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**USE OF DATA ANALYTICS IN PUBLIC DIPLOMACY: MEASURING AND EVALUATION
PRACTICES IN DIFFERENT INSTITUTIONS**

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Abstract

As every single digital interaction indicates generation and storage of vast amount of data, called as big data, every social organizations tend to leverage the opportunity by adapting current technology. Thus, the impact of evolving information and communication technologies on public diplomacy is significant. It is not only implementation of activities but also PD measuring and evaluation is subject to change. Therefore, this thesis focuses on measuring and evaluation practice in PD in the context of evolving technologies as well as new trends social science research such as computational social science. The research examines three diverse PD architecture and evaluation practises: the United States, Turkiye, and the European Union. The Cambridge Analytica case is also investigated since it provides insight into the usage of data for political purposes. As a result, institutions tend to change their evaluation attitude from measuring outputs towards assessing outcomes. Data opportunities triggered institutions to sophisticate their research practices. In this regard, PD institutions are now using more impact-based metrics such as ‘outreach, engagement, satisfaction, perception, knowledge, skills acquisition, post-program engagement, employment and economics’ (ACPD Report, 2018, p.12).

Keywords: public diplomacy, evaluation, big data

Acknowledgments

I regard my own story within the framework of the center-periphery dichotomy. It's a journey. A journey towards the center made by a person who was born in the countryside of the Global South to observe the network of various relationships in the world he lives in. I would like to thank all my friends, family and teachers who held my hand, guided me and gave vision on this journey.

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1. Introduction

Information improves one's life in numerous ways. It is useful when travelling across international borders. It is useful when operating in a market economy. Thus, it aids in providing value for the serviced public. The answer to the question of where to obtain information may vary. A practical experience may provide the necessary information. Alternatively, the required information can be transmitted by an expert or instructor. Sometimes, it is necessary to physically approach the object to obtain knowledge about it. The means of acquiring information may also vary. It could be a covert action designed to gather intelligence. On the other hand, one can obtain the required information from open sources.

As a societal paradigm, three distinct stages have occurred in the history of civilisation. The first is the agricultural society, then the industrial society, and then the information society. The last paradigm has been dubbed the information society, as it has supplanted the industrial and agricultural knowledge societies' wealth-creating factors (Castells & Himanen, 2002). Information and communication technology are the most critical aspects of the concept of the information society. In this paradigm, information access has grown simpler. In addition, technical advancements have boosted the use of automation and digital solutions in the economy, and technological industrialisation has begun (Oguz Guner, 2020, p.122).

The remarkable shift that the contemporary global society has undergone is the evolution of communication and its relationship to information. According to Manuel Castells, humanity has attained "an information society" in which human intelligence has become a direct productive force rather than a determining element in the production process (Castells & Himanen, 2002). In other words, information is not the terminal in a chain, but rather an utilised entity in which innovation and its application mutually feed one other through processing technology. Thus, we have reached a situation where "data is the new oil." It refers to becoming a commodity.

Our society is highly reliant on information and communication technologies. Internet and modern technological capabilities enable us to communicate more rapidly than ever in human history. In addition to other effects of the Internet and computing technologies, humans' increased digital activity and footprint have resulted in a large volume of data, commonly referred to as big data. Statista (2002) projected that there would be five billion internet users globally by April 2022, representing 63 per cent of the global population. More than 93 per cent of this number, 4.65 billion, were social media users. The number of internet users worldwide is an essential indicator of digital footprint. Therefore, it is estimated that the number of data-driven interactions per day per person (i.e., interactions between humans and their digital devices) is likely to be more than double by 2025, from an average of 298 in 2010 to 4,909 connections, or one digital interaction every 18 seconds (Bjola et

al., 2019). These numbers show that all types of social organisations—private sector, public sector, academia, and civil society—need to alter their decision-making processes and activities to accommodate big data and data analytics. It undoubtedly enables any firm to create more excellent value by utilising information.

Understanding oneself and one's surroundings is a constant for people. Throughout history, literature and products pertaining to humans and their systems have been written. The French Revolution may have been the first to suggest that social change is ever-present and must be understood. Kertesz et al. (2019, p.3) recognise that the purpose of social science is to comprehend social interactions and their significance to society. Auguste Comte proposed "sociophysics," the natural and experimental science of social processes, in order to make social science more predictive (Kertesz et al., 2019, p.1). Some have suggested that his inability to build a predictive framework for social science was hampered by the absence of technical elements such as statistical tools and computers. However, new technology for acquiring, storing and processing data makes descriptive and predictive more complex and better. Even it is possible to make prescriptive analyses thanks to these technologies.

Any organisation, especially those operating to create a positive difference in attitudes and opinions, tries to understand their targeted people in areas such as current trends, complex networks, dynamics, and values. The efforts are to take more suitable decisions and to produce efficiently and effectively. Moreover, a more precisely organised system contains more data (Stonier, 1991, p.256). It asserts that a structured system has more relevant data and, consequently, a better level of intelligence. At the same time, the pace of the digital sphere and technology push public institutions from the local level to the international level to boost their capacity to realise emergencies and responding them timely by adapting themselves to social/technological developments.

As governments generate and gather vast quantities of data as part of their day-to-day operations, the public sector is becoming increasingly cognizant of the potential usefulness of big data (Munne, 2016, p.195). Some admit that government institutions are also adaptive regarding digital transformation and big data use (Burbidge and Webster, 2019). Furthermore, as data rapidly becomes the 'new oil,' the opportunities for public diplomacy to expand are substantial and game-changing (Bjola, Cassidy, Manor, 2019, p.83). "Information is power, and today a much larger part of the world's population has access to that power" (Nye)

To contribute effectively to the management of foreign policies and communications of countries and governments, public diplomacy, which has emerged as a foreign policy method and tool, must be managed and implemented at the level of activities and tactics and with a strategic understanding. Public diplomacy appears to consist mainly of propaganda and cultural promotion operations conducted on an activity-based and technical level, while management and strategic

perspectives are frequently overlooked. Addressing the communication needs of countries and governments, as well as creating and maintaining relationships with their target audiences, is predicated chiefly on placing it inside a strategic framework and then correctly managing and implementing it.

This study seeks to identify effect that data analytics makes in the practice of public diplomacy, particularly in measuring and evaluating. As institutions apply big data and use data technology more, they tend to change research metrics. I argue that, data opportunities triggered institutions to sophisticate their research practices due to increasing ability to gather data and measure complex relations. Thus, institutions tend to change their evaluation attitude from measuring outputs towards assessing outcomes. In this regard, PD institutions are now using more impact-based metrics such as ‘outreach, engagement, satisfaction, perception, knowledge, skills acquisition, post-program engagement, employment and economics’ (ACPD Report, 2018, p.12).

2. Methodology and Research Design

Initially, my primary objective was to comprehend how public diplomacy efforts might leverage technology. At that time, about five months ago, my awareness of both big data and data analytics increased simultaneously. The reason for the increase was a Netflix series titled "The Great Hack" about the Cambridge Analytica Scandal, which gained worldwide attention in recent years (see Guardian, 2019). Thus, the documentary examined the use of data analytics for political reasons in many elections, including the Brexit and US Presidential elections of 2016. In parallel, I noticed in May 2017 that the Cambridge Analytica issue had prompted an official investigation in the United Kingdom. In addition, the Information Commissioner’s Office (ICO), the data watchdog, produced multiple reports on the use of data in political campaigns during the investigation's three-year duration (ICO Report, 2018, p.2). Therefore, published testimonies and findings of official investigations and inquiries are used in this research in addition to materials including news, editorials, and articles.

As the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between evolving data opportunities and evaluation in PD institutions, I selected a number of political organisations performing PD. I first considered the United Kingdom, the United Nations, Sweden, Turkiye, France, the United States, and the European Union due to their data utilisation and M&E practises. In general, the organisation, practises, and PD history of a group of countries should be diverse. Therefore, I consider the United States, the European Union, and Turkiye. In terms of complicated institutional structure, budget, and human resources, as well as their position in the international power structure, the United States is the most significant actor. As an emerging middle power, Turkiye has strengthened its public diplomacy operations during the past two decades. It has a significantly younger structure and scarce options than the United States. Thirdly, the EU is an intergovernmental

organisation, whereas the first two are nation-states. In the past decade, EU institutionalised its PD while it holds rich resources for PD.

In this objective, the Annual PD reports of US Advisory Commission on Public Diplomacy were studied. Also, ACPD conducts quarterly public forums attended by academics, PD practitioners from field, former Foreign Service officers, and public in which it functions as a place to explain taxpayers about PD spending, evaluate current state, and give recommendations to American PD efforts. This study takes evidences from these forums regarding US PD. Moreover, the Public Diplomacy Monitoring System and official webpages were influential when detailing Turkish PD ecosystem and evaluating mechanisms. When it comes to the EU, the most utilized source was their updated study on public opinion in 13 countries that are key to the Union. The report consists of information on EU ecosystem and their research and evaluation mechanisms. The report also give methodology they use to measure and evaluate EU public diplomacy.

3. Limitations

This study lacks engagement with contemporary assessment and evaluation procedures since a lack of expertise. The majority of the material acquired comes from the reports of the institutions. Also connected, adjustments in assessment practice and comprehension of this issue might be negotiated by conducting interviews with the most skilled practitioners. However, I could not conduct interviews since the research design had changed close to the deadline of this paper. Another significant limiting issue is the absence of a solid connection to data science. If the programming languages and nature of the data mining and processing could be internalized, a more comprehensive paper might be possible.

