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MELISSA D. WHITE
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U.S. FOOD DIPLOMACY LANDSCAPE: AN EXPLORATORY CASE STUDY

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BY

Dr. Katerina Tsetsura, Chair

Dr. Glenn Leshner

Dr. Elanie Steyn

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Abstract

This exploratory research was undertaken to map out the current landscape of U.S. food diplomacy. This was one of the first studies to condense existing food diplomacy literature to categorize the terms associated with food diplomacy types. It was also one of the first studies to explore food diplomacy interactions as manifested by U.S. Embassy Facebook posts. Posts from 18 U.S. Embassy Facebook pages were searched for keywords pertaining to food diplomacy. These posts were content-analyzed for key features indicative of digital engagement practices by the embassy, specifically interactivity, personalization, sentiment: tone, sentiment: emotion, and relevance (Strauß et al., 2015). Additionally, posts were content-analyzed for the dialogic tenets of the dialogic theory of public relations (Kent and Taylor, 2002). The results of the current research provided evidence for the value of further research on the topic of food diplomacy, not only in the U.S., but in any country that uses food culture as a means of bridging cross-cultural gaps.

Keywords: food diplomacy, culinary diplomacy, gastrodiploamacy, food security, food assistance, nation branding, gastronomic diplomacy, diplomatic gastronomy, cultural diplomacy, public diplomacy

Chapter 1: Introduction

As the world undergoes continual globalization, governments, corporations, and individuals have struggled to find the best way to communicate with people from cultures foreign to their own. Through diplomacy, governments communicate with each other, often using traditional means of international power such as economic and military might. Increasingly, traditional means of power are unavailable to small and upcoming nation states. As a result, soft power has developed as an alternative method of building international influence (Nye, 2008). Golan and Yang (2015) argued that modern public diplomacy has moved towards a relationship-centered two-way communication that fosters mutual understanding based on the soft power of states. They contend that although the two fields diverge in terms of end goals, the study of public diplomacy with international public relations is useful (Golan & Yang, 2015). The use of public relations strategies and tactics via one universal medium is one of many possible ways of communicating strategically between countries as our world moves forward. What is that universal medium? Food. This thesis aims to investigate how food is used by U.S. Embassies to communicate with foreign publics in U.S. government public diplomacy efforts.

The phrase “food is the oldest form of diplomacy” is attributed to Hillary Clinton (Ruddy, 2014). Everyone must eat to survive, and how food is viewed, eaten, handled, and culturally constructed both by the action and the words we use to describe it is at the heart of food diplomacy (McKerrow, 2012). There are many historical examples of food used in intercultural interactions, such as to signify the brokering of peace between warring groups, the union of a family through marriage, and even the

striking of an accord between kings (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Constantinou, 1996). There is a strain of connective tissue that joins people who dine together; whether you feed someone, or someone feeds you, you have an intangible connection.

Greene and Cramer (2011) noted the increase over the last several decades of “food-focused consumption, media, and culture” (p. ix). The popularity and increasing interest in food is apparent in the existence of entire television channels dedicated to cooking (The Food Network), reality television dedicated to cooking challenges (Iron Chef), food travel tourism (Anthony Bourdain’s *Parts Unknown*) and the ever-expanding cookbook genre. This is also a global phenomenon, apparent in similar television channels and shows in many countries around the world. In the realm of scholarship, recent volumes such as *Food as Communication / Communication as Food* (Cramer, Greene, & Walters, 2011) and *Food, National Identity and Nationalism: From Everyday to Global Politics* (Ichijo & Ranta, 2016) demonstrate that the increased popularity of food isn’t simply for entertainment or sustenance value. Although everyone must eat, food plays a much larger role in culture and intercultural communication (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Cramer et al., 2011; Rockower, 2012; Zhang, 2015).

Chapple-Sokol (2013) argued that a state’s unique culinary culture can take on a highly influential role in how other states and publics perceive that state. Food is one of the basic necessities common to all human life, regardless of any cultural role it plays. Although for some food is simply a necessity for biological subsistence (Greene & Cramer, 2011; McKerrow, 2012), for many food also serves as a “defining element of human culture and identity” (Frye & Bruner, 2012, p. 1). Ichijo & Ranta (2016)

developed the ideas, further connecting food with national identity, saying, “it is clear that food holds significance beyond the mere fulfillment of physiological needs and that how people perceive food impacts upon how they view themselves and their national identity” (p. 2).

While food has been accepted in many academic disciplines (such as anthropology and sociology) as a symbolic system of communication (Douglas, 1997; Greene & Cramer, 2011), there have been limited studies about food under the umbrella of public relations and public diplomacy. One area that has been suggested as an area for growth and contribution is public diplomacy and international (public) relations (Golan, Yang, & Kinsey, 2015; Melissen, 2013). Melissen (2013) suggested that cooperation between these disciplines will help both academic and professional sides of this discussion. Public diplomacy uses many public relations strategies and tactics. More importantly, public diplomacy and public relations share similar functions within relationship building: in the case of public diplomacy, the relationship is built between the government of one country and the citizens of the other or citizens of one country with citizens of the other.

The use of food as a communication medium in public diplomacy is one of several avenues that public relations scholars and professionals should explore as a way to relate to and communicate with audiences in foreign contexts. This study aims to expand the connection between public relations and public diplomacy by specifically focusing on the application of U.S. food diplomacy as a means to build relationships. All forms of food diplomacy can be considered relationship-building tools. At all levels, from formal state-to-state to citizen diplomacy, food is used to enhance the relationship

building process. This thesis argues that some aspects of food diplomacy should consider the food culture of those with whom the U.S. wishes to develop relations. To be truly focused on relationship building, the U.S. should also engage with the food culture of the local community. An example of this in culinary diplomacy would be offering a dish native to the state of a guest in addition to introducing them to the U.S. cuisine.

This thesis is based on the application of the constructivist approach to international relations theory (Hopf, 1998; Ruggie, 1998; Sterling-Folker, 2013) and the dialogic theory of public relations (Kent & Taylor, 2002) to investigate food diplomacy. Specifically, this study examines the pattern of U.S. public diplomacy efforts through publicly available government documents, websites, and social media to determine the extent of government use of food diplomacy as a method of reaching foreign publics.

Although this thesis is focused on the food diplomacy practice of the U.S. government via U.S. embassies, it extends the argument to demonstrate how food is being used to create opportunities for dialogue and relationship-building in international relations, as suggested by Zhang (2015).

Dinnie (2016) asserted there is an increasing need for countries to manage their reputation. Techniques such as nation branding (a promotional technique focused on promoting how a nation wishes to be seen by its citizens and external publics) is becoming more prominent. As such, there is an increasing need for coordination among all levels of government for branding and reputation-management goals. This thesis is a step toward such governmental coordination in the area of food diplomacy.

Ichijo and Ranta (2016) explored food through the lens of national identity and nationalism. Although this thesis is not specifically focused on nationalism, this perspective significantly overlaps with the goals of the study. Nationalism and national identity explain the importance of food at the everyday level and in the global and international context (Ichijo & Ranta, 2016). Everyday food choices, including what and where we eat, are a part of how we see ourselves as members of a nation. What Ichijo and Ranta (2016) did not consider is the benefit of recognizing that a unique national identity exists in every culture, and that recognizing the unique identity of other states potentially can be used to build relationships with foreign publics.

The purpose of this thesis is to establish an understanding of how the U.S. government uses food diplomacy in communication with foreign publics. Although food diplomacy is only one focus and one public diplomacy tool of the U.S. government, it has potentially far-reaching consequences. This thesis will lay out an original food diplomacy typology, building on previous efforts (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Chapple-Sokol, 2016; Rockower, 2012) to clarify and condense many terms that have been used in previous research and theory. Mapping the current U.S. food diplomacy landscape will enable and encourage future research into this important public diplomacy topic.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The first part of the literature review defines international relations, public relations, public diplomacy, and nation branding as well as explains how they intersect. The second part discusses the dialogic theory of public relations (Kent & Taylor, 2002) and constructivist international relations theory (Hopf, 1998; Ruggie, 1998; Sterling-Folker, 2013) and how they relate to the practice of food diplomacy. The third part is dedicated to combining the above theories and terms to demonstrate the usefulness of understanding food as a communication and relationship-building tool. The fourth part outlines an original food diplomacy typology, defining food diplomacy, culinary diplomacy, gastrodiploamacy, food security, and food assistance. Finally, the literature review applies these ideas specifically to how U.S. embassies use them in an online context.

International Relations, Public Relations, and Public Diplomacy Intersection

Whether it has been intentional or mere chance, international public relations and public diplomacy practices are growing together in similar ways, as well as experiencing similar growing pains (Signitzer & Wamser, 2006). As such, it makes sense to study them together, and to borrow from one to enhance the other. This study examines food diplomacy through a lens of public relations theories. However, it is important to understand the overlap of food diplomacy with international relations and public diplomacy approaches.

Aside from an overlap in methods of connecting and communicating with audiences, the contemporary focus on relationship building and mutual understanding in international public relations, public relations, and public diplomacy is where these

concepts truly intersect (Golan & Yang, 2015; Snow, 2015). Contemporary diplomacy is often divided into two types: traditional diplomacy and public diplomacy (Ki, 2015). Traditional diplomacy focuses on means of international coercion such as military and economic might while public diplomacy is a modern focus on soft power resources. The focus on relationship-building and communication in public diplomacy requires a change from traditional diplomatic power tactics, from “hard power” to “soft power.” The primary difference between soft power and traditional hard power is the idea of attraction: with soft power, nations use whatever resources are available to them to attract support from foreign publics (Nye, 2008; Dolea, 2015). For example, Thailand’s government raised brand awareness through Thai restaurants around the world with their “Global Thai” Program (Rockower, 2014).

Public relations. According to the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) (About Public Relations, n.d.), “public relations is a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics.” This broad, functional approach to public relations is only one of several. For this thesis, public relations is understood as a cocreational process, in which publics are “cocreators of meaning and communication” (Botan & Taylor, 2004, p. 652). This approach to public relations “is long term in its orientation and focuses on relationships among publics and organizations” (Botan & Taylor, 2004, p. 652). For governmental use of public relations tactics, a long-term approach is the most appropriate, as many goals a nation sets for itself have a long-term focus. Nye (2013) argued that the goals of public diplomacy are beyond the goals of public relations, but this approach and its consideration for long-term goals bridges the gap.

Public relations shares many tactics with public diplomacy, primarily through the practice of international relations (Golan & Yang, 2015; Pigman, 2010). There is significant overlap between public diplomacy's and international relations' audiences and goals (Signitzer & Wamser, 2006). Although public relations and public diplomacy have traditionally been treated as separate disciplines, increasing globalization has brought them closer, with similar goals and focus.

Public Diplomacy. Nye (2013) argued that public diplomacy is an indirect form of diplomacy in which governments “communicate with the publics of other countries in an effort to influence other governments indirectly” (p. 569). Golan and Yang (2015) postulated that there is still some confusion on what public diplomacy means, despite significant scholarship in the field since Edmund Gullion coined the term in 1965 (Cull, 2009). In this thesis, public diplomacy is treated as “a government’s process of communicating with foreign publics in an attempt to bring about understanding for its nation’s ideas and ideals, its institutions and cultures, as well as its national goals and current policies” (Tuch, 1990, p. 3). A primary goal is “to influence the behaviour of a foreign government by influencing the attitudes of its citizens” (Malone, 1988, p. 3). This two-part definition is important, because it highlights the three areas of focus of communicating in public diplomacy (culture, political values, and foreign policies) (Nye, 2008), as well as the ultimate goal of those communication, which is influencing behavior through attitude change.

One concept that ties public diplomacy and international relations together is soft power. Originally coined by Nye in 1990, soft power refers to the use of non-traditional means of garnering power in international interactions (Nye, 2008).

Specifically, soft power uses an approach of *attracting* support from foreign publics rather than *coercing* it (Dolea, 2015; Nye, 2008). After two World Wars and the Cold War, most state actors realized that threat and coercion were not necessarily the most effective possible ways of interacting with global neighbors (Wang, 2006). Although threat and coercion are still on the table for large countries, soft power is the best available option for smaller countries to increase international influence (Nye, 2008). Unfortunately, Nye (2013) also pointed out that integrating soft power into a government approach can be challenging for several reasons: the outcome and tools of soft diplomacy are not fully under governmental control, and results are often long in coming.

Nye (2008) referred to diplomatic alternatives available to smaller and newly formed countries when he defined soft power. More recently, he included all states as possible beneficiaries of soft power strategies (Nye, 2013). There are three sources of soft power for a country: culture, political values, and foreign policies (Nye, 2008). Food diplomacy cuts across all three.

Although Nye (2013) argued that the goals of public diplomacy are beyond the goals of public relations in scope of time and audience, this thesis argues that the overlap is significant. Nye (2013) explained the ranges of public diplomacy goals in terms of time as three concentric circles. The first is focused on daily communication and a short time-frame measured in hours or perhaps days. The second circle he termed strategic communication, which focuses on developing themes similar to political or advertising campaigns and is measured in weeks, months, and years. The third circle is focused on long term relationship-building, occurring over years or decades. Public

relations can also be understood in similar terms. Golan & Yang (2015) argued that the goals of public relations and public diplomacy cut across similar time frames and strategies, with the end-goals being the point of separation.

Nation Branding

Nation branding is a relatively new field of study, with interest in the academic community growing significantly since a special issue of the *Journal of Brand Management* was devoted to nation branding in 2002 (Dinnie, 2016). Dinnie (2016) defined *nation brand* as “the unique, multidimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all of its target audiences” (p. 5). The end of the Cold War brought many opportunities to new and developing countries to bring what they could to the world stage. The term nation building, according to Taylor and Kent (2006), is generally connected with building political institutions in newly formed/transformed states, which must include intangible conditions such as the creation of a national identity and unity.

The intangible is, of course, almost impossible to define. UNESCO defines intangible cultural heritage as including

“traditions or living expressions inherited from our ancestors and passed on to our descendants ... The importance of intangible cultural heritage is not the cultural manifestation itself but rather the wealth of knowledge and skills that is transmitted through it from one generation to the next ... Intangible cultural heritage is: Traditional, contemporary and living at the same time ... Inclusive ... Representative ... community-based.” (What is Intangible Cultural Heritage?, n.d.)

It changes for each country, and yet there are many associations with particular countries that most would recognize. For the purposes of this thesis, gastronomic examples will illustrate some popular associations with countries: Sushi from Japan, pizza and pasta from Italy, Thai food, Mexican food, “American as apple pie.” Many countries have campaigned for recognition of their unique food culture as a UNESCO Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity (Chapple-Sokol, 2013). These promotional campaigns are a perfect example of nation branding with culinary culture. The result is a (hopefully, for the campaigning country) positive, permanent association with a country because of the item or idea. The ideas or items that are generally accepted by citizens of the state as well as foreign audiences become part of the brand of the state and can be used in future international communication efforts.

Public diplomacy is focused on a foreign public and efforts to change that public’s mind, while nation branding is focused on both internal (citizens of the state) and external (everyone else) citizens (Dolea, 2015). Although the U.S. brand is well-established, there are still things that can be learned from nation branding, particularly in attempts to communicate with foreign publics (Lee & Hong, 2012). Further, it is possible for a state identity to change over time (Ruggie, 1998). For this reason alone, it is important to consider how, especially in a highly-mediated era, the U.S. should manage its brand and reputation.

Nation branding and public diplomacy share significant tactical overlap through the practice of cultural diplomacy. Although the definition of cultural diplomacy is contested (Goff, 2013) one broad definition is “the exchange of ideas, information, art, and other aspects of culture among nations and their peoples in order to foster mutual

understanding” (Cummings, 2009, para. 1). Goff (2013) argued that, while cultural diplomacy “cannot change policy outcomes or compensate for their harmful or negative consequences” (p. 433), it “can provide context for policy decisions or official actions” (p. 421). Food diplomacy falls under this umbrella of nation branding and cultural diplomacy as a way to share and exchange culture.

Ichijo and Ranta (2016) approached food through the lens of national identity and nationalism. In terms of nation branding, they considered food and national identity to be a key aspect of nation branding tactics and approaches. Nationalism is the construction and congruency of ideas that define nations, such as geographic boundaries, political systems, and cultural traditions (Hobsbawm, 1983; Hobsbawm, 1992). National identity is the performance of the nation by individuals who consider themselves as part of the nation (Ichijo & Ranta, 2016). This “performance” entails participating in traditions such as standing for the pledge of allegiance, participating in national holidays, and attending a BBQ on the 4th of July. The term “gastronationalism” encompasses this idea of food being integrally linked to national identity (Ichijo & Ranta, 2016). Every nation has its own unique food history and traditions. These are understood by citizens of the nation as well as citizens of other nations to be part of their national identity. Some well-known examples are the use of tortillas in Mexican food, raw seafood in Japanese sushi, or olive oil in Italian dishes.

Dialogic Theory of Public Relations

Globalization and interdependence have caused an increasingly fluid understanding of who the international actors are (Cooper, Heine, & Thakur, 2013). Fr chet te (2013) said “everybody is forced to be a diplomat of sorts from time to time”

(p. xxxiv). As a result, many scholars have combined theories from multiple fields in order to advance scholarship in both public relations and public diplomacy, as this thesis does. There has traditionally been a focus on one-way communication in public diplomacy (Golan & Yang, 2015). This author argues, along with other scholars (Melissen, 2013; Nye, 2008; Signitzer & Wamser, 2006), that the time has come to consider both sides of the state-public communication relationship.

Increasing globalization requires an updated understanding of how best to communicate and build relationships internationally. Not only must a state focus on how to present itself, it must also be concerned with how its presentation is actually perceived. For this reason, this thesis examines the U.S. food diplomacy landscape through the framework of the dialogic theory of public relations as described by Kent and Taylor (2002). Public relations practitioners often understand dialogue as a sort of ethical and practical approach to public relations communication (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Kent and Taylor (2002) described five features of dialogue:

Mutuality, or the recognition of organization-public relationships; *propinquity*, or the temporality and spontaneity of interactions with publics; *empathy*, or the supportiveness and confirmation of public goals and interests; *risk*, or the willingness to interact with individuals and publics on their own terms; and finally, *commitment*, or the extent to which an organization gives itself over to dialogue, interpretation, and understanding in its interactions with publics.

(2002, p. 24-25)

Each of the five features described above can be broken down into several parts, as will be discussed next.

The first of the five dialogic features described by Kent and Taylor (2002) is mutuality. Mutuality can be broken down into two parts: collaboration and spirit of mutual equality. Collaboration requires that all participants have positions of their own for which they advocate. Further, there must be an element of intersubjectivity in which each participant tries to understand the positions of others and the ways in which they reached those positions (Kent & Taylor, 2002). All parties must accept that “reality” is “a socially constructed and perspectival process (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.25). Spirit of mutual equality is the avoidance of the exercise of power or superiority (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Participants should be comfortable discussing any topic. In essence, mutuality requires all participants to try and understand each other and feel free to discuss any topic they wish.

The second of the five dialogic features is propinquity (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Propinquity is broken down into three parts: immediacy of presence, temporal flow, and engagement. Immediacy of presence suggests that participants are discussing present issues rather than decisions already made in a shared space (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Temporal flow, Kent and Taylor (2002) argued, requires dialog to “construct a future for participants that is both equitable and acceptable to all involved” (p. 26). Engagement, at its heart, is the idea that all participants must respect each other and “risk attachment and fondness rather than maintaining positions of neutrality or observer status” (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p. 26). In short, propinquity requires that dialogue should be contemporary and spontaneous.

The third feature of dialogue is empathy (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Empathy is described in terms of three aspects: supportiveness, communal orientation, and

confirmation (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Supportiveness suggests that dialogue must occur in a space in which audience members are encouraged as well as facilitated to participate. Communal orientation requires that the organization participate in local relationships as well as international relationships (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Confirmation “refers to acknowledging the voice of the other in spite of one’s ability to ignore it” (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p. 27). In other words, empathy requires that dialogue be encouraged and facilitated, locally as well as internationally oriented, and that participants are not ignored.

The fourth feature of dialogue is risk (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Risk is made up of three parts: vulnerability, unanticipated consequences, and recognition of strange otherness. Vulnerability means that participants must share information, personal beliefs, and desires with others (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Unanticipated consequences is the idea that the spontaneous nature of dialogue can result in unpredictable exchanges among participants. Recognition of strange otherness requires that each participant recognize the idea that individuals are “unique and valuable in their own right” (Kent & Taylor, 2002), and accept them as such. Risk can be the most uncomfortable aspect of dialogue, requiring participants to share their thoughts, expect unpredictable exchanges, and accept others as valuable for their unique views.

The final feature of dialogue is commitment (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Commitment is described in terms of three elements: genuineness, commitment to conversation, and commitment to interpretation. Genuineness requires that dialogue is honest and forthright. Commitment to conversation requires that conversations be held “for the purposes of mutual benefit and understanding and not to defeat the other” (Kent

& Taylor, 2002, p. 29). Commitment to interpretation requires that individuals set aside their differences in order to come to an understanding of the other participants positions (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Commitment requires dialogue to be honest and forthright and an effort to understand and benefit each other.

Despite the high ideals of dialogic theory as presented by Kent and Taylor (2002), there can be situations in which these tenets of dialogue do not apply. Dialogue “is a product of ongoing communication and relationships” (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p. 24), and cannot exist where participants subvert the process. Lane (2017) argued that, despite a tendency for organizations to include dialogic strategies in their communication planning, required dialogue does not in fact qualify as dialogue. Lane (2017) called this concept “mandatory dialogue.”

Lane (2017) explained that “mandatory dialogue” is dialogue which is required by an organization, as opposed to dialogue which an organization has “the *option* to undertake” (p. 3). Dialogue has become increasingly mandated as organizations have seen the potential benefit of engaging in inclusive, respectful, and ethically sound dialogue (Lane, 2017). In contrast to Kent and Taylor (2002), Lane argued that both sides of a mandatory dialogue practice are motivated by self-interest and a desire to influence each other. Additionally, Lane argued that this sort of dialogue is not dialogue “given the attitudes of participants towards each other” (Lane, 2017, p. 25). Lane (2017) found that dialogue undertaken by public relations practitioners was significantly different from Kent and Taylor’s (2002) principles.

Specifically, each of Kent and Taylor’s (2002) principles presented in a very different way by practitioners in Lane’s (2017) study. First, mutuality in dialogue

became “direction and control” (Lane, 2017, p.13), wherein practitioners felt that dialogue was a chance to control the conversation and direct the ideas and opinions of participants. Second, there was no evidence of propinquity. Instead, practitioners felt that dialogue was an opportunity to achieve agreement with “pre-determined organizational decisions” (Lane, 2017, p. 16) and to gather feedback with no intention of making any changes. Third, while there was some evidence of empathy, most dialogue was conducted by practitioners who felt little or no personal empathy towards dialogue participants as well as frustration with having to engage in dialogue with participants whose communication style differed from their own (Lane, 2017). Fourth, the principle of risk was almost entirely turned on its head. Findings suggested that while organizations certainly take risks, they are “doing so in a spirit other than that suggested by Kent and Taylor’s (2002) interpretation of risk-taking” (Lane, 2017, p. 22). Finally, the commitment principle presented as a lack of commitment, with “hidden agendas and self-interest” (Lane, 2017, p. 22). Practitioners felt the need to adopt an organizational persona, which prevented them from giving ‘genuine’ responses (Lane, 2017).

Understanding that public relations, public diplomacy, and international relations are focused on relationship-building, the current research expects to find Kent and Taylor’s (2002) tenets of dialogue useful for understanding how U.S. Embassies interact with their foreign publics.

