conclusion

Discussions above on the research questions focused on the relationships between these questions to help shape an entire picture of the whole research, which explored conceptualisations of GPD in Australia and China. The theoretical and practical implications mentioned above explained the contribution of this research in aspects of theory and practice. The limitations on the scope of the research have been identified and future research recommended that will address these limitations. The suggestions mentioned for future research could help further explore the study field of grassroots public diplomacy based on this thesis.



Ethics Project Approval - 5201200665(D)

Faculty of Arts Research Office < artsro@mq.edu.au >

Mon, Sep 10, 2012 at 9:25 AM

Dear Prof Chitty

Re: 'The conceptualization of Grassroots Public Diplomacy in Australia and China'

The above application was reviewed by the Faculty of Arts Human Research Ethics Committee. Final Approval of the above application is granted, effective 10th September 2012, and you may now commence your research.

The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Ms Stella Ye
Prof Naren Chitty

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
2. Approval will be for a period of five (5) years subject to the provision of annual reports.

Progress Report 1 Due: 10th September 2013
Progress Report 2 Due: 10th September 2014
Progress Report 3 Due: 10th September 2015
Progress Report 4 Due: 10th September 2016
Final Report Due: 10th September 2017

NB. If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report for the project.

Progress reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:
http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/forms

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

4. All amendments to the project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee before implementation. Please complete and submit a Request for Amendment Form available at the following website:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/forms



Ethics - Conditions Met Final Approval - Ref. no. 5201200846

Faculty of Arts Research Office < artsro@mq.edu.au >

Mon, Nov 26, 2012 at 12:11 PM

Ethics Application Ref: (5201200846) - Final Approval

Dear Prof Chitty,

Re: ('The Conceptualization of Grassroots Public Diplomacy in Australia and China')

Thank you for your recent correspondence. Your response has addressed the issues raised by the Faculty of Arts Human Research Ethics Committee and you may now commence your research.

This research meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). The National Statement is available at the following web site:

http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/_files_nhmrc/publications/attachments/e72.pdf.

The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Ms Stella Ye
Prof Naren Chitty

NB. STUDENTS: IT IS YOUR RESPONSIBILITY TO KEEP A COPY OF THIS APPROVAL EMAIL TO SUBMIT WITH YOUR THESIS.

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
2. Approval will be for a period of five (5) years subject to the provision of annual reports.

Progress Report 1 Due: 26/11/13
Progress Report 2 Due: 26/11/14
Progress Report 3 Due: 26/11/15
Progress Report 4 Due: 26/11/16
Final Report Due: 26/11/17

NB: If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report for the project.

Progress reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:
http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/forms

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in

Appendix 2: Anonymised table of participants of the case study

Codes for participants	Citizenship	Domicile	Broad occupational category	Gender
I1	PRC	Sydney	Professional	Male
I2	PRC	Sydney	Student	Female
I3	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Male
I4	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Female
I5	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Male
I6	Australian	Sydney	Student	Male
I7	Australian	Sydney	Student	Female
I8	Australian	Sydney	Student	Male
I9	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Male
I10	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Female
I11	PRC	Sydney	Professional	Male
I12	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Female
I13	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Female
I14	Australian	Sydney	Professional	Female
Note: Every participant above has certain relationships with both Australia and China. Some Australians above are migrants from China; some Australians above are Australia born Chinese; some Australians above are offspring of an Australian and a Chinese. All participants above have interest in both Australia and China for various reasons.				

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