4. Conceptual Framework

In his book, the Rise of Network Society, Information Age: Economy, Society and Culture, Manuel Castells (1996) asserts that an information technology revolution is a historical event on par with the industrial revolution of the 18th century, bringing disruption to the economic, social, and cultural underpinnings. In contrast to earlier revolutions, information processing and communication technologies are at the heart of the current revolution. In addition, the distinguishing characteristic of today's technological revolution is not the crucial importance of knowledge and information but rather the application of this knowledge and information to information processing/transmission devices and knowledge production, forming a chain in which innovation and its application feed off one another. The human intellect became a direct productive force for the first time in history rather than merely a determining factor in manufacturing (Castells, 1996).

Organisational survival and competition are attracting topics for many as they trigger new strategies (Stenvall and Virtanen, 2017, p.3). Primarily, in the era when enormous data is generated every single moment, organisations differ in their capability to mine and adapt the information to their products and operations. In this understanding, a more organised system is likely to contain more information than a less organised one (Stonier, 1991: p.256). Moreover, Hayes (1993) and Liang (1997) support this notion by pointing out that the context where data is utilised determines its potential and limitations. This context refers quality of the organisation, communication, and storage methods to create valuable information. As a result, they draw attention to the internalisation of information in the organisational mind.

Similarly, Stenvall and Virtanen (2017) use a biological explanation to explain an organisation's effort to compete and survive (p.9). The intelligent organisation theory is based on the fact that a biological system's ability to compete for existence, evolve, and save its species from extinction is primarily determined by its level of intelligence (p.9). The theory focuses on the level of intelligence needed for a system to exist in its respective ecosystem. Therefore, they argue that the same principle applies to the competitiveness of corporate entities. Like energy is required to maintain life skills, the scientific and technological realms help an organisation become intelligent.

Before further investigating the place of data and data processing in evaluating and listening in public diplomacy, it seems a noteworthy attempt to explain "big data". Big data is data that allows for the storage of more data, the collection of more information, and the structuring of more information. Big data refers to a large volume of data from various sources used in virtually every industry worldwide (Liu et al., 2017). What makes it 'big' is the volume of data obtained, stored, and evaluated with the help of data mining and processing technologies that otherwise require intense skilled labour and time. What a user does in their web browser, where they go, what they click on, how long they stay on a website, and what pages they visit are all data that can be collected.

Big data refers to data collections that are so huge or complicated that they exceed the capabilities of conventional data processing tools (Thomas, 2015, p.9). The data volume and complexity necessitate original approaches to data processing. This process can give more value to this data to assist organisations in improving decision-making processes, optimising operations, and gaining a competitive advantage. Moreover, there have been several reasons for collecting and analysing data (Gallagher, 2009). In general, big data analytics can assist institutions in identifying the latest trends, patterns, and correlations. Specifically, businesses utilise meaningful information to improve customer service, target marketing activities, and better understand consumer behaviour (Thomas, 2015). Academics can access digital archives easily, for example. Public institutions can collect data to improve public services and enhance the quality of the decision-making process to create more effective policies (Celik & Zeren, 2022, p.167). In this respect, public diplomacy

institutions have a chance to improve their evaluating practices, while data storage and processing technology may help them in getting better knowledge of the target audience.

Three significant analytics categories need to be highlighted: descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive. It is possible to gain insight into the past with the help of descriptive analytics. Providing context for analysts and researchers, it assists organisations in understanding and assessing their performance (Morr & Ali Hassan, 2019). Second, predictive analytics uses a machine learning model to analyse data to detect relevant patterns and trends (Deka, 2014). It provides a methodology for predicting potential outcomes using real-time data. Third, with prescriptive analytics, organisations have insights they can utilise to boost future outcomes. Prescriptive analytics typically offers available scenarios and describes the likely outcomes of implementing each one (Deka, 2014).

Computational Social Science

It is possible to find different definitions of computational social science. The academic subfield of computational social science is concerned with computational methods for the social sciences. This indicates that computers are utilised to imitate and evaluate social phenomena. Thus, one defines it as using computational tools to study social science (Unver, 2019, p.158). He also pays attention to which kind of data is used in the analysis as he argues that early studies in the field use ‘fluid human data’ such as social media text, image, audio, video content, mobile phone data, and check-in/check-out date (Rocha, 2020). He uses an example to demonstrate that a study that studies poverty in Nigeria using cell phone data is accepted as CSS. On the other hand, if someone utilises World Bank poverty statistics to analyse riots, this may not be CSS because the data is static and not user-generated (Rocha, 2020). He highlights the point that users themselves create data, and this data is open to everyone’s access.

Akin Unver (2019), in his article, Computational International Relations, suggests five different subfields for CSS: language and texts, mapping, modelling, communication and networks. These areas indicate how social science is using real-time data to produce analysis regarding certain social phenomena such as conflicts, riots, disinformation, and public opinion. Firstly, although linguistics has been employed a lot in the qualitative areas of the social sciences and international relations, computational tools have given us new ways to quantitatively study enormous amounts of text (Unver, 2019, p.161). Since the text has been digitised and speech recognition technology has been developed, it is now possible to search through vast amounts of text. Afterwards, many parliamentary archives, historical papers, and official statements were digitised, which brought text analysis into the world of computers (p.161). Text mining programmes like WordStat, RapidMiner, and KHCoder use specialised computer software to sort through vast amounts of written information and even transcribe speech in real-time. They are distinctive from online text search engines such as

Google or Bing in that they allow the analyst to find connections, patterns, and networks between large text databases instead of simply searching within them (Unver, 2019, p.162).

Mapping and geospatial analysis contribute to some of the most fundamental aspects of the social sciences, such as geopolitics, geography, borders, and demographic patterns (Unver, 2019, p.164). It is also one of the most widely used techniques for generating event data, allowing researchers to examine conflict and inequality spatial dynamics. Core to mapping study is geographic coordinates and other geographic data, which are frequently merged and analysed concerning tabular data comprising statistical information such as landmarks, infrastructure, and econometric data (p.164). Researchers may now investigate social and political events with a considerably higher level of detail, sometimes in real-time, because of the availability of enormous social datasets containing geographic information.

Digital technologies have made a substantial difference in communication, similar to the inventions of writing, the telegraph, and the telephone. Digital technologies have facilitated the ability of individuals to communicate verbally and nonverbally, such as with emoji and likes. The latter allows researchers to work on a variety of social, political, and economic projects at the same time. Also, the rise of social media has made it possible to observe and measure human communication in interactive and forum-like settings (Unver, 2019, p.166). This has led to studying significant social communication problems like misinformation, uncertainty, signalling, and cognitive bias. Moreover, the Internet and social media have drastically affected how we look for information, obtain access to the news, and form opinions on political and social issues. Another element is that social media algorithms work as intermediaries in our political queries, giving us non-random search results based on various factors.

Using bots (automated accounts) in digital space is a fast-growing area of study in digital communication. Bots spread fake news and misleading information, which might worsen international crises and often lead to unrest among the public (Unver, 2019, p.167). The dissemination of purposely inaccurate, incomplete, or irrelevant material to attract and divert internet attention is regarded as fake news. Another IR-related study in digital communication is how much online campaigning affects political processes and social mobilisation.

Lastly, digital network studies are another burgeoning subject that enables scholars to examine political and power interactions in the digital sphere (Unver, 2019, p.168). Often, innovative computational researchers discover digital relations and impact maps that cannot be discovered through inquiry in physical space, either because of the contentious nature of the subject or the difficulty of locating data. Through digital relations, researchers can identify influencers, hierarchies, and relationships in digital space. This could identify various networks at different levels. Using entity

extraction procedures, ideology research can also gain significantly from computational methodologies (p.168).

5. Theory of Public Diplomacy

Public diplomacy is a relatively young academic discipline that emerged in the 20th century due to developments in the study of international relations, foreign policy, and diplomacy (Cull, 2019). This change process, which encompasses numerous topics and is commonly referred to as globalisation, expresses the deepening of relations, integration, and interdependence between nations and individuals in numerous domains, from politics to economics to technology and culture. Public diplomacy involves these transitions through increasing engagement among political actors, international organisations, non-governmental organisations, media institutions, and the people of other countries while playing a significant role in fostering mutual understanding.

The history of communicating with foreign publics dates back to history. However, the modern introduction of the term public diplomacy was in 1965 by Edmund Guillion, then dean of the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy at Tufts University, when the mass media gained popularity and public opinion emerged as a vital dimension of Cold War circumstances (Snow, 2020). Public diplomacy became more crucial after World War II as democracies replaced autocratic regimes. Furthermore, the growing weight of communication technologies has guaranteed the importance of public diplomacy in communication, especially regarding information exchange and maintaining a flow of information (Efendioglu, 2021, p.9). Besides, the focus of diplomacy changed from the corridors of ministries and embassies to the average citizen with an opinion on foreign policy and international affairs. Along with the effect of public opinion, cross-border interactions between private groups and people and the press's role in setting the agenda for foreign policy were also emphasised (Snow, 2020).

Similar to various social science terms, public diplomacy holds different definitions. For example, Kathy Fitzpatrick (2010) developed a list of at least 150 definitions of public diplomacy about a decade ago. While "public diplomacy" has been used since 1965, it has recently gained worldwide currency as a means through which international actors seek to achieve their foreign policy objectives through interaction with foreign publics (Cull, 2008, p.31). Furthermore, Snow (2020) defines it as a subfield of political science and international relations which covers the methods and tactics used by nation-states and other international entities to interact with the international society to realise their objectives. The term is also described as "actions aimed overseas in the realms of information, education, and culture, to influence a foreign government through influencing its citizens" (Frederick, 1993, p. 229).