Constructivist Approach to International Relations Theory

Dolea (2015) argued that the field of public diplomacy has become too large to be examined through the lens of a single discipline. In answer to her call to broaden the

approach, this thesis examines food diplomacy through the constructivist approach to international relations theory. Because the U.S. food diplomacy landscape encompasses foreign policy, culture, and political values, it is important for research to consider both public relations and international relations theories. As Gaither & Curtin (2008) have encouraged, this thesis examines international public relations (and through it public diplomacy and nation branding) as a constructive process. International relations theory is very broad, with many lenses through which to understand patterns of events (Sterling-Folker, 2013). Sterling-Folker (2013) explained the constructivist approach to international relations very simply: if we were to perceive each other as friends rather than enemies, the outcomes could be different.

Ruggie (1998) explained that the constructivist approach to international relations theory holds that

the building blocks of international reality are ideational as well as material; that ideational factors have normative as well as instrumental dimensions; that they express not only individual but also collective intentionality; and that the meaning and significance of ideational factors are not independent of time and place. (Ruggie, 1998, p. 879)

This approach is especially important to the present thesis, as it considers both national identity and individual identity and how they interact. Identity is formed not only by physical dimensions (where and when one is born) but ideational dimensions (what economic or political system one adheres to). In terms of food diplomacy, someone born in the U.S. may feel that their national identity is represented by a hamburger,

whereas someone born in Mexico identifies more with tortillas.

The way nation-states interact with each other constructs the global environment (Hopf, 1998; Sterling-Folker, 2013). Constructivists tend to see the identities and interests we perceive as socially constructed by the way we interact with one another, also called “intersubjective meanings” (Hopf, 1998; Sterling-Folker, 2013). Hopf (1998) stated that once identified, there is a certain expectation of predictability in interests, preferences, and patterns of behavior. In other words, knowing what national identity a person has can enable more appropriate interactions and expectations. Staying with the above food diplomacy example, if someone from the U.S. was a guest in Mexico, he/she might expect to be served tortillas.

In the example, the expectation of a U.S. guest in Mexico is formed not necessarily from their experience, but from a perceived construction of what dinner in Mexico might look like. If the Mexican host indeed serves tortillas, the association of tortillas with Mexican food identity is reinforced. The overlap of the constructivist approach with coorientation theory is, of course, the focus on intersubjective meaning. The high level of globalization, again, requires a type of two-way interaction that includes the construction of intersubjective meaning. The intersubjective nature of the constructivist approach is what makes it so important to the application of international public relations and public diplomacy. Practitioners need to keep in mind not only what they want to portray to a foreign audience, but also how they will be received in light of the existing understanding that the audience has of them.

Rather than looking at a single event as a case study, as has been done

previously, many scholars are beginning to look for the wider pattern that fits food diplomacy (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2012; Zhang, 2015). As we are primarily concerned with the interactions of states with publics, it is important to keep in mind that, from this consideration of this approach, “interaction among nation-states can lead to the development of identities ... which can become entrenched over time and reinforced by continued interaction that appears to confirm the identity as true” (Sterling-Folker, 2013, p. 129). It is important for a diplomatic mission to engage with the culture in which it is immersed. While informing foreign publics about our culture is important, we must also demonstrate a willingness to understand and engage with theirs. Food culture is a relatively easy way to both share culture and engage with foreign culture (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2014). Rockower (2014) said “There are few aspects as deeply or uniquely tied to culture, history, or geography as cuisine” (p. 13).

Food as Communication and Relationship Building Tool

Public relations, public diplomacy, and international relations have in common their basis in relationship building (Snow, 2015). Food is perhaps the oldest relationship building tool, while also serving basic human needs (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Ichijo & Ranta, 2016). Cramer (2011) stated “food is laden with social and cultural values and ideals and has potent communication power” (p. 317). Food, as this thesis will establish, can be used in communication across many levels from state-to-state to person-to-person. For the purpose of this thesis, it is important to remember that the rhetoric of food, how we talk about and frame food, is just as important to the process of food diplomacy as the existence of a unique culinary heritage or policy. Constructivist

international relations theory is also interested in the rhetoric of international relations (Hopf, 1998; Ruggie, 1998; Sterling-Folker, 2013), which can be applied to food diplomacy. There is a systematic way in which food is presented to foreign audiences (Zhang, 2015) and that presentation method is a large part of what public relations and public diplomacy practitioners and scholars should be adopting into regular practice. Understanding how a culture presents its food can be an important indicator of how they see themselves, assisting with the coorientation process. Treating international relations and public diplomacy as a continual process can set an international public relations practitioner in a better position to be successful with their international relationship-building endeavors.

Many countries have been extremely successful in reaching foreign publics through their use of culinary diplomacy and gastrodiploamacy campaigns (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2014; Ruddy, 2014). Having recognized food as something necessary to all life, these governments have found a way to reach out to foreign audiences through food. Gastrodiploamacy tactics appeal to foreign publics via restaurants and through tourism campaigns while culinary diplomacy appeals directly to high-level state representatives and leaders (Rockower, 2012; Ruddy, 2014).

Gastrodiploamacy and culinary diplomacy are not the only means of food communication in which the U.S. engages, however. Topics such as food security and assistance are also on the table. The state depends on cooperative programs with other states as well as local organizations, producers, and citizens to make food security and assistance programs effective. Security and assistance go further however, in that a central tenet of U.S. food security and assistance is better nutrition and producing

practices (“Food Assistance,” 2012). By engaging with foreign publics on these topics - to improve global nutrition and food security - the U.S. is communicating its national brand. There is a two-way exchange of information to ensure that the U.S. is also respecting the culture of the foreign state and public with which they engage on these topics.

Although this thesis is focused on the positive benefits of food diplomacy, there are also possible negative outcomes. While food can serve as a communication and relationship-building tool, it can also serve as a pressure point, due to its cultural value. Any national symbol can become a source of conflict with other states and foreign citizens and food is no exception. For example, there has been conflict between Israelis and Palestinians over who has the claim to hummus, a dish which is quite common in many cultures (Cheslow, 2015). Another example is the dish “keshkek,” added to the “Intangible Heritage” list for Turkey (Osipova, 2014). Armenians have the same dish, which they call “harisa.” They were incensed when the announcement was made about “keshkek” and have been fighting to overturn it since (Osipova, 2014). A final example is an issue that occurred when the Iranian president visited Italy and France during a business trip. While Italy agreed to cover nude statues and take wine off the menu when the Iranian president visited, France refused to make similar adjustments to the menu (remove the wine). This caused the Iranian president to cancel lunch during his visit to France to sign business deals after years of economic sanctions (Kennedy, 2016; Mortimer, 2016). Although wine at lunch might seem to be a minor part of a meeting between states, it was enough to cause discord between France and Iran.

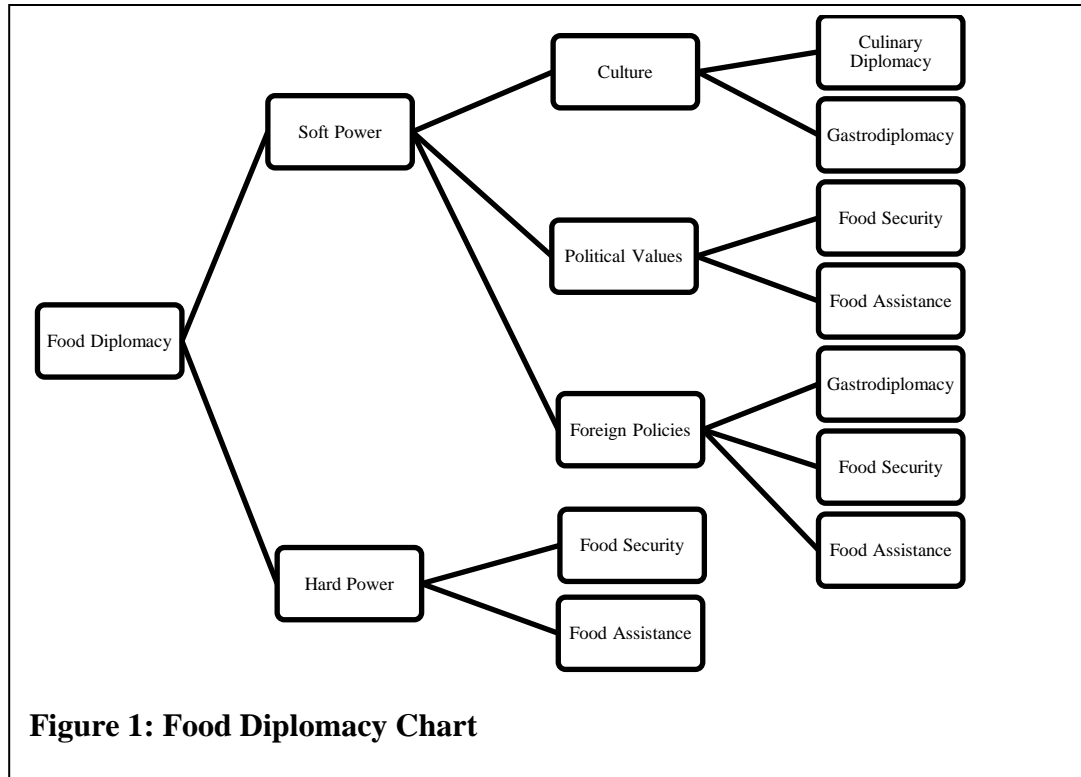
Food Diplomacy

Although food has been a natural part of diplomatic conversations through state dinners, the study of how states use their unique culinary culture as a tool and asset for international relations is comparatively new (Chapple-Sokol, 2013). Thompson (2012) said that “food intersects with identity,” and for nations with an opportunity to brand or rebrand, food is an integral part of that process. But the scope of food diplomacy in terms of relationship building and maintenance tools in the U.S. is much broader than previous research has argued. The U.S. also engages in programs that promote food security and food assistance, not only with local governments, but also with universities, researchers and NGOs. These are unique programs in which the government has a chance to directly affect the lives of foreign publics. As such, these should be included in the mapping of U.S. food diplomacy.

To understand food diplomacy, it is important to understand that it entails both hard and soft power. As Nye (2008) pointed out, soft power comes from three sources: culture, political values, and foreign policies. In terms of food diplomacy, culinary diplomacy and gastrodiplomacy are firmly under the umbrella of soft power, specifically under culture and foreign policies. Food security and assistance, on the other hand, are more complex, with some soft and hard power elements (see Figure 1). This complexity has caused previous researchers to dismiss food assistance and security when discussing culinary diplomacy and gastrodiplomacy, other than to illustrate what culinary diplomacy and gastrodiplomacy are not. This author argues that food diplomacy encompasses all four of these food diplomacy types, with both soft and hard power applications (see Table 1).

Table 1: Typology of Food Diplomacy

	Definition	Alternative Terms	Level of Diplomatic Interaction	Diplomatic Power	Goals
Culinary Diplomacy	"the use of food and cuisine as an instrument to create cross-cultural understanding in the hope of improving interactions and cooperation" (Chapple-Sokol, 2013, p. 162)	Gastronomic diplomacy (Constantinou, 1996); diplomatic gastronomy (Morgan, 2012); gastro-logic diplomacy (Constantinou, 1996)	State-to-State	Soft Power: Culture	To build and improve relationships at the formal diplomatic level.
Gastrodiplomacy	a special diplomatic tool that uses the unique culinary heritage of a state that "specifically involves government-to-foreign public engagement. ... it may be considered a sub-component of public diplomacy. Its goals are to build a nation's soft power, to promote trade and tourism, and to encourage cultural exchange" (Chapple-Sokol, 2016, para. 6).	gastromationalism;	State-to-State People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture; Foreign Policies	To use culinary and food culture to build and improve relationships and national brand.
Food Security	"access to – and availability, utilization, and stability of – sufficient food to meet caloric and nutritional needs for an active and healthy life" ("U.S. Governmental Global Food Security Strategy", 2016, p. viii)		State-to-State State-to-People People-to-People	Soft Power: Political Values; Foreign Policies	To use culinary and food culture to build and improve relationships with the goal of increasing global nutrition and long-term food security.
Food Assistance	an action that "improves access to, and consumption of, adequate, safe, and nutritious food" ("Food Assistance," 2012, Article 1)	Food Aid; Food Relief;	State-to-State State-to-People People-to-People	Soft Power: Political Values; Foreign Policies	To use culinary and food culture to build and improve relationships with the goal of increasing global nutrition and short-term food security.



Culinary Diplomacy. Chapple-Sokol (2013) defined culinary diplomacy as “the use of food and cuisine as an instrument to create cross-cultural understanding in the hope of improving interactions and cooperation” (p. 162). Although he used the term interchangeably with gastrodiplomacy, the two terms represent different aspects of food diplomacy. Culinary diplomacy encompasses terms such as gastronomic diplomacy (Constantinou, 1996) and diplomatic gastronomy (Morgan, 2012). Constantinou (1996) was one of the first writers to discuss *gastronomic diplomacy*. He explained the long history of food in the context of community relations and communication within as well as among states. He argued that the act of eating together (commensality) allows the community to form the highest possible bond, enabling a united front on topics of common good and public interest (Constantinou, 1996). Diplomatic gastronomy,

according to Morgan (2012), solely represents the official activities of leaders of state when they eat together. Constantinou (1996) also introduced the term *gastro-logic diplomacy*, where, during formal state dinners, someone has to both take responsibility for food and drink choices and appropriate seating charts and table manners. In terms of nation branding, the commonalities in national gastronomy practices create a common bond within a state. The same commonalities present an opportunity to enhance a national brand and build common ground between states and foreign publics if they are properly accounted for.

Gastrodiplomacy. Gastrodiplomacy is a special diplomatic tool that uses the unique culinary heritage of a state that “specifically involves government-to-foreign public engagement. ... it may be considered a sub-component of public diplomacy. Its goals are to build a nation’s soft power, to promote trade and tourism, and to encourage cultural exchange” (Chapple-Sokol, 2016, para. 6). Gastrodiplomacy is a term that was first used by *The Economist* in 2002 (Ichijo & Ranta, 2016) and popularized by Rockower (Chapple-Sokol, 2013). It is used to indicate the communication efforts directed at foreign publics through the use of a country’s unique culinary culture (Chapple-Sokol, 2013).

Gastrodiplomacy requires a cultural understanding of food and using it as a cultural advantage in the realm of soft power (Chapple-Sokol, 2013). Gastrodiplomacy programs are used as a means to improve national image by using a nation’s food to change public perceptions and promote smaller nation-states on the global stage (Ruddy, 2014). Gastronationalism, as discussed above, falls under this type of food diplomacy. Pigman (2010) wrote that cultural diplomacy is a particularly useful means

for a state to communicate to others about themselves to increase familiarity, understanding, and positive feelings/opinions.

The only formal U.S. gastrodiplomacy program currently enacted is the diplomatic culinary partnership with the Fred Beard Foundation (“State of Global Partnerships,” 2015). The partnership was established in 2012 and aims to increase culinary engagement as well as promote American food products in both formal and public diplomacy efforts (“State of Global Partnerships,” 2015). The chefs of the partnership form the American Chef Corp, a group of renowned chefs who have volunteered as resources for the State Department (“Launch Diplomatic Culinary Partnership,” 2012). The chefs travel to other countries to “promote American agricultural food exports, highlight regional American cuisines and tourism destinations, and participate in other high-visibility activities” (“Tourism Promotion,” 2014).

Many countries have been extremely successful in reaching foreign publics through their use of gastrodiplomacy campaigns (Chapple-Sokol, 2013). Having recognized food as a life-necessity, these governments have found a way to reach out through the aspect they know they have in common with the rest of the world. Sometimes, gastrodiplomacy tactics appeal to foreign publics via restaurants and through tourism campaigns (Rockower, 2012; Ruddy, 2014). It goes further, however, into the realm of person-to-person diplomacy. Some governments (such as the government of Thailand) recognize that their communication can be perceived as propaganda. The government of Thailand enacted a program called “Global Thai” in which they encouraged their citizens to open restaurants and act as unofficial

ambassadors to every individual who frequents their restaurant (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2012). The program went further by creating a Global Thai seal of authenticity, which labeled restaurants and food products as authentic Thai. They measured their success by the overall increase of Thai restaurants around the world and the global recognition of Thai food, both of which increased significantly in the decade after the program was implemented (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2012). Now, many countries, including Australia, Peru, and Italy, have enacted gastrodiplomacy campaigns around the world.

Food Security. The U.S. Government Global Food Security Strategy (U.S. Government, 2016) defines *Food security and nutrition* as “access to – and availability, utilization, and stability of – sufficient food to meet caloric and nutritional needs for an active and healthy life” (p. viii). While this is not what previous researchers have considered in terms of public diplomacy strategy, it is an important aspect due to the definition of public diplomacy, which includes communicating and developing support for U.S. policies. In the strategy the U.S. Department of State has several designated roles, including “Leads Department’s public diplomacy efforts on global food security and nutrition” (U.S. Government, 2016). While global food security is a whole of government initiative, involving many departments, public diplomacy is required for communicating with and educating foreign publics.

Former Secretary of State John Kerry tied the concept of culinary diplomacy and gastrodiplomacy to food security during his speech at the Milan Expo reception (“Remarks at the Diplomatic Culinary Partnership,” 2015). The theme of the Milan

Expo was “Feeding the Planet,” and the U.S. pavilion was staffed, in part, by chefs from the diplomatic corp. Their purpose, according to Secretary Kerry was to

help us explore the future of the global food system and participate in discussions on things as simple as labeling, school lunches, working with others from around the world to figure out ways that chefs can help drive sustainability and help us protect the entire food chain. (“Remarks at the Diplomatic Culinary Partnership,” 2015)

Secretary Kerry felt that chefs and food have a place in promoting and creating the future of food security, it must therefore be studied along with other aspects of food diplomacy.

Feed the Future is a U.S. government program that aims to reduce hunger and poverty on a global scale (Feed the Future, 2016). The program has partnered with local governments and programs to find sustainable ways to continue improving world hunger levels and future increases in global nutritional need. The program goes further than partnering with foreign countries, however, by engaging with the private sector, researchers, universities, farmers, ranchers and NGOs in order to find the best solutions to hunger and poverty (Feed the Future, 2016). Food security is an important global concern, primarily engaging with the future need of the worldwide population. For more pressing, immediate concerns, the U.S. engages in food assistance programs.

Food Assistance. It is important to take this term under consideration of food diplomacy, as it is a diplomatic act involving food and foreign publics, but also because it presents a public diplomacy opportunity to communicate U.S. foreign policies. The

U.S. participated in and agreed to the policies of the United Nations Food Assistance Convention in 2012. *Food assistance* was there defined as an action that aims to

“save lives, reduce hunger, improve food security, and improve the nutritional status of the most vulnerable populations by: ... improves access to, and consumption of, adequate, safe, and nutritious food; ... is appropriate, timely, effective, efficient, and based on needs and shared principles; and facilitating information-sharing, cooperation, and coordination, and providing a forum for discussion in order to improve the effective, efficient, and coherent use of the Parties’ resources to respond to needs” (“Food Assistance,” 2012, Article 1).

The term encompasses other such terms as “food aid” and “food relief” as well as being included under the umbrella of *food security*. It is treated separately here because of the difference in timing. Whereas food security is about future-thinking, food assistance is concerned with current or immediate needs. This becomes an issue of public diplomacy only in certain circumstances. Gastrodiplomacy and culinary diplomacy may not be the appropriate tactics for two-way communication in a region experiencing food shortages.

The international food assistance agreement aims to provide food assistance in a way that uses local resources. For the purposes of this thesis, the interaction is described as one between states and foreign publics, or public diplomacy. There are many activities involved in food assistance that are not public diplomacy. In fact, previous research has asserted that food assistance is not culinary diplomacy or gastrodiplomacy (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2012), with which the current research agrees.

However, when considering the definitions offered and the goal of mapping out all U.S.

diplomacy efforts, it would be an error not to consider how food assistance and security programs contribute to the U.S. brand as well as relationship building efforts.

Although on the surface food assistance and food security programs are good programs for the U.S. to engage in, they are not without their problems and critics. Ichijo and Ranta (2016) remind readers of the sensitivity surrounding food aid. The U.S. has previously been accused of using food aid as a way to advance genetically modified (GM) crops around the world (Ichijo & Ranta, 2016). The document produced by the United Nations Food Assistance Convention (2012) contends that all governments will work with local states to provide food aid in a way that is ethical and acceptable to those receiving the aid. Because the U.S. is a part of that agreement, it is especially important to be aware of how participating in international food assistance and security initiatives reflect on the U.S. brand.

Public Diplomacy Online

While the use of social media is certainly a two-edged sword, it is a tool that must be taken seriously when thinking about or implementing public diplomacy. The Internet has become the “principal medium for global information exchange and interaction” (Copeland, 2013, p. 454). Digital communication has given governments an unprecedented ability to communicate with their citizens as well as the citizens of foreign countries (Copeland, 2013; Ki, 2015; Snow, 2015). Aside from the sweeping capabilities, digital communication can be incredibly inexpensive. As an added benefit, the embassy is in complete control of messaging with social media, unlike traditional news media. Use of nation branding via social media can be an exceptionally useful tactic.

Strauß, Kruikemeier, van der Meulen, and Noort (2015) argued that “social media opens windows of opportunities for public diplomacy as it enables engagement with the general public and specific audiences across national borders ... avoiding financial and bureaucratic obstacles” (p. 369). The U.S. Department of State has increasingly recognized the potential of using new media in its public diplomacy strategy (Arsenault & Hayden, 2014). However, there are few extant studies. This thesis will contribute more information on how U.S. Embassies are using social media to reach foreign audience.

Strauß et al. (2015) have identified six key communication strategies to be used in digital diplomacy: interactive communication, personalized communication, use of sentiment, relevant information, transparent communication, and networking. Interactive communication is two-way communication, in which the embassy should be engaging directly with followers on social media. Personalized communication should be reflected in the use of personal information and interpersonal communication rather than simply organizational messages. Use of sentiment is described as use of tone and expression of some emotion. Relevant information is the sharing of information relevant to the target audience. Transparent communication is harder to define, but essentially requires enough information for the audience to feel that they understand the aims of the embassy page. Finally, networking is the use of tagging and interacting with other pages, perhaps other embassies or governmental agencies, or even high-profile celebrities in their local country. These strategies will serve to measure how U.S. Embassies are using social media.

Research Questions

Based on the literature review, several questions arose as to how the U.S. government uses food diplomacy to communicate with foreign publics.

- RQ 1: What types of food diplomacy posts are present in U.S. Embassy Facebook pages during the period 2009 - 2016?
- RQ 2: In what ways do food diplomacy posts promote two-way engagement with foreign populations?
- RQ 3: What elements of food diplomacy posts demonstrate successful engagement efforts of foreign publics?

Food diplomacy literature has been a tangle of overlapping terms and definitions. This literature review has begun to clarify these concepts, as demonstrated by the proposed food diplomacy typology. Food diplomacy is a tool of nation branding and relationship-building and understanding this phenomenon can help scholars and practitioners to use it more effectively. The next chapter describes how this thesis explored food diplomacy as manifested in the Facebook posts of U.S. Embassies.

Chapter 3: Method

The literature review established that there are four types of food diplomacy: Culinary diplomacy, gastrodiploamacy, food security, and food assistance. The author has chosen to study how food diplomacy is being used by the U.S. government through a case study. This chapter will explain why, as well as detailing the method for completing the case study.

Case Study

The method chosen to examine the state of U.S. food diplomacy is a case study. This gives the study a certain amount of creative freedom to answer the research questions as fully as possible, while retaining the “holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events” (Yin, 1994, p. 3). It is also the preferred method for studying current events that cannot be manipulated (Yin, 1994). The case study will answer the research questions through quantitative and qualitative content analysis. The units of analysis are publicly available English-language Facebook posts by official U.S. Embassy Facebook pages.

The time frame chosen for analysis is the two terms of the Obama Administration. The time period includes all dates from January 20, 2009 through January 19, 2017. This particular range was chosen as one that had a definite beginning and ending, and because the widely-accepted success of the Obama campaign was its use of social media in a strategic way. An increase in social media use across all embassy pages over the time span is expected. During the time period a few events, including the implementation of the diplomatic culinary partnership in 2012 and the

Milan Expo in 2015, are expected to have had an effect on the frequency of food diplomacy posts.