It is essential to note relations between two concepts: soft power and public diplomacy. The concept of soft power is known with Joseph Nye. While he describes power as 'the ability to influence the behaviour of others to get the desired outcomes', he admits that power rests on three sources: coercion, incentives, and attraction (2008, p.95). The date Nye coined the term was around the end of the Cold War when he realised the "power diffusion" related to developments in the information sphere. Therefore, he acknowledged that traditional power sources such as military and territorial size tend to change as new power dimensions become visible such as economic, ecological, and reputational. "The soft power of a country rests primarily on three resources: its culture, its political values, and its foreign policy" (Nye, 2008, p.96). On the other hand, public diplomacy is an effort to mobilise resources to raise a country's soft power. As stated by E. Gilboa (2008), "public diplomacy is presented as an official strategy putting the soft power resources into action." (p. 68).

Social Media and Public Diplomacy: PD 2.0

With the appearance of social media, the context in which PD is practised has shifted. As democratisation of digital technology with devices such as smartphones and platforms such as Facebook and Twitter enabled more open, direct, and equal engagement with foreign publics and countries, the hierarchy of communication was challenged (Costa, 2017). When governments utilise social media for public diplomacy, new features for two-way communication through dialogue and interaction are established. The former refers to a process in which countries and audiences actively listen to one another, whereas the latter refers to processes in which actors respond to the content provided by others (Arsenault, 2015). In conclusion, terms such as "PD 2.0" have entered the dictionaries of researchers and practitioners to reflect this evolution (Cull, 2013).

Early conceptions of public diplomacy centred on propaganda, promotion, and persuasive techniques, and were related with the objective of generating interest and influence (Szondi, 2008, s. 7). This period's public diplomacy became synonymous with the war to win hearts and minds. It is frequently based on actions in which journalists provide exaggerated, one-sided images as a form of propaganda (Leonard et al., 2002, p. 8). Modern public diplomacy is a process that evolved from fighting for the minds and wills of neutrals and adversaries in the context of the Cold War to building relations and communication with these publics (Armstrong, 2009, p. 64). Moreover, the form of communication in PD 2.0 is distinguished from past PD practises by three key aspects (Cull (2019) cited in Ingenhoff, 2021). First, PD 2.0's technological capabilities enable it to facilitate the formation of social media connections. Second, PD 2.0 is mostly relies on content generated by users. Horizontally organised exchange networks are the third differentiating characteristic of PD 2.0, as opposed to the vertical distribution of information in traditional PD.

Cull summarises the differences between traditional and contemporary public diplomacy in the table below.

Dominant Characteristics	Old PD	New PD
1) Identity of international actor	State	State and non-state
2) Tech. environment	Short wave radio Print newspapers Land-line telephones	Satellite, Internet, real-time news Mobile telephones
3) Media environment	Clear line between domestic and international news sphere	Blurring of domestic and international news sphere.
4) Source of approach	Outgrowth of political advocacy & propaganda theory	Outgrowth of corporate branding & network theory
5) Terminology	“International image” “Prestige”	“Soft power” “Nation Brand”
6) Structure of role	Top down, actor to foreign peoples	Horizontal, facilitated by actor
7) Nature of role	Targeted messaging	Relationship-building
8) Overall aim	The management of the international environment	The management of the international environment

Figure: The Old PD and the new one (Cull, 2009)

Melissen’s work published in 2005, *the New Public Diplomacy*, is among foundational studies of the evolved PD practice. The book was a significant contribution to the scholarly discussion on public diplomacy for implications beyond its definition of the term. First, the study tried to look at public diplomacy from different angles by looking at EU, China, and Turkiye as well as different political regimes, micro-states, and international organisations (Stasinakis, 2021). Melissen also highlights that the need that PD practitioners and policymakers must pay attention is to adapt different themes and messages for domestic and foreign audiences. Consequently, PD becomes a harder practise to coordinate and a difficult "art" to master, requiring both a deeper understanding of technology and a comprehensive approach of social and political issues (Hemery, 2005).

Additionally, individuals appreciate interactive communication. A study conducted by Lee (2017) shown that customers are more receptive to communications that aim to participate in dialogue as opposed to those that simply convey information. However, social media is occasionally utilised as a means of announcement. Despite exceptions, the majority of research indicate that states and embassies do not engage in two-way communication on social media and instead use these platforms as broadcast conduits (Lee, 2017). In this situation, it is asserted that the traditional mode of communication might continue in the new context. In the absence of a change in mindset, the method in which the tools are utilised can be comparable to older, conventional modes of communication.

However, despite the fact that the context fosters a more democratic environment, improper actions such as disinformation can jeopardise the contemporary practise of public diplomacy. In addition, there is a fundamental shift in the reality of information. This period is also known as the

postmodern or post-truth era. It appears to be a natural consequence of the information age discussed above.

Digital technologies and PD

In their essay titled "*Public Diplomacy in the Digital Age*", Bjola, Cassidy, and Manor focus on the effect of digital technology on the context of public diplomacy as it evolves. They also discuss how the digital environment simultaneously restricts and facilitates public diplomatic engagement. Consequently, they acknowledge that despite unavoidable problems, the future of public diplomacy in the digital era is bright, as digital technologies present public diplomacy with a tremendous opportunity to build stronger, more diverse, and more long-lasting relations between offline and online groups (2019, p.85). In addition, digital technologies have consequences for the ability of PD companies to capitalise on data opportunities by enhancing their human resources and computing capabilities. Bjola et al. (2019) propose that new skills and computational tools are required to filter, process, and analyse relevant data in PD.

Digital technology has also had an impact on everyday language. Increasing pace in many aspects of life and information overload compelled people to develop cognitive shortcuts. The visual part of communication gained ground as a result. Visual augmentation highlights, for instance, the power of images to convey vast quantities of information in an easily digestible fashion. Emotional framing, on the other hand, seeks to stimulate online engagement not by the quality of the information, but by the intensity of the moods and feelings conveyed about the topic at hand, a process that has the potential to become even more personal in the immersive context of augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) technologies (Bjola et al. 2019, p.86).

The risk of damaging a country's reputation when it does not exist in the digital world compels states to engage in daily Internet-based communication. In other words, on a field where disinformation and manipulation reach a greater number of people each actor seeks to strengthen his engagement. Consequently, the likelihood of disruptions in providing public services is diminished. In this context, the significance of digital technologies for the future of public diplomacy is likely to be determined by three factors: whether they are effective in ensuring that public diplomacy messages are better heard, listened to, and followed by the relevant audiences.

Therefore, Bjola et al. (2019) acknowledge that given the problem of information overload and the growing competition of the online environment, machine learning will become a crucial tool for investigating pattern identification and producing data-driven predictions about the most relevant themes of interest to target audiences. As the number of data-driven interactions continues to expand at an exponential rate, the only way to be heard is to be able to differentiate 'signals' from background 'noise' and to proactively adjust one's message to ensure maximum visibility in the online arena, in

real time (Bjola et al., 2019). In this respect, determining cognitive frames and emotional tones of a message is key to understand since these elements enable an audience to interact with taht particular message. Thus, some scholars point out accelerating pace of change of communication from verbal one to visual and auditory forms. As a result, public diplomacy projects needs to be more complex (Bjola et al, 2019).

Counter-argument of data-driven public diplomacy

On the other hand, Bean and Conor (2018) made an critical analysis of data-driven public diplomacy. They argue that the use of data in public diplomacy is not a useful invention since data-driven conduct of diplomacy is more concerned with bolstering strategic goals and aspirations of governments than it is with fostering mutual understanding and peace (p.17). Main stance here emphasizes the risk of ignoring public diplomacy's hard to quantify aspects such as peace, security, and development. In other words, according to Bean and Conor, the notion that more institutional monitoring, quantification, and measurable coordination will lead to more effective PD is a far cry from the more difficult task of exercising common sense (p.17). However, a further study definitely needed to determine whether the proliferation of a data-centric perspective detracts public diplomacy from its basic objectives. In other words, it is beneficial to compare the accomplishments of an organisation that has internalised data in public diplomacy on subjects such as peace and development to those of an institution that use more conventional methods.

Different subcategorizations in PD

Numerous experts have proposed various subfields for public diplomacy practices. Four dimensions are mentioned by Joseph Nye: daily communications, strategic communications, exchanges and scholarships, and listening. First is daily communications, which refers explaining the background, aims and reasons of policies to the international public (Nye, 2008, p.101). The second type of communication, as Nye suggests, is strategic communication, which refers running a strategic campaign on a particular issue or policy over a period of time. It is an example of strategic communication when a nation attempts to inform the world community about a breach of international law in a region and the need to take action. This type of activities would include symbolic events and symbolic materials to reinforce fundamental themes or advocate a specific government goal (Nye, 2008, p.103). In public diplomacy, long-term relationships are viewed as crucial. This initiative consists of a variety of events, including scholarships, exchanges, training, seminars, and conferences. As Nye explains, it is intended to cultivate relationships with prominent personalities of the present and future. He demonstrates this subcategory with American cultural and academic exchanges, stating that since the 1950s, approximately 700,000 individuals, including 200 heads of state, have participated in American exchange programmes. Listening is the fourth category

of public diplomacy, as it is equally important as speaking and communicating messages. He feels that listening is essential for determining the target audience.