Population and Sample Selection

The sample for this case study was selected from among the 219 embassies, missions, and consulates listed on the U.S. State Department website (state.gov). Only U.S. embassies are included in the sample, as the research questions are focused on state-to-public communication. Missions were not included because this thesis is primarily interested in embassy-to-public communication, whereas missions are involved primarily in state-to-state interactions. Consulates were not included in an attempt to reduce replication of posts. This left a population of 180 U.S. embassies. Recent U.S. Department of State documents (United States Department of State & USAID Strategic Plan FY 2014-2017, 2014) indicate that the Near East and North Africa region, as well as the East Asia and Pacific regions are of the highest importance for near-future diplomacy efforts. The population was limited to these regions due to their importance to diplomacy efforts. The regions include 50 states, with 44 embassies. Each has a core website. For this sample only sites that had both a core embassy website and a Facebook page were included; this left 41 embassies for the content analysis. Fiji and Tonga shared a core website and Facebook page, and were therefore counted only once. The list was further pared to 20 by focusing on Muslim-majority countries. Once keyword analysis was completed, two more countries were removed, due to having no English posts.

The keyword analysis yielded 2,425 posts. A closer reading for topicality left

1,730 posts. The number of posts from each embassy ranged from seven to 176. Twenty percent of the posts were chosen for analysis using a free online random number generator. The sample was selected based on the percentage of posts from each embassy so that each embassy was accurately represented in the final sample. The final number of posts to be analyzed was 347. The final number of posts completely coded was 271.

Table 2

Sampled U.S. Embassies

Country	First Post Date	# of Page Likes*	% Muslim Pop.	As of Date**	Posts in Sample
Algeria	7/17/2011	362,261	99	2012	20
Bahrain	10/27/2009	37,232	70.3	2010	11
Brunei	11/9/2011	9,464	78.8	2011	18
Egypt	9/24/2009	980,391	90	2015	16
Iraq	11/22/2009	1,087,850	99	2010	20
Jordan	9/24/2009	462,127	97.2	2010	33
Kuwait	8/18/2010	18,479	76.7	2013	20
Lebanon	1/21/2010	72,747	54	2012	28
Libya	11/14/2011	421,885	96.6	2010	9
Malaysia	5/11/2011	71,662	61.3	2010	35
Morocco	6/19/2009	141,432	99	2010	30
Oman	6/14/2011	12,596	85.9	2010	14
Qatar	8/28/2009	37,431	67.7	2010	25
Saudi Arabia	2/2/2009	137,049	100***	2012	2
Syria	1/14/2009	94,462	87	n.d.	13
Tunisia	3/25/2009	205,610	99.1	n.d.	13
United Arab Emirates	8/23/2009	69,129	76	2005	26
Yemen	5/4/2009	81,923	99.1	2010	14

*Page likes at time of study, June 2017

**Date as reported in CIA World Factbook

***100% (all citizens required to be Muslim, non-Muslims not counted in population)

Food diplomacy is a tool of relationship-building. The Islamic culture is widely misunderstood by U.S. citizens, and Muslims in predominantly Muslim countries have a generally negative opinion of Westerners (Lipka, 2017). The sample consisted of

Muslim-majority countries for three primary reasons. First, the Islamic State (ISIS or ISIL) is a mainstay in the media and political debates (Lipka, 2017), and has contributed to much of the misunderstanding in the U.S. towards Islam in general. Second, there is a generally negative view on both sides (U.S. and foreign Muslims) of each other. Lipka (2017) said that a majority of Muslims surveyed view Westerners as selfish, violent, greedy, immoral, arrogant, and fanatical. Westerners surveyed view Muslims as fanatical and violent, but also honest (Lipka, 2017). U.S. restaurants, such as the Conflict Kitchen in Pittsburgh, have built their menu around conflict, believing that food can bridge the misunderstandings. Focusing on Muslim-majority countries will demonstrate this idea because Muslim food culture is often misunderstood by U.S. citizens and U.S. food culture can be misunderstood as well. Third, there is a distinct lack of knowledge on both sides that has created the current environment of distrust. Ichijo and Ranta (2016) argued “that how people perceive food impacts upon how they view themselves and their national identity” (p. 2). How the food of another culture is perceived impacts how that culture is viewed. Positive food associations with another culture can create openings for other positive associations. Food diplomacy helps to create bridges where nothing else seems to exist in common. The distance between U.S. food culture and Muslim food culture will demonstrate the relationship-building potential of food diplomacy.

Data Collection

A free online export tool from the University of Oslo (called simply “Facebook tool”) was used to export Facebook posts from the time period in question. A total of 51,254 posts were retrieved from the 20 embassies over the selected period of January

20, 2009 through January 19, 2017. Again, this time period was chosen because of the example set by the Obama Administration of social media outreach, which likely influenced the frequency with which embassies posted. A large sample was required for this research, as the percentage of posts dedicated to food diplomacy topics was expected to be relatively small. Posts were chosen by using a keyword search of the documents. The keyword list currently contains 69 terms related to food and food activities, along with some terms unique to Muslim cuisine. These keywords were chosen by examining the index of *Food as Communication / Communication as Food* (Cramer, Greene, & Walters, 2011) and *Food, National Identity and Nationalism: From Everyday to Global Politics* (Ichijo & Ranta, 2016). Keywords were also taken from the literature review. After a test of the terms with five of the included embassies, some words were removed and others added based on common terms that showed up in several of the posts. Some terms were added as unique to a country, such as the name of a particular visiting chef. The content of posts that involve a food topic were further analyzed in order to answer the research questions.

Intercoder Reliability

For the content analysis, one coder was trained by the researcher in addition to the researcher. To establish intercoder reliability, both coders coded 20% of the sample (70 Facebook posts). An initial overall Holsti agreement of 0.71 was established, with several items being well below the 0.70 threshold. The researcher questioned the second coder to determine what differences had been found and to clarify any confusion. Another draft of the codebook was created to provide more details, as well as to clarify some terms. One major point of confusion was terms relating specifically to Muslim

meals and traditions, such as Iftar (the meal eaten by Muslims after sunset during Ramadan). Once the clarifications were made, coding was repeated, with an additional 10 items included. The final agreement was acceptable. All items were coded for unit, month, year, and embassy; these were at least 0.86 Holsti agreement. The food topic category determined whether the coder would continue to code for remaining categories, anything that was not a food topic was discarded. The coders disagreed on 11 posts. These posts were removed from calculation of agreement for the remaining categories, as Holsti only includes items for which both coders coded. Most of the remaining items were above the acceptable threshold of agreement of 0.70. One item, Country of Origin, had a final agreement of 0.56. The majority of coding categories were above the 0.70 threshold of agreement (see Table 3).

The codebook was additionally clarified for items which did not meet the minimum 0.70 threshold. These included food topic, country, and link. A third coder was trained in an attempt to increase intercoder agreement on these five items.

Coding was initially recorded in an Excel sheet, and then transferred to SPSS for analysis. This was done in order to record qualitative items alongside quantitative items. Additional qualitative notes were recorded in a separate Word document, using unit numbers to identify specific items.

Table 3*Intercoder Reliability*

	Coding Category	Holsti Intercoder Reliability
Basic Information Items	Unit	1
	Month	0.94
	Year	1
	Embassy	0.86
	Food Topic ¹	0.78
Interactivity Items	@Mentions	0.75
	Hashtags	0.80
	Shared Content	0.74
	Mobilize Action Online	0.78
	Reply	0.80
	Mobilize Action Offline	0.85
	Ask Question	0.84
Personalization	Informal Language	0.76
	First-Person Language	0.74
	Image Present	0.81
	Personal Life Example	0.74
Sentiment: Tone	Tone	0.80
Sentiment: Emotion	Emotion	0.76
Relevance	Link ¹	0.72
	Country Promotion ²	0.69

¹ Intercoder agreement for these items was initially below the acceptable 0.70 threshold

² Intercoder agreement was still low after a third coder was trained and coded

Operationalization

RQ 1: What types of food diplomacy posts are present in U.S. Embassy

Facebook pages during the period 2009 - 2016?

To answer this RQ, each post was coded for topicality, with the expectation that it would fall into one of the four types of food diplomacy: culinary diplomacy,

gastrodiplomacy, food security, and food assistance. For the codebook, each topic was defined according to the definitions and descriptions found in the literature review and described in the original typology.

At the conclusion of the initial coding session, gastrodiplomacy was found to take up a significantly larger portion of the sample than the other categories. All posts categorized as gastrodiplomacy posts were examined again for any patterns indicative of possible sub-categories. This involved a close re-reading of each post.

RQ 2: In what ways do food diplomacy posts promote two-way engagement with foreign populations?

To answer this RQ, the researcher examined the elements of Facebook posts that promote two-way engagement, rather than evidence of two-way engagement. Posts were analyzed for the qualities of engaging communication suggested by Strauß et al. (2015): interactive communication, personalized communication, use of sentiment, relevant information, transparent communication, and networking.

Strauß et al. (2015) argued that social media are powerful channels for communication with key stakeholders, but only if “used in an engaging way: using an appealing communication style that suits the media environment” (p. 370). For this they analyzed content using the following table:

Table 4
Engaging Elements

Interactivity	Personalization	Sentiment: Tone	Sentiment: Emotion	Relevance
@Mentions	Informal use of language	Negative	Use of emotion in post/message	Focus of the message (on host or home country)
Hashtag	First Person	Neutral		Link
Share*	Personal picture	Positive		Promotion (of host or home country)
Mobilize Action Online	Personal life			
Response to Answer				
Mobilize Action Offline				
Ask Question				

Adapted from Strauß et al. (2015, p. 373).

*Indicates element adjusted for use with Facebook

Posts in the current sample were content analyzed for similar features, which were adapted for Facebook as needed.

RQ 2 was also assessed qualitatively for dialogic qualities, as described by Taylor and Kent (2002). These include mutuality, propinquity, empathy, risk, and commitment. Although dialogue requires participation by both the embassy and its audience, the researcher only looked for the presence of these elements as demonstrated by the embassy for the purpose of answering RQ 2. RQ 3 assessed the audience's engagement with these qualitative elements. Each post was read carefully to examine it

for the above-mentioned dialogic qualities, which the researcher then documented and examined for larger patterns.

RQ 3: What elements of food diplomacy posts demonstrate successful engagement efforts of foreign publics?

To assess the success of engagement efforts by the embassy via Facebook, external interactions with posts, including likes, reactions, comments, and shares, were analyzed. A series of correlations, *t* tests, and one-way ANOVAs were completed to determine whether a relationship exists between engaging elements, as assessed for RQ 2, and the external interactions. The researcher looked for significant interactions to determine on an individual level what items or elements of each type of food diplomacy post might increase or decrease audience external interactions.

The posts and their comments were also inspected for evidence of successful dialogue, per Kent and Taylor's (2002) tenets of dialogism (p. 24). This qualitative assessment was intended to produce a more well-rounded picture of whether or how food diplomacy can be used to successfully engage foreign publics. Posts and comments were read for qualities that conformed to the principles of mutuality, propinquity, empathy, risk, and commitment. When found, the researcher documented and later examined these elements for patterns.

Although the case study methodology does not allow the researcher to make inferences, it can help to start the process of mapping U.S. food diplomacy efforts. The results of this study are presented in the next chapter. They are divided by research questions.

Chapter 4: Results

To answer the research questions, an exploratory case study was conducted. The purpose of an exploratory case study is to deliberate the value of further investigation of the topic (Yin, 2014). The aim of this study is to validate further investigation into the food diplomacy phenomenon. Posts from eighteen U.S. Embassy Facebook pages were searched for keywords pertaining to food diplomacy. These posts were content-analyzed for key features indicative of engagement practices by the embassy. The results were both quantitative and qualitative. The following outlines the findings to answer the research questions.

Research Question 1

RQ 1: What types of food diplomacy posts are present in U.S. Embassy Facebook pages during the period 2009 - 2016?

Research question 1 was answered by examining the topics of embassy posts. Post topics are perhaps the most important means of promoting two-way engagement between the sampled embassies and their foreign publics. The topics demonstrate an understanding of, though not necessarily a balance between, the need to explain U.S. food culture and to understand the importance of local food culture. For this research, the following definitions and operationalizations were used:

Gastrodiplomacy is any food interaction between a state/state representative and a foreign public, such as an embassy-sponsored food fair. It can also be people-to-people, such as a visiting chef, food diaspora, cultural restaurants (such as a restaurant with halal offerings) or any other example of intercultural food events. Gastrodiplomacy also

includes food-culture, meaning food-oriented holidays or events, or even food-based language learning

Food security is understood as future-based food study or planning, such as programs to develop drought-resistant crops. This also includes any educational efforts to increase healthy food choices and environmentally sustainable food choices. This may also appear in international assistance programs that teach immigrants/refugees agricultural techniques as marketable skills.

Food assistance is any topic involving current nutritional needs, such as relief during or after a natural disaster or poor growing season.

Culinary diplomacy is understood as formal food interactions between states, such as formal dinners among state representatives. There will be no interaction between non-government citizens and government officials for culinary diplomacy.

Gastrodiplomacy accounted for most post topics, with 198 (73.1%) posts. Food Security accounted for 40 (14.8%) posts, Food Assistance accounted for 14 (5.2%) posts, and Culinary Diplomacy accounted for 13 (4.8%) of posts. More than one type and other accounted for 6 posts total (2.2%). While these results were expected, the high percentage of gastrodiplomacy topics indicates that the category can be further divided.

Table 5
Food Diplomacy Topic Findings

Food Diplomacy Type	Posts in Sample	Percent of Sample
Gastrodiplomacy	198	73.1
Food Security	40	14.8
Food Assistance	14	5.2
Culinary Diplomacy	13	4.8
Total	265	97.9

Gastrodiplomacy. Gastrodiplomacy constituted the vast majority of post topics, and so compelled closer examination. Six topics made up large and interesting sections: Holiday-related food events and culture, non-holiday embassy-hosted events, food culture diaspora, chef exchanges, food tourism and English-language learning. Together, these six topics account for 86% of all gastrodiplomacy topics.

Table 6
Gastrodiplomacy Sub-Topic Findings

Gastrodiplomacy Sub-topic	Total Posts	% of Gastrodiplomacy Posts	% of Sampled Posts
Holiday-Related Food Events and Culture	77	38.9	28.4
Non-Holiday Embassy-Hosted Events	32	16.2	11.8
Food Culture Diaspora	19	9.6	7.0
Chef Exchanges	15	7.6	5.5
Food Tourism	14	7.1	5.2
English Language Learning	13	6.6	4.8
Total	170	86	62.7

Holiday-oriented food traditions were common post topics, with posts about Thanksgiving, Ramadan, Halloween, Easter, Fourth of July, and others accounting for 77 posts. Further, posts from the months during which the two biggest food holidays occur, June/July for Ramadan and November for Thanksgiving, account for 42.8% of the sample, suggesting that embassies post more during those months. Both holidays are a bridging point for U.S. culture and Muslim culture. They are focused on a certain mindfulness of thanksgiving and feature feasts and special foods. Among other parallels is the idea of giving to the less fortunate during these holiday seasons. Several posts feature President Obama and his family volunteering at soup kitchens to serve food to the less fortunate on Thanksgiving. For example:

“President Obama and his family are a part of a growing #Thanksgiving tradition in the United States. Since 2008, the Obamas have spent part of their Thanksgiving Day preparing holiday meals at Washington-area soup kitchens or distributing food at one of the city’s food banks, working alongside other #volunteers” (U.S. Embassy Cairo, 2015, November 26).

Other posts promote young Muslims in the U.S. who volunteer during Ramadan, participating in food prep for the less fortunate:

“During #Ramadan, young Muslim volunteers prepare packaged meals with rice and dehydrated vegetables for less fortunate families in the Detroit area. The volunteer event was organized by Islamic Relief USA.” (U.S. Embassy Kuala Lumpur, 2013, July 10).

These parallels between holiday traditions are precisely the sort of food-based culture-bridging topics that lend themselves to Facebook posting. While this sort of post could generally be considered a safe or neutral topic, the audience does occasionally find fault with some of the holidays celebrated by U.S. citizens, such as this commenter on a 2014 Halloween post:

“How unfair, its such hypocrisy of the USA, your children enjoy and have fun while our children die and hardly have any thing to eat to keep them alive in iraq, syria ,palestine and else where all because of your stupid selish forgin policieces... shame shame on you” [*sic*] (U.S. Embassy Cairo, Facebook commenter Adel Sham, 2014, October 31).

For the most part, however, the audience seems generally receptive to posts on the topic of holidays and their food traditions. Many comments are more to the tune of “Happy

Thanksgiving day for all American citizens” [*sic*] (U.S. Embassy Beirut, Facebook commenter Amal Arbid, 2016, November 24).

Non-holiday embassy hosted events accounted for an additional 32 posts. These events were varied, consisting of anything from coffee with the Under Secretary and local students (U.S. Embassy Cairo, 2016, February 9) to Discover America American Food Week (U.S. Embassy Kuwait, 2014, October 18). The events in this post demonstrate the most grassroots level of gastrodiplomacy, where embassy officials not only sponsor the events, but participate in them.

A notable example is that of the U.S. Ambassador to Brunei tasting local cuisine. “Over the weekend, Ambassador Shields and Deputy US Trade Representative, Ambassador Marantis enjoyed tasting some local cuisine such as the ‘kelupis’ while in Temburong. Share your favorite local food/snack/drink with us!” (U.S. Embassy Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei Darussalam, 2012, February 28). This not only shows the Ambassador engaging personally with local food culture via the included picture but makes an attempt at using it to start a conversation by asking the audience to share a favorite local item.

Another example features an event hosted by the U.S. Ambassador:

On October 22, 2015 Ambassador Bush, hosted a reception to celebrate the work of the High Atlas Foundation in Morocco. The special gathering at Villa America included 100 guests from different walks of life who all share a dedication to Morocco’s future and empowering marginalized people (US Embassy Rabat, 2015, October 27).

Once again, this demonstrates an effort on the part of the embassy to reach the foreign public in Morocco. Not only are they feeding their guests, but the program being celebrated is The House of Life initiative which “sees the Moroccan Jewish community lending land to build organic fruit tree nurseries for the benefit of local, Muslim farmers. The project also markets the product to global markets” (US Embassy Rabat, 2015, October 27).

Food culture diaspora accounted for 19 posts. Food culture diaspora refers to the movement of food culture away from traditional origin locations. This topic included items such as halal food trucks in the U.S., halal supermarkets in the U.S., U.S. restaurants in foreign countries, and restaurants started by emigrants to the U.S. featuring foods from their home countries. Food-culture crossover is something that occurs daily. As with the popularity of Thai food increasing globally, these restaurants, grocery stores, and food trucks can improve cultural understanding between cultures that seem dissimilar. In the sample, food-culture diaspora serves to propagate the idea of the American dream for Muslim people. Take for example this couple that decided to start a restaurant specializing in Middle Eastern sweets:

“Evelyn and Ahmad Aissa started Aissa Sweets three years ago in Concord, New Hampshire. The business started “with just an idea and a small amount of personal savings.” Now business is booming.” (U.S. Embassy Cairo, 2015, November 19)

Chef exchanges were the topic of 15 posts, and mostly included chefs serving as part of former-Secretary of State Clinton’s Chef Corps. These weren’t simply chefs cooking in foreign countries, however. Many of the visiting chefs spent time with the

host country's culture, visiting famous sites and learning to cook local dishes. Celebrity chef Duff Goldman, of Food Network's *Ace of Cakes* fame, visited Algeria in 2013. The embassy posted pictures of Duff and traveling companion "Geof" at Algerian site Maqam Echahid. One commenter asked whether they had visited museums such as "Rias el Bahr" (U.S. Embassy Algiers, Facebook commenter Souad Kacher, 2013, May 16). Another commenter said "welcome in Algeria, but, do not forget! U owe us one, u took a picture at Maqam Echahid, we need to make a picture besides the status of liberty" [*sic*] (U.S. Embassy Algiers, Facebook commenter Toufik Hadjazi, 2013, May 17). This exchange between post and comments is precisely what the embassy should be aiming for with food diplomacy posts.

Food tourism is another common topic with 14 posts. These include posts about specific types of U.S. cuisine, along with the associated history, as well as suggestions for foods to try in specific states and cities. This post, for example discusses the history of Louisiana Creole food and shares a recipe for the audience to try:

Doesn't this gumbo look good? The United States has diverse regional cultures influenced by the many different immigrants and their decedents [*sic*] who call the country home. Louisiana Creole food is a mix of African, French and Native cuisine. Come visit the U.S. for a taste of this amazing fusion or try the recipe out in your home country! (U.S. Embassy Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei Darussalam, 2012, February 2).

The interesting information, clear invitation and shared recipe all work well in this post to demonstrate an excellent example of gastrodiploamacy at work.

Finally, English-learning posts were a relatively common category with 13 posts, including everything from basic food categories to food idioms. There are many phrases in the English language which incorporate food terms and if taken literally can cause confusion for those new to English-speaking. One such phrase is “piece of cake,” as explained in this post:

Learn English in a Minute Watch the video and learn about the use of “Piece of Cake.” It does not literally refer to a piece of cake, but rather has a different meaning. Watch the video and type the meaning in your comment. (U.S.

Embassy Cairo, 2014, February 3)

Despite a lack of actual food here, the way we speak about food is an important aspect of food culture. For someone learning English, understanding idioms is a necessary part of understanding the language. Learning food-related terms is a common early lesson in most foreign language-learning endeavors. As stated earlier, eating is a universal requirement; everyone must eat. The following post is an excellent example of this language-learning requirement. “There are a large number of verbs in #English, so it is sometimes helpful to learn them by category or theme. Check out these 24 verbs related to cooking. What other #cooking verbs can you add to this list?” (U.S. Embassy Cairo, 2014, October 21).

The remaining 28 gastrodiploamacy post topics fall under the previously defined general category. That is, a special diplomatic tool that uses the unique culinary heritage of a state that “specifically involves government-to-foreign public engagement. ... it may be considered a sub-component of public diplomacy. Its goals are to build a nation’s soft power, to promote trade and tourism, and to encourage cultural exchange”

(Chapple-Sokol, 2016, para. 6). These remaining posts are broadly gastrodiploamacy, but do not fit under the more specific categories defined above.

Some posts that provide examples of this are those that share recipes, ask questions about favorite foods, and even feature Michelle Obama engaging in gastrodiploamacy among foreign populations.

The Great State of Texas has a cuisine all its own... find a recipe for one of its staples – chili – here [...] Let us know if you try it! (U.S. Embassy Algiers, 2011, December 13).

Mansaf? Cheeseburgers? Grapeleaves? Tell us your favorite food. Here is an article about the top 10 dishes from around the world. (U.S. Embassy – Jordan, 2013, January 24).

What did Michelle Obama cook in Milan with Italian and American students? “No matter where in the world we live, we all want healthy, nutritious food for our families,” she said, adding that beyond “sharing some of our successes ... we’ll be taking the time to learn from leaders here in Italy and all around the world to find out what’s working for them. Because no one nation has a monopoly on good ideas.” (U.S. Embassy Manama, 2015, June 28)

Food Security. Food security was the second most common food diplomacy topic, with 40 posts. Defined as “access to – and availability, utilization, and stability of – sufficient food to meet caloric and nutritional needs for an active and healthy life” (“U.S. Governmental Global Food Security Strategy”, 2016, p. viii), for the purpose of this study food security is understood as future-based food study or planning, such as programs to develop drought-resistant crops. This also includes any educational efforts

to increase healthy food choices and environmentally sustainable food choices. This may also appear in international assistance programs that teach immigrants/refugees agricultural techniques as marketable skills.