Cowan and Arsenault demonstrated a distinct classification of the several PD practise layers. In addition to monologue and dialogue, the authors believed that collaboration should be incorporated as a third layer (Cowan & Arsenault, 2008, p. 10). By recommending this, they intend to broaden discourse to a more purposeful and interactive type of interaction, which is typically undertaken in the form of mutually beneficial initiatives within a certain period (Cowan & Arsenault, 2008, p. 23). In this regard, an examination of contemporary social psychology and public communication literature suggests that collaboration could be highly advantageous for public diplomacy, as it not only provides incentives for establishing a meaningful dialogue, but also improves the viability of those interactions over time and increases the trust in the practises emanating from the other two layers of public diplomacy (Cowan & Arsenault, 2008, p.12). Overall, they attach equal merit to all three since one should apply all three simultaneously. They say that;

“Each mode of public diplomacy has particular advantages for particular situations, and those concerned with the subject should think about the best times and places to use each, either by itself or in combination. Context is, of course, critical. Each “layer” of public diplomacy is heavily contingent on the needs of the moment, the characteristics of the communicator and the target audience, and the conditions of their interaction” (Cowan & Arsenault, 2008, p. 12).

Moreover, Gilboa suggests another subcategorization to the public diplomacy field. Not only does Gilboa's research (2008) establish a correlation between time frames and methods used to achieve public diplomacy goals, but it also identifies which strategy would be most suitable for each method. The following table summarises his findings.

Range	Immediate	Intermediate	Long
Time	Hours/days	Weeks/months	Years
Purpose	Reactive	Proactive	Relationship
Media/public opinion	News management	Strategic communication	Building favorable conditions
Government	Closely linked	Partially linked	Remotely linked
Public diplomacy (PD) instrument	Advocacy; international broadcasting; cyber PD	International public relations; corporate diplomacy; Diaspora PD	Cultural diplomacy; exchanges; branding

Figure: Categorization of PD (Gilboa, 2008, p.59)

British academic Nicholas Cull, the most renowned scholar in the field, provides five essential components for understanding public diplomacy. Aspects of these subfields include listening, advocacy, cultural diplomacy, exchange programmes, and international broadcasting. First, a state monitors public opinion in target countries through listening in order to adjust its public diplomacy using relevant data (Cull, 2008, p.32). Listening is a method of information gathering, and it "overlaps with the covert domain of intelligence gathering" since it entails collecting data constantly to analyse and determine policy directions. (Snow, 2020). This element has been an integral part of public diplomacy practises such as international broadcasting and cultural diplomacy for decades. Polling the public, surveying, monitoring social media as well as conventional media in times of social and political developments, and analysing intellectual products are examples of listening activities. In this context, evolving data and monitoring technologies would benefit listening activities.

The advocacy subcategory of public diplomacy is comparable to what Nye asserts about strategic communication. It refers to expressing an idea or policy to a global audience over a period of time. The Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade of the Australian government (2011) defines advocacy as "the practise of presenting programmes, ideas, or points of view to target audiences in order to gain their support." Short-term foreign policy objectives are tightly intertwined with immediate advocacy agendas (Cull, 2019). In order to convey a narrative or a position to audiences, PD practitioners implement a range of outreach techniques, including as panels, side-events, social media content, press releases, websites, and op-eds. The Directorate of Communications, a Turkish PD agency, is now conducting a panel series on UN Security Council Reform in 12 countries, including the United Kingdom, Italy, Norway, and Argentina (Anadolu Agency, 2022). The series is consistent with Türkiye's questioning towards permanent membership in the United Nations Security Council. Thus, it aims "to revitalise the international system and raise awareness about the design of a new United Nations and Security Council" (Directorate of Communications, 2022). Accordingly, they are being held before to the 77th session of the United Nations General Assembly, which begins on September 13, 2022.

Since the deployment of the Alliance Française at the end of the 19th century in French diplomacy, cultural diplomacy has been a vital component of diplomacy (Cull, 2019). It is defined as "the exchange of ideas, information, art, and other cultural features between nations and their peoples to foster mutual understanding" (Cummings, 2003). Every social entity displays its culture to outsiders, resulting in the global dissemination of cultural institutions. The Japan House of Japan, the Yunus Emre Institute of Türkiye, the Cultural Centres of Iran, the Institute France of France, and the British Council of the United Kingdom are among the institutions that nation-states utilise to expand their cultural and linguistic presence abroad.

Fourth category under PD practice suggested by Cull is exchange diplomacy. By sending its people abroad and hosting foreign citizens for a time of study and/or integration, an actor engages in exchange diplomacy in an effort to exert influence over the international environment (Cull, 2019). This discipline of public diplomacy is characterised by the concept of reciprocity, which envisions a cross-cultural learning experience in which both sides gain something and develop as a result. Exchanges can be used for a variety of policy and advocacy purposes, from fostering military interoperability with an ally to supporting economic growth, from education to community services. There are numerous examples of exchange programmes around the world. These include student mobility such as UK Chavering Scholarship, US Fulbright Scholarship, Jean Monnet Scholarship Programme, and Erasmus Exchange Program. It also refers to programmes for professional exchanges in various fields such as media, civil society, environment, culture, engineering, and military.

The last subcategory of public diplomacy activities is international broadcasting (IB) which refers to an actor's efforts to influence public opinion across countries through mass media such as radio, television, and the Internet (Cull, 2019). In this mode of PD, governments invest in international channels to have impact on information flow and increase its global outreach. Most prominent examples of IB include BBC World Service of the UK, France24, Deutsche Well of Germany, Voice of America of the US, RT of Russia, and TRT World of Turkiye.

Credibility in Public Diplomacy

As reputation is a significant source of influence, governments tend to acquire and preserve credibility. Nye (2004) states that credibility is the most important resource and source of soft power since reputation carries more weight than in the past (p.104). Because the public sphere is so crowded with content from not just governments but also users such as individuals, media, corporations, and NGOs, trustworthiness appears to be highly important. As a result, there is a scarcity of attention due to the "*paradox of plenty*"¹. In other words, when people are overwhelmed by an "information explosion", it eventually results with the lack of attention, So that, Nye believes that public diplomacy is more vital than ever (Nye, 2004, p. 106).

Furthermore, some scholars support this notion by expressing that politics "may ultimately be about whose story wins" in today's world (Arquilla and Ronfeldt, 1999). Information that looks to be propaganda may not only be disregarded, but it may also be detrimental if it damages the legitimacy of a government. In this regard,, for instance, international broadcasters are aware that the perception of an editorial connection to the government undermines credibility (Cull, 2008, p.36).

Actions ather than just words

¹ The term is characterized with natural resources and its impact on underdevelopment and instability. Here, it refers to the loss of focus caused by excessive content production. See also: (Ekmen, 2011)

Some scholars of public diplomacy theory point out importance of real actions and experiences that audiences interacted with a government or a country in general. Nicholas Cull, at the end of his book, *Public Diplomacy: The Foundations for the Global Engagement*, gives this tip to public diplomacy practitioners: actions are important than words. For example, organizing and hosting a sport tournament in the country is meaningful when organization is held successfully and guests from other countries left the country with satisfaction. Further to that, Nye (2008) quotes that “some countries accomplish almost all of their public diplomacy through actions rather than broadcasting” (p.104). In addition, Leonard supports this view by citing Norway's efforts in conflict mediation in which the country focuses on a certain area that makes a difference. Therefore, Norway is seen as "a global force for peace" (Leonard 2002, p.53). Additionally, Simon Anholt (2020) highlights importance of being collaborative to solve problems and creating the good thing for people. His term, good country, refers that being good is more important than investing in image and nation branding (Tan & Dramowicz, 2016, p.2). In other words, as he argue, marketing is not enough for a good reputation unless they are supported by right actions.

Evaluating Public Diplomacy

One of the key elements of public diplomacy subject is that institutions tend to measure their activities and evaluate them for mainly two reasons. Measure and evaluation in PD is an instrument to prove what is done previously and to develop capability of future actions. This relates to two unique aspects of M&E: accountability and improvement. Firstly, according to Baumler (2021), evaluation is a tool to develop future initiatives and to improve public diplomacy strategies as well as to justify further spending (p.21). Pamment (2012a) also highlights importance of evaluation for future decision-making process. Furthermore, assessment procedures are regarded as one of the most important aspects of contemporary public diplomacy practise, as enhancing evaluation could be a crucial step in enhancing the field's capacity (Pamment, 2012a). Secondly, Buhmann and Somerfeltd (2021) conducted a series of interviews with US PD officials to focus on evaluation-related perceptions, motivations, and attitudes of PD. As a result, measure and evaluation is a constructive part of public diplomacy practise since practitioners value M&E to prove programme impact and improve future projects (p.123).

It is essential to determine what to evaluate. Many institutions rely on evaluating process because assessing impact is time-consuming and necessitates assessments prior to, during, and after an event (Banks, 2011, p.120). At this point, he implies the difference between assessing outcomes and outputs. He provides an illustration of a campaign to improve a country's legal system. The training of ten judges would be an output, whereas the successful application of the training would be an outcome (Banks, 2011). A last differentiation might be between intermediate and long-term assessments.