One such food security post links to an article about student ambassadors and their study of global food challenges:

Learn about student ambassadors and their role in showcasing how U.S. innovation helps solve global food challenges. “It’s so exciting to see the world gathering on a global stage to address food source issues that we are currently facing and we will continue to face in the future,” said Adriana DiFazio, a student ambassador from Barnard College in New York. (US Embassy Rabat, 2015, May 13).

This example demonstrates the heart of food security diplomacy. These students are gathering with other students and professionals from around the world to learn about and propose solutions for food issues. While this does not directly involve any action by the embassy, it is still a prime example of food security diplomacy, as sharing the story and information via their Facebook page, US Embassy Rabat is creating an opportunity for dialogue with their audience about a globally critical issue.

Another food security post links to information about Feed the Future, described on their website as “The U.S. Government’s Global Hunger and Food Security Initiative.” A simple question, “What is the U.S. Government doing to end global hunger?” (U.S. Embassy Baghdad, 2012, September 27) and link to the website make up the body of this post. The purpose of this post seems to be striking up a conversation as well as informing the audience about the U.S. Feed the Future program. In terms of

food diplomacy, this topic serves as a conversation piece to bridge mutual understanding between the U.S. Embassy and its audience.

Food Assistance. Food assistance was the third most common food diplomacy topic, with fourteen posts falling into this category. It is defined as an action that “improves access to, and consumption of, adequate, safe, and nutritious food” (“Food Assistance,” 2012, Article 1). For this study, coders examined posts for topics involving current nutritional needs, such as food relief during or after a natural disaster or poor growing season.

Fact: Out of the two and a half million vulnerable people in need of assistance in Lebanon, HALF are children, including refugees from Syria and Lebanese host communities.

On the eve of the 3rd anniversary of the Syrian conflict, we take a closer look at the refugee crisis and the international community’s response to it...

In Lebanon, with support from the United States and other countries, UNICEF Lebanon is focusing on four areas: education, safe drinking and domestic water, health and nutrition, and child protection. (U.S. Embassy Beirut, 2014, March 12).

This example demonstrates diplomatic food assistance by the U.S. in Lebanon, in conjunction with other countries and organizations. Although the embassy did not contribute directly to these efforts, it is an important topic for them to present to their audience, as well as an important branding and conversation opportunity.

Culinary Diplomacy. Culinary diplomacy was the least common topic, with thirteen posts falling into the category. Defined as "the use of food and cuisine as an

instrument to create cross-cultural understanding in the hope of improving interactions and cooperation" (Chapple-Sokol, 2013, p. 162), coders were instructed to examine posts for formal food interactions between states, such as formal dinners among state representatives, with no interaction between non-government citizens and government officials. It is not entirely surprising that there are few examples of this formal function of food diplomacy among the embassy Facebook posts, as the embassies were presumably trying to relate to their audience on a more personal level. However, the examples found within the sample are perfect demonstrations of formal food diplomacy.

Yesterday Ambassador Yun met with the Chief Minister of Perlis, Yang Amat Berhormat Dato' Seri Azlan Man. The evening he attended a lovely dinner hosted by the Raja of Perlis, HRH Tuanku Syed Siraujuddin ibni Al Marhum Tuanku Syed Putera Jamalullail. Also attending was Crown Prince HRH Tuanku Syed Faizuddin and other state dignitaries. (U.S. Embassy Kuala Lumpur, 2016, April 13).

Overall, the Facebook posts examined fit into one of the expected categories. Only five posts were coded as having more than one food topic and only one was considered "other." The existing literature was sufficiently detailed to explain the types of food diplomacy found among U.S. Embassy Facebook posts with one significant exception: gastrodiplomacy.

Research Question 2

RQ2. In what ways do food diplomacy posts promote two-way engagement with foreign populations?

RQ 2 was assessed in part by qualitatively examining posts for evidence that the embassy was making dialogic efforts, as defined by Kent and Taylor (2002). The following shows the results of this assessment, with an additional section dedicated to shared stories and sources.

Mutuality. The nature of Facebook is to allow any audience member to comment on a post. By posting on Facebook, the embassy is already allowing and encouraging their audience to comment with their own opinions and positions. There was no evidence of comments being blocked or deleted, except in instances where the commenter used inappropriate language.


Propinquity. Despite the online presence of the embassy and the time stamps on all posts and comments, the distinct lack of response to commenters and subsequent discussion between the embassy and its audience makes propinquity difficult if not impossible to detect in this sample. There were 38 posts in which the embassy replied to some comment outside of the original text of the post. The Iraq embassy Facebook page, U.S. Embassy Baghdad, stood out in this area, as their comments showed more effort than most other pages. See below for an example.

Figure 2: RQ 2, Propinquity Example 1

[منتصر العراقي](#) .

Translated from Arabic
There's no such thing as support for the economy or agriculture.
In Iraq, America supports the Iraq partition project.
And that's true and the Iraqis don't need to teach them.
Agriculture. Leave us.[See Original](#)

[Like](#)
· [Reply](#) ·
16
· [August 10, 2016 at 4:46am](#)


[Manage](#)


[U.S. Embassy Baghdad](#)
Translated from Arabic
Thank you so much for watching the page. We would like to clarify this confusion with some people dividing Iraq. The United States supports a unified, democratic and pluralistic Iraq. We have said that more than once. There are no such allegations about the partition of Iraq. We do not want to divide Iraq, Iraq, a sovereign country and that the strategic framework agreement between the two countries provides for the protection of the sovereignty and unity of Iraq.[See Original](#)

[Like](#)
· [Reply](#) ·
8
· [August 10, 2016 at 6:48am](#)


(U.S. Embassy Baghdad, (2016, August 9)

Figure 3: RQ 2, Propinquity Example 2




[Hero Swat](#) hey sir. i like get a job with usa embassy in iraq or any place out iraq becuse i like that job and i tookit usa language very great and i grauted mass of midea press .plz sir if you have any formation tell me .thank you

[Like](#)Show more reactions
· [Reply](#) · [September 20, 2015 at 10:01am](#)

[Manage](#)



[U.S. Embassy Baghdad](#) Dear Hero, thank you for following us. You can find the latest Embassy vacancies here: <http://go.usa.gov/3t2eW>

[Like](#)Show more reactions
· [Reply](#) · [September 21, 2015 at 6:59am](#)

[Manage](#)


[Kalaf Kalaf](#) thanks. for these informations

[Like](#)Show more reactions
· [Reply](#) · [September 20, 2015 at 7:11am](#)

[Manage](#)


[U.S. Embassy Baghdad](#) You're welcome! Thank you for your participation.

[Like](#)Show more reactions
· [Reply](#) · [September 21, 2015 at 6:53am](#)

(U.S. Embassy Baghdad, 2015, September 20)

Empathy. It is the nature of Facebook to be a space in which the audience is encouraged to participate as well as facilitated. In the sample, there were no samples

with commenting disabled. With the nature of this research however, it was impossible to determine whether some comments had been deleted or blocked. With communal orientation, the topics of the posts often promoted the U.S. in some fashion, as expected. The topics were also generally relevant to the host country, such as posts about Ramadan and Iftar dinners, which were relevant directly to the Muslim majority audiences of the sampled embassies. Many posts asked questions of their audience (26.6% of the sample), seemingly in an effort to engage conversation and acknowledge that there was likely a difference in the opinions of the embassy and its audience.

Risk. Risk is the “willingness to interact with individuals on their own terms” (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p. 28). The elements of risk are vulnerability, unanticipated consequences, and recognition of strange otherness (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Vulnerability involves sharing information, individual beliefs, and desires. There were many posts in the sample that were informative, such as sharing the history of Thanksgiving or the first White House Iftar. There are also many posts which share information about programs available in the country for agricultural improvement or food assistance.

The term *Unanticipated consequences* essentially refers to the unrehearsed nature of dialogue. There was little or no evidence of this in the sample. The similarity of topics and shared articles suggests the opposite of spontaneous dialogue. However, as with any social media post, it is nearly impossible to predict what sort of conversation the post will lead to. It is the nature of Facebook, again, that creates an opportunity but also a risk in conversational direction.

Recognition of strange otherness is the consciousness of the fact that “other” is not the same as oneself and an acceptance of the difference. The consideration of what types of food are acceptable in Muslim culture absolutely comes through in the sample. The keyword search included words such as wine and champagne, although Muslim food culture does not allow consumption of alcohol. These were included to determine whether inappropriate food topics were being discussed by the embassy. The findings show that there were no mentions of champagne, and very few mentions of wine. There were many posts asking what local foods were recommended, and during Ramadan many of the recipes shared were labeled as appropriate for Iftar -- or simply halal.

Figure 4: RQ 2, Risk Example

US Embassy Abu Dhabi

July 6, 2011 ·

We feel like trying some local cuisine, where are the best Emirati restaurants? What food should we try out? What are your suggestions?

(US Embassy Abu Dhabi, 2011, July 6)

Commitment. Kent and Taylor (2002) defined commitment as “the extent to which an organization gives itself over to dialogue, interpretation, and understanding in its interactions with publics’ (p. 29). They include genuineness, commitment to conversation, and commitment to interpretation as the key aspects of commitment.

Genuineness is an effort to be honest and forthright in dialogue. There is little to no evidence to support genuineness in embassy Facebook posts. The topics repeated on FB pages of all embassies, the limited number of sources, and the lack of responses to commenters, while not dishonest, are not truly genuine in terms of dialogue.

Commitment to interpretation is the understanding that dialogue is not agreement, but rather an intersubjective attempt to understand each other (Kent & Taylor, 2002). While the post topics suggested an awareness of the target audience by

the embassy, the lack of response to commenters suggests a lack of true commitment to interpretation.

Shared stories and their sources. There were several stories that were repeated across embassy Facebook pages. These included stories about a popular Halal food truck in the U.S., a Halal supermarket in the U.S., a Forks Over Knives online event, and food diaspora. Food diaspora included restaurant owners who brought the food of their home country to the U.S. via a restaurant and products from the host country being sold on the international market. During the month of Ramadan, the same speeches were also shared across embassy Facebook pages, including speeches from President Obama and the Secretary of State. Stories about the Obama family's activities during the Thanksgiving holidays, including "turkey pardoning" and working in food kitchens were often seen across multiple posts as well.

There were also patterns in the sources of shared content in the sampled Facebook posts. The most shared source was the Share America Blog with 32 shared stories, many of which were the repeated stories discussed above. The next two most common sources were IIP Publication with 23 shared stories, a blog featuring stories about the U.S. government, and the White House with 23 shared stories, which included speeches from President Obama. The remaining sources consisted of 14 or less shared stories each: NGOs, news media, recipes, tourism sites, ambassador speeches, the Department of State, USAID, English learning sites, and other .gov sites.

RQ2 was answered in part by determining what common elements of Facebook posts were used by embassies for the purpose of engaging their audiences. For this research question, the promotion of two-way engagement is defined as the use of the

elements derived from previous work by Strauß et al. (2015) which include interactivity, personalization, sentiment: tone, sentiment: emotion, and relevance. The results address these elements by food topic. Each of the food topics (gastrodiplomacy, food security, food assistance, and culinary diplomacy) will be assessed in terms of the five elements listed above.

Gastrodiplomacy. As the most commonly occurring food topic in the sample, gastrodiplomacy posts were examined for what elements were used to make posts more potentially engaging for the audience.

Interactivity. Interactivity includes the following items for which each post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask a question of the audience. For the interactivity element, only the item shared content was used in a majority of gastrodiplomacy posts. The remaining items, though considered important for interactivity by Strauß et al. (2015), were not used consistently or in conjunction with other items. Gastrodiplomacy posts generally do not make use of the engaging element interactivity.

Table 7

Gastrodiplomacy x Interactivity

Item	# of Posts	% of Gastrodiplomacy Posts
@Mentions	21	10.61
Hashtags	39	19.70
Shared Content	127	64.14*
Mobilize Action Online	64	32.32
Reply	27	13.6
Mobilize Action Offline	12	6.06
Ask Question	52	26.26

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example.

For the gastrodiploacy posts in the sample, a picture accompanied most posts. However, these pictures were found to not always be personal photos. Some were heading photos for linked stories while others appeared to be stock photos, with no credit associated. Overall, gastrodiploacy posts in this sample did not make consistent use of the engaging element personalization.

Table 8

Gastrodiploacy x Personalization

Item	# of Posts	% of Gastrodiploacy Posts
Informal Use of Language	34	17.2
First Person	56	28.3
Image	158	79.8*
Personal Life Example	25	12.6

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Tone. Posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message. Most posts were found to have a neutral tone. This seems to be in keeping with the professional demeanor of the U.S. Embassy Facebook pages, and U.S. communication in general. RQ3 will give insight into whether the use of primarily neutral tone is a useful engagement strategy.

Table 9

Gastrodiploacy x Sentiment: Tone

Tone	# of Posts	% of Gastrodiploacy Posts
Negative	4	2.02
Neutral	119	60.10*
Positive	75	37.88

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression. Once again in keeping with the professional demeanor of most U.S. communication, gastrodiploacy posts engaged in emotional terminology and expression only occasionally. Although Strauß et al. (2015) argued that the use of

emotion in posts was an important engaging element, clearly U.S. Embassy gastrodiplomacy posts are not making use of this element. Results for RQ3 will dig into whether this is a good strategy for U.S. Embassy Facebook Posts.

Table 10

Gastrodiplomacy x Sentiment: Emotion

Emotion	# of Posts	% of Gastrodiplomacy Posts
Use of Emotion	45	22.73
No Use of Emotion	153	77.27*

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Relevance. Relevance includes the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting. Although none of the individual items in table 11 were used in a majority of gastrodiplomacy posts, it is important to note that links were used in 52.54% of sampled posts. Further, the links took the audience to sites directly related to the topic of the posts. As for which country the topic is promoting, clearly the U.S. embassies are promoting U.S. interests or U.S. and local interests in the majority of sampled posts.

Table 11

Gastrodiplomacy x Relevance

Item	# of Posts	% of Gastrodiplomacy Posts
Link to Embassy Site	4	2.02
Link to U.S. Government Site	63	31.82
Link to News Media Site	11	5.56
Link to Recipe Site	5	2.53
Link to Other Site	21	10.61
Promotion of U.S.	82	41.41
Promotion of Local Country	22	11.11
Promotion of U.S. and Local	45	22.73
Promotion of Global Topic	10	5.05
Promotion of Muslim Culture	20	10.10

Food Security. Food Security posts were examined for what elements are being used to make posts more potentially engaging for the audience.

Interactivity. Interactivity includes the following items for which each post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask a question of the audience. As with gastrodplomacy, *shared content* is the only item within the interactivity element that is used in a majority of posts.

Table 12

Food Diplomacy x Interactivity

Item	# of Posts	% of Food Security Posts
@Mentions	5	12.50
Hashtags	11	27.50
Shared Content	27	67.50*
Mobilize Action Online	14	35.00
Reply	7	17.50
Mobilize Action Offline	0	0
Ask Question	14	35.00

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example. A majority of 67.50% of food security posts included a picture. As with gastrodplomacy, these pictures were not always personalized to the posting embassy, but rather were taken from shared articles or stock images. Food security posts made little use of the other items within the personalization element.

Table 13*Food Security x Personalization*

Item	# of Posts	% of Food Security Posts
Informal Use of Language	3	7.50
First Person	11	27.50
Picture	27	67.50*
Personal Life Example	3	7.50

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Tone. Posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message. As seen with gastrodiploacy posts, the majority of food security posts were neutral in tone. RQ3 will investigate whether this use of neutral messaging is effective with the audience.

Table 14*Food Security x Sentiment: Tone*

Tone	# of Posts	% of Food Security Posts
Negative	2	5.00
Neutral	28	70.00*
Positive	10	25.00

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression. Food security posts were significantly less likely to use emotive terms or phrases within messaging. RQ3 investigates whether this is an effective strategy within the sentiment: emotion element of engaging posts.

Table 15*Food Security x Sentiment: Emotion*

Emotion	# of Posts	% of Food Security Posts
Use of Emotion	5	12.50
No Use of Emotion	35	87.50*

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Relevance. Relevance includes the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting. Food security posts used links in only 40%

of sampled posts. The lack of external links does not necessarily indicate a lack of relevance in this case, as there are posts in the sample that serve almost as a ‘public service announcement.’” Of the links present in the sample 30% lead to U.S. government sites, many of which feature programs such as Feed the Future, a U.S. global program focused on food security. Food security is seen as a global concern, and so perhaps unsurprisingly, a majority of 55% of food security posts promoted a global topic.

Table 16

Food Security x Relevance

Item	# of Posts	% of Food Security Posts
Link to Embassy Website	1	2.50
Link to U.S. Government Site	12	30.00
Link to News Media Site	3	7.50
Link to Recipe Site	0	0
Link to Other Site	0	0
Promotion of U.S.	2	5.00
Promotion of Local Country	4	10.00
Promotion of U.S. and Local	10	25.00
Promotion of Global Topic	22	55.00*
Promotion of Muslim Culture	1	2.50

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Food Assistance.

Interactivity. Interactivity includes the following items for which each post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask a question of the audience. As with gastrodiplomacy and food security, the only item within the interactivity element used in a majority of sampled posts in shared content. The remaining items, though considered important by Strauß et al. (2015), are relatively unused by U.S. embassies in Facebook food assistance posts.

Table 17*Food Assistance x Interactivity*

Item	# of Posts	% of Food Assistance Posts
@Mentions	3	7.14
Hashtags	4	28.57
Shared Content	11	78.57*
Mobilize Action Online	2	14.29
Reply	0	0
Mobilize Action Offline	0	0
Ask Question	3	21.43

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example. The only item used in a majority of sampled food assistance posts is the use of a picture. Like gastrodiploacy and food security, these images are often shared from an external source or are even stock images. The remaining items in the engaging element personalization are used very little (21.43% of sampled posts) or not at all.

Table 18*Food Assistance x Personalization*

Item	# of Posts	% of Food Assistance Posts
Informal Use of Language	0	0
First Person	3	21.43
Picture	8	57.14*
Personal Life Example	0	0

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Tone. For this element, food security posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message. The majority of posts were neutral in tone.

Table 19

Food Assistance x Sentiment: Tone

Tone	# of Posts	% of Food Assistance Posts
Negative	1	7.14
Neutral	11	78.57*
Positive	2	14.29

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression. Again, as with gastrodiploacy and food security, the majority of food assistance posts used no emotive terms or phrases.

Table 20

Food Assistance x Sentiment: Emotion

Emotion	# of Posts	% of Food Assistance Posts
Use of Emotion	1	7.14
No Use of Emotion	13	92.86*

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Relevance. Relevance includes the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting. For food assistance posts, only 49.99% of posts contained any external link. There was a relative balance among the promoted topics, with the one standout being the entire absence of a solely self-promoting post by U.S. embassies.

Table 21*Food Assistance x Relevance*

Item	# of Posts	% of Food Assistance Posts
Link to Embassy Website	1	7.14
Link to U.S. Government Site	1	7.14
Link to News Media Site	1	7.14
Link to Recipe Site	0	0
Link to Other Site	4	28.57
Promotion of U.S.	0	0
Promotion of Local Country	3	21.43
Promotion of U.S. and Local	4	28.57
Promotion of Global Topic	3	21.43
Promotion of Muslim Culture	4	28.57

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Culinary Diplomacy.

Interactivity. Interactivity includes the following items for which each post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask a question of the audience. None of the items were found in a majority of culinary diplomacy posts.

Table 22*Culinary Diplomacy x Interactivity*

Item	# of Posts	% of Culinary Diplomacy Posts
@Mentions	1	7.69
Hashtags	3	23.08
Shared Content	5	38.46
Mobilize Action Online	2	15.38
Reply	3	23.08
Mobilize Action Offline	0	0
Ask Question	2	15.38

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example.

As with the previous food diplomacy topics, pictures appeared in the majority (100%, in

fact) of culinary diplomacy posts. This is the extent of personalization items used by U.S. embassies in culinary diplomacy posts.

Table 23

Culinary Diplomacy x Personalization

Item	# of Posts	% of Culinary Diplomacy Posts
Informal Use of Language	0	0
First Person	1	7.69
Picture	13	100.00*
Personal Life Example	3	23.08

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Tone. Posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message. As found with previous food diplomacy topics, the majority of culinary diplomacy posts contained neutral-toned messages.

Table 24

Culinary Diplomacy x Sentiment: Tone

Tone	# of Posts	% of Culinary Diplomacy Posts
Negative	0	0
Neutral	11	84.62*
Positive	2	15.38

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression. The majority of culinary diplomacy posts used no emotive terms or phrases in their messaging.

Table 25

Culinary Diplomacy x Sentiment: Emotion

Emotion	# of Posts	% of Culinary Diplomacy Posts
Use of Emotion	3	23.08
No Use of Emotion	10	76.92*

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Relevance. Relevance includes the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting. Very few links were associated with

culinary diplomacy posts (only 15.38% of posts had an external link). The promotion of U.S. and local topics accounted for 69.23% of culinary diplomacy posts. This was expected to be the case, considering the definition of culinary diplomacy as occurring between government representatives of both the U.S. and the local country.

Table 26

Culinary Diplomacy x Relevance

Item	# of Posts	% of Culinary Diplomacy Posts
Link to Embassy Website	0	0
Link to U.S. Government Site	1	7.69
Link to News Media Site	1	7.69
Link to Recipe Site	0	0
Link to Other Site	0	0
Promotion of U.S.	3	23.08
Promotion of Local Country	0	0
Promotion of U.S. and Local	9	69.23*
Promotion of Global Topic	1	7.69
Promotion of Muslim Culture	0	0

* Item used in a simple majority of posts.

Research Question 3

RQ3. What elements of food diplomacy posts demonstrate successful engagement efforts of foreign publics?

To assess the success of engagement efforts by the embassy via Facebook, external interactions with posts, including likes, reactions, comments, and shares, were analyzed. A series of Chi-Square tests were completed to determine whether a significant relationship exists between engaging elements, as assessed for RQ 2, and the external interactions. These results are presented by food diplomacy topic and the five elements proposed by Strauß et al. (2015) which include interactivity, personalization, sentiment: tone, sentiment: emotion, and relevance.

The posts and their comments were also inspected for evidence of successful dialogue, per Kent and Taylor's (2002) tenets of dialogism. This qualitative assessment was intended to produce a more well-rounded picture of whether or how food diplomacy can be used to successfully engage foreign publics. Posts and comments were read for qualities that conformed to the principles of mutuality, propinquity, empathy, risk, and commitment, as defined by Kent and Taylor (2002). When found, these elements were documented by the researcher, and later examined.

Mutuality. Kent and Taylor (2002) described spirit of mutuality as the avoidance of power or inequality in status in dialogue, wherein everyone is “comfortable discussing any topic free of ridicule or contempt” (p.25). There was a variety of comments, positive, negative, and unrelated to the post within the sample.

Figure 5: RQ 3, Mutuality Example 1

. [Nadji Lad](#) The embassy investment in the Algerian youth is encouraging gesture and as an Algerian citizen i really appreciate it however the unemployment issue is not something the US embassy or INJAZ can solve infact the Algerian government is the number one responsible for the youth unemployment. Bureaucracy and all forms of corruptions that manifest itself in our economy, Society and government as a whole from presidential office to City Hall...etc can not be solved easily, to crack the nut, Algeria socioeconomic issues can only be solved through radical changes in the government and enlightening the nation by planting moral values and patriotism in their corrupted psyche which is in a state of numbness.

[Like](#)Show more reactions
· [Reply](#) ·
4
· [November 7, 2016 at 8:37am](#)

(U.S. Embassy Algiers, Facebook Commenter Nadji Lad, 2016, November 7)

Figure 6: RQ 3, Mutuality Example 2

[U.S. Embassy Libya](#) Hi Libya Free, thank you for expressing your opinions and feeling welcome to do so on our page. We are proud of the freedoms that your country has won to express a diversity of views...and so passionately! 😊
June 5, 2012 at 8:29am ·
[Like](#)Show more reactions

(U.S. Embassy Libya, 2012, June 4)

Propinquity. Kent and Taylor (2002) describe propinquity as the “temporality and spontaneity of interactions with publics (p. 26). It includes immediacy of presence, temporal flow, and engagement. The distinct lack of response to commenters and subsequent discussion between the embassy and its audience makes propinquity difficult if not impossible to detect in this sample. There was evidence of propinquity between commenters, despite the absence of the embassy. There were a few great examples among the few posts that garnered responses from the embassy.

Figure 7: RQ 3, Propinquity Example 1

[Fatma Zohra Souidi](#) Wow, that makes me think to go get some Chili for lunch today. Any restaurant suggestion in DC?
December 13, 2011 at 7:01am ·
[Like](#)Show more reactions

2

[Manage](#)



[U.S. Embassy Algiers](#) Ben's Chili Bowl... It's right near the U Street metro stop (green/yellow line)! It's famous. President Obama has eaten there 😊
December 13, 2011 at 8:51am ·
[Like](#)Show more reactions

(U.S. Embassy Algiers, 2011, December 13)

Empathy. Empathy is the “supportiveness and confirmation of public goals and interests (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p. 27)”. It includes supportiveness, communal orientation, and confirmation. It is the nature of Facebook to be a space in which the audience is encouraged to participate as well as facilitated. In the sample, there were no samples with commenting disabled. With the nature of this research however (posts

were examined on only the front-facing level), it was impossible to determine whether some comments had been deleted or blocked.

Figure 8: RQ 3, Propinquity Example 2

US Embassy Abu Dhabi

July 6, 2011 ·

We feel like trying some local cuisine, where are the best Emirati restaurants? What food should we try out? What are your suggestions?

[Like](#)Show more reactions

[Comment](#)[Share](#)

88

Comments



[Michelle Lea](#) I just tried out the Lebanese Restaurant in the Heritage Village and the meat there is fantastic, a cut above other Lebanese restaurants I have tried around town. Problem is, I don't know the name of the restaurant but it's easy to find. 😊

July 6, 2011 at 8:40am ·

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[MH Meiji](#) http://www.hotelsindubai.com/eat/arabic_food.htm

heres the link try it - all top cuisines

July 6, 2011 at 8:52am ·

[Like](#)Show more reactions

[Manage](#)



[Geraldine Jellybean](#) I believe there is only one actual Emirati restaurant in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. I don't know the name but it is at the Emirates Palace Hotel. Lebanese food is great, but there's much more to the cuisines of this region.

July 6, 2011 at 9:11am ·

[Like](#)Show more reactions

[Manage](#)



[Michael Schron](#) I always liked the classic "Al Arish" at Al Dhafra in the old port area for hammour, machboos and other gulf delicacies- I'm told it's still there

July 6, 2011 at 12:47pm ·

[Like](#)Show more reactions

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[Taghreed Abushareb](#) The best and ultimate restaurant for Emirati food in Abu Dhabi - which as a UAE National find it as amazingly authentic and reflect the real Emirati food is Mezlay in Emirates Palace. There food is so delicious and homemade flavors with a fancy service... I would highly recommend the family style menu or make a deal and go to the Friday Brunch ENJOY and thank me later

July 6, 2011 at 2:19pm ·

[Like](#)Show more reactions

1

[Manage](#)



[US Embassy Abu Dhabi](#) Thank you Michelle, Mujtaba, and Sun. We have been clients of the various regional foods here. Geraldine, Michael, an Taghreed- you got it. Emirati food will be on the menu this weekend. I am going to book a table at Mezlay, and make a stop at Al-Arish over the weekend to get a taste. We will have a new Ambassador soon, and I want to be able to suggest a few good dishes.

July 7, 2011 at 12:21am ·

[Like](#)Show more reactions

(US Embassy Abu Dhabi, 2011, July 6)

Risk. Risk is the “willingness to interact with individuals on their own terms (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p. 28). The elements of risk are vulnerability, unanticipated consequences, and recognition of strange otherness. Vulnerability involves sharing information, individual beliefs, and desires.

Figure 9: RQ 3, Risk Example

[منتصر العراقي](#)

Translated from Arabic

There's no such thing as support for the economy or agriculture.

In Iraq, America supports the Iraq partition project.

And that's true and the Iraqis don't need to teach them.

Agriculture. Leave us.[See Original](#)

[Like](#)

· [Reply](#) ·

16

· [August 10, 2016 at 4:46am](#)

[Manage](#)



[U.S. Embassy Baghdad](#)

Translated from Arabic

Thank you so much for watching the page. We would like to clarify this confusion with some people dividing Iraq. The United States supports a unified, democratic and pluralistic Iraq. We have said that more than once. There are no such allegations about the partition of Iraq. We do not want to divide Iraq, Iraq, a sovereign country and that the strategic framework agreement between the two countries provides for the protection of the sovereignty and unity of Iraq.[See](#)

[Original](#)

[Like](#)

· [Reply](#) ·

8

· [August 10, 2016 at 6:48am](#)

(U.S. Embassy Baghdad, 2016, August 9)

Commitment. Kent and Taylor (2002) define commitment as “the extent to which an organization gives itself over to dialogue, interpretation, and understanding in its interactions with publics (p. 29).

There is no real back and forth conversation between the embassies and their audiences. On the other hand, the audience sometimes has its own conversation on the embassy’s post amongst themselves. The audience demonstrates more commitment to conversation that the embassies do.

Commitment to interpretation is the understanding that dialogue is not agreement, but rather an intersubjective attempt to understand each other (Kent &

Taylor, 2002). While the post topics suggest an awareness of the target audience by the embassy, the lack of response to commenters, particularly negative commenters, suggests a lack of true commitment to interpretation.

Figure 10: RQ 3, Commitment Example

[Adel Sham](#) How unfair, its such hypocrisy of the USA, your children enjoy and have fun while our children die and hardly have any thing to eat to keep them alive, in iraq, syria ,palestine and else where all because of your stupid selish forgin policieces... shame shame on you.

[Like](#)Show more reactions

· [Reply](#) · [October 31, 2014 at 8:13pm](#)

[Manage](#)



[Ahmed Ali](#) llove use and iwant to be their

[Like](#)Show more reactions

· [Reply](#) ·

1

· [October 31, 2014 at 5:07pm](#)

[Manage](#)



[George Ayad](#) We don't care with your custom... keep it to yourself

[Like](#)Show more reactions

· [Reply](#) · [October 31, 2014 at 3:52pm](#)

(U.S. Embassy Cairo, Facebook Commenter Adel Sham, 2014, October 31)

Mandatory dialogue. In contrast to Kent and Taylor (2002), Lane argued that both sides of a mandatory dialogue practice are motivated by self-interest and a desire to influence each other. Additionally, Lane argued that this sort of dialogue is not dialogue “given the attitudes of participants towards each other” (Lane, 2017, pp. 25). This is apparent, in at least a portion of the comments by the audiences. Some examples of this follow:

Figure 11: RQ3, Mandatory Dialogue Example 1

[Karar Al Shukri](#)

Translated from Arabic

A crime you didn't cry eyes!

The American air force is young on a wake in Kirkuk and behind 70 dead, most of the dead were women, reaching 25 women.

The American air force recognized the targeting and the error, and then half an hour after the murder, it denied its target of a wake-up council in Kirkuk.

An International investigation must be opened in this regard, and the reasons for the deliberate American bombing and the holding of defaulting in that criminal act

Crime they did not Tbekaha eyes!

US Air Force gar on a funeral hall in Kirkuk and left 70 people dead most of the dead were women reaching their number to 25 women.

Admitted to the US Air Force targeting He justified it by mistake and then half an hour after the commission of the crime, denied any targeted a funeral in Kirkuk.

You must open an international investigation into this matter and find out the reasons for US bombing deliberate and hold negligent in that criminal act

https://m.facebook.com/story.php?story_fbid=711369912352144&id=100004374240970See Original

LikeShow more reactions

· Reply · October 22, 2016 at 7:42pm

(U.S. Embassy Baghdad, Facebook commenter Karar Al Shukri, 2016, October 22)

Figure 12: RQ3, Mandatory Dialogue Example 2

[Teodorico Vicente](#) if anyone looking to visit UAE on visit visa we can provied it within

72hrs upon receiving the document be free to contract us by email at

(visa4gccworld@gmail.com) Or call at +965 99777763 / +965 94992028

LikeShow more reactions

· Reply · December 7, 2014 at 7:16am

(U.S. Embassy Kuwait, Facebook commenter Teodorico Vicente, 2014)

Figure 13: RQ3, Mandatory Dialogue Example 3

[Semsem Capo](#)

Translated from Arabic

When President [#Obama](#) and the family will have food for the [#IRAQ #IRAQ#IRAQ #IRAQ #IRAQ #Yemen](#), who completed the the eagle... for the complete [#Syria](#) who complete your bombing and the bombing of the people of their country.... ask his lordship to bring food with him you stole our oil and to our water and burned our land.

[#امريكا تدعم الارهاب](#)

[#امريكا ضد شعب مصر](#)See Original

LikeShow more reactions

· Reply ·

4

· November 26, 2015 at 2:52pm · Edited

(U.S. Embassy Cairo, Facebook commenter Semsem Capo, 2015)

Clearly, the above commenters do not have a positive opinion of the U.S., nor of the U.S. embassies with whom they are communicating. Their opinion is unlikely to be changed by the interactions on Facebook, or lack thereof in this case.

Gastrodiplomacy.

Interactivity. The engaging element “interactivity” consists of seven items for which each Facebook post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask question (Strauß et al., 2015).

@Mentions. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationship between the number of @Mentions and number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions. No significant relationships were found (see Table 27). The number of @Mentions was not related to the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions.

Table 27

@Mentions x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy

External Interactions	Pearson r	p (2-tailed)
Likes	-.062	.386
Comments	-.100	.161
Shares	-.037	.605
Reactions	-.015	.834

Note: N=198

Hashtags. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationships between the number of hashtags and the number of likes, comments, shares and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts (see Table 28). A positive correlation was found indicating a significant linear relationship between hashtags and reactions. Gastrodiplomacy posts with more hashtags tend to have more likes. The number of hashtags was not related to the number of likes, comments, and shares on gastrodiplomacy posts.

Table 28*Hashtags x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy*

External Interactions	Pearson r	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)
Likes	-.016	.824
Comments	-.045	.525
Shares	.129	.070
Reactions	.161	.023

Note: N=198

Shared content. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that contained shared content to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not contain shared content. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing shared content was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no shared content (see Table 29).

Table 29*Shared Content x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Shared Content	127	209.29	691.783	.210	196	.834
	No Shared Content	71	190.62	377.650			
Comments	Shared Content	127	17.80	44.067	-.046	196	.963
	No Shared Content	71	18.07	32.759			
Shares	Shared Content	127	13.84	47.029	.151	196	.880
	No Shared Content	71	12.89	33.853			
Reactions	Shared Content	127	1.67	9.753	-1.378 ^a	97.329	.171
	No Shared Content	71	4.65	16.683			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Mobilize action online. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that mobilized action online to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not contain mobilize action online. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that mobilized action online was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not mobilize action online (see Table 30).

Table 30*Mobilize Action Online x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked audience to do something online	64	137.55	213.292	-1.059	196	.291
	Did not ask audience to do something online	134	233.66	709.930			
Comments	Asked audience to do something online	64	14.33	26.321	-0.860	196	.391
	Did not ask audience to do something online	134	19.60	45.467			
Shares	Asked audience to do something online	64	8.59	17.200	-1.118	196	.265
	Did not ask audience to do something online	134	15.84	50.414			
Reactions	Asked audience to do something online	64	.94	4.109	-1.892^a	168.703	.060
	Did not ask audience to do something online	134	3.60	15.143			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Embassy Reply. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that contained an embassy reply to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not contain an embassy reply. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing an embassy reply was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no embassy reply (see Table 31).

Table 31

Embassy Reply x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Reply	27	186.04	417.925	-.155	196	.877
	No Reply	171	205.21	621.897			
Comments	Reply	27	16.74	29.794	-.160	196	.873
	No Reply	171	18.08	41.775			
Shares	Reply	27	9.44	19.360	-.530	196	.597
	No Reply	171	14.14	45.289			
Reactions	Reply	27	4.56	17.900	.799	196	.426
	No Reply	271	2.45	11.741			

Mobilize action offline. An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that mobilized offline action to the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not mobilize offline action found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of comments on the posts that mobilized offline action was significantly lower

than the mean number of comments on the posts that did not mobilize offline action (see Table 32).

Separate independent-samples t tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that mobilized action offline to the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not mobilize action offline. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts that mobilized action offline was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not mobilize action offline (see Table 32).

Ask question. Separate independent-samples t tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that asked a question to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not ask a question. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that asked a question was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not ask a question (see Table 33).

Table 32*Mobilize Action Offline x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked audience to do some offline activity	12	46.83	54.163	-.932	196	.353
	Did not ask audience to do some offline activity	186	212.65	614.932			
Comments	Asked audience to do some offline activity	12	1.75	2.989	-5.451^a	194.705	>.001
	Did not ask audience to do some offline activity	186	18.94	41.353			
Shares	Asked audience to do some offline activity	12	2.75	6.454	-.900	196	.369
	Did not ask audience to do some offline activity	186	14.19	43.929			
Reactions	Asked audience to do some offline activity	12	2.25	3.596	-.137	196	.891
	Did not ask audience to do some offline activity	186	2.77	13.095			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Table 33

Ask Question x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked question	52	166.02	319.664	-.513	196	.608
	Did not ask question	146	215.62	669.495			
Comments	Asked question	52	21.08	40.189	.662	196	.508
	Did not ask question	146	16.76	40.404			
Shares	Asked question	52	8.02	16.031	-1.079	196	.282
	Did not ask question	146	15.45	48.688			
Reactions	Asked question	52	3.79	13.998	.693	196	.489
	Did not ask question	146	2.36	12.261			

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example.

Informal language. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that contained informal language to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not contain informal language. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing informal language was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no informal language (see Table 34).

Table 34

Informal Language x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Used informal language	34	177.35	349.953	-.270	196	.787
	Did not use informal language	164	207.83	637.435			
Comments	Used informal language	34	21.35	39.090	.549	196	.584
	Did not use informal language	164	17.18	40.615			
Shares	Used informal language	34	7.53	11.437	-.896	196	.372
	Did not use informal language	164	14.74	46.547			
Reactions	Used informal language	34	4.06	16.060	.665	196	.507
	Did not use informal language	164	2.46	11.953			

First-person language. An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that contained first-person language to the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not contain first-person language found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of comments on the posts that contained first-person language was significantly higher than the mean number of comments on the posts that did not contain first-person language (see Table 35).

Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiploacy posts that contained first-person language to the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiploacy posts that did not contain first-person language. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts containing first-person language was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts with no first-person language (see Table 35).

Table 35

First-Person Language x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiploacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	First-person language used	56	371.25	1018.622	1.703 ^a	58.293	.094
	No first-person language used	142	136.08	279.434			
Comments	First-person language used	56	34.43	64.290	2.621^a	60.367	.011
	No first-person language used	142	11.37	22.459			
Shares	First-person language used	56	26.45	74.654	1.792 ^a	57.184	.078
	No first-person language used	142	8.39	16.702			
Reactions	First-person language used	56	4.96	19.077	1.168 ^a	64.925	.247
	No first-person language used	142	1.86	9.018			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Image present. An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that contained an image to the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not contain an image found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of comments on the posts that contained an image was significantly higher than the mean number of comments on the posts that did not contain an image (see Table 36).

Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that contained an image to the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not contain an image. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts containing an image was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts with no image (see Table 36).

Table 36

Image Present x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Image	158	228.97	656.032	1.236	196	.218
	No image	40	98.43	236.700			
Comments	Image	158	20.39	44.278	2.993^a	190.085	.003
	No image	40	8.05	13.529			
Shares	Image	158	13.45	42.710	-.033	196	.974
	No image	40	13.70	43.130			
Reactions	Image	158	2.59	11.694	-.326	196	.745
	No image	40	3.33	16.318			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Personal life example. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiploacy posts that contained personal life examples to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiploacy posts that did not contain personal life examples. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing personal life examples was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no personal life examples (see Table 37).

Table 37

Personal Life Example x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiploacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Personal example	25	225.40	361.797	.204	196	.839
	No personal example	173	199.30	624.788			
Comments	Personal example	25	21.84	32.855	.523	196	.602
	No personal example	173	17.32	41.305			
Shares	Personal example	25	24.48	59.155	1.029 ^a	27.215	.312
	No personal example	173	11.91	39.731			
Reactions	Personal example	25	4.96	19.899	.934	196	.351
	No personal example	173	2.42	11.368			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Sentiment: Tone. Posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message.

Tone of message. An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of likes on gastrodiplomacy posts that had a positive tone to the mean number of likes on gastrodiplomacy posts that had a neutral tone found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of likes on the posts that had a positive tone was significantly higher than the mean number of likes on the posts that had a neutral tone (see Table 38).

An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that had a positive tone to the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that had a neutral tone found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of comments on the posts that had a positive tone was significantly higher than the mean number of comments on the posts that had a neutral tone (see Table 38).

Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of shares and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that had a positive tone to the mean number of shares and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that had a neutral tone. No significant differences were found. The mean number of shares and reactions on the posts with a positive tone was not significantly different from the mean number of shares and reactions on the posts with a neutral tone (see Table 38).

Table 38

Tone of Message x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Positive tone	75	369.60	925.978	2.459^a	77.188	.016
	Neutral tone	119	103.86	170.880			
Comments	Positive tone	75	28.08	56.138	2.332^a	92.699	.022
	Neutral tone	119	12.05	24.968			
Shares	Positive tone	75	21.43	64.777	1.627 ^a	81.701	.108
	Neutral tone	119	8.95	18.539			
Reactions	Positive tone	75	5.40	18.872	1.889 ^a	84.433	.062
	Neutral tone	119	1.14	6.281			

Note: Four negative tone units are excluded from analysis

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression.

Use of emotion. An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that used emotion to the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not use emotion found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of comments on the posts that used emotion was significantly higher than the mean number of comments on the posts that did not use emotion (see Table 39).

Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that used emotion to the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that did not use emotion. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, shares,

and reactions on the posts using emotion was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not use emotion (see Table 39).

Table 39

Use of Emotion x Audience Interactions, Gastrodiplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Use of Emotion	45	430.02	1137.065	1.723 ^a	45.377	.092
	No use of emotion	153	135.71	261.546			
Comments	Use of Emotion	45	33.82	65.293	20.63^a	48.776	.044
	No use of emotion	153	13.21	27.796			
Shares	Use of Emotion	45	24.98	74.931	1.307 ^a	47.200	.198
	No use of emotion	153	10.12	26.186			
Reactions	Use of Emotion	45	5.13	16.331	1.191 ^a	57.208	.239
	No use of emotion	153	2.03	11.414			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Relevance. Relevance included the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting.

Links on post. A one-way ANOVA was computed comparing the mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of six types of link or no link at all. A significant difference was found among the included links ($F(6,191) = 2.998, p < .01$). Tukey's HSD was used to determine the nature of the differences between links.

This analysis revealed that gastrodiplomacy posts that linked to News Media sites had significantly more comments ($m = 58.55$, $sd = 114.92$) than gastrodiplomacy posts that linked to U.S. government sites ($m = 9.29$, $sd = 15.672$) or “other” sites ($m = 10.33$, $sd = 11.880$). Mean comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that linked to no sites ($m = 22.51$, $sd = 39.754$), embassy sites ($m = 14.00$, $sd = 15.727$), more than one site ($m = 13.78$, $sd = 32.908$), or a recipe site ($m = .80$, $sd = 1.789$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

The mean number of likes on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of six types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(6,191) = 2.075$, $p > .05$). The mean numbers of likes on posts that included news media site link ($m = 756.45$, $sd = 2165.716$) was significantly higher than posts containing a U.S. government site link ($m = 106.90$, $sd = 167.637$). Mean likes on gastrodiplomacy posts that linked to no sites ($m = 232.41$, $sd = 430.014$), embassy website ($m = 180.25$, $sd = 232.034$), more than one site ($m = 156.78$, $sd = 336.623$), recipe site ($m = 4.80$, $sd = 6.419$) or other sites ($m = 149.86$, $sd = 193.664$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

The mean number of shares on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of six types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(6,191) = 1.402$, $p > .05$). Mean shares on gastrodiplomacy posts that linked to no sites ($m = 14.81$, $sd = 35.689$), embassy website ($m = 11.00$, $sd = 14.674$), U.S. government site ($m = 8.00$, $sd = 17.209$), news media site ($m = 46.45$, $sd = 143.562$), more than one site ($m = 8.78$, $sd = 21.129$), recipe sites ($m = .00$, $sd = .000$),

or other sites ($m = 13.14$, $sd = 20.170$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

The mean number of reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of six types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(6,191) = 1.526$, $p > .05$). Mean reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that linked to no sites ($m = 5.86$, $sd = 18.843$), embassy website ($m = .00$, $sd = .000$), U.S. government site ($m = .60$, $sd = 3.035$), news media site ($m = .09$, $sd = .302$), more than one site ($m = .11$, $sd = .333$), recipe sites ($m = .00$, $sd = .000$), or other sites ($m = .19$, $sd = .873$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

Country promotion. The mean number of likes on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of five levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5, 192) = .790$, $p > .05$). Posts promoting the U.S. had a mean number of likes of 135.68 ($sd = 285.050$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of likes of 227.27 ($sd = 485.353$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of likes of 237.18 ($sd = 369.242$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of likes of 149.20 ($sd = 335.905$). Posts promoting Muslim culture had a mean number of likes of 420.00 ($sd = 1614.908$). Posts promoting some other topic had a mean number of likes of 180.16 ($sd = 209.100$).

The mean number of comments on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of five levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5, 192) = .781$, $p > .05$). Posts promoting the U.S. had a mean number of comments of 13.01 ($sd = 28.070$). Posts promoting the local/host

culture had a mean number of comments of 24.95 ($sd = 46.825$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of comments of 24.04 ($sd = 36.183$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of comments of 13.30 ($sd = 36.866$). Posts promoting Muslim culture had a mean number of comments of 24.10 ($sd = 83.108$). Posts promoting some other topic had a mean number of comments of 12.11 ($sd = 11.756$).

The mean number of shares on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of five levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5, 192) = .583, p > .05$). Posts promoting the U.S. had a mean number of shares of 9.27 ($sd = 21.711$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of shares of 16.55 ($sd = 27.855$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of shares of 14.38 ($sd = 38.833$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of shares of 10.40 ($sd = 27.326$). Posts promoting Muslim culture had a mean number of shares of 26.85 ($sd = 16.753$). Posts promoting some other topic had a mean number of shares of 13.74 ($sd = 22.980$).

The mean number of reactions on gastrodiplomacy posts that included one of five levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5, 192) = .942, p > .05$). Posts promoting the U.S. had a mean number of reactions of 1.84 ($sd = 10.613$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of reactions of 4.82 ($sd = 19.358$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of reactions of 5.07 ($sd = 16.164$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of reactions of 5.50 ($sd = 17.044$).

Posts promoting Muslim culture had a mean number of reactions of .10 ($sd = .447$).

Posts promoting some other topic had a mean number of reactions of .00 ($sd = .000$).

Food Security.

Interactivity. The engaging element “interactivity” consists of seven items for which each Facebook post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask question (Strauß et al., 2015).

@Mentions. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationship between the number of @Mentions and number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions (see Table 40). A positive correlation was found indicating a significant linear relationship between @Mentions and shares. Food security posts with more @Mentions tend to have more shares. The number of @Mentions was not related to the number of likes, comments, and reactions on food security posts.