According to Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014), evaluation refers to the assessment of the value of an activity to respond accountability and improvement questions. In practice of PD evaluation, Buhmann and Likely (2018) mention four stages of structure: inputs (the resources that go into a program), activities (the activities the program undertakes), outputs (the products as a result of the activities), and outcomes (the short-, medium-, and long-term changes that result from the program). Regarding measuring 'impact', couple of scholars suggest measuring changes in target publics' knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours rather than counting outputs although it is was little practiced (Buhmann and Sommerfeldt, 2021, p.108).

Methods are another dimension in evaluation of public diplomacy. Pamment's study (2012a, 2014) on various countries' PD evaluation demonstrates that there is no single methods or strategy but organization context and individuals are determinants. Institutions use using techniques such as interviews, text and content analysis, case study, and polling. Specifically, Banks (2011) considers polling to be one of the most important evaluation methods for public diplomacy. Furthermore, he called attention to the increasing impact of digital technology, such as powerful computing capability, on data storage and processing.

Many experts, on the other hand, believe that evaluating public diplomacy initiatives is a difficult endeavour. Robert Banks' PD Evaluation Handbook is a lighthouse in the field. As a conclusion, he emphasizes a variety of evaluation challenges. One obvious difficulty is that impacts can appear over time. Experts estimate that making people aware can take one to five years, whilst changing attitudes can take five to ten years (Gonzales, 2015) Another difficulty he mentioned is related factors of certain outcome. He thinks that a programme and an activity may affect the result but other factor can be more significant. Another difficulty is that evaluation needs resources, labour, and time. As he authored the book over a decade ago, he underlines the absence of expert appraisal using known datasets (Hunt, 2016, p.118). While improved tools become more available to PD institutions, it requires human resources as well. The process may be altered by shifts in political and public diplomacy leadership. Furthermore, institutions and governments favour success tales. In addition, he mentions a misunderstanding regarding the distinction between output and outcomes (Hunt, 2016).

Measuring outcomes, specifically, constitutes main difficulty of the practice. Cull (2008) illustrates this situation with analogy of 'a forester running out every morning to see how far his trees have grown over night' (p.44). Compared to measuring the one-way communication of the old public diplomacy and its short-term results, it is more difficult to measure and evaluate the two-way communication of the new public diplomacy (Sevin, 2017; Melissen, 2005). Due to this challenge, public diplomacy evaluation continues in its old fashion in most countries (Pamment, 2012a).

6. The United States

Following World War II, one aspect of the Cold War was the conflict between communism and liberalism. So that, as leading power of the Western Camp, the US was expected to spread liberal and democratic values and the idea of “free world” across borders, especially in strategically important countries. This was also related to a US foreign policy, known as ‘containment’ (Etzold & Gaddis, 1978). In this respect, there are several developments which foundations of modern US public diplomacy can be found. One is the establishment of the US Information Agency in 1953. The Agency sought to develop mutual understanding and promote a better knowledge of the United States abroad (Wang, 2007, p.24). The other one is to launch the Fulbright Scholarship in 1946. In order to foster greater understanding between the participants' home and host countries, the Fulbright Program sends students, researchers, lecturers, and other professionals overseas (Bettie, 2015, p.358). To sum, the United States has always been among leading countries of the field. Today, it is regarded as the country with the largest opportunities in the field of PD in the world (Kalin, 2011).

The US public diplomacy consists of a number of tools used by various organisations. The playbook includes but not limited to exchange programs, utilizing media resources, establishing interpersonal relationships, and leveraging the top US universities. In terms of institutions, the majority of those responsible for a particular area of public diplomacy locate under the State Department. The Under Secretary for Public Diplomacy and Public Affairs can be seen as the highest responsible person for the US Public Diplomacy. Therefore, the primarily in charge of public diplomacy activities is the Office of Under Secretary for Public Diplomacy and Public Affairs (R) (ACPD, 2021, p.269). Now, this paper will be looking to various key public diplomacy institutions, their functions and activities and initiatives in detail.

The main coordinating body of the US public diplomacy is the Office of Policy, Planning, and Resources (R/PPR). It is mandated to coordinate policies and resources to equip practitioners with the necessary knowledge, skills, and tools to accomplish U.S. foreign policy objectives (Department of State). In this manner, R/PPR developed PD Tools in 2020, a global cloud-based software that combines PD planning, budgeting, monitoring, and reporting on a common platform (ACPD Report, 2021, p.32). PD Tools helps public diplomacy professionals optimise actions that directly support and progress each mission's Integrated Country Strategy. Comprehensive reports on PD operations at each mission can be generated thanks to the system's ability to link with Customer Relationship Management (CRM) software used by missions. It replaces the Mission Activity Tracker (MAT) and PD Resources Allocation Module (PDRAM), which needed separate logins and segregated data (ACPD Report, 2021, p.32). In the following years, more features are expected to be developed and implemented. In conclusion, the system provides computational base for analysing, reporting, evaluating, and filtering.

The ECA deals with exchange programmes to build and maintain the relationships and networks with individuals from other nations. It sends Americans overseas and brings current and future leaders to the United States for short and long-term exchange experiences (2017 report, p.49). It has different units such as policy, private sector exchange, academic programs, and cultural exchanges. Academic programs include Fulbright programs, English Language programs, and global educational programs. Furthermore, International Visitor Leadership Program, Citizen Exchanges, American Music Abroad, Arts Envoy Program, Biennales, Global Sports Mentoring Program, TechCamps, and Mandela Washington Fellowship for Young African Leaders are examples of professional and cultural exchanges (ACPD Report, 2021).

One of the essential unit within the ECA is the Policy Unit which functions as the bureau's inner think tank, researching ideas for leveraging exchanges as a policy instrument and offering analysis and responsiveness to interagency partners' requests and queries (2017 report, p.50). In addition, the ECA's Evaluation Division has assisted programme offices in establishing and evaluating programming objectives and measured the efficacy of significant ECA projects. The Unit also works with externally contracted, independent firms to conduct long-term impact assessments of certain programmes (ACPD Report, 2021). For instance, *Optimizing Engagement: Research, Evaluation and Learning in Public Diplomacy* is published in 2018 in collaboration between Advisory Commission on Public Diplomacy and M&C Saatchi World Services, a private research and evaluation organization (ACPD Report, 2018)

In addition, the Bureau includes a department dedicated to alumni of exchange programmes. The Office of Alumni Affairs, established in 2004, intends to maximise ECA's engagement in people-to-people relationships by transforming individual encounters into long-lasting collaborations (ACPD Report, 2021). Since the inception of ECA programmes 76 years ago, more than one million people have participated. The Office continues to engage with alumni through program such as MentorTalks and the Alumni Thematic International Exchange Seminars (p.42). It also established the Alumni Rapid Response Fund to support alumni needs during COVID-19. Furthermore, by project financing, regional seminars, and knowledge management, the Office encourages regional bureaus and U.S. embassies to engage alumni in their activities. As a result, around 2,000 alumni-led initiatives have been supported in the last decade (ACPD Report, 2021, p.43).

In an effort to counter foreign state propaganda and disinformation campaigns that attempt to undermine or have an impact on U.S. policy and security, the Global Engagement Centre will oversee and coordinate federal activities. The GEC makes use of resources and expertise from the academic and commercial sectors, as well as data science and advertising technologies. An analytics and research team, one of the Centre's functional teams, uses quantitative analysis to provide actionable insights to counter propaganda and misinformation and develop strategic communication efforts.

International Broadcasting efforts are conducted the U.S. Agency for Global Media. The organisation's structure include four public service media, including Radio Free Europe/Radio Liberty, Middle East Broadcasting Networks, Radio Free Asia, and the Open Technology Fund, in addition to two federal public service media, Voice of America and the Office of Cuba Broadcasting (USAGM website). The Agency coordinates broadcasting activities and helps transmitting with technical and administrative expertise.

Modernization attempts in US Public Diplomacy

It is noteworthy that US Public Diplomacy has undergone a series of change. According to the ACPD 2021 Annual Report, PD Modernization seeks to create an adaptive, data-driven, audience-focused U.S. public diplomacy method that achieves measurable foreign policy results (Baxter & Walker, p.7). It includes providing PD practitioners the tools, skills, and organizational structure they need to analyse local audiences and to design, execute, and evaluate strategic engagement initiatives in a dynamic, collaborative, and digital environment” (Baxter & Walker, 2021, p.7). Furthermore, the modernization effort attempted to create new practices in “audience analysis and segmentation, strategic planning, management, monitoring and evaluation, and outreach and collaboration tools” (p.7). This transformation includes initiatives such as contact relationship management which sets to manage contacts and relationships by providing users with a complete view and history of interactions with individuals, groups, and organizations.

On the other hand, Public Diplomacy Staffing Initiative is regarded as one of the most substantial changes in U.S. public diplomacy operations abroad since the merging of the U.S. Information Agency into the Department of State in 1999 (Baxter & Walker, 2021, p.12). One of the developments is to reform roles and positions in the field. Previously, the missions had a cultural affairs officer and an information officer. Public Affairs Officer (PAO) and Public Diplomacy Officer (PDO) are the current titles for public diplomacy positions. The PAO is in charge of all public diplomacy initiatives. In addition to these foreign service officers, mission continues to employ what is called locally employed staff. To give an idea, U.S. mission to Ghana has three foreign service officers and seventeen locally employed staff while %40 of the U.S missions to Africa has only one foreign service officer (ACPD Official Meeting Minutes, 2022).

New audience-focused position descriptions as a part of an ongoing engagement effort are designed to address the educational and professional development goals of key contacts. In this line, Public diplomacy training designed to encouraging a more audience-centred, policy-focused approach to professional development programming (Baxter & Walker, 2021, p.15). Curriculum includes modules and courses concentrating on content production, audience analysis, data literacy, network development, and monitoring.