Table 40

@Mentions x Audience Interactions, Food Security

External Interactions	Pearson r	p (2-tailed)
Likes	.127	.434
Comments	.153	.344
Shares	.660	>.001
Reactions	.121	.458

Note: N=40

Hashtags. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationship between the number of hashtags and the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions. No significant relationship was found (see Table 41). The number of hashtags was not related to the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts.

Table 41*Hashtags x Audience Interactions, Food Security*

External Interactions	Pearson r	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)
Likes	-.093	.570
Comments	-.103	.528
Shares	-.011	.944
Reactions	-.073	.653

Note: N=40

Shared content. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that contained shared content to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not contain shared content. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing shared content was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no shared content (see Table 42).

Mobilize action online. An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of shares on food security posts that mobilized online action to the mean number of shares on food security posts that did not mobilize online action found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of shares on the posts that did not mobilize online action was significantly higher than the mean number of comments on the posts that mobilized online action (see Table 43).

Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, and reactions on food security posts that mobilized action online to the mean number of likes, comments, and reactions on food security posts that did not contain mobilize action online. No significant differences were found. The mean

number of likes, comments, and reactions on the posts that mobilized action online was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, and reactions on the posts that did not mobilize action online (see Table 43).

Table 42

Shared Content x Audience Interactions, Food Security

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Shared Content	27	48.89	82.733	-1.195 ^a	12.009	.255
	No Shared Content	13	1058.38	3044.113			
Comments	Shared Content	27	4.78	9.040	-1.214 ^a	12.049	.238
	No Shared Content	13	52.46	138.360			
Shares	Shared Content	27	3.89	9.905	-1.759 ^a	12.996	.102
	No Shared Content	13	20.77	33.905			
Reactions	Shared Content	27	.96	3.094	-.941 ^a	12.045	.365
	No Shared Content	13	13.92	49.603			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Table 43*Mobilize Action Online x Audience Interactions, Food Security*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked audience to do something online	14	17.14	15.820	-.950	38	.348
	Did not ask audience to do something online	26	570.73	2165.205			
Comments	Asked audience to do something online	14	.86	1.351	-1.125	38	.267
	Did not ask audience to do something online	26	30.73	98.722			
Shares	Asked audience to do something online	14	.64	1.151	-2.608^a	25.179	.015
	Did not ask audience to do something online	26	14.08	26.219			
Reactions	Asked audience to do something online	14	.36	.929	-.786	38	.437
	Did not ask audience to do something online	26	7.77	35.064			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Embassy Reply. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that contained an embassy reply to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not contain an embassy reply. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing an embassy reply was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no embassy reply (see Table 44).

Table 44

Embassy Reply x Audience Interactions, Food Security

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Reply	7	1678.14	4178.110	.999 ^a	6.006	.357
	No Reply	33	100.97	194.862			
Comments	Reply	7	88.43	186.450	1.172 ^a	6.009	.286
	No Reply	33	5.82	10.904			
Shares	Reply	7	13.29	17.821	.513	38	.611
	No Reply	33	8.55	22.920			
Reactions	Reply	7	25.57	67.656	.967 ^a	6.004	.371
	No Reply						

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Mobilize action offline. None of the 40 food security posts attempted to mobilize action or activities offline.

Ask question. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that

asked a question to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not ask a question. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that asked a question was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not ask a question (see Table 45).

Table 45

Ask Question x Audience Interactions, Food Security

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked question	14	39.00	69.086	-.891	38	.379
	Did not ask question	26	558.96	2170.692			
Comments	Asked question	14	4.57	10.889	-.905	38	.371
	Did not ask question	26	28.73	98.984			
Shares	Asked question	14	3.86	8.592	-1.506 ^a	33.394	.142
	Did not ask question	26	12.35	26.253			
Reactions	Asked question	14	.00	.000	-.845	38	.403
	Did not ask question	26	7.96	35.026			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example.

Informal language. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that contained informal language to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not contain informal language. No

significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing informal language was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no informal language (see Table 46).

Table 46

Informal Language x Audience Interactions, Food Security

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Used informal language	3	3722.67	6432.260	.974 ^a	2.000	.433
	Did not use informal language	37	105.70	187.693			
Comments	Used informal language	3	170.67	293.009	.961 ^a	2.001	.438
	Did not use informal language	37	8.08	13.678			
Shares	Used informal language	3	14.67	25.403	.429	38	.670
	Did not use informal language	37	8.95	22.025			
Reactions	Used informal language	3	59.67	103.346	.987 ^a	2.000	.428
	Did not use informal language	37	.76	2.671			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

First-person language. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that contained first-person language to the mean number of likes, comments,

shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not contain first-person language. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing first-person language was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no first-person language (see Table 47).

Table 47

First-Person Language x Audience Interactions, Food Security

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	First-person language used	11	73.09	132.569	-.669	38	.507
	No first-person language used	29	492.24	2059.326			
Comments	First-person language used	11	6.09	11.371	-.683	38	.499
	No first-person language used	29	25.66	94.008			
Shares	First-person language used	11	13.45	36.588	.718	38	.477
	No first-person language used	29	7.83	13.636			
Reactions	First-person language used	11	1.27	3.349	-.532	38	.598
	No first-person language used	29	6.66	33.222			

Image present. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that contained an image to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not contain an image. No significant differences were found.

The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing an image was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts with no image (see Table 48).

Table 48

Image Present x Audience Interactions, Food Security

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Image	27	541.52	2130.213	.851	38	.400
	No image	13	35.23	85.428			
Comments	Image	27	28.11	97.180	.886	38	.381
	No image	13	4.00	9.798			
Shares	Image	27	8.67	14.085	-.290	38	.773
	No image	13	10.85	33.722			
Reactions	Image	27	7.56	34.401	.762	38	.451
	No image	13	.23	.832			

Personal life example. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that contained personal life examples to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not contain personal life examples. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing personal life examples was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no personal life examples (see Table 49).

Table 49

Personal Life Example x Audience Interactions, Food Security

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Personal example	3	135.00	197.578	-.245	38	.808
	No personal example	37	396.59	1826.137			
Comments	Personal example	3	9.00	10.583	-.250	38	.804
	No personal example	37	21.19	83.527			
Shares	Personal example	3	1.00	1.732	-.684	38	.500
	No personal example	37	10.05	22.738			
Reactions	Personal example	3	3.67	6.351	-.095	38	.925
	No personal example						

Sentiment: Tone. Posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message.

Tone of message. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that had a positive tone to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that had a neutral tone. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with a positive tone was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with a neutral tone (see Table 50).

Table 50*Tone of Message x Audience Interactions, Food Security*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Positive tone	10	1204.20	3496.597	.999 ^a	9.022	.344
	Neutral tone	28	99.21	205.601			
Comments	Positive tone	10	55.30	159.544	.943 ^a	9.049	.370
	Neutral tone	28	7.68	13.926			
Shares	Positive tone	10	5.20	13.693	-.652	36	.519
	Neutral tone	28	10.61	24.778			
Reactions	Positive tone	10	19.20	56.523	1.055 ^a	9.010	.319
	Neutral tone						

Note: Two negative tone units not included in analysis

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression.

Use of emotion. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that used emotion to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food security posts that did not use emotion. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts using emotion was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not use emotion (see Table 51).

Table 51*Use of Emotion x Audience Interactions, Food Security*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Use of Emotion	5	2253.40	4973.374	.964 ^a	4.002	.390
	No use of emotion	35	108.91	192.679			
Comments	Use of Emotion	5	103.00	226.970	.931 ^a	4.004	.404
	No use of emotion	35	8.46	13.965			
Shares	Use of Emotion	5	9.80	19.189	.046	38	.964
	No use of emotion	35	9.31	22.604			
Reactions	Use of Emotion	5	36.20	79.832	.993 ^a	4.001	.377
	No use of emotion						

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Relevance. Relevance included the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting.

Link included in post. The mean number of likes on food security posts that included one of three types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 35) = .802, p > .05$). Mean likes on food security posts that linked to no sites ($m = 943.00, sd = 2835.049$), U.S. government site ($m = 36.50, sd = 60.485$), news media site ($m = 14.33, sd = 6.506$), or other sites ($m = 19.22, sd = 15.180$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

A one-way ANOVA was computed comparing the mean number of comments on food security posts that included one of three types of link or no link at all. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 35) = .843, p > .05$). Mean comments on food security posts that linked to no sites ($m = 45.80, sd = 128.869$), U.S. government site ($m = 5.08, sd = 11.759$), news media site ($m = 1.00, sd = 1.000$), or other sites ($m = 1.22, sd = 1.787$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

The mean number of shares on food security posts that included one of three types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 35) = 2.127, p > .05$). Mean shares on food security posts that linked to no sites ($m = 19.67, sd = 32.566$), U.S. government site ($m = 2.75, sd = 7.412$), news media site ($m = 7.33, sd = 12.702$), or other sites ($m = .22, sd = .667$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

The mean number of reactions on food security posts that included one of three types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 35) = .640, p > .05$). Mean reactions on food security posts that linked to no sites ($m = 13.47, sd = 45.970$), U.S. government site ($m = .00, sd = .000$), news media site ($m = .00, sd = .000$), or other sites ($m = .56, sd = 1.130$) were not significantly different from any of the other groups.

Country promotion. The mean number of shares on food security posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. A significant difference was found between the mean number of shares of groups of country promotion ($F(3, 34) = 7.386, p < .01$). Tukey's HSD was used to determine the nature of the differences between the groups of country promotion. This analysis revealed that food security posts had a significantly higher mean of shares ($m = 61.00, sd = 86.267$) than each of the other three groups: local/host country ($m = 6.50, sd = 13.000$), both U.S. and local/host country ($m = 14.60, sd = 15.636$), and global ($m = 1.68, sd = 4.735$). The local/host country, U.S. and local/host country, and global topics were not significantly different from each other.

The mean number of likes on food security posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 34) = 1.417, p > .05$). Posts promoting the U.S. had a mean number of likes of 165.00 ($sd = 213.546$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of likes of 84.00 ($sd = 96.840$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of likes of 1381.30 ($sd = 3443.445$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of likes of 17.86 ($sd = 15.566$).

The mean number of comments on food security posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 34) = 1.597, p > .05$). Posts promoting the U.S. had a mean number of comments of 18.00 ($sd = 24.042$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of comments of 12.00 ($sd = 19.442$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and

the local/host culture had a mean number of comments of 68.10 ($sd = 155.806$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of comments of 1.32 ($sd = 2.697$).

The mean number of reactions on food security posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 34) = .986, p > .05$). Posts promoting the U.S. had a mean number of reactions of .00 ($sd = .000$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of reactions of .00 ($sd = .000$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of reactions of 19.00 ($sd = 56.324$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of reactions of .77 ($sd = 2.617$).

Food Assistance.

Interactivity. The engaging element “interactivity” consists of seven items for which each Facebook post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask question (Strauß et al., 2015).

@Mentions. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationships between the number of @Mentions and number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts (see Table 52). A positive correlation was found indicating a significant linear relationship between @Mentions and reactions. Food assistance posts with more hashtags tend to have more reactions. The number of @Mentions was not related to the number of likes, comments, and shares.

Table 52*@Mentions x Audience Interactions, Food Assistance*

External Interactions	Pearson r	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)
Likes	-.074	.801
Comments	-.172	.558
Shares	-.204	.484
Reactions	.807	>.001

Note: N=14

Hashtags. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationship between the number of hashtags and the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts (see Table 53). No significant differences were found. The number of hashtags is not related to the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts.

Table 53*Hashtags x Audience Interactions, Food Assistance*

External Interactions	Pearson r	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)
Likes	-.086	.770
Comments	-.223	.444
Shares	-.242	.406
Reactions	.218	.455

Note: N=14

Shared content. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that contained shared content to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that did not contain shared content. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing shared content was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no shared content (see Table 54).

Table 54*Shared Content x Audience Interactions, Food Assistance*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Shared Content	11	79.82	161.215	.439	12	.669
	No Shared Content	3	37.67	23.180			
Comments	Shared Content	11	29.64	65.985	.687	12	.505
	No Shared Content	3	2.67	3.055			
Shares	Shared Content	11	5.82	9.673	.838	12	.419
	No Shared Content	3	1.00	.000			
Reactions	Shared Content	11	.00	.000	-1.000 ^a	2.00	.423
	No Shared Content	3	.33	.577			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Mobilize action online. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that mobilized action online to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that did not mobilize action online. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that mobilized action online was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not mobilize action online (see Table 55).

Table 55

Mobilize Action Online

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked audience to do something online	2	25.50	4.950	-.470	12	.647
	Did not ask audience to do something online	12	78.33	153.847			
Comments	Asked audience to do something online	2	110.50	149.200	.956 ^a	1.007	.513
	Did not ask audience to do something online	12	9.42	22.352			
Shares	Asked audience to do something online	2	2.50	.707	-.387	12	.706
	Did not ask audience to do something online	12	5.17	9.428			
Reactions	Asked audience to do something online	2	.00	.000	-.395	12	.700
	Did not ask audience to do something online	12	.08	.289			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Embassy reply. None of the 14 food assistance posts in the sample contained an embassy reply.

Mobilize action offline. None of the 14 food assistance posts attempted to mobilize action or activities offline.

Ask question. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that asked a question to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that did not ask a question. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that asked a question was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not ask a question (see Table 56).

Table 56

Ask Question x Audience Interactions, Food Assistance

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked question	3	13.3	13.577	-.774	12	.454
	Did not ask question	11	86.45	158.806			
Comments	Asked question	3	2.00	2.646	-.710	12	.491
	Did not ask question	11	29.82	65.906			
Shares	Asked question	3	.67	1.155	-.916	12	.377
	Did not ask question	11	5.91	9.607			
Reactions	Asked question	3	.00	.000	-.507	12	.621
	Did not ask question	11	.09	.302			

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example.

Informal language. None of the 14 food assistance posts contained informal language.

First-person language. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that contained first-person language to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that did not contain first-person language. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing first-person language was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts with no first-person language (see Table 57).

Table 57*First-Person Language x Audience Interactions, Food Assistance*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	First-person language used	3	21.67	22.942	-.657	12	.523
	No first-person language used	11	84.18	159.656			
Comments	First-person language used	3	.67	.577	-.755	12	.465
	No first-person language used	11	30.18	65.742			
Shares	First-person language used	3	.67	1.155	-.916	12	.377
	No first-person language used	11	5.91	9.607			
Reactions	First-person language used	3	.00	.000	-.507	12	.621
	No first-person language used	11	.09	.302			

Image present. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that contained an image to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that did not contain an image. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts containing an image was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, shares, and reactions on the posts with no image (see Table 58).

Table 58*Image Present x Audience Interactions, Food Assistance*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Image	8	110.38	182.966	1.220	12	.246
	No image	6	18.00	17.743			
Comments	Image	8	40.38	75.725	1.438 ^a	7.027	.193
	No image	6	1.83	2.858			
Shares	Image	8	7.88	10.750	1.889 ^a	7.108	.100
	No image	6	.67	.816			
Reactions	Image	8	.00	.000	-1.000 ^a	5.000	.363
	No image						

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Personal life example: None of the 14 food assistance posts contained personal life examples.

Sentiment: Tone. Posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message.

Tone of message. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that had a positive tone to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on food assistance posts that had a neutral tone. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with a positive tone was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with a neutral tone (see Table 59).

Table 59*Tone of Message x Audience Interactions, Food Assistance*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Positive tone	2	20.00	12.728	-.677	11	.512
	Neutral tone	11	35.82	31.610			
Comments	Positive tone	2	2.50	3.536	-.429	11	.676
	Neutral tone	11	22.73	64.261			
Shares	Positive tone	2	1.00	1.414	-.495	11	.630
	Neutral tone	11	4.09	8.502			
Reactions	Positive tone	2	.00	.000	-.411	11	.689
	Neutral tone	11	.09	.302			

Note: One negative tone post was excluded from analysis

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression.

Use of emotion. Only one of the 14 food assistance posts contain any expression of emotion. The remaining 13 posts do not contain any expression of emotion.

Relevance. Relevance included the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting.

Link included in post. The mean number of likes on food assistance posts that included one of two types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(2,8) = .739, p > .05$). Mean likes on food assistance posts that linked to no sites ($m = 52.40, sd = 37.667$), more than one site ($m = 13.50, sd = 12.021$), or other sites ($m = 162.50, sd = 263.562$) were not significantly different from each of the other groups.

The mean number of comments on food assistance posts that included one of two types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(2,8) = 2.308, p > .05$). Mean comments on food assistance posts that linked to no sites ($m = 3.20, sd = 3.114$), more than one site ($m = 108.00, sd = 152.735$), or other sites ($m = 21.50, sd = 38.388$) were not significantly different from each of the other groups.

The mean number of shares on food assistance posts that included one of two types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(2,8) = .174, p > .05$). Mean shares on food assistance posts that linked to no sites ($m = 6.60, sd = 12.542$), more than one site ($m = 1.50, sd = 2.121$), or other sites ($m = 6.00, sd = 9.345$) were not significantly different from each of the other groups.

The mean number of reactions on food assistance posts that included one of two types of link or no link were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(2,8) = .600, p > .05$). Mean reactions on food assistance posts that linked to no sites ($m = .20, sd = .447$), more than one site ($m = .00, sd = .000$), or other sites ($m = .00, sd = .000$) were not significantly different from each of the other groups.

Country promotion. The mean number of likes on food assistance posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3,10) = 1.235, p > .05$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of likes of 207.00 ($sd = 303.835$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of likes of

39.50 ($sd = 13.916$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of likes of 19.33 ($sd = 25.736$). Posts promoting a Muslim culture topic had a mean number of likes of 38.50 ($sd = 48.094$).

The mean number of comments on food assistance posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3,10) = .711, p > .05$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of comments of 27.00 ($sd = 45.044$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of comments of 58.50 ($sd = 105.193$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of comments of 2.33 ($sd = 3.215$). Posts promoting a Muslim culture topic had a mean number of comments of 3.00 ($sd = 3.559$).

The mean number of shares on food assistance posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3,10) = .475, p > .05$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of shares of 7.33 ($sd = 10.970$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of shares of 3.25 ($sd = 13.916$). Posts promoting a global topic had a mean number of likes of .33 ($sd = .577$). Posts promoting a Muslim culture topic had a mean number of shares of 7.75 ($sd = 14.198$).

The mean number of reactions on food assistance posts that included one of four levels of country promotion were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(3,10) = 1.310, p > .05$). Posts promoting the local/host culture had a mean number of reactions of .00 ($sd = .000$). Posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host culture had a mean number of reactions of .00 ($sd = .000$). Posts

promoting a global topic had a mean number of likes of .00 ($sd = .577$). Posts promoting a Muslim culture topic had a mean number of likes of .00 ($sd = 48.094$).

Culinary Diplomacy.

Interactivity. The engaging element “interactivity” consists of seven items for which each Facebook post was coded: @Mentions, hashtags, shared content, mobilize action online, reply, mobilize action offline, and ask question (Strauß et al., 2015).

@Mentions. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationship between the number of @Mentions and number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions. No significant relationships were found (see Table 60). The number of @Mentions is not related to the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts.

Table 60

@Mentions x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy

External Interactions	Pearson r	p (2-tailed)
Likes	-.035	.911
Comments	-.152	.620
Shares	-.209	.493
Reactions	.527	.064

Note: N=13

Hashtags. Separate Pearson correlations were calculated examining the relationship between the number of hashtags and the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts (see Table 61). The number of hashtags is not related to the number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts.

Table 61*Hashtags x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy*

External Interactions	Pearson r	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)
Likes	.179	.557
Comments	-.077	.803
Shares	.122	.690
Reactions	.537	.059

Note: N=13

Shared content. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that contained shared content to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on gastrodiploamcy posts that did not contain shared content. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing shared content was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no shared content (see Table 62).

Mobilize action online. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that mobilized action online to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that did not contain mobilize action online. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that mobilized action online was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not mobilize action online (see Table 63).

Table 62*Shared Content x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Shared Content	5	51.20	21.776	-1.364	11	.200
	No Shared Content	8	187.13	218.568			
Comments	Shared Content	5	4.80	5.167	-1.186 ^a	8.368	.268
	No Shared Content	8	13.75	20.310			
Shares	Shared Content	5	5.40	7.092	-.455	11	.658
	No Shared Content	8	7.63	9.334			
Reactions	Shared Content	5	.00	.000	-2.049 ^a	7.000	.080
	No Shared Content	8	.38	.518			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Embassy Reply. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that contained an embassy reply to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that did not contain an embassy reply. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing an embassy reply was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with no embassy reply (see Table 64).

Table 63*Mobilize Action Online x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked audience to do something online	2	60.00	38.184	-.619	11	.548
	Did not ask audience to do something online	11	148.45	194.538			
Comments	Asked audience to do something online	2	2.50	2.121	-.715	11	.489
	Did not ask audience to do something online	11	11.73	17.585			
Shares	Asked audience to do something online	2	13.00	2.828	1.172	11	.266
	Did not ask audience to do something online	11	5.64	8.524			
Reactions	Asked audience to do something online	2	.00	.000	-1.936 ^a	10.00	.082
	Did not ask audience to do something online	11	.27	.467			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Table 64*Embassy Reply x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Reply	3	75.00	54.111	-.637	11	.537
	No Reply	10	152.80	203.667			
Comments	Reply	3	3.67	2.309	-.785	11	.449
	No Reply	10	12.30	18.433			
Shares	Reply	3	6.33	10.116	-.099	11	.923
	No Reply	10	6.90	8.306			
Reactions	Reply	3	.33	.577	.446	11	.664
	No Reply	10	.20	.422			

Mobilize action offline. None of the 13 culinary diplomacy posts contained an attempt to mobilize any offline action or activity.

Ask question. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that asked a question to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that did not ask a question. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that asked a question was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts that did not ask a question (see Table 65).

Table 65

Ask Question x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Asked question	2	164.50	109.602	.242	11	.813
	Did not ask question	11	129.45	194.694			
Comments	Asked question	2	25.00	33.941	.715 ^a	1.050	.600
	Did not ask question	11	7.64	12.564			
Shares	Asked question	2	15.50	.707	1.751	11	.108
	Did not ask question	11	5.18	8.035			
Reactions	Asked question	2	.00	.000	-1.936 ^a	10.000	.082
	Did not ask question						

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Personalization. Personalization includes the following items for which each post was coded: Informal use of language, first person, picture, personal life example.

Informal language. None of the 13 culinary diplomacy posts contained informal language.

First Person Language. Only one of the culinary diplomacy posts in the sample made use of first person language.

Images present. All 13 of the culinary diplomacy posts contained an image.

Personal life example. An independent *t* test comparing the mean number of reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that contained a personal life example to the mean number of reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that did not contain a personal life example found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The

mean number of reactions on posts that contained a personal life example was significantly higher than the mean number of reactions on the posts that did not contain a personal life example (see Table 66).

Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, and shares on culinary diplomacy posts that contained personal life examples to the mean number of likes, comments, and shares on culinary diplomacy posts that did not contain personal life examples. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts containing personal life examples was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, and shares on the posts with no personal life examples (see Table 66).

Sentiment: Tone. Posts were coded for use of negative, neutral, or positive tone of message.

Tone of message. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that had a positive tone to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that had a neutral tone. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with a positive tone was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts with a neutral tone (see Table 67).

Table 66*Personal Life Example x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Personal example	3	290.00	357.157	.973 ^a	2.046	.431
	No personal example	10	88.30	70.033			
Comments	Personal example	3	17.33	23.180	.833	11	.422
	No personal example	10	8.20	14.808			
Shares	Personal example	3	7.67	12.423	.205	11	.841
	No personal example	10	6.50	7.561			
Reactions	Personal example	3	.67	.577	2.281	11	.043
	No personal example	10	.10	.316			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Sentiment: Emotion. Posts were coded for any use of emotional terminology or expression.

Use of emotion. An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean number of reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that used emotion to the mean number of reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that did not use emotion found a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The mean number of reactions on the posts that used emotion was significantly higher than the mean number of reactions on the posts that did not use emotion (see Table 68).

Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, and shares on culinary diplomacy posts that used emotion to the mean number of likes, comments, and shares on culinary diplomacy posts that did not use emotion. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, and shares on the posts using emotion was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, and shares on the posts that did not use emotion (see Table 68).

Table 67

Tone of Message x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Positive tone	2	378.00	456.791	.888 ^a	1.008	.537
	Neutral tone	11	90.64	66.890			
Comments	Positive tone	2	25.00	26.870	1.434	11	.179
	Neutral tone	11	7.64	14.172			
Shares	Positive tone	2	11.00	15.556	.446 ^a	1.083	.729
	Neutral tone	11	6.00	7.362			
Reactions	Positive tone	2	.50	.707	.939	11	.368
	Neutral tone	11	.18	.405			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Table 68*Use of Emotion x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy*

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	Use of Emotion	3	290.00	357.157	.973 ^a	2.046	.431
	No use of emotion	10	88.30	70.033			
Comments	Use of Emotion	3	17.33	23.180	.833	11	.422
	No use of emotion	10	8.20	14.808			
Shares	Use of Emotion	3	7.67	12.423	.205	11	.841
	No use of emotion	10	6.50	7.561			
Reactions	Use of Emotion	3	.67	.577	2.281	11	.043
	No use of emotion	10	.10	.316			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

Relevance. Relevance included the following items for which each post was coded: Link and country topic is promoting.

Link included on post. There was one culinary diplomacy post each for the following groups of links: U.S. government site, news media site, and more than one site. Ten posts of the 13 culinary diplomacy posts contained no external site link.

Country Promotion. Separate independent-samples *t* tests were calculated comparing the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that promoted the U.S. to the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on culinary diplomacy posts that promoted both the U.S. and the

local/host country. No significant differences were found. The mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts promoting the U.S. was not significantly different from the mean number of likes, comments, shares, and reactions on the posts promoting both the U.S. and the local/host country (see Table 69).

Table 69

Country Promotion x Audience Interactions, Culinary Diplomacy

		N	<i>m</i>	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Likes	U.S.	3	52.00	30.348	-.887	10	.396
	Both	9	164.78	212.784			
Comments	U.S.	3	6.00	6.245	-.571	10	.581
	Both	9	12.67	19.326			
Shares	U.S.	3	9.00	7.211	.397	10	.700
	Both	9	6.67	9.179			
Reactions	U.S.	3	.00	.000	-1.512 ^a	8.000	.169
	Both	9	.22	.441			

^aLevene's Test for Equality of Variances was significant; Equal variances not assumed

This chapter presented the results of the study. There were few significant interactions or differences. The next chapter will discuss the results and their theoretical and practical implications.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In this chapter, the results presented in chapter 4 are discussed in terms of the theoretical implications, as well as some practical applications. The chapter concludes with some suggestions for future research and some suggestions for practical applications of U.S. food diplomacy in the context of Facebook posts.

Research Question 1

What types of food diplomacy posts are present in U.S. embassy Facebook pages during the period 2009 - 2016?

Results for RQ 1 were mostly as expected based on existing literature and the terms associated with food diplomacy. The definitions gleaned from the literature review and condensed within the current research were sufficient for the terms food security, food assistance, and culinary diplomacy. Gastrodiplomacy, on the other hand, accounted for a large percentage (73.1%) of the entire sample.

While the definition of gastrodiplomacy is understandably broad, specific patterns emerged from the data that suggesting that further study is necessary to properly define and categorize occurrences of gastrodiplomacy. This study found six sub-categories of gastrodiplomacy: holiday-related food events and culture, non-holiday embassy-hosted events, food culture diaspora, chef exchanges, food tourism, and English language learning. Each sub-category can stand on its own and be studied separately from the others. Although the six categories listed above accounted for 86% of gastrodiplomacy post topics, the remaining 14% were identified simply as general gastrodiplomacy posts. More research is needed to determine whether these six new

sub-categories hold up under other food diplomacy circumstances, such as in non-Muslim-majority countries.

Previous research in the area of food diplomacy has not considered food security or food assistance under the same umbrella as culinary diplomacy and gastrodiplomacy. The literature review demonstrated that both food security and food assistance are a combination of hard and soft power diplomacy strategies. The researcher argues that food security and food assistance belong under this area of food diplomacy primarily for two reasons. First, U.S. actions in relation to each of these two categories can help or harm the U.S. national brand. This makes these elements a concern of food diplomacy, as they involve food and the national brand. The second reason, and perhaps more important, is that the U.S. Department of State and its embassies are responsible for communicating and garnering support for U.S. policies. When those policies are on the topics of food security and food assistance, it is the embassies' responsibility to communicate the policies to their audiences in a way that informs and invites support for the policies. To communicate about food security and food assistance policies, the embassies must take into consideration the same elements as they do with culinary diplomacy or gastrodiplomacy: U.S. culture, audience culture, and how each perceives the other. The current research has demonstrated that these items are in fact a topic of conversation between U.S. embassies and their foreign publics. The use of these hard power types of food diplomacy contribute, in some situations more than the other types, to U.S. national brand. It is important to note that although previous research into food diplomacy does not include the hard power elements, the proposed food diplomacy typology has been upheld by empirical evidence of these topics and the ensuing

discussions on U.S. Embassy Facebook posts. Future research should continue to search for evidence of food security and food assistance as public diplomacy tools.

Based on the results of this research, a modified version of the proposed typology must be considered (see Table 70). The new typology incorporates the gastrodiploamacy sub-topics, along with definitions for clarification. Future research will likely continue to modify and clarify the food diplomacy typology as the phenomenon becomes better understood.

Research Question 2:

In what ways do food diplomacy posts promote two-way engagement with foreign populations?

By examining which engaging items were used in a simple majority of posts, this research is the first step in developing a picture of what U.S. food diplomacy efforts look like. The standards for promotion of two-way engagement were taken from Strauß et al. (2015), and included five elements: interactivity, personalization, sentiment: tone, sentiment: emotion, and relevance. Each element consists of several items. This study examined each type of food diplomacy, as defined by the proposed food diplomacy typology taken from existing literature, for use of these five elements. The following will discuss each type of food diplomacy two-way engagement efforts in detail.

Table 70: Modified Typology of Food Diplomacy

	Definition	Alternative Terms	Level of Diplomatic Interaction	Diplomatic Power	Goals
Culinary Diplomacy	"the use of food and cuisine as an instrument to create cross-cultural understanding in the hope of improving interactions and cooperation" (Chapple-Sokol, 2013, p. 162)	Gastronomic diplomacy (Constantinou, 1996); diplomatic gastronomy (Morgan, 2012); gastro-logic diplomacy (Constantinou, 1996)	State-to-State	Soft Power: Culture	To build and improve relationships at the formal diplomatic level.
Gastrodiplomacy	a special diplomatic tool that uses the unique culinary heritage of a state that "specifically involves government-to-foreign public engagement. . . . it may be considered a sub-component of public diplomacy. Its goals are to build a nation's soft power, to promote trade and tourism, and to encourage cultural exchange" (Chapple-Sokol, 2016, para. 6).	gastronomicalism;	State-to-People; People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture; Foreign Policies	To use culinary and food culture to build and improve relationships and national brand.
<i>Holiday-Related Food Events and Culture</i>	This type includes holidays, holiday events, and holiday cultural explanations.		State-to-People; People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture	
<i>Non-Holiday Embassy-Hosted Events</i>	These events demonstrate the most grassroots level of gastrodiplomacy, where embassy officials not only sponsor the events, but participate in them.		State-to-People; People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture; Foreign Policies	
<i>Food Culture Diaspora</i>	Food culture diaspora refers to the movement of food culture away from traditional origin locations.		People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture	
<i>Chef Exchanges</i>	Chefs (often celebrity status) visit foreign cultures as representatives of their home country, often spending time with the host country's culture, visiting famous sites, and learning to cook local dishes.		People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture; Foreign Policies	
<i>Food Tourism</i>	Food tourism is generally some attempt to inform about cultural cuisine unique to a region or state in a way that encourages personal visits by the audience.		State-to-People; People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture	
<i>English Language Learning</i>	How we talk about food is important culturally, and learning a new language often requires learning unique food-oriented phrases along with food terms to enable the speaker to acquire sustenance.		State-to-People; People-to-People	Soft Power: Culture	
Food Security	"access to – and availability, utilization, and stability of – sufficient food to meet caloric and nutritional needs for an active and healthy life" ("U.S. Governmental Global Food Security Strategy", 2016, p. viii)		State-to-State; State-to-People; People-to-People	Soft Power: Political Values; Foreign Policies	To use culinary and food culture to build and improve relationships with the goal of increasing global nutrition and long-term food security.
Food Assistance	an action that "improves access to, and consumption of, adequate, safe, and nutritious food" ("Food Assistance," 2012, Article 1)	Food Aid; Food Relief;	State-to-State; State-to-People; People-to-People	Soft Power: Political Values; Foreign Policies	To use culinary and food culture to build and improve relationships with the goal of increasing global nutrition and short-term food security.

Gastrodiplomacy. For each of the five elements of two-way engagement, gastrodiplomacy posts make little or no use of every possible item. What can be said with certainty of gastrodiplomacy posts is that they use shared content, pictures, neutral tone, and external links but very seldom use emotion. Gastrodiplomacy tends to be used for the promotion of U.S. and local (host country) interests rather than Muslim-specific or global topics. Gastrodiplomacy, by definition, is the promotion of a country's unique culinary heritage in a government-to-foreign public context, and so the finding that gastrodiplomacy posts were primarily concerned with the promotion of local or U.S. topics is reasonable in this context. The results support previous literature and definitions of gastrodiplomacy, in that the researcher expected to find gastrodiplomacy posts primarily promoting U.S. culture and interests. The researcher finds the result of local country promotion to be promising for two-way engagement, as it suggests that embassies have an understanding of the benefit of engaging with local culture rather than solely promoting U.S. culture.

Food Security. For each of the five elements of two-way engagement, food security posts make little or no use of every possible item. What can be said with certainty of food security posts is that they use shared content, pictures, and neutral tone but very seldom use emotion. In contrast to gastrodiplomacy posts, food security posts tend to be used for the promotion of global topics, rather than U.S., local, or Muslim culture topics. This finding is plausible, as food security is considered to be a global issue. As a result, this type of food diplomacy should be a great topic for two-way engagement: everyone will be affected by future food security issues, making it a bridging point among different countries.

Food Assistance. Food assistance posts make little or no use of every possible item within the five elements adapted from Strauß et al. (2015). The results of this research show that food assistance posts use shared content, pictures, and neutral tone but seldom use emotion. Food assistance posts tend to be used equally for the promotion of local, U.S. and local, global or Muslim culture topics. No posts were solely dedicated to the promotion of the U.S. This is somewhat surprising, as the assistance in question is generally funded or facilitated by the U.S. It is also a promising result, suggesting that the posting embassies recognize that the topic can be a divisive one, and should not be used simply to put a feather in the U.S.'s cap.

Culinary Diplomacy. Once again, the results of this study show that for each of the five elements of two-way engagement, culinary diplomacy posts make little or no use of every possible item. Culinary diplomacy posts in this study use pictures and neutral tone with little use of emotion. Culinary diplomacy posts tended to be used for the promotion of U.S. and local (host country) interests rather than Muslim-specific or global topics. As the definition of culinary diplomacy requires that the interaction be between representatives of at least two countries, this result makes a certain amount of sense.

Despite the optimism found in the existing literature for the potential relationship building qualities of gastrodiploamacy and culinary diplomacy, the posts examined in the current research simply do not promote two-way engagement. The empirical evidence suggests that the posting embassies' inappropriate use of the Facebook platform may be the root cause. The lack of engaging elements used in

embassies' gastrodiplomacy posts indicates that little effort is expended on Facebook posts.

This research study suggests that the use of food in nation branding requires intentional action and careful stewardship, neither of which is being displayed by the U.S. Embassy posts examined here. As discussed previously, one of the benefits of food diplomacy is that it can be adapted to the environment in which the U.S. Embassy operates. However, we do not see that in the current sample of posts. In fact, there is a central source for many of the shared stories, as shown in the results. The Share America Blog is an excellent resource for the posting embassies, limiting the amount of time required to find stories to share with their audiences, as well as ensuring that the stories are promoting a unified message from the U.S. government. However, there is an apparent reliance on these shared sources that has perhaps caused the treatment of the embassy Facebook audiences to become something of a standardized effort. The shared sources should be used to create an overall message that is uniquely fitted to the home country of the audience. Future research would do well to examine these centralized sources to determine whether the focus of this research on Muslim-majority countries created the illusion of a lack of effort to adapt to the target audience.

Finally, the posts were examined for dialogic efforts as defined by Kent and Taylor (2002). The results showed that there was little evidence of dialogic efforts by the embassies included in the sample. The situation is reminiscent of Lane's *Why dialogue cannot be mandated* (2017). In this paper, Lane argued that mandated dialogue simply cannot be dialogue in the strictest sense of the word, "given the attitudes of participants and the process of communication involved" (Lane, 2017, pp. 25). In the

case of the sampled Facebook posts, this argument seems to be supported. There are few posts (38 of 271, in fact) in which the embassies responded in any way after the initial post. Further, the audience clearly are not all favorable towards the U.S. or its embassies, despite not being forced to follow or interact with them via Facebook. On the side of the posting embassies at least, it could be argued that the dialogue is mandated, as the Obama administration led other agencies to engage with their publics by their example. Lane also argued that mandated dialogue “is characterized by two-way communication that demonstrates participants are motivated by self-interest, and a desire to exert influence over each other” (Lane, 2017, pp. 25). The very definition of public diplomacy and public relations presented in this thesis includes the idea of communication to influence the audience. On the surface, the practice of Facebook posting by U.S. embassies is mandated dialogue.

Research Question 3:

What elements of food diplomacy posts demonstrate successful engagement efforts of foreign publics?

While RQ 2 determined that U.S. food diplomacy posts do not appropriately demonstrate promotion of two-way engagement, the researcher was able to determine whether there were any elements present in the sample that successfully engaged the audience of the U.S. Embassy Facebook posts. With no access to back-end Facebook metrics for the U.S. Embassy pages in the sample, the researcher depended on external interactions to demonstrate successful engagement efforts: likes, comments, shares, and reactions. These external interactions were tested against each item of the engaging elements identified by Strauß et al. (2015) to determine whether there were any

significant interactions between particular items or elements and the external interactions. In other words, the researcher wanted to learn if any item or element could be directly linked to an increase or decrease in likes, comments, shares, or reactions. While these are serviceable for the current exploratory study, they are not a complete representation of successful engagement. Access to Facebook metrics for each embassy page would have helped to round out the picture of engagement with food diplomacy posts. These metrics include such numbers as how many times the post was seen, enabling the researcher to determine a ratio of times seen to interactions. Another useful metric would have been number of clicks, which would have helped to determine which types of posts caused people to click on them, although the individual might not have performed any external interaction. It should also be noted that reactions (emotive responses) were not available to Facebook users until February 24, 2016, the tail-end of the selected sample period. These can be used retroactively on posts that existed before the reactions were made available, and frequently were in the sample, but are uncommon for posts before the release date. This may have skewed some of the results to make them significant, suggesting that certain items or elements caused the audience to use reactions to interact with posts when they did not, or even that the items or elements cause the audience not to use reactions to interact with posts when they do.

Gastrodiplomacy. The audience engaged with gastrodiplomacy posts despite the lack of what Strauß et al. (2015) considered to be the important engaging elements of social media posts. There were some significant interactions and differences between audience interactions and each of the engaging elements. For most items there were no

significant differences in the numbers of interactions on posts that had the engaging elements compared to those that did not.

For interactivity, the significant results were on the items hashtags, mobilize action online, and mobilize action offline. The correlation of hashtags and reactions was in the direction suggested by Strauß et al. (2015). That is, posts with more hashtags tended to have more reactions. However, for mobilize action offline, the significant difference was the opposite of what was suggested by Strauß et al. (2015). That is, posts that mobilized offline activity tended to have fewer comments. This result could be due to the countries where the sampled embassies are located. There could be some cultural concerns that keep the audience from participating in offline food activities. Another possible explanation is the environment of Facebook, which is completely online. While the posts notify the audience of the offline activity, the audience may not feel the need to comment on the post prior to attending the food event.

The engaging element personalization had two significant differences, both in line with Strauß et al. (2015). First, posts with first-person language tended to have more comments. Strauß et al. (2015) suggested that the appeal of first-person language was due to the perception that there was an individual posting the message. The higher number of comments could be the result of the audience's perception and higher level of comfort with the interaction. Posts that had an image also tended to have more comments. This result supported the use of Strauß et al.'s (2015) social media engaging elements.

This study showed that posts with a positive tone tended to have more likes and comments. Since most of the posts had a neutral tone, this is a result that should be

taken under consideration for practical application. In other words, embassies should strive for a positive tone rather than a neutral tone. Again, this result supported Strauß et al. (2015).

The use of emotion in posts tended to result in a higher number of comments. There was no differentiation between types of emotion portrayed, so embassies should consider using whatever emotion is appropriate for the topic. This result also supported Strauß et al.'s (2015) engaging elements.

The last element, relevance, showed a significant difference in the number of likes and comments according to the type of link included in the post. Posts including links to news media tended to have higher numbers of likes compared to posts including U.S. government links, while posts with links to news media tended to have higher numbers of comments compared to posts with U.S. government links or "other" site links. This result was somewhat mixed in terms of what Strauß et al. (2015) considered the engaging elements, as there was not a significant difference in posts that have a link compared to posts that don't have a link at all. However, knowing what type of link appeals to embassy Facebook audiences can be helpful to the embassies when considering how to craft an engaging post.

Gastrodiplomacy posts demonstrated the highest number of significant audience interactions with posts compared to the other food diplomacy types. However, some of the elements caused interactions to decrease when they were present on posts. These results contrasted with the suggestions by Strauß et al. (2015), and could be a result of the small number of posts that made use of the item being tested. More research is needed, perhaps using posts that make more consistent use of the engaging elements.

Food Security. While existing literature ignores or even argues against the inclusion of food security as a public diplomacy tool (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2012), the empirical evidence found in the current research suggests a need for re-evaluation and considerably more research. Food security posts have no more use of the engaging elements by the embassies than the other food diplomacy types. Once again, a more effective use of the engaging elements by the posting embassy could significantly increase the external interactions by the audience.

For the element interactivity, more @Mentions tended to result in more shares. This is directly in line with Strauß et al.'s (2015) reasoning for using @Mentions. More “tagging” or @Mentions builds the network of the post: the post is seen by the network of the mentioned account, and is more likely to be seen by the mentioned account as well. Posts that did not mobilize action online tended to have more shares than those that did. As with gastrodiploacy posts, this could be a result of the Muslim-majority sample and the food culture differences between the audience and the U.S. Embassies.

Despite the lack of effective use of engaging elements by the posting embassies, the audience chose to interact significantly with some elements included in food security posts. This could be a result of the choice by the researcher to focus the sample on Muslim-majority countries, many of which are struggling with food production and hunger currently, making food security a uniquely appealing topic for the audiences. As food security is focused on the future capability of humans to feed themselves, food security is perhaps more pertinent to the predominantly Muslim-populated countries, the fastest growing on the planet (Lipka, 2017). Further research is required to compare these results to non-Muslim-majority countries.

Food Assistance. As with food security, the existing literature ignores or argues against the inclusion of food assistance under the umbrella of food diplomacy or public diplomacy generally, as it is generally considered a hard power topic (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2012). In this study, the researcher chose to examine posts for evidence of food assistance topics with the idea that food assistance can be a useful and /or harmful element of nation branding. While food assistance posts were certainly found within the sample, embassy posts made little use of the engaging elements, as with the other food diplomacy types. Further, there are few significant interactions between these engaging elements and likes, comments, shares, or reactions on food assistance posts. Only the number of @Mentions were correlated with a higher number of reactions on posts.

This result was likely due to the fact that the embassies did not use the engaging elements associated with successful social media posts (Strauß et al. (2015). The evidence found in this sample did not conclusively answer the question of which elements of food assistance posts the audience chooses to interact with. Based on the literature review, it can be argued that food assistance and its presentation in embassy communication influences the U.S. national brand, as do other food diplomacy posts. The act of food assistance is, in many ways, a hard power act of diplomacy. However, the choice of what, where, and when the U.S. contributes food assistance influences the U.S. national brand. The role of the embassy in communicating those decisions and/or policies may further help to define the role of food assistance in the U.S. national brand.

Culinary Diplomacy. Culinary diplomacy posts were the least frequent in the sample and also had few significant interactions with audience external interactions.

Considering that there is a relatively large amount of literature dedicated to the culinary diplomacy phenomenon, the researcher was surprised how little this food diplomacy type appeared in the empirical evidence. It is possible that the small number of posts on the topic was due to the official nature of culinary diplomacy interactions. They may be better represented in official or traditional means of communication. Perhaps there simply were not as many official interactions involving food as the literature implies. Certainly, a state dinner is a larger and more important event than, say, a coffee with the ambassador, but then one might expect more posts per individual event rather than only one post per event.

Although culinary diplomacy is a type of food diplomacy involving official interactions, occurring between state representatives, the audience in the sample had more reactions on posts that used personal experience stories than on posts that did not. The posts that made use of emotion also tended to have more reactions than posts that did not use emotion. These findings support Strauß et al.'s (2015) proposed engaging elements. The personal, emotional presentation of culinary diplomacy events is something that embassies should consider when posting these events to Facebook.

The lack of empirical representation of culinary diplomacy in the sample is directly at odds with the existing literature. Chapple-Sokol (2013) and Rockower (2012) argued for more research on the culinary diplomacy phenomenon, as an important and under-studied element of public diplomacy. It is entirely possible that the embassies decided that official engagements between country representatives did not appeal to their audience. Once again, the lack of effort on the part of the posting embassies to

create engaging posts seems to be a more plausible explanation here, rather than the topic itself.

Dialogic Qualities. The qualities of dialogue as defined by Kent and Taylor (2002) are severely lacking on the part of the audience as well as the embassies. The audience dominated the comments and discussion following a Facebook post, but did not always engage with the topic. The examples given in the results chapter, though they demonstrated both positive and negative comments, did not include the non-topical comments.

Embassies attempt to inform and influence their audience so that the audiences form a positive attitude toward the U.S. On the other hand, audiences might have many other reasons to use Facebook, such as reading headlines, keeping in contact with friends and family, or simply searching for entertaining content. Interacting with U.S. Embassy Facebook pages may not be a top priority for audience members. The embassies' and audiences' goals for using Facebook are often divergent, and this creates a problem for understanding Facebook interactions between U.S. embassies and their audiences. This study found little evidence of Kent and Taylor's (2002) tenets of dialogue. According to Kent and Taylor (2002), "the Web can function dialogically rather than monologically" (p. 31), but this is not in evidence for the current sample of Facebook posts, despite the same incorporation of "text, sound, image, movement, and the potential for real-time interaction all in one package" (p.31). Kent and Taylor (2002) developed their tenets of dialogue for situations in which the participants presumably worked towards the same goals, rather than for the situation which Facebook presents, in which those who interact may not only not share the same goals but may be working

at odds with each other. While dialogue is certainly possible via Facebook, the rules that govern the U.S. embassies, those of professionalism, do not apply to their audiences. Professionalism requires embassy employees to remember that they represent the U.S. and act accordingly, whereas audience members have only their own opinions, attitudes, and actions to focus on. The difference in situation (professional versus personal) may be too great to overcome for any expectation of productive dialogue. What framework then can be used to understand the interactions that occur? Lane (2017) made the argument against mandated dialogue, and the lack of dialogue in the sample supported the argument. Lane (2017) did not present an alternative through which to study or understand Facebook interactions between U.S. embassies and their audiences. Future research should include interviews with embassy employees as well as audience members to determine whether they consider these activities via Facebook to be dialogue.