The modernization process together with the PD Staffing Initiative has three clusters; Public Engagement, the Strategic Content Coordination, and Resource Coordination. Public Engagement: Established opinion leaders, emerging voices, press and media, English language, exchanges and alumni, education outreach, and American Spaces. Strategic Content Coordination cluster involves digital production and community management. Strategic planning and audience analysis are set under each job description.

Evaluation in U.S Public Diplomacy

Despite the presence of many offices, some scholar admit that evaluation remains a challenge for the US PD. In this regard, Banks (2011) emphasises other variables such as inconsistent adherence to existing rules, changes in political leadership affecting M&E procedures, and a lack of continuity in evaluation practise. Pamment (2012a) also calls attention to the official approach, which focuses on outputs rather than outcomes, and how it is measured (p.324). Similarly, Gonzalez (2015) associates this mindset with a reporting culture, which is tied to the concept of accountability, whereas an evaluation culture aimed at learning is not stressed.

There are numbers of examples how U.S PD create evaluation mechanisms and units. One of key documents telling about evaluation in the U.S PD is annual reports on public diplomacy and international broadcasting. The last report, published in 2021, assesses the major public diplomacy and global media activities conducted by various U.S government institutions (ACPD Report, 2021, p.4). Its data sources are numerous. One is an overview of programmatic, budget, analytical initiatives provided by R/PPR. Reporters also access to datasets that aggregate PD budget statistics, expenditures, programme themes, and programme activities by mission. Each bureaus and teams in Washington DC and in abroad self-report their program overviews and spending data. In addition to each unit's evaluation, the report aims at providing country profile including indicators related to PD field such as percentage of population accessing to the Internet. They use largely data from World Bank Open Data online datasets as well as Data Reportal, The World Factbook, and UN Revision of World Population Prospects. They also utilize indices such as Corruption Perceptions Index from Transparency International, Economic Freedom Index from The Heritage Foundation, World Press Freedom Index from Reporters without Borders, Global Soft Power Index from Brand Finance, and Social Progress Index from the Social Progress Imperative (p.4).

Another example of institutional engagement with research of public diplomacy efforts is The Office of Research under the Bureau of Global Public Affairs which provides tools and materials for audience research to produce more successful messaging and information outreach initiatives based on a knowledge of the attitudes and beliefs of target audiences. In addition to standard audience research methods, such as surveys and focus groups, the Office conducts content testing to give

crucial insights into how to make content more engaging and convincing for target audiences (ACPD Report, 2021, p.88).

In a different role, the Bureau has an Office of Analytics which is responsible for monitoring and evaluating the Department's over 2,500 digital domains and websites. It offers rapid worldwide media environment analysis and trend identification across digital, social, and traditional media (ACPD Report, 2021, p.89). In addition to Analytics team, a specific team exists to improve data gathering process. The data science team, supports the Office of Research and the Office of Analytics by developing and obtaining third-party technologies to assist analysts and researchers in media analysis and automating data collecting processes (p.89). The mentioned unit develops and maintains a number of specialised monitoring and analysis tools such as Clips Lab dividing news into categories and subcategories for additional research, utilising both commercial data streams and machine learning algorithms (p.89).

The Monitoring Evaluation Learning Innovation (MELI) Unit under the ECA is another instance. The data required by the ECA to support evidence-based decision-making and guide resource requests are provided by the MELI unit (ACPD Report, 2021, p.41). In an effort to modernise the ECA's monitoring process, the unit developed the Monitoring Data for ECA (MODE) Framework. This framework comprises of performance measures that are responsive to the Bureau's data needs, with corresponding, defined data collection questions for each performance indicator in order to simplify uniform data collecting (p.41). These metrics are created to efficiently monitor programme performance as well as the direction, rate, and scale of change of ECA programmes.

In order to give ECA a better understanding of how programmes would affect participants, graduates, and host communities over the long run, the MODE Framework was created. In addition to programme participants, programme alumni are polled one, three, five, and ten years following their participation in the programme (ACPD Report, 2021, p.42). Those who hosted exchange participants are surveyed about their hosting experiences in parallel. Furthermore, the framework is intended to utilise data and performance metrics to evaluate and improve programme performance; to facilitate uniform data collection, which ensures data provide a comprehensive view of programmatic activities; and to inform strategic planning activities at the bureau, division, and exchange programme levels by providing aggregate performance data (ACPD Report, 2021, p.42). Therefore, in the same vein, the Unit is developing technologies that would serve as a data repository and offer a centralised database of performance measurements accessible to implementing partners and ECA programme officers.

7. Turkiye

Post-Cold War context brought about evolving geopolitical realities in different geographies. Collapse of Soviet Union, U.S. War on Terror, increasing power of China, therefore, changing gravity

of geopolitical attention in the Indo-Pacific left a relatively bigger activity area for especially middle powers. More importantly, neoliberal globalisation increased engagement and interdependency among countries. As a result, Turkish foreign policy seemed adaptive to changing international context as an emerging middle power. In this line, it has increased its public diplomacy activities in the last couple of decades. Stasinakis (2021) concedes that Türkiye's objective to become a proactive international actor and a regional power is a major motivating factor in the country's current public diplomacy activity (p.69). In consequence, Türkiye has replaced a number of traditional European powers as one of the most discussed nations in the literature on public diplomacy (Sevin, Metzgar, & Hayden, 2019, p. 4827). Predictably, the first two decades of the twenty-first century were the primary focus of contemporary literature on Turkish public diplomacy. Within these literature, developments in Turkish PD include the consolidation of a delicate religious diplomacy (Muhasilovic, 2018), the use of the Turkish diaspora in Europe to promote Turkish narratives within the EU (Ünver, 2013), and an intensive cultural diplomacy that combines exchanges, networking, and a filmmaking industry (Huijgh & Warlick, 2016, pp. 24-25).

In addition to these efforts, Türkiye attempted to institutionalize its public diplomacy efforts in several steps through various institutions.

The Turkish government's collective efforts in the domains of international public communication and cultural relations resulted in the identification of the need for an institutional shift toward public diplomacy. For the first time in Turkish history, the government launched an effort to institutionalise various public diplomacy practises into a coherent policy framework, by producing relevant policy documents and transforming or creating from scratch the necessary institutions and mechanisms to support the multifaceted activities evolving both domestically and internationally (Sancar, 2015, pp. 14-15).

The Turkish government established the Office of Public Diplomacy as a primary public diplomacy institution in 2010. In 2018, following the transition to a presidential administration in the Republic of Türkiye, the Office of Public Diplomacy became a department under the Directorate of Communications (Presidential decree, 2018). The Directorate is also comprised of departments such as the Department of Press and Publications and the Department of Translation, which serve the aims and activities of public diplomacy directly together with the Department of the Public Diplomacy (DPD) (Eren, 2020, pp. 116-117). Furthermore, the DPD's objectives include promoting Türkiye's policy preferences to the international public within the framework of strategic communication, monitoring and evaluating the propaganda activities about Türkiye, conducting research and preparing reports in cooperation with public institutions and organizations, universities and non-governmental organizations working in the field of public diplomacy, and carrying out and coordinating the

necessary activities to strengthen the Turkish brand and increase its recognition abroad (Presidential decree on the Directorate, 2018).

There are other state institutions acting on behalf of Turkish public diplomacy. These include Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Turkish Cooperation and Coordination Agency (TIKA), Presidency for Turks Abroad and Related Communities (YTB), Yunus Emre Institutes, AFAD (The Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency), KIZILAY (The Turkish Red Crescent), Anadolu Agency, and TRT (Efendioglu, 2021, p.57). In addition to state institutions, a number of non-state actors from civil society and commercial institutions have become more visible in recent decades.

Regarding research and assessment in Turkish PD, numerous publications and projects exist. First, the DPD created a monitoring programme in order to track public diplomacy efforts. It is intended that public institutions in Türkiye, such as universities, institutes, and ministries, will update this programme to reflect their international activity. According to this initiative, every action that a government institution participates in or conducts will be uploaded to the system (Anadolu Agency, 2021). Therefore, it serves as a reporting and monitoring platform for the Turkish PD ecosystem. Thus, there exist several classifications that need to be entered when adding an activity to the programme. There is a table below displaying three major subcategories. In addition, individuals/institutions who enter programme reports are required to offer an explanation of the project's impact on the area of public diplomacy, a description of the project, and the project's output (Gazi University, 2021).

Public Diplomacy Monitoring System	
Target Groups	general public opinion, youth, university students, foreign policy elites, women, faith groups, culture and art networks, sports networks, tourism, media folks, civil society organizations, parliamentarians, academy, think tanks, decision-makers
Types of Activities	printed publishing, press briefing, press tour, scholarship program, workshops, panels, conversations, reception, training programs, exchange programs, visual content, work visits and meetings, humanitarian aid and development assistance, lobbying activities, conference, symposium, forum, film screening, documentary screening, sports competitions, concert and musical gathering, establishing a centre or an institute, international fairs such as expo, organizing contests
Diplomacy types	cultural, tourism, parliamentary, gastro diplomacy, faith, sports, digital, health, international broadcasting, energy, climate and environment, food and agriculture, humanitarian, defence, education, diaspora, economic and commercial, nation branding

Source: Gazi University, 2021

Annually, the Communications Directorate provides a performance report containing metrics, data sources, and analytical methods. Therefore, it can be regarded as one of the most important publications for understanding the Turkish PD review processes. The final report published in 2020 contained twenty-five performance metrics. Since the institution is also responsible for domestic public affairs, not all of these metrics pertain to public diplomacy. In the table below, four examples

of indicators for measuring PD activities are provided. The fact that a measurement system is based on "outputs" is a crucial aspect. There is no single performance metric that focuses on opinion change, therefore public opinion change. The majority of the measurement procedure consists of calculating the sum of data collected through internal reporting.

Measurement examples from the Performance Program			
Performance indicator	Explanation about the indicator	Calculation method	Source of data
Number of forums, conferences, workshops, panels organized in the field of Public Diplomacy	Forums, conferences, workshops and panels are held in order to inform and enlighten the foreign public with large participation organizations open to the public.	The indicator value expresses the number of activities carried out by our Agency.	In-house reporting
Exchange programs implemented for communication students and members of the media and the number of trainings organized for them	It wants to measure the frequency and intensity of training in the fields of communication and media for the students and media members, who are the target audience of the indicator.	The number of training provided is decisive for its value.	In-house reporting
The number of social media posts within the scope of informing the public correctly on international platforms	Number of posts on Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, Youtube and LinkedIn social media platforms	The total number of posts made from the Social Media accounts of the Directorate of Communications during the year.	Turkish, English, Russian social media accounts of the DoC
The number of bulletins in which the news in the international press are compiled	By reviewing news sources, special bulletins are prepared on "issues related to Türkiye", "issues of interest to Türkiye" and "international important issues" on every day. It provides the convenience of accessing the most important and resounding international news about Türkiye on a daily basis from a single source, and ensures being informed about the daily international media.	The number of bulletins compiled from the news entered into the State Information System	State Information System

Source: Directorate of Communication, 2020

8. EU External Action

As an intergovernmental organization, EU also deals with public diplomacy activities. During the first several decades of its existence, some believe that the European Union (EU) was primarily inward-focused and had limited connection with the rest of the world. Thus, in the EU context, public diplomacy has been primarily associated with intra-EU public relations (Duke, 2013, p.2-3). Furthermore, a narrative emphasising engagement with neighbours first, and then with key economic and political partners around the world, has been established (Rasmussen, 2009, p.270; Huijgh E., 2013, p.3).

Signed in December 2007 and entering into force in December 2009, the Lisbon Treaty altered the course of EU public diplomacy. The Lisbon Treaty-mandated reforms have accelerated not

only institutional reorganisation, but also revision of the EU communication policy's content. During this time, the term "public diplomacy" first appears in official Union documents (Benyuk & Beniuc, 2019, p.196). Furthermore, numerous developments occurred in the post-Lisbon period. Within the EEAS, for example, a Strategic Communications Division was established. The Division was later divided into two sections: Communication Policy and Public Diplomacy. Material resources were created. A handbook on information and communication was presented for use by EU officials in third countries and international organisations. Finally, the publication of the EU Global Strategy in 2016 was also a crucial factor that bolstered the standing of EU public diplomacy and considerably enhanced its field operations (Stasinakis, 2021, p.66). Furthermore, the foundations of today's EU public diplomacy strategy go back to October 2016 when the EU Foreign Ministers determined that PD should be one of the strategic priorities for achieving the EU Global Strategy (Council Conclusions, October 2016). Moreover, the implementation of the EU Global Strategy constitutes a considerable progress in terms of creating the EU's worldwide identity and its aims. Therefore, it has assumed a far more prominent position which results with acknowledging it as a critical instrument for encouraging more effective cooperation with partner nations. (Baumler 2019, p.8).

In the public diplomacy architecture of the EU External Action, there is the Division of Strategic Communication and Foresight which includes Communication Policy and Public Diplomacy Department (EU Report Volume I, 2021, p.10). It conducts, monitors, and coordinates activities in three levels; local, regional, and global with the aim to build trust and understanding in non-EU countries (p.11). EU Alumni Networking, Jean Monnet Scholarship, Erasmus Plus, and participation in the World Expo are examples of its global activities. Regional Initiatives refer to EU's operations with a regional dimension, such as in the Mediterranean Basin, Eastern Europe, and Africa (EEAS website). Its examples include the EU-African Union Youth Hub, which focuses on Africa-Europe partnership, the Young Mediterranean Voices, which aims to increase intercultural dialogue in Southern Europe, and the Young European Ambassadors, which aims to foster awareness of EU's cooperation with its Eastern partner countries. Lastly, local initiatives refer to EU Delegation visits to a country in conjunction with programmes like training for journalists and diplomats, cultural festivals and exchanges, think tank twinning's, and education fairs.

EU PD activities can be classified according to activity types, subjects, and target audiences. First, EU employs interpersonal activities, networking events, outreach activities, and activities that empower cultural operators and encourage collaborative endeavours. Secondly, key interests include financial and commercial issues, governance and culture, the environment and climate, sources of power, scientific and social investigation, and technological development. The most significant audiences include businesses, governments, decision makers, the media, civic society, academic institutions, think tanks, youth, and the general public.

In order to build programmes that are more engaging for local audiences, partners, and stakeholders, the EU conducts periodic opinion polls in foreign countries to determine how the EU and its policies are seen there (EU Public Diplomacy Website). In 2022, a report titled "Update of the Study: Analysis of the Perception of the EU and EU Policies Abroad" was produced in basis of this understanding. It is a comprehensive study on research done in 13 non-EU nations, including the United States, Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Nigeria, and South Africa (EU Report Volume II, 2021, p.10). The research is done by independent organisations, such as PPMI in research in Brazil.

The research employs several data collection methods, such as surveys, monitoring traditional media, monitoring social media, interviews, and focus groups. Initially, the PPMI conducted an internet poll for public opinion research in Brazil. The sampling design for the survey was based on age, gender, and region (EU Report Volume II, p.8). They generate respondent profiles using datasets from the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics. The second objective of the study was to identify broad media trends. In this regard, the PPMI quantitatively tracked five popular Brazilian newspapers: "O Globo; Folha de So Paulo; O Estado de So Paulo; Correio Brazilienses; Zero Hora and one business newspaper Valor Economico" over a period of time. In the qualitative section, on the other hand, country specialists examined the EU's portrait using content, cognitive, and critical discourse analyses. Thirdly, the research group PPMI gathered social media data using Mediatoolkit, an automated social media monitoring tool. Twitter, Facebook, and Instagram postings were collected by searching for EU-related terms such as "EU", "European Parliament", and "EU Council" Additionally, they track the one-word format of keywords such as "eupresidency," "europeancouncil," and "europeancentralbank" (EU Report Volume II, p.8)

The study includes interviews with local opinion leaders and decision-makers, as well as a focus group study. Its goal is to thoroughly describe how Brazilians view Europe and the EU and to make connections between those explanations and the findings of public opinion surveys, traditional media analyses, and social media analyses. 8 BA students majoring in diverse disciplines, such as international relations and media studies, participate in a focus group study. Six of them have had personal encounters with Europe or European countries. In addition, the interviewed group consists of media specialists, academics, government officials, and members of civil society. According to the report, interviews were semi-structured and according to the Chatham House Rule (EU Report Volume II, 2022, p.11).

The study measures and evaluates visibility, actorness, local resonance, and norm-setting using indicators. For example, they assess how individuals view the EU's role in global economic matters. They compare this impression of influence to other international actors such as China, the United States, and the International Monetary Fund ((EU Report Volume II, p.11).. Moreover, the most important aspect of this study is that it enables EU to see change in perceptions in 6-year period

of 2015 Study and 2021 Study. Specifically, the 2021 Study demonstrates that EU is more visible and favourably perceived in Brazil compared to earlier research (p.12). In 2021, the Brazilian public believes the EU to be more modern, efficient, peaceful, unified, and powerful than in 2015, as well as less arrogant, aggressive, and hypocritical (p.13). In addition, the section on country reports contains particular recommendations for EU public diplomacy in that country. It describes the short-, medium-, and long-term development priorities of the European Union. In addition, they deliver these suggestions to the target audiences and possible partners for each priority issue.

9. Use of data analytics for political purposes: Cambridge

Analytica Case

When the news after the 2016 US Presidential elections raised public suspicions about several campaigns conducted in these elections, more detailed information about them extending from the network of these relationships to the techniques used, from the targeted audiences to the data sources, became more transparent. As of May 2017, allegations of "invisible processing" of personal data and micro targeting of political ads during the Brexit Referendum led to the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO) announcing that it had launched a formal investigation into the use of data analytics for political purposes (ICO, 2020, p.1). Social media platforms, data brokers, analytics firms, academic institutions, political parties, and campaign organisations were all included in what became the largest investigation of its kind ever performed by the Data Protection Authority (ICO, 2018, p.6). The investigation involved interviewing over thirty independent firms. Among those participating were social media giants like Facebook and data analytics organisations like Cambridge Analytica and AggregateIQ (AIQ).

The primary goals of this inquiry are to gain an understanding of the following: the nature of the relationship between social media platforms, political parties and campaigns, and data brokers; the legal basis on which they process personal data for political purposes; the types and sources of datasets used to support profiling and personality analysis; the extent to which individuals' profiles are used; and the methods by which individuals are informed about the use of their profiles. Specifically, the ICO aims to investigate the connection between Cambridge Analytica, SCL Elections Limited, and Aggregate IQ (ICO, 2018, p.6).