Suggestions for Practical Applications of the Research

The researcher has several practical suggestions for both embassy employees responsible for Facebook management and for the U.S. Department of State about Facebook posting activities generally and food diplomacy posts specifically.

First, for U.S. embassies looking to engage their Facebook audiences more effectively, the researcher suggests a simple checklist of items to include on Facebook posts. While it is not always appropriate use every single item within the engaging elements proposed by Strauß et al. (2015), a simple checklist could effectively divide the items into required and suggested items. This could be used as a simple guideline to help employees post in a more effective manner. Realistically, the researcher recognizes

that although Facebook is a free tool for anyone to use, embassies do not always have the resources to employ someone dedicated solely to social media management. That said, the following chart could shorten the time required to ensure a post incorporates engaging elements, possibly making it more effective.

In addition to the included checklist (see Figure 14), embassy employees responsible for Facebook posts should dedicate some time to review posts after they have allowed some time for the audience to engage with them. The embassy should answer all questions posed, reply to comments when appropriate or like a post when a reply is not required. Also, they should delete comments when necessary according to social media guidelines after which they should provide explanation to the person who posted the comment. A schedule should be followed for these activities, such as planning an hour a day or several hours per week to engage with the embassy's Facebook audience. A streamlining and prioritization of activities along with posting tools which allow the embassy employee to schedule posts in advance will make the process less time-consuming.

Second, when specifically dealing with food diplomacy posts, embassy employees who manage Facebook accounts should be conscious that the topics can be beneficial to the U.S. national brand. It is not as simple as asking what the audience likes to eat as they break their fast during Ramadan, or even to suggest Ramadan-appropriate U.S. recipes, as some Facebook posts in this study revealed. It is important to consider how the audience perceives U.S. food culture as well as the food culture of the audience. While food can be a useful bridging tool, it can also be a point of conflict, as discussed previously.

Figure 14: Proposed Engaging Facebook Post Guidelines

Engaging Facebook Post Guidelines				
	Always Use	Tips	When Appropriate	Tips
Interactivity	Ask Question	Ask the opinion of your audience, what they think, etc.	@Mentions	When mentioning another page, organization or individual
	Reply	ALWAYS! Reply to at least one comment, and all questions when possible.	Hashtags	When it makes sense, such as when trying to join a larger conversation, trending hashtags, topically related, etc.
	Mobilize Action Online	Ask them to read an article, click on the link, visit your website, etc.	Mobilize Action Offline	When there is an offline event, ask people to attend!
Personalization	Picture/Image/Video	Social media is highly visual, and “a picture speaks 1000 words!”	Personal example	Did you personally have a related experience? Tell your audience!
	First person	Make use of this tactic to seem more like a real person than an advertisement.		
	Informal language	Don’t be afraid of appropriate slang, contractions, jokes, exclamation points and emojis!		
Tone	Neutral or positive		Negative	Sometimes there are events which require approbation. Use sparingly and appropriately.
Emotion	Use of emotion	Use appropriate emotional terms, phrases, and punctuation. Emojis are fine as well.		
Relevance	Link	Always link to the appropriate shared article, page, etc. When not necessary, link back to embassy page to increase traffic. Try to always have something specific to link to.		

The U.S. Department of State is already working to create policy-appropriate articles through the Share America Blog as well as the IIP Publication website. These are easily shareable stories from a central resource available to all employees posting to Facebook. However, the Department of State should be encouraging food diplomacy posts more directly, through memos and other official communication. The encouragement from top-level officials will likely go a long way toward not only

posting food diplomacy topics more regularly, but also increasing the use of effective engagement techniques. If no official social media policy exists, the Department of State should create a general guideline at the very least, one which allows the embassies to create posts and engagements with their foreign publics with the comfort of knowing they are in alignment with the goals of the Secretary of State.

Limitations

There were several limitations to this research. First, no official social media policy was available for comparison to findings and therefore critiques may be inappropriate. Second, the current research does not compare food diplomacy posts to other posts and their topics in terms of engaging elements or audience external interactions. Third, the exploratory nature of this study prevented the researcher from making inferences about the findings. Future research may have some predictive capabilities once we understand the landscape of food diplomacy interactions. Finally, the research was from a public, front-end perspective only. The researcher could not take into account the analytic capabilities and information for the embassy Facebook pages. Despite these limitations, the author believes that the research, exploratory as it was, has been a useful step in further advancing one's understanding of food diplomacy as one of many elements of public diplomacy efforts.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and Recommendations for Future Research

The goal with this exploratory research was to map out the current landscape of U.S. food diplomacy as portrayed via U.S. embassy Facebook posts. The results of the current research provided evidence of the value of further research of food diplomacy, not only in the U.S. but also in any country or culture that uses food culture as a means of bridging cross-cultural gaps. An exploratory study was undertaken to examine the proposed food diplomacy typology. Posts from 18 U.S. Embassy Facebook pages were searched for keywords pertaining to food diplomacy. These posts were content-analyzed for key features indicative of engagement practices (Strauß et al., 2015) by the embassy as well as dialogic tenets (Kent & Taylor, 2002). This was one of the first studies to condense existing food diplomacy literature to classify the terms associated with food diplomacy types. It was also one of the first to explore food diplomacy interactions from multiple perspectives as manifested by communication on Facebook pages of the U.S. Embassy pages in the Near East, North Africa, and Asia Pacific regions. This exploratory research justifies future research on the topic of food diplomacy and its types, as manifested in the proposed food diplomacy typology.

Perhaps the most important contribution of this thesis is the proposed U.S.-specific food diplomacy typology. While it was in need of modification from the point of the literature review to the point of the research results, the typology is an important step in understanding U.S. food diplomacy. The typology clarifies and condenses a confusing body of literature which previously used many terms for four basic concepts: culinary diplomacy, gastrodiplomacy, food security, and food assistance. Ongoing research will refine and clarify the food diplomacy typology.

Another important result of this study was the clear indication that U.S. embassy Facebook posts are not crafted in a way that promotes two-way engagement with foreign audiences. Although the literature review suggested that social media-based diplomacy is an easy, inexpensive, equalizing communication platform, the reality is that the sampled embassies seem to be using it as an easy, inexpensive, one-way communication tool while taking rare advantage of the relationship-building opportunities presented by the participation of their audiences. Further, many of the embassies present the same blanket treatment across state and cultural lines within the Muslim-majority sample. With central sources of information and publications, the same stories are repeated with nearly identical presentation across the sample.

Details of food diplomacy interactions should be closely examined. While the current research focused on embassies in Muslim-majority countries, there are 219 U.S. embassies, missions, and consulates that all use similar resources, namely the Share America Blog and the IIP Publication website. On the surface, it seems likely that there are many food-based stories that are not appropriate for use in Muslim-majority countries and vice-versa. The types of food diplomacy featured and their frequency of publication may paint a better picture of U.S. food diplomacy than examination of Facebook posts

Third the results showed that embassy Facebook audiences do not necessarily respond to the food diplomacy topics as might have been expected. Although embassy posts do not make significant use of engaging elements, the audiences seem willing to interact with the posts via likes, comments, shares, and reactions. Future research should try to gain access to back end analytics from these embassy Facebook pages in

order to compare those analytics to the external, public-facing interactions that were available for study for this research.

Finally, the dialogic tenets proposed by Kent and Taylor (2002) and held up as ideal by many public relations researchers were not manifested in the sample of this study. Lane (2017) proposed that mandated dialogue is not dialogue, and that the gap between theory and practice in dialogue has become too significant to ignore. The current research upholds that assertion, at least at this exploratory stage. Further research is needed to understand and explain the unique nature of interactions between U.S. embassies and their audiences via Facebook. The comparatively inexpensive and easy to use method of communication will likely continue to be a tool of U.S. embassies. Better understanding of what causes successful interactions between U.S. embassies and their audiences will serve to increase the effectiveness of communication. For this study, the dialogic theory was not the best theory for understanding Facebook exchanges between U.S. embassies and their audiences. Future research should look for another theory to explain these interactions.

In all, the results outline an interesting phenomenon. Food diplomacy in general, whether called culinary diplomacy or food diplomacy, has received relatively little attention from the academic or the practical world. This single exploratory study found that gastrodplomacy alone has at a minimum six sub-categories. It also found that food security and food assistance are being presented and discussed by U.S. embassies and their foreign publics. The U.S. is in a position of hard power to do something about food crises, but how to communicate their efforts and work with other entities to accomplish their goals is a difficult question, especially because embassies also realize

the implications of such communication on U.S. soft power, and nation branding. Though previous scholars (Chapple-Sokol, 2013; Rockower, 2012) have argued against the inclusion of food security and food assistance under the umbrella of food diplomacy, the empirical evidence suggests that the gap between theory and reality is ripe for exploration.

Not only is food diplomacy an interesting area of study, it is a necessary one. As stated in the literature review, food is a common element to every country, every culture: everyone must eat. It is fun, exciting, and enticing to think of the ways food culture can tempt visitors and investors. But it is necessary to consider how food culture can create conflict and separation.

Future research will work to clarify the food diplomacy typology as well as cement the acceptance of food security and food assistance into the realm of food diplomacy. This research has demonstrated the existence of all four types of food diplomacy in the realm of U.S. Embassy Facebook posts. Future research can provide understanding, and more importantly, further analysis of the use of food diplomacy as part of public diplomacy.

This study attempted to understand the food diplomacy phenomenon primarily from a public relations perspective with a focus on the relationship-building capabilities of food diplomacy. The concept of food as a relationship-building tool has been demonstrated, but the most important result of this study is the clarification of the literature on food diplomacy and the many associated terms. Where the literature was full of related and overlapping terms, there are now four types of food diplomacy: gastrodiploamacy, food security, food assistance, and culinary diplomacy.

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Appendix A: Keywords

Agriculture
Bake
Baking
BBQ
Beef
Bread
Breakfast
Burger
Cake
Cereal
Champagne
Cheese
Chef
Chicken
Chile
Chili
Chinese
Chocolate

Coffee
Cook
Cuisine
Culinary
Dairy
Dessert
Diet
Dinner
Drink
Farm
Fast Food
Fish
Foie Gras
Food
French
Gastro
GMO
Greek

Halaal
Halal
Healthy
Hunger
Hungry
Iftar
Indian
Italian
Kosher
Lunch
Meal
Mediterranean
Mexican
Nutrition
Organic
Pasta
Peruvian
Recipe

Restaurant
Seafood
Siesta
Taste
Thai
Thanksgiving
Treat
Unhealthy
Vegan
Vegetarian
Vietnamese
Wine
“Duff”
Goldman –
Algeria
Emily Luchetti
- Bahrain

Appendix B: Codebook

U.S. Food Diplomacy Landscape Coding Scheme

This research aims to map out recent use of food diplomacy in U.S. Public Diplomacy in Muslim-majority countries. The coding unit (Facebook post) will be coded according to the following codebook, which is adapted from research by Strauß et al. (2015). The coding items will be used to determine whether the posts are created in a way that is engaging, appealing, and appropriate for the platform. Click on (or copy and paste) the post link from the Keywords document to go to the original post in FB. On posts which are determined to be non-topical (item **E**) please be sure to obtain all information for prior items (**A – D**). For posts with both English and other languages, you are only responsible for portions in English. For example, do not count hashtags that are in Arabic as part of the total.

Quantitative Analysis

A. Unit Number

- Line number from Excel document

B. Month (mm)

-Published month

C. Year (YYYY)

-Published year

D. Embassy

- Which embassy did the post originate from? Column D (STATUS_FROM)

1. Algeria - U.S. Embassy Algiers
2. Bahrain - U.S. Embassy Manama
3. Brunei – U.S. Embassy Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei Darussalam
4. Egypt – U.S. Embassy Cairo
5. Iraq – U.S. Embassy Baghdad
6. Jordan – U.S. Embassy - Jordan
7. Kuwait – U.S. Embassy Kuwait
8. Lebanon – US Embassy Beirut
9. Lybia – U. S. Embassy Lybia
10. Malaysia – U.S. Embassy Kuala Lumpur
11. Morocco – US Embassy Rabat
12. Oman – U.S. Embassy Muscat
13. Qatar – U.S. Embassy Qatar
14. Saudi Arabia – U.S. Mission Saudi Arabia
15. Syria – U.S. Embassy Damascus
16. Tunisia – U.S. Embassy Tunis
17. United Arab Emirates – US Embassy Abu Dhabi
18. Yemen – U.S. Embassy Yemen

E. Specific Food Topic Category (FoodTopic)

- Culinary diplomacy (1) is understood as formal food interactions between states, such as formal dinners among state representatives. There will be no interaction between non-government citizens and government officials for culinary diplomacy.

-Gastrodiplomacy (2) is any food interaction between a state/state representative and a foreign public, such as an embassy-sponsored food fair. It can also be people-to-people, such as a visiting chef, food diaspora, cultural restaurants (such as a restaurant with halal offerings) or any other example of intercultural food events. Gastrodiplomacy also includes food-culture, meaning food-oriented holidays or events, or even food-based language learning. *****Please explain the nature of the gastrodiplomacy food topic. It will help to flesh out and clarify the Food Diplomacy Typology.**

-Food security (3) is understood as future-based food study or planning, such as programs to develop drought-resistant crops. This also includes any educational efforts to increase healthy food choices and environmentally sustainable food choices. This may also appear in international assistance programs that teach immigrants/refugees agricultural techniques as marketable skills.

-Food assistance (4) is any topic involving current nutritional needs, such as relief during or after a natural disaster or poor growing season.

-If the post fits more than one category (5), explain in the next column.

-If the topic fits none of these (6), explain. If the topic is unrelated and has no food diplomacy topic at all, highlight the row and move on to the next post.

1. Culinary Diplomacy
2. Gastrodiplomacy
3. Food Security
4. Food Assistance
5. More than one type (Explain)
6. Other (Explain)

F. Explain Food Topic Category

-Only necessary for topics that are not clear-cut. For example: The topic is gastrodiplomacy, but it is more specifically food diaspora, language learning, or people-to-people.

G. Country of Origin

- Where the food topic originated from or which country it is promoting. Is it American Aid to another State? Is it a recipe from the state in which the embassy is based? Is it some combination, such as a Thanksgiving dinner at an embassy involving local citizens? A global topic is one that may not seem to fit a specific region, such as global warming.

1. U.S.
2. Local
3. Both
4. Global Topic
5. Muslim Civilization
6. Other (Specify)

H. Explain Country of Origin

-If needed to clarify only. Must be used for "Other."

Interactive Communication

- This is understood as reciprocal or two-way interaction between the embassy and its public.

I. Hashtag Present

-Report number of Hashtags. As a reminder, this is only English hashtags.

J. Link

- Any link leading away from the post. Many have shortened links, so you will have to click on them to determine the site type. None (0) is no links included in the post. Embassy Website (1) is the central website for the local embassy. A U.S. Government Site (2) is any website, other than the embassy website, that ends in .gov. A News Media Site (3) is any website containing news stories, whether local, international, or U.S.-based. A Recipe Site (4) is any linked site that provides instructions on cooking some type of food. Other (5) is any other type of link. Specify what the link is. If there are more than one link, code only the first link in the post.

0. None
1. Embassy Website
2. U.S. Government Site
3. News Media
4. Recipe Site
5. Other

K. Provide Link

-Copy and paste the shared link

L. Replies from Embassy? (Reply)

- Someone from the Embassy account replies to at least one comment. Don't report number of replies.

1. Yes
2. No

M. Original Content

-Content was created for and/or by the Embassy.

1. Yes
2. No

N. Shared Content?

-Non-original content shared from another source. This could be from the same social media site or linked content that does not belong to the Embassy.

1. Yes
2. No

O. If "Yes" to shared content, list source

-This is not the website or link. Instead, share the name of the source. For example, a .gov site may be the Share America Blog or IIP Publication

P. Does the post ask a question of the audience/public?

-This is a question relating to the topic, but without an explicit request to answer or share. "Would you try this?"

1. Yes
2. No

Q. Does the post ask the audience/public to do something online? (AskOn)

-This could be a request to share the post, or it could be a request for feedback, such as "What is your favorite comfort food? Tell us in the comments!"

1. Yes
2. No

R. Online Activity

-This could be "Click to learn more" or "Read more: link." Report only what they are asked to do, not the link itself. So, "Read more" or "Click to learn" would be sufficient.

S. Does the post ask the audience/public to do something offline? (AskOff)

-This could be a request come to an event or learning activity, anything that is an offline activity.

1. Yes
2. No

T. Offline Activity

-Same as above, list only the requested activity. For example, "Join us for a night of movies and snacks" would be reported as "join us."

U. Likes (Report #)

V. Comments (Report #)

W. Shares (Report #)

X. Reactions (Report #)

Y. Tagging or @Mentions of others in posts (Tags) (Report # of tags/@Mentions)

Z. - List tagged/@Mention accounts - it is acceptable to simply copy and paste the tagged names/pages from the post.

Personalized Communication

- This is understood as a communication style in which the communicator (the embassy representative, in this case) reveals or incorporates personal aspects into posts rather than strictly embassy (official) business.

AA. Images/Photos

- Are there any images that are not videos or Infographics?

1. Yes
2. No

AB. Videos

-Are there videos that are not still images/photos or infographics?

1. Yes
2. No

AC. Infographics

- These are still images with a largely informative purpose, often with many word and sections.

1. Yes
2. No

***** For the next three items (AD-AF), the person may be in an image, video, infographic or the language of the post itself.**

AD. Presence of U.S. Embassy Representative (EmbRep)

-There is a person present who is identified as being employed by the Embassy, such as the Ambassador or Cultural Attache.

1. Yes
2. No

AE. Presence of non-Embassy U.S. Representative(USRep)

- A person is present who is identified as a U.S. Rep of some kind, but not explicitly aligned with the embassy. This could be a visiting official, celebrity, or scholar.

1. Yes
2. No

AF. Presence of non-U.S. Representative (NonUSRep)

- A person is present, but he/she is not explicitly a US Rep or US Embassy Rep.

1. Yes
2. No

AG. Does the post use informal language?

- This could include slang, colloquial phrases, etc.

1. Yes
2. No

AH. Does the post include first person language? (FirstPer)

- Does the post make use of “I”, “We” or other similar personal pronouns?

1. Yes
2. No

AI. Is there any use of personal stories/information?

- This could be a personal experience of the post author in the host country or the home country.

1. Yes
2. No

Sentiment: Tone

AJ. Is the tone (valence) of the message positive, negative, or neutral?

1. Positive
2. Negative
3. Neutral

Sentiment: Emotion

AK. Is there any expression of **emotion, such as excitement or anger?**

1. Yes
2. No

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative analysis will take into account comments as well as the post. Be sure to read the comments.

Coders are asked to read Kent and Taylor's (2002) article, Toward a Dialogic Theory of Public Relations. Posts and subsequent comments are to be assessed for mutuality, propinquity, empathy, risk, and commitment according to Kent and Taylor's descriptions.

Use the elements below to guide the qualitative analysis. If any elements are present, notes are to be made in a separate Word document about how the element is reflected. Make note of anything that sticks out about the post or the comments.

Mutuality

Recognition of organization-public relationships

Collaboration: All individuals engaged in a dialogue should have positions of their own, and should advocate for those positions vigorously. Dialogue is premised on intersubjectivity. It seeks to understand the positions of others and how people reached those positions.²⁷ "Reality" must be accepted by all parties involved as a socially constructed and perspectival process. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.25)

Spirit of Mutual Equality: In dialogue, the exercise of power or superiority should be avoided. Participants should feel comfortable discussing any topic free of ridicule or contempt. Although the partners in exchanges are often of differing status, discussants should consciously avoid the dynamics and trappings of power to manipulate or otherwise control the flow or direction of conversation. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.25)

Propinquity

Temporality and spontaneity of interactions with publics

Immediacy of Presence: The feature of immediacy of presence suggests that parties involved are communicating in the present about issues, rather than after decisions have been made. Immediacy of presence also suggests that parties are communicating in a shared space (or place). (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.26)

Temporal Flow: Dialogic communication is relational. It involves an understanding of the past and the present, and has an eye toward future relationships. Dialogue is not rooted only in the present; rather, its focus is on a continued and shared future for all participants. Dialogue is deliberative and seeks to construct a future for participants that is both equitable and acceptable to all involved. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.26)

Engagement: Dialogic participants must be willing to give their whole selves to encounters. Dialogue is not something that can take place in one's spare time or in the periphery. Dialogic participants must be accessible. All parties should respect their discussant(s) and risk attachment and fondness rather than maintaining positions of neutrality or observer status. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.26)

Empathy

Supportiveness and confirmation of public goals and interests

Supportiveness: Dialogue involves creating a climate in which others are not only encouraged to participate but their participation is facilitated. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.27)

Communal Orientation: It is clear with each passing day that the citizens of the world are becoming inextricably linked through new communication technologies. With this globalization comes the recognition that organizations must engage in local as well as international relationships. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.27)

Confirmation: The practice of confirmation refers to acknowledging the voice of the other in spite of one's ability to ignore it. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.27)

Risk

Willingness to interact with individuals on their own terms

Vulnerability: Dialogue, by necessity, involves the sharing of information, individual beliefs, and desires, with others. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.28)

Unanticipated Consequences: Dialogic communication is unrehearsed and spontaneous. Dialogic exchanges are not scripted nor are they predictable. This spontaneity emerges in the interaction of participants and their individual beliefs, values and attitudes. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.28)

Recognition of Strange Otherness: Recognition of strange otherness is not limited to the interaction of strangers or acquaintances but also includes exchanges with those who are well known. Recognition of strange otherness also includes a consciousness of the fact that the "other" is not the same as oneself—nor should they be. Individuals are accepted as unique and valuable in their own right and because of the differences that they bring to dialogic exchanges. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.28-29)

Commitment

The extent to which an organization gives itself over to dialogue, interpretation, and understanding in its interactions with publics

Genuineness: Dialogue is honest and forthright. It involves revealing one's position—"shooting from the hip" in spite of the possible value that deception or nondisclosure might have. This is not to say that interlocutors are indiscreet, but rather that they endeavor to place the good of the relationship above the good of the self (or the client/organization). (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.29)

Commitment to Conversation: Conversations are held for the purposes of mutual benefit and understanding and not to defeat the other or to "exploit their weaknesses." (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.29)

Commitment to Interpretation: Dialogue occurs when individuals (and sometimes groups) agree to set aside their differences long enough to come to an understanding of the others' positions. Dialogue is not equivalent to agreement. Rather, dialogue is more akin to intersubjectivity where both parties attempt to understand and appreciate the values and interests of the other. (Kent & Taylor, 2002, p.29-30)

Appendix C: Country Links

Country	Website Link	Facebook Link
Algeria	https://algiers.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyAlgiers
Bahrain	https://bh.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/AmericanEmbassyManama
Brunei	https://bn.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/usembassybsb
Egypt	https://eg.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyCairo
Iraq	https://iraq.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyBaghdad
Jordan	https://jo.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/jordan.usembassy
Kuwait	https://kw.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyQ8
Lebanon	https://lebanon.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyBeirut
Libya	https://libya.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/usembassytripoli/
Malaysia	https://my.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/usembassykl
Morocco	https://ma.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyRabat
Oman	https://om.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyMuscat
Qatar	https://qa.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USEmbassyQatar/?ref=ts
Saudi Arabia	https://sa.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/USAinKSA/
Syria	https://sy.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/syria.usembassy/
Tunisia	https://tn.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/usdos.tunisia
United Arab Emirates	https://abudhabi.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/usembassyAbuDhabi
Yemen	https://yemen.usembassy.gov/	https://www.facebook.com/yemen.usembassy