Cambridge Analytica, Global Science Research (GSR) and harvesting Facebook Data

Data gathering is a critical element of the process of data usage. Dr. Aleksandr Kogan created the "thisisyourdigitallife" app to harvest the data of millions of Facebook users, according to the investigation (ICO Report, 2018, p.16). This dataset was then made available to SCL Elections Ltd, also known as Cambridge Analytica (CA), in order to target voters during the 2016 US Presidential

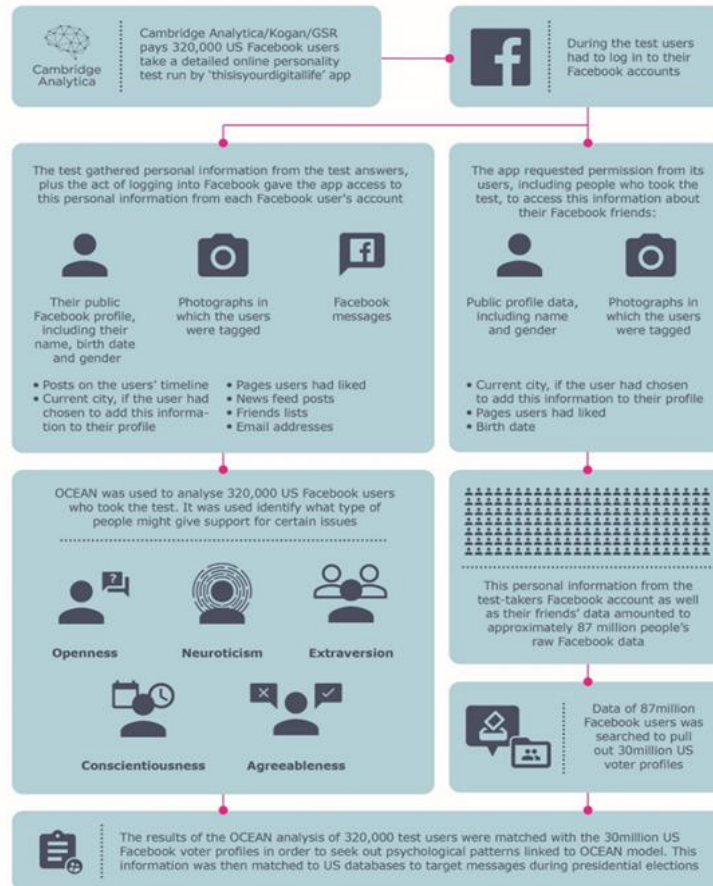
campaign. In addition, Dr. Kogan's tight ties with Facebook were through a psychology centre in Cambridge, which led to the creation of a personal profile dataset.

For a decade, from 2005 to 2013, researchers at Cambridge University's Psychometrics Center² developed and improved diverse types of psychological examinations. This team of researchers has created a mobile application named "My Personality" that is based on the OCEAN model from the 1980s. Coordination between the university and the lab was continuous. In his evidence before several legislative bodies, Dr. Kogan revealed that he was used to obtaining and working with Facebook's aggregated datasets (ICO Report, 2018, p.18). Academics at the institute were among the first to exploit Facebook data for psychometric assessment by creating the OCEAN-based online 'My Personality' test (Kanakia et al., 2019, p.2). Using the test takers' responses, they were able to compute OCEAN scores, which they then used to create personality profiles by correlating with other online data such as the participants' likes, shares, and posts on Facebook.

At the company he co-founded, the GSR, Dr. Kogan created a mobile application. In short, the app's personality test invited roughly 320,000 Facebook users to log in and complete a comprehensive personality assessment. In addition to data acquired from the personality test itself, as written in the investigation report, the app also requested permission to access some data from the user's Facebook account via Facebook Login (p.17). The structure of harvesting data can be seen on the visual below:

² See also: The Psychometrics Centre at Cambridge website. <https://www.psychometrics.cam.ac.uk/about-us>

Data harvesting of the Facebook data



Source: (ICO Report, 2018, p.17)

So, the app was able to get the user's public Facebook profile with their name and gender, birthday, city, photos with tags, pages they liked, posts on their timeline, friend lists, e-mail addresses, and Facebook messages, depending on how they set their Facebook privacy settings (p.16). The app also asked app users for permission to access the following types of information about their Facebook friends: public profile information, birthday, city where they live, photos with tags, and pages they liked.

According to Facebook's calculations, there are roughly 87 million app users and Facebook friends who have access to information via the app (Guardian, 2019). To investigate these correlations and make predictions about human nature, personality test results were linked with Facebook data from roughly 30 million users. As a result of GSR's data sharing with SCL Elections Ltd., individuals in major marginalised states are supposedly targeted with personalized adverts during the presidential election process by combining this information with data from other sources, such as voter data collected by SCL (House of Commons, 2019).

Users of the app seemed accepted the terms and conditions that grant the app access to their Facebook information and that of their Facebook friends. However, Parliament inquiry findings indicate that friends' data were gathered without their explicit agreement (House of Commons, 2018). For instance, it was unclear how and why the data could be shared with a third party. This, as well as the quantity and variety of the data obtained, was against Facebook's platform policy at the time. Further to that, despite Facebook's announcement in April 2014, the app continued to operate on the network until at least December 2015, although with restricted access to friends' data (ICO Report, 2018, p.21). At the time of inquiry, Facebook's policies permitted third-party apps to collect data about users who installed the app. While the GSR app was active, Facebook's default settings permitted the programme to also gather data about the user's friends, unless those friends had altered their privacy settings to prevent this from happening. However, there were restrictions on how this information could be utilised, so it shouldn't be used for anything other than improving the user experience (ICO Report, 2018).

Furthermore, Cambridge Analytica tells more about how to manage data. They must be using different segmentations such as race, ethnicity, gender, age, geography, political tendency to categorize personal profiles they created. As Alexandre Nix (2016) presented, the CA used OCEAN method to profile users. OCEAN stands for degree of Openness, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism of the user. As Kanakia et al. illustrates the firm's segmentation, people living near borders are more likely to be concerned with immigration (p.2). So that, these profiles are figured in anti-immigration group of profiles. Furthermore, they employ machine learning when profiling users into political affiliations and categories (p.2). Cambridge Analytica ultimately employs sophisticated information it obtains to influence elections. In this regard, they deploy a micro targeting strategy that refers to two dimensions: geography and individual. To achieve a more significant impact in elections, they concentrated on specific micro-areas (p.2). As an illustration, they select to operate in areas where election results are predicted to close margins. Second, they deploy tailored adverts by generating relevant content and employing social media marketing algorithms.

10. Conclusion

This paper was set to examine to what extent data analytics and big data can transform research and evaluation practice in public diplomacy institutions. By having look at the American, Turkish, and European practices, it was tried to understand a level differences in PD evaluation efforts in terms of human resources, tools and methods. I have to admit that the impact of evolving information and communication technologies on public diplomacy is significant. Mainly, the current society we live in is known as Information Society since human became generator, transmitter, and receiver of information. Its consequences such as changing perception of 'truth' and 'reality' requires states and governments to be careful on what to say and what to act. As a consequence, we experience

increasing interdependence in which the world transforms into a global village. In terms of economic terms and free market understanding, governments tend to seem ‘a good country’ to attract tourist and investments and to boost country’s brand value. As a consequence, two-way communication drives businesses and public service. Most of institutions feel intensely to adapt digital technologies to get better understanding of activities, to modify practices to be efficient and to create more value. Therefore, public diplomacy, as composition of efforts to engage with foreign publics to ease implementation of foreign policy objectives, is a potential sphere to employ current data technology.

Nonetheless, it is vital to analyse how firms utilise data technology. The efficiency of a tool is determined not by the instrument itself, but by the context in which it is used and how it is optimised. If a company intends to analyse its past activities and projects with univariate numerical metrics, there is no need for complex data systems. On the other hand, data analytics together with big data enable modern PD institutions to measure impact, even long-term public opinion change, based on a combination of data collected from many platforms at various times. In other words, using sophisticated and multivariate measurement value is vital to analyse the data collected by multiple ways, such as corporate reporting, data exchange, and publicly available web datasets. Accordingly, the appropriate metric together with relevant data are what contribute to the value of an evaluation. In other words, quality of measure and evaluation is related to metrics such as ‘outreach, engagement, satisfaction, perception, knowledge, skills acquisition, post-program engagement, employment and economics’ in which today’s technology diminishes barriers in terms of data resources (ACPD Report, 2018, p.12).

Therefore, the impact of big data and data analytics is changing understanding and capability of focusing outcomes of public diplomacy activities. There are notable emerging practices of employing ‘evaluation frameworks that aggregate performance data, track progress over time, and model conceptual approaches to engagement’ (ACPD Report, 2018, p.12). So that, institutions become able to build two-way interaction between research and evaluation and initiatives taken through informed decision-making.

Additional learning from this research, the US is still leading country in public diplomacy in terms of developed data usage. America is one of the countries able to successfully build a common data system and share information amongst agencies when conducting research and evaluations with multiple institutions. As is evident from the remarks of those who attended ACPD meetings from the field, there is a framework that adapts the data not only to the central agency, but also to the missions.

EU maintains to receive research and evaluation service from external organizations. They conduct once a 5-year study to observe change in perception in public opinion regarding EU as a political ecosystem, and European as collective identity.

Regarding Türkiye's public diplomacy activities, one could claim that research and assessment appear to present opportunities for progress. As organisational capacity increases, adaptive nature of Turkish PD might also apply to data usage as well as new research understanding such as combining outputs and outcomes and short term and long terms effect.